PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS' LIFE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT:
THE CASE FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS DEVELOPMENT IN UGANDA

BY

–John Kissiibo Wilson Bwayo, CCert. Primary Teacher Education (MAK), DIP.ED Teacher Education (ITEK), Bed (MAK), MED (MAK)

Supervisors: Prof. Claire W. Lyons and Dr. Linda M.Clarke

Submitted in accordance with the academic requirements for the Degree of PhD in Education, Mary Immaculate College Limerick, June, 2014.

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation represents my own work and has not been submitted, in whole or in part, by me or another person, for the purpose of obtaining any other credit / grade.

Signed: _____

Date: 23rd August, 2014.

Abstract.

Life skills education was introduced as part of the thematic curriculum in Uganda between 2007 and 2012. An infusion approach to life skills is taken within that curriculum, whereby life skills are to be taught through the existing curricular subjects. The life skills emphasized in the curriculum are psychosocial. The purpose of this study was to explore how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. It investigated teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions, competencies and attitudes towards life skills education. The study further explored children's experiences of life skills and life skills education. It also identified the challenges in the development of pupils' life skills in primary schools in Uganda. A purposive sample of Primary 2 and Primary 5 classrooms from twelve schools across Uganda was selected. Interviews were conducted with school head teachers, primary school teachers who were trained to teach life skills in the primary school and were teaching the classes used in the study, primary school children, parents and guardians and Co-ordinating Centre Tutors who were the tutors on site in pilot schools' catchment areas and were the organisers and trainers of life skills in primary schools and were also the monitors of the life skills implementation in the primary schools, and district education officials. Classroom observations were conducted and teachers completed a questionnaire which asked to them to identify the methods they used to teach life skills and the indicators of life skills they witnessed. The results of the study indicate that all stakeholders value life skills although the definition of life skills is not clear amongst parents and teachers. Parents seem to value life skills that are academic and vocational. There was evidence of life skills amongst children from children's own accounts, the researcher's observations and the testimony of parents and children. In some cases, the life skills as articulated in the curriculum clash with the cultural values of communities. There was no clear relationship between the methods used for life skills education and the life skills witnessed. The implications of this study include the need for further in-service education for teachers on life skills development, greater clarity on life skills content in lessons and facilitation of a shared understanding of life skills between teachers and parents.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My sincere and heartfelt thanks go to my supervisors, Professor Claire W. Lyons and Dr. Linda M. Clark whose priceless support, technical and professional advice helped me through this journey. In particular, my deepest gratitude goes to Professor Claire Lyons whose commitment, professional guidance, generosity of spirit, and patience helped me to accomplish this process of becoming a researcher.

To Kyambogo University for nominating me for this study and, in particular to Irish Aid whose generosity in availing me funds performed the magic of my study in Mary Immaculate College, University of Limerick Ireland.

To the staff of Kyambogo University who provided moral support and encouragement, thank you for being good and true friends. To my research assistants who sacrificed your time when I needed you at different times of the study, sincerely thank you very much. To my research participants (teachers, pupils, head teachers, Coordinating Centre Tutors, parents and education officials at the districts) without whose generosity in availing information from your experiences, availability for the study and wisdom, the completion of this study would have been impossible. In particular my sincere thanks go to the parents who participated in the study but also consented and enabled me to include your children in this study. To the head teachers who gave me permission to use your schools in this study.

To my late mother, Susan Mukoya, whose vision, sacrifice, selflessness, love, commitment, patience, name it, enabled me from a deep rural setting of Uganda, to be counted among the educated. **MAY YOUR SOUL REST IN ETERNAL PEACE**
In a special way, I want to thank my dear and loving wife Deborah Bwayo whose support, affection, patience and comfort saw me to this level.

I wish to thank, most sincerely my family, my dear wife **again**, Deborah, my children Emmanuel Kusasira, John Mwesigwa Bwayo, Susan Kisakye, Swizin Kwagala and Deborah Kutesa whose love, affection, patience, support, empathy, advice, and name it, created and sustained a conducive learning environment around me during this study.

I dedicate this work to my late mother Susan Mukoya who was fully convinced that my future was in being educated.

Table of Contents

Abstract. iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT iv
Table of Tables and Figures xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY 1
1.1: Introduction: Life skills education in Uganda 1
1.2: Background to the study 3
1.2.1: The place of life skills education in international development 3
1.2.2: Life skills education in Uganda 4
1.2.3: The primary school curriculum and life skills education development in Uganda 9
1.2.4: Background to the thematic curriculum and life skills covered in the primary school 12
1.3: Purpose of the Study 16
1.4: Objectives of the study 16
1.5: Research questions 17
1.6 Outline of remaining chapters 17
1.7: Chapter conclusion 18
CHAPTER TWO: LIFE SKILLS EDUCATION 19
2.1 Introduction 19
2.2: Life skills and life skills education. 19
2.2.1 Life skills 19
2.2.2 Behaviour change 25
Mark Lund, the Chief Executive, of COI observed that: 25
2.2.3: Life skills education 27
2.2.4: Teaching life skills 31
2.3: Principles of life skills education 36
2.3.1: Introduction 36
2.3.2 Some principles of children's learning 36
2.4: Importance of life skills education 41
2.4.1 Life skills and healthy living 41
2.5: Potential pitfalls in the implementation of life skills education 45
2.5.1 Limitation of the infusion method and lack of participatory methods 45
2.5.2 Unfavourable socio-cultural environments 46
2.5.3: Failure of teachers to be role models 49
2.5.4: Using praise when communicating and giving feedback to children 49
2.5.5: Large class numbers 50

2.5.6: Some life skills content areas are sensitive 50
2.6: The role of teaching methods and teachers in children's life skills development 51
2.7: The role of parents and other stake holders in their children's life skills education 57
2.8: Life skills for knowing and living with oneself 59
2.8.1: Introduction 59
2.8.2: Self-esteem 60
2.8.3 Self-awareness 64
2.8.4: Assertiveness 66
2.9: Chapter conclusion 67
CHAPTER THREE: LIFE SKILLS FOR KNOWING AND LIVING WITH OTHERS 69
3.1 Introduction 69
3.2 Friendship formation 69
3.3 Empathy 72
3.3.1 Introduction 72
3.3.2 Empathy as a life skill in the context of morality 73
3.3.3 Affective and cognitive empathy 74
3.4: Life skills for decision-making 78
3.4.1: Introduction 78
3.4.2 Critical thinking 79
3.4.3 Creative thinking 80
3.4.4: Problem-solving 81
3.5 Chapter conclusion 82
CHAPTER FOUR: QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE INVESTIGATIONS 83
4.1: Introduction - research design and methodology 83
4.2: Research aims 83
4.3: Research methodologies 84
4.3.1: Research paradigms within social science 84
4.3.2: Quantitative research 86
4.3.3: Qualitative research 87
4.3.4: Integrating qualitative research with quantitative research 92
4.3.5: Rigour and relevance in this study 93
4.4: Research design, procedure and data collection instruments 99
4.4.1: Introduction 99
4.4.2: Ethical considerations 100
4.4.3: The research sample 105

4.4.4: Data collection procedure - interviews 107
4.4.5: Data collection procedure - Observation of lessons in primary two and five 122
4.4.6: Questionnaire 126
4.5 Chapter conclusion 127
CHAPTER FIVE: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS 128
5.1: Introduction 128
5.2: Data analysis process 128
5.2: Data analysis 131
5.3: Development of themes 131
5.4: Understanding of life skills 139
5.4.1: Life Skills as defined in the curriculum 139
5.4.2 Life skills defined in terms of academic context 141
5.4.3 Informal understandings of life skills (culture, tradition and values) 145
5.5: Value of the formal life skills curriculum 150
5.5.1: Life skills give children security skills 150
5.5.2: Life skills enable pupils to acquire and benefit from friends 151
5.6: Evidence of how life skills education has influenced pupils' lives 155
5.7: Influences on children's life skills development 165
5.7.1: School influences on children's life skills development 166
5.7.2: Home influences 177
5.7.3: Home and school influences 180
5.7.4: Influences from broader culture and laws on pupils' life skills development 185
5.8: Summary 191
5.9: Conclusion 194
CHAPTER SIX: RESULTS OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS AND TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES 196
6.1: Introduction 196
6.2: Presentation of data from observation of Primary 2 and Primary 5 lessons ... 197
6.2.1: Strategies used to facilitate development of the life skills indicated in the lesson plans 197
6.2.3 Teaching skills that promoted life skills during teaching 200
6.2.4: Evidence of children's life skills as put forward in the primary school curriculum 206
6.2.5: Interaction between teacher and children and between children that facilitated life skills' development 208
6.2.6: Summary 211

6.3: Presentation of data from questionnaires to teachers.....211
6.3.1: Introduction.....211
6.3.1 Assertiveness.....212
6.3.2: Self-esteem.....214
6.3.3: Self-awareness.....217
6.3.4: Friendship.....219
6.3.5: Empathy.....222
6.3.6: Negotiation.....224
6.3.7: Decision-making.....226
6.3.8: Critical thinking.....227
6.3.9: Creative thinking.....229
6.3.10: Problem-solving.....231
6.4 Summary of results.....233
6.5: Conclusion.....237
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS.....239
7.1: Introduction.....239
7.2: Perceptions of life skills (or) understanding of life skills.....239
7.2.1: Introduction.....239
7.2.2: Teachers' perceptions or understandings of the life skills curriculum.....240
7.2.3: Parents' perceptions and understandings of life skills.....244
7.2.4: General stake holders' perception of life skills.....245
7.3: Value of life skills.....247
7.3.1: Introduction.....247
7.3.2: Value of the formal life skills curriculum.....247
7.3.3: Life skills enhance pupils' assertiveness and social relationships.....248
7.3.4: Life skills facilitate informed decision-making.....253
7.4: Influences on pupils life skills development.....254
7.4.1: Introduction.....254
7.4.2: Home influences.....254
7.4.3: School Influences.....259
7.4.4: Integrated home and school Influences.....267
7.4.5: Broader cultural influences on children's life skills development.....269
7.4.6: Children's laws and rights influences.....271
7.4.7: Media influences on pupils life skills development.....273
7.5: Association between methods and indicators of life skills.....275
7.5.1: Assertiveness.....276
7.5.2: Friendship.....277

7.5.3: Empathy 277
7.5.4: Self-awareness 279
7.5.5: Self-esteem 281
7.5.6: Negotiation 282
7.5.7: Decision-making 284
7.5.8: Critical thinking 284
7.5.9: Creative thinking 285
7.5.10: Problem-solving 286
7.6: Life skills education challenges in primary schools 287
7.6.1: Introduction 287
7.6.2: Training 287
7.6.3: Modelling of life skills 288
7.6.4: Large classes 289
7.7: Limitations of the study 290
7.8: Conclusion 291
CHAPTER 8: RECOMMENDATIONS 294
8.1: Introduction 294
8.2: Recommendations 294
8.2.1: The child 295
8.2.2: Teachers 296
8.2.3: Parents 297
8.2.4: Head teachers and other education managers 297
8.2.5: Children's rights and laws 298
8.2.6: Media 298
8.2.7: Teacher pupil ratio 298
8.3: Implications for future research 298
8.4: Conclusion 300
BIBLIOGRAPHY 301
APPENDICES 359
Appendix 1: LIFE SKILLS AND LIFE SKILLS INDICATORS 360
Appendix 2: INFORMATION SHEETS AND CONSENT FORMS 362
2.1: Participant information sheet (Adult) 362
2.3: Participant informed consent form (adult) 365
2.4: Participant informed consent form (children) 366
Appendix 3: INSTRUMENTS 367
3.1: Interview guide for district education officials 367
3.2: Interview guide for coordinating centre tutors 367

3.3: Interview guide for primary school head teachers.....367
3.4: Interview guide for parents.....367
3.5: Interview guide for teachers 368
3.6: Interview guide for pupils.....368
3.7: Questionnaire to teachers.....369
3.8: Observation instrument or guide for live lessons 374
Appendix 4: LETTER TO GAIN ACCESS TO SCHOOLS.....376
4.1: Letter seeking permission from the head teacher 376
Appendix 5: DATA ANALYSIS CHAPTER FIVE.....377
5.1: Initial codes.....377
5.2: Initial themes and codes (draft) 379
Appendix 6: CHAPTER 6 APPENDICES 380
6.1: Lesson plan details for each of the 24 lessons observed.....380
6.2: Tables of cross-tabulations and chi-squares of methods used to teach life skills and the indicators of those life skills witnessed by teachers.....384

Table of Tables and Figures

Table 1.1: Showing life skills initiatives in Uganda 6
Table 1.2: The structure of the primary school curriculum in Uganda 10
Table 1.3: Showing themes and sub themes for primary two term one 11
Table 2.1: Differences between traditional education and the life skills-based education approach 36
Table 4.1: Details of respondents per category 107
Table 5.1: Categories of respondents, their numbers and assigned codes for focus group discussions 128
Table 5.2: Categories of respondents, their numbers and assigned codes for Interviews 129
Table 5.3: Initial and higher order themes 134
Figure 5.1: Initial Thematic Map 135
Figure 5.2: Second Thematic Map 136
Figure 5.3: Final Thematic Map 137
Table 5.4: Initial and final themes with codes 138
Table 6.2.1: Frequency and percentage of each method listed in lesson plans 199
Table 6.3.1.1 Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' assertiveness 213
Table 6.3.1.2: Indicators of assertiveness as indicated by the teacher respondents 214
Table 6.3.2.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote self-esteem 215
Table 6.3.2.2: Indicators of Self-esteem as indicated by the teacher respondents 216
Table 6.3.3.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote Self-awareness 217
Table 6.3.3.2: Indicators of self-awareness as indicated by the teacher respondents 218
Table 6.3.4.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to facilitate pupils' friendship formation 220
Table 6.3.4.2: Indicators of friendship as indicated by the teacher respondents 221
Table 6.3.5.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' empathy 222
Table 6.3.5.2: Indicators of empathy as indicated by the teacher respondents 223
Table 6.3.6.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' negotiation skills 224
Table 6.3.6.2: Indicators of negotiation as indicated by the teacher respondents 225
Table 6.3.7.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' decision-making 226

Table 6.3.7.2: Indicators of Decision-making as indicated by the teacher respondents 227

Table 6.3.8.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' critical thinking 228

Table 6.3.8.2: Indicators of critical thinking as indicated by the teacher respondents 228

Table 6.3.9.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' creative thinking 230

Table 6.3.9.2: showing indicators of creative thinking as indicated by the teacher respondents 230

Table 6.3.10.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' problem-solving 231

Table 6.3.10.2: showing indicators of problem-solving as indicated by the teacher respondents 232

Table 6.3.1.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate assertiveness and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....385

Table 6.3.1.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate assertiveness and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill 386

Table 6.3.2.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-esteem and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....387

Table 6.3.2.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-esteem and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....388

Table 6.3.3.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-awareness and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill 389

Table 6.3.3.4.: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-awareness and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....390

Table 6.3.4.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate friendship and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....391

Table 6.3.4.4: Chi-square test of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate friendship and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill 392

Table 6.3.5.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate empathy and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....393

Table 6.3.5.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate empathy and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill 394

Table 6.3.6.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate negotiation and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....395

Table 6.3.6.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate negotiation and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....396

Table 6.3.7.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate decision-making and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of the skill 397

Table 6.3.7.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate decision-making and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....398

Table 6.3.8.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate critical thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....399

Table 6.3.8.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate critical thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....400

Table 6.3.9.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate creative thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....401

Table 6.3.9.3: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate creative thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill 402

Table 6.3.10.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate problem-solving and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill 403

Table 6.3.10.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate problem-solving and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill.....404

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1: Introduction: Life skills education in Uganda

> Schools are constructed, administered and shaped by adults for children. As social institutions they play a central role in the construction of children's perception of themselves, of the social world and of their place within it.
> (Devine, 2003, p.1)

This thesis focuses on life skills development in Uganda's primary school children. In Uganda's life skills education programme, life skills are categorized into the life skills for knowing and living with oneself (children's perception of themselves), knowing and living with others (children's perception of the social world), and life skills for decision-making (children taking positions on what to do, how to do it, and why, what not to do and why, as they learn how to live in this world) (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, pp 6-9). This categorisation appropriately reflects Devine's (2003) assertion of the role of the school. Education in schools should help children understand themselves better in terms of self-perception, self-awareness, self-actualisation and self-worth. This knowledge of self should not isolate the child because no one is an island. This means that the school has to endow children with social skills that can enhance favourable and positive interpersonal relationships. As children reflect on who they are and socialise, they are faced with challenges. The school should enable these children to make informed decisions and therefore take on options which have been rationally thought out. The conception of life skills in the Uganda curriculum also aligns with the definition of psychosocial competence provided by the World Health Organisation (1997, p. 1), namely, "a person's ability to maintain a state of mental well-being and to demonstrate this in adaptive and positive behaviour while interacting with others, his/her culture and environment".

According to UNESCO, (2008) life skills are both concrete and abstract. The concrete skills can be learned directly as a subject. For example, a learner can take a course in laying bricks, carpentry or baking and learn that skill. The others are abstract, psychosocial life skills such as self-confidence, self-esteem and skills for relating to others or thinking critically (ibid). UNICEF has expanded the concept and defines life skills as a large group of psychosocial and interpersonal skills, which can help young

people, make informed decisions, communicate effectively, and develop coping and self-management skills (Maclang-Vicencio: World Scientific Conference p. 3). This concept of life skills as psychosocial skills will be explained further in chapter two.

The life skills manual for the life skills programme in Uganda also explains and categorises life skills into psychosocial and abstract skills but finally clarifies the focus of the programme as below:

The life skills have been defined in many ways:

- Livelihood or vocational skills
- Practical health related skills (for example, use of oral rehydration salts [ORS], or boiling water before drinking)
- Physical skills
- Skills related to behaviour and interaction

The first three are knowledge based, whereas the last one is directed at what we do with our knowledge and skills. These are the life skills addressed in the life skills initiative.

Adapted from Republic of Uganda/UNICEF: Life Skills for Young Ugandans: Primary Teachers' Training Manual (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, P.6)

UNICEF (2004) further explains that:

> Life skills are not a domain or a subject, but cross cutting applications of knowledge, values, attitudes and skills, which are important in the process of individual development and lifelong learning. They are not just a set of skills, nor are they equal to survival skills, livelihood skills, or vocational skills but part of these skills. (p.4)

Accordingly, the teaching of life skills in Uganda follows an infusion approach where life skills education is integrated in the different subjects. Facilitation of children's life skills' development is therefore supported to take place as the children learn different subjects. This will be discussed in detail under life skills education in chapter two.

This study was designed to explore the implementation of psychosocial life skills education for primary school pupils with special emphasis on primary two, a thematic curriculum class and primary five, the lowest upper primary class. Primary five comes next to primary four which is the transition class from thematic to formal subjects' curriculum (NCDC, 2008, PP. 3-4). The thematic curriculum is based on themes as illustrated in the sample in Table 1.1 in section 1.2.2 and the formal subjects'

curriculum follows the traditional subjects' syllabi; English, Mathematics, Social studies, Integrated Science, Religious Education, Local Language and Creative and Performing Arts (CAPE) 1, 2 and 3. CAPE 1 is Music Dance and Drama, CAPE 2 is Physical Education and CAPE 3 is Art & Technology. This study investigated the role and influence of parents and guardians, teachers, peers, culture, laws and children's rights and media on children's life skills development. It examined parents', teachers' and educators' perceptions of life skills education. The study also documented and established the extent to which the methods used by teachers in the primary schools facilitate development of pupils' life skills. For each life skill, the study further explored the relationship between the methods used to facilitate development of the life skill in question and the indicators of that life skill witnessed by teachers.

As a teacher educator, this study has equipped me with the competencies that will enable me to nurture tutors of primary teachers in the area of children's life skills development. I have further benefited, as a person, to use and model life skills in my day to day living. The Ministry of Education and Sports and Uganda as a nation will access empirical findings on the implementation of the life skills programme. Challenges to the implementation of this programme and recommendations for the future are discussed later in this thesis. In the subsequent sections of this chapter, I am going to cover the background to the study, life skills education in Uganda, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions and chapter conclusion.

1.2: Background to the study

1.2.1: The place of life skills education in international development

Life skills education initiatives followed a series of international efforts to improve the quality of basic education. These initiatives have been recognized by a number of agencies of international development as skills or competencies that can enable children adapt and cope with the challenges of each day. International development agencies have acknowledged the importance of life skills for some time. In 1986, the

Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion recognized life skills in terms of making better health choices. According to this charter:

> Health is created and lived by people within the settings of their everyday life; where they learn, work, play and love. Health is created by caring for oneself and others, by being able to take decisions and have control over one's life circumstances, and by ensuring that the society one lives in creates conditions that allow the attainment of health by all its members.
> (Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion 1986, p.3)

This charter also clearly explains health in the context of the categorisation of life skills for knowing and living with one self, life skills for knowing and living with others and life skills for decision-making. This shows that the perception or understanding of life skills that led to the categorisation of life skills in Uganda as described in the introduction of this chapter is in line with international approaches to life skills. Important to also note here is that in this quote, there is no mention of life skills but they are implied by the categories of caring.

Later, the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) linked life skills to education by stating that education should be directed towards the development of the child's fullest potential (UNICEF, 2011). The 1990 Jomtien Declaration on Education for All (EFA) took this vision further and included life skills among essential learning tools for survival, capacity development and quality of life (UNESCO, 2001). At this conference, the representatives of different countries raised concerns about the relevance of education and particularly raised the need to focus on appropriate life skills for all learners from all parts of the world. The 2000 Dakar World Education Conference also took a position that all young people and adults have the human right to benefit from "an education that includes learning to know, to do, to live together and to be" and included life skills in goals 3 and 6 of the six Education For All (EFA) goals (UNESCO, 2005, p.5). These developments necessitated a response from different nations. Uganda's response is discussed in the next section.

1.2.2: Life skills education in Uganda

The Ugandan life skills Primary Teachers' Training Manual outlines a sequence of activities that finally emanated into the life skills education programme of 1995-2000 (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, pp 2-5). The first life skills' related programme introduced in Ugandan primary education was the 1985-1989 and 1990-1995 School Health Education Project (SHEP). It was a life skills related programme rather than an extensive life skills programme because it just aimed at reducing infant and child morbidity and mortality, and Sexually Transmitted Diseases and HIV infection among youths aged 6-20 years (p.2). That is why "when an impact evaluation into SHEP was carried out, it was found that, while children's knowledge on health issues had increased significantly, there was no corresponding behaviour change. The missing link was identified as the life skills to assist the children translate knowledge into positive health behaviours" (p.2).

More extensive life skills initiatives started with a realisation of the need for life skills in the whole East and Southern Region of Africa (ESAR). This is clearly stated in the life skills manual that, throughout the whole East and Southern Region of Africa (ESAR) there has been growing awareness that:

- The needs and life skills for children and adolescents have been largely neglected in current educational programmes in and out of school.
- Life skills are an essential aspect of confronting the crisis caused by HIV/AIDS pandemic and other social problems facing young people.

(ibid, p2)

In response to this observation, UNICEF/ESAR held a workshop in Entebbe, Uganda in June 1994 with a view of reaching a common understanding of the concept of life skills and how it could be adapted to the African situation. It also looked at how life skills could be integrated into existing programmes. In the same year, 1994, there was another national workshop organised by the Ministry of Education and held in Jinja to discuss life skills further in the context of Uganda. The major outcome of this workshop, documented in the life skills manual, were suggestions for a life skills programme based on the perceived needs and problems of Ugandan youth (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, p2). In the manual, it is further explained that there were other subsequent workshops where it was agreed that it was better to infuse life skills activities into the syllabi in use in schools and colleges rather than develop a separate life skills curriculum. The reasons advanced for the infusion were:

- A lack of space on the time table of existing curricula for a separate life skills programme;
- A concern that, since life skills curriculum would not be examinable, it would not be given the necessary emphasis by the teachers who are accustomed to concentrating on preparing their pupils and students for examinations;
- Life skills cut across the whole school curriculum and can be infused into all subjects taught.

Consequently the infusion approach was adopted beginning with the Health and science syllabus and later into other subjects (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, pp.2-3). It is notable here that the reasons for the permeated model of the life skills education programme in Uganda are more pragmatic than educational.

Some of the key initiatives in the development of life skills in Uganda are summarised in the table below:

Table 1.1: Showing life skills initiatives in Uganda

Key dates	Initiative	Main aim(s)	Comment
1985-1989 & 1990-1995	School Health Education Project (SHEP)	Reducing infant and child morbidity and mortality & Reducing Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and HIV infection among youth aged 6-20 years.	Targeted p.6 and p.7. Impact evaluation found it unsuitable because increased heath knowledge had no corresponding behaviour change.
June 1994	Entebbe workshop	To reach a common understanding of life skills and how it could be adapted to the African situation.	Was held in the same year as the Jinja workshop described next.
1994	Jinja workshop	Discuss life skills further in the Ugandan context	Came up with suggestions for a life skills programme based on the then needs and problems of Ugandan youth.
Late 1994 & early 1995	Un documented workshops	Further discussions	Agreed on infusion beginning with Science and Health Education and later other subjects
1995-2000	Basic Education Child Care and Adolescent Development (BECCAD).	Stressed positive behaviour change with emphasis on women, children, and adolescents. Intended to promote full cognitive and psychosocial developments.	Stressed positive behaviour change with emphasis on women, children, and adolescents. Intended to promote full cognitive and psychosocial developments.
2000 to Date	Life skills education programme	Psychosocial development of primary & secondary school children. Life skills strictly psychosocial	Focus of this study are primary school children

This table was derived from the narration in Life Skills for Young Ugandans, Primary Teachers Manual (1997, p.2-5)

There was also a life skills education curriculum developed for the teachers in the districts of Northern Uganda namely; Gulu, Apac, Amolatar and Pader, to help equip

the primary teachers of these districts with life skills education competencies. An extract from the acknowledgement reads:

> The Ministry of Education and Sports acknowledges … Forum for African Women Educationalists Uganda Chapter (FAWEU), Literacy and Adult Basic Education (LABE), Uganda National Teachers' Union (UNATU) for initiating the idea and coordinating the development of this curriculum and the Handbook; Oxfam NOVIB and Education International for funding the Quality Educators' (QUED) Project under which the curriculum and Handbook were developed; the education and civic leadership of Gulu, Apac, Amolatar and Pader, which were the focus districts for the Project for hosting the Project and for making input into the materials during the development process.
>
> (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2011, acknowledgement)

I participated in developing the initial draft of this curriculum which was still being piloted in Northern Uganda as this study progressed. There is a difference between this curriculum and the life skills programme which is the focus for this study. This curriculum being piloted in the North is a separately developed curriculum document while the life skills programme, which is the focus of the study was initiated earlier and is being implemented now in all the primary schools in Uganda. The life skills programme being explored in this thesis consists of a list of life skills included in the primary school curriculum for each primary school class as reflected in Appendix 1.1 and 1.2. Another difference is that the main target of the curriculum being piloted in Northern Uganda is Ugandan primary teachers while the life skills programme which is the focus for this study targets children and is titled 'Life Skills for Young Ugandans (children)'. This study was conducted on the programme currently being implemented in all primary schools in Uganda now. There is hope that when the curriculum being piloted in the Northern districts of Uganda is found worthy of implementation in all primary schools in Uganda, then measures will be taken to do so accordingly.

It is documented in the life skills manual that the Jinja workshop was followed with a baseline study in 1996 which was conducted to determine the level of life skills of Uganda primary school children (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997). No other details are given about this study other than the children in the primary school were the target and the findings of the baseline survey which were:

- The children had a moderate but insufficient level of life skills.

- Teaching strategies in schools were content and examination driven/ focused and were therefore neither pupil centred nor suitable for life skills transmission.
- When life skills were explained to the teachers, they quickly saw their value and were eager to embark on such an initiative.
- Community representatives, like teachers, welcomed the ideas of initiating life skills education even though they had not known about life skills before.

(p.4)

As seen in Table 1.1, efforts were continuing between 1995 and 2000 to replace the SHEP programme with the Uganda Government/UNICEF Basic Education, Child Care and Adolescent Development (BECCAD) programme. BECCAD'S plan of operations stated that its aim was:

> To promote full cognitive and psychosocial development of children and adolescents within a supportive family and community environment which is conducive to education for all, prevention of HIV/AIDS/STDs, adequate care and protection of children and adults from birth to adulthood.
>
> (ibid, p3)

In response to the findings of the baseline study, BECCAD commissioned a team of writers in 1996 to produce life skills education manuals for primary and secondary school teachers in order to meet the needs of Ugandan children. These were developed and pretested. After the pretesting of the manuals, the teachers who tried out the activities in the manuals made the following comments:

- The content sticks with less strain on the part of both the student and instructor (pre-test participants, Mbale-Uganda).
- The activities contribute to learning because they involve everyone in a relaxed way which leads to greater confidence in learners (Pre-test participants, Kampala-Uganda).
- The activities fit in with the syllabus and enable tutors to cover material more quickly and enjoyably (Pre-test participants in Lira-Uganda).
- The findings of the pre-test also showed 'how life skills, taught in a participatory way, really do address the students' concerns and feelings and they are likely to lead to not only behaviour and attitude change but also improved learning'

(ibid p. 4&5)

Consequently, the psychosocial life skills programme that included the life skills of knowing and living with oneself, the life skills of knowing and living with others and the life skills for making effective decisions was implemented (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, pp. 6-10). The infusion of life skills in the curriculum will be discussed in detail in chapter two under the section on life skills education. The primary school curriculum and life skills education development in Uganda is discussed next.

1.2.3: The primary school curriculum and life skills education development in Uganda

Life skills education has evolved through three different sets of curriculum reforms. The official curriculum in 2000, at the time of the inception of life skills education was a subject based curriculum for all the primary school classes, primary one to primary seven. This was followed by another reform from 2002 to 2007 when the thematic curriculum was first launched in primary one. It should be noted here, that this launch went on progressively up to when primary seven, the final year of primary school, was finally covered in 2012. Subsequently the structure of the primary school has been organized in three cycles namely; Cycle 2 (P1-3): Basic skills, Cycle 2 (P4): The transition year and Cycle 3 (P5-P7): Subject based development (National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC), 2007, pp.7-8). These cycles are described in Table 1.2. This means that, the reform of 2002 was phased in progressively; 2007 primary 1, 2008 primary 2, 2009 primary 3, 2010 primary 4, 2011 primary 5 & 6, 2012 primary 7 (NCDC, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, & 2012). This also means that it took all these years (2007-2012) to complete the third reform which saw the thematic curriculum, the transition curriculum and the upper primary curricula fully implemented. Much as there are three cycles reflected here, in actual practice, the primary school curriculum has now been divided into two main blocks namely; the literacy, numeracy, life skills and values based curriculum (P1-3 - locally called thematic curriculum) and competence based curriculum (P4-P7 - emphasizes language and subject competences) (ibid).

The lower level, primary one to three is the thematic curriculum classes. In these classes, “a thematic approach has been used as the organizing principle for arranging

the competences and knowledge content in P1-3. The themes have been selected as those most likely to be relevant to children, reflecting their everyday interests and activities as well as the national educational aims and objectives" (NCDC, 2007, p.7). Primary four is the transition year which is "single year in which children change from a theme-based to subject-based curriculum and gradually from their local language to English as a language of instruction" (ibid). Primary five to seven is similar to the 2002 curriculum in which the concepts, knowledge and skills are arranged in subjects (p.8). Important to note is that each curriculum was developed with a list of outlined life skills and values. The life skills are the 16 original life skills as outlined in section 1.2.4.2 of this chapter. These are the same listed for each primary school class. Consequently the current structure of the primary school is as below:

Table 1.2: The structure of the primary school curriculum in Uganda

Class	**Type of Curriculum**	**Cycle**	**Level/Block**
Primary one	Thematic	Basic Skills	Literacy, Numeracy, Life skills and Values based
Primary two			
Primary three			
Primary four	Transition	Transition	Competence based-Language and subject competencies
Primary five	Subject based	Subject based development	
Primary six			
Primary seven			

Developed using information from NCDC, Primary 2 curriculum pp7-8

As shown in the above table, the thematic classes are primary one to three. The background of the thematic curriculum will be explained in detail in the next section. The thematic curriculum is a broad field or integrated curriculum. Broad field curriculum "is organized to cut across subject lines and to emphasize relationships between subjects ... usually ... organized into a 3 to 5 fields. For example, fields for technical career learning, professional and personal growth, supporting sciences, etc." (ABC Curriculum Resources, 2014). This study focussed on primary two and five classes. As an example of how the curriculum is organised, Table 1.3 below shows the themes and sub themes for primary two term one. For each sub-theme, the syllabus indicates the subject area's content for Mathematics, Literacy, English (non-

medium), Creative performing arts and Life skills and values. In the syllabus, the life skills for each sub-theme are listed in the section of the syllabus. It is still emphasized that life skills are to be infused or integrated in the teaching of the subject area.

Table 1.3: Showing themes and sub themes for primary two term one

Number	Theme	Sub-themes
1	Our School and Neighbourhood	Location, symbols and benefits of our home. Benefits to the neighbourhood and causes of problems between school and neighbourhood.
2	Our Home and Community	Relationships among family members. Roles of different people in the community and Cultural practices and values in the community.
3	The Human Body and Health	Parts of the body and their functions. Sanitation areas that need to be kept clean and Personal hygiene skills for keeping clean.
4	Food and Nutrition	Classification of foods. Good feeding and effects of poor feeding.

Derived from MOES Primary School Syllabus for Uganda Primary 2 pp14-25

The only available curriculum material developed for the life skills programme during the initial stage of introduction of life skills were the life skills education manuals of 1997. All the manuals indicated infusion of life skills education in one subject, Science and Health Education (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997 pp5 & 173-178). This is ten years before the primary one thematic curriculum was first implemented in 2007. The inclination of the initiative at this time was health education for the teachers and pupils. This is clearly reflected in the aims of life skills education outlined in the Primary Teachers' Training Manual "as taking positive health choices, making informed decisions, practicing health behaviours, and recognizing and avoiding risky health situations and behaviours"(Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, p 11). However, further explanation in the manual reflects that life skills education does not teach skills in isolation but as an integral part of a variety of educational programmes such as, drug abuse prevention, prevention of adolescent pregnancy, AIDS education, protecting young people from abuse, peace education, suicide prevention programmes, and programmes for vulnerable youth such as street children, orphans, etc. (ibid).The next section explains the thematic curriculum and the place of life skills in the primary school curriculum in more detail.

1.2.4: Background to the thematic curriculum and life skills covered in the primary school

1.2.4.1: Background to the thematic curriculum

The first reform of the existing curriculum at the inception of the life skills education programme was, as explained above, in 2000-2002. This primary school curriculum comprised four core subjects namely; English Language, Mathematics, Social Studies and Science (Penny et al, 2008). These four subjects were the examinable subjects as reported by the Minister of Education of Uganda at the Education for the 46th Section of 5th-7th September 2001, Geneva (MOES 2001, p.30). There were another eight subjects which were taught and were on the time table but were not examinable in the Primary Leaving Examination. This made a total of 12 subjects taught in the primary school. In this curricular reform, the approach to life skills remained infusion of life skills in the different subjects.

After 2002, several research studies were conducted on primary education and according to Anltinyelken (2010) the findings from these researches suggested that ineffective teaching practices were responsible for falling levels of educational quality generally. In the findings, issues of concern were various and included poor planning, the emphasis on rote learning and factual recall in classrooms, didactic methodologies, lack of higher order reasoning and limited use of text books and teaching aids (Uganda National Examination Board, 2003; Education Standards Agency, 2004; Heneveld et al 2006). In a follow up to these findings, the Ministry of Education and Sports in Uganda introduced the Primary Curriculum Review of 2004. The review process enabled discussion and scrutiny of every aspect of the curriculum and related syllabi. It is this scrutiny and the primary school curriculum reform that led to the introduction of the thematic curriculum further explained below.

In a foreword to the thematic curriculum, the Minister of Education and Sports (NCDC, 2006, 2007, 2008, & 2009) explained the circumstances that led to the thematic curriculum which included large number of children in classes, children's lack of reading proficiency at primary three level which is contrary to the constitution

of the Republic of Uganda (1995 Edition) and the results of the situational analysis which showed that one of the factors causing poor learner performance in literacy, numeracy and life skills was the structure of primary school curriculum.

According to the Minister, the study report concerning the improved structure of the curriculum recommended:

- The need to focus on rapid development of literacy, numeracy and life skills at Lower Primary School level,
- The treatment of concepts holistically, under themes of immediate meaning and relevancy to the learner and
- The presentation of learning experiences through the media, especially languages in which the learner was already proficient.

(NCDC, 2007, 2008, & 2009)

The Minister concluded thus:

> I urge all Ugandans to give schools the support they need to make this 'Thematic Curriculum' a success by ensuring; early breakthrough to literacy, mastery of numeracy skills, empowerment in the use of life skills, providing a head start to acquisition of higher order thinking skills and the development of basic language skills for lifelong learning.
>
> (NCDC, 2007, 2008, & 2009)

In all the above, life skills are one of the three (literacy, numeracy and life skills) most emphasized attainments at primary school level and more especially lower primary school level. This is further supported by the Government of Uganda's commitment to prioritizing the quality of education provision reflected in the following:

> In the ESSP (MoES, 2005) and a follow-up document, the National Development Plan (2009-2015) the Government of Uganda committed itself to prioritizing the quality of education provision including: increasing and improving equitable access to education at all levels; improving the quality and relevance of education at all levels, lowering social economic barriers to girls' school attendance; improving instructional materials especially in numeracy, literacy and basic life skills. Most importantly, in the context of this report, the commitment included implementing a thematic curriculum reform for lower primary education (from primary one to primary three), with a transition to English in primary four and an emphasis on literacy, numeracy, and life skills.
>
> (CGDE, 2011, p. 25)

In all of these efforts, the core idea was to, "integrate literacy, numeracy, and life skills into the themes, thus tailoring the curriculum to the pupils' own interests and

level, with the aim of increasing literacy, numeracy, and life skills standards in a child centred way" (O'Sullivan, 2006).

Above all, the national aims and objectives of primary education provide a framework and context for the need for life skills development especially in the second, third and thirteenth objectives in the curriculum document which are:

- To develop and maintain sound mental and physical health among learners.
- To instil the values of living and working cooperatively with other people and caring for others in the community.
- To develop the ability to use the problem-solving approach in various life situations.

The 2006 National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) thematic curriculum for primary one to three explicitly requires teachers to systematically develop, record and as far as possible assess life skills achievement. According to the thematic curriculum for primary one to primary three and the Teacher's Guides for these classes, life skills cut across the curriculum and should be developed, through all the strands or learning areas (NCDC, 2006, 2007, & 2009). It is clearly stated that "the life skills and values are presented as a vertical strand so that teachers can relate specific life skills and values to each theme and sub theme" (NCDC, 2007, P. 11; & 2008, P. 6). Therefore, life skills and values are not a specific learning area. Life skills are supposed to be infused in every strand and learning activity. This confirms sustainability or maintenance of the infusion approach adopted at the inception of life skills education in Uganda.

As you move up the primary school levels, some of the indicators of each life skill are upgraded and increased in number. The other difference is that while the structure of the curriculum for primary one to three is thematic, the structure for primary four to primary seven is subject oriented, primary four being the transition class as already explained. The curriculum for primary five lists the different life skills to be developed at this level and their indicators, as shown in the table in appendix 1 (NCDC, 2008, P. 8-9). The life skills to be developed are listed against each sub theme and subject content area to be taught. However, in the thematic curriculum, life skills are called a vertical strand meaning they are supposed to be developed when

teaching any area and are repeated several times depending on the content area being taught and the methods a teacher chooses to use in the lesson.

1.2.4.2: List of life skills covered in the primary school and their indicators

Life skills in the primary school curriculum include the 16 original life skills covered under BECCAD (see Appendix 1). As said at the beginning of this chapter, these life skills were initially organised under three categories. However, these categories are not reflected in the primary school curriculum and instead, they are just mixed up in lists. Below is the list under the original categories.

Life skills for knowing and living with oneself: Self-esteem, assertiveness, self-awareness, coping with stress and coping with emotion

Life skills for knowing and living with others: Creative thinking, effective communication, friendship formation, interpersonal relationships, empathy, peer resistance, negotiation and non-violent conflict resolution

Life skills for decision-making: Critical thinking, creative thinking, decision-making and problem-solving

The table for Primary 5 (P5) and that for Primary 3 (P3) in the appendices represent all the life skills as designed and planned for all pupils in the primary schools. The difference, as said earlier, is in the quantity of indicators and in some cases the level of difficulty of some indicators. There is an increase in the number of indicators listed for each life skill from P3 to P5. For some of the life skills, there is also an increase in the difficulty of the indicators. For example, the indicators for friendship formation in primary three are sharing, playing with others, working in groups and using a polite language. While the indicators for friendship formation in primary five are sharing, playing with others, working in groups, using polite language, love, concern, care, trustworthiness, faithfulness and responsibility. These two lists show that the order of the list for primary five first includes those four indicators for primary three. Then the indicators that are added seem to be of a higher level because playing, sharing and

working in groups for children are fun. But, as they play, work together, share, children need to learn how to use a polite language. The other factor is that P3 lessons last for 30 minutes while P5 lessons last for 40 minutes. The level from P3 to P5 also increases in both quantity and quality in that love, concern, trustworthiness, faithfulness and responsibility seem to be higher order indicators.

1.3: Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. It investigated teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions, competencies and attitudes towards life skills education. The study further explored children's experiences of life skills and life skills education. It also identified the challenges in the development of pupils' life skills in primary schools in Uganda.

1.4: Objectives of the study

The objectives of this research were to:

- Analyze teachers', parents' and education officials' perceptions of, competencies in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools.
- Examine pupils' knowledge and awareness of life skills in their day to day experiences.
- Investigate the extent to which pupils show evidence of life skills.
- Examine how the different methods used in primary school facilitate pupils' life skills development.
- Identify challenges in life skills education in primary schools.
- Recommend strategies for implementing and promoting pupils' life skills education in primary schools.

1.5: Research questions

The main research question for this study was:
How is life skills education being implemented in Ugandan primary schools?

The following specific research questions guided the study:

- What are the teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions of, competencies in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools?
- Do pupils have knowledge and awareness of the life skills listed in the primary school curriculum?
- Is there any evidence that pupils' demonstrate the life skills listed in the primary school curriculum?
- What methods are teachers using to develop life skills?
- Are the indicators of the life skills in the primary school curriculum being observed by teachers?
- Are the teachers who use the teaching methods listed in the primary school curriculum more likely to observe indicators of the life skills listed in the curriculum than teachers who do not use those methods?
- What are the challenges for providing life skills education in primary schools?

1.6 Outline of remaining chapters

This thesis includes a further seven chapters which are:
Chapter two: Life skills education
This chapter discusses the basic concepts of life skills and life skills education and then outlines and discusses life skills for knowing and living with oneself.
Chapter three: Life skills for knowing and living with others and for decision-making
This chapter discusses the life skills that facilitate interpersonal relationships among children and the life skills that facilitate children's making of informed and constructive decisions using creative, critical and problem-solving skills.
Chapter four: Qualitative and quantitative investigations
This chapter presents and discusses the different methods used in conducting this study including the procedures and the instruments used in this study.

Chapter five: Qualitative data analysis

This chapter presents and discusses the results of interviews of pupils of primary two and five, parents, teachers, Centre Coordinating tutors (CCTs) and district education officials.

Chapter six: Quantitative data analysis

This chapter discusses results of classroom observations and teacher questionnaires.

Chapter seven: Discussion of results

In this chapter, all the results of the study are discussed and conclusions made.

Chapter eight: Recommendations

In this chapter recommendations emanating from the discussion of the results and the entire study are made.

1.7: Chapter conclusion

Life skills are "a person's ability to maintain a state of mental well-being and to demonstrate this in adaptive and positive behaviour while interacting with others, his/her culture and environment" (WHO, 1996, P.1). International emphases on the importance of life skills are mirrored in the development of life skills education in Uganda. In the implementation of Life skills education in Uganda an infusion approach was preferred, largely for pragmatic reasons, where the teaching of every subject has to integrate life skills education. This study explores that implementation and is important because of the implications it has for the effectiveness of life skills education in Uganda. The study discusses the potential pitfalls with life skills education in Uganda and teases out the roles of different stakeholders in enhancing the success of life skills education.

CHAPTER TWO: LIFE SKILLS EDUCATION

2.1 Introduction

The concept of life skills and life skills education was introduced in chapter one. In this chapter, the nature of life skills and life skills education is considered in more detail. This chapter discusses the principles of life skills education, the importance of life skills education and the potential pitfalls of life skills education. The ways in which life skills can be developed will also be explored, specifically the role of teaching methods in children's life skills" development, the role of teachers in children's life skills education and the role of parents and other stake holders in their children's life skills education. The chapter will then discuss life skills for knowing and living with oneself and end with a conclusion of the chapter.

2.2: Life skills and life skills education.

2.2.1 Life skills

As noted in chapter one, life skills are widely understood as psychosocial competencies which encompass a person's ability to maintain a state of mental well-being and to demonstrate this in adaptive and positive behaviour as s/he interacts with others, his/her culture and environment (WHO, 1997). This definition has a connotation of interaction. That is why Wood (1981) points out, "for a sociologist all skills are socially constructed in that none are the result of some technology which has fallen from the sky" (Wood 1981, cited in Rigby and Sinchis 2006, p24). In this context Early Childhood Counts (1999) explains children's optimal development as:

> The child's ability to acquire culturally relevant skills and behaviors which allow the child to function effectively in his/her current context as well as to adapt successfully when the context changes, and/ or to bring about change.
> (Early Childhood Counts 1999, p.1)

That is why the Life Skills approach is referred to as an approach that "develops skills in adolescents, both to build the needed competencies for human development and to adopt positive behaviors that enable them to deal effectively with the challenges of

everyday life" (Mangrulkar, Whitman and Posner, 2001, P.5). Mangrulkar, et al go further to categorise the life skills into three that include social or interpersonal skills, cognitive skills and emotional coping skills. This categorisation is similar to the one reflected in chapter one which explains the Ugandan Life Skills categorisation (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, p.6). The implication therefore is that life skills are learned abilities that help individuals to be successful in living a productive and satisfying life wherever they are (IOWA University, 2014).

However, Pollitt (1998) points out that those psychosocial skills are difficult to measure because of two reasons:

> Psychosocial development: is not tangible, its measurement cannot follow the basic measurement principles that often apply to physical and biological variables (e.g., height, weight).
>
> Psychosocial development: is a construct of psychology that cannot be adequately appraised with a scale that fits different ages or periods of early childhood.
> (Pollitt 1998 cited in Early Childhood Counts 1999, p.2)

Pollitt further observes that "one of the reasons it is so difficult to measure psychosocial development is that there is no general agreement on a definition of the term psychosocial".

This problem is caused by the divergent concepts about the scope of psychosocial skills that people have. For example, for some it includes only the social and emotional domains, for others, including Pollitt, psychosocial has a much broader definition and includes social, emotional, mental, and motor domains (Early Childhood Counts, 1999, p.2). This lack of consensus on the definition of life skills seems to have permeated different scholars and organisations. For example, according to the WHO, "Skills that can be said to be life skills are innumerable, and the nature and definition of life skills are likely to differ across cultural settings" (WHO/Western Pacific Regional Office, 2003 cited in Yankah and Aggleton, 2008, p.466). Yank and Angleton further observe that a recent development agency report suggested that "the concept of life skills education is difficult to grasp in program documents" and that "the term life skills remains imprecise and even unclear to most actors" (Tiendrebeogo, Meijer, & Engleberg, 2003, cited in Yankah and Aggleton, 2008 p.466). This problem was also discussed during the Inter-Agency Meeting on Life Skills Education held at WHO headquarters, Geneva, Switzerland on 6 and 7 April

1998. It was observed that "The term "life skills" is open to wide interpretation" (WHO, 1997a p.3). However, a consensus was reached that all participants were using the term to refer to life skills as psychosocial skills (ibid). At the Inter Agency meeting, it was also agreed that the Keywords used to describe psychosocial skills were; personal, social, interpersonal, cognitive, affective, universal (ibid p3). Consequently, the following list of descriptive words and phrases was generated during a brainstorming session to identify life skills:

dealing with conflict that cannot be resolved, dealing with authority, solving problems, making and keeping friends/relationships, cooperation, self-awareness, creative thinking, decision-making, critical thinking, dealing with stress, negotiation, clarification of values, resisting pressure, coping with disappointment, planning ahead, empathy, dealing with emotions, assertiveness, active listening, respect, tolerance, trust, sharing, sympathy, compassion, sociability, self-esteem

(WHO, 1997a p.3)

The Ugandan life skills education programme has adopted most of these names of life skills as reflected in Appendices 1.1 and 1.2.

2.2.1.1 Life skills as psychosocial competencies

Life skills can be conceptualised as psychosocial skills which facilitate children's development of psychosocial competence. Psycho refers to those skills that deal with mental functions and processes, while social skills are those skills that deal with a person's interaction with their environment and culture (WHO, 1999). A learner can successfully complete his intellectual schooling but still not be able to deal with the challenges and demands of life. That is why it is emphasized that psychosocial competence has an important role to play in the promotion of health in its broadest sense; in terms of physical, mental and social well-being (WHO, 1997, p.1). In particular, "where health problems are related to behaviour, and where the behaviour is related to an inability to deal effectively with stresses and pressures in life, the enhancement of psychosocial competence could make an important contribution to the mental well-being of the children" (ibid, p.1).

Psychosocial competence can help children to cope with challenging aspects of their environment. For example, in Uganda, children on the way to school and while at school are sometimes vulnerable to abuse. In the literature on schooling, there is recognition by Clive Herber that schooling in itself can do violence to children. His focus is violence in the school itself. However, what he observes goes beyond the boundaries of a school. For example, Herber observes that, "the sad truth is that formal-mass education-cannot automatically be linked with enlightenment, progress and liberty and indeed be linked to pain and suffering" (Herber, 2004, p.1). He refers to literature and explains that:

> those who read the works of writers such as Illich (1971), Nyerere (1967), Freire (1972), Postman and Weingartner (1969) and Holt (1969) that educational debates of the 1960s and early 1970s will be familiar with the argument that all too often the hall marks of conventional schooling are authoritarianism, boredom, irrelevance, frustration and alienation.
>
> (Herber, ibid p.1)

In the Ugandan sense, the suffering goes beyond the school compound because children on the way to school are suffering because of schooling. For example, girls are particularly at risk as they travel on their own from home to school sometimes covering long distances and passing through risky environments in which they may encounter problems like sexual harassment. Life skills such as assertiveness and self-esteem can help girls to defend themselves. Therefore, "psychosocial life skills can help children to deal effectively with the demands, challenges, and stress of everyday life" (Srikala & Kishore, 2010, p.345).

Life skills therefore represent the psychosocial skills that enhance value behaviour and include reflective skills such as problem-solving and critical thinking, to personal skills such as self-awareness, and interpersonal skills (Bakhashi et al, 2004). UNICEF further defines life skills as "a behaviour change or behaviour development approach designed to address a balance of three areas: knowledge, attitude and skills". In this case life skills enable individuals to translate what they know, their feelings, emotions and values into actual abilities in reference to what to do and how to do it. The UNICEF definition is based on research evidence that suggests that shifts in risk behaviour are unlikely if knowledge, attitudinal and skills based competency are not addressed (UN Office on drugs, Module 7 (n.d.) p.2).

In the UNICEF/Uganda country programme, life skills (basically psychosocial) were, as reflected in chapter one, divided into three categories that include: Life Skills for knowing and living with oneself, Life Skills for knowing and living with others and Life Skills for making effective decisions (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, pp6-10). This has also been reflected in the life skills curriculum for primary teachers in Uganda; themes two, three and four (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2011). In this context, in the Islamic Medical Association of Uganda" Integration of Life Skills in the Madarasa (ILIM) project, life skills are considered to be "the strategies or abilities one uses to get along with one's own personality, one's friends, family, the society and the environment as a whole" (IMAU, 2003, p.3). In the same context, the (Christian) Scripture Union of Uganda defines life skills as, the strategies or abilities one uses to get along with one's personality, one's friends, family, the society and the environment as a whole. These strategies empower the children to interact with the society in which they live as effectively as possible (Scripture Union of Uganda, n.d.). The Scripture Union further explains that

> The current demands on individuals are more complex, brought about by rapid changes in the society. E.g., the world today has become a global village. These changes call for an approach that explores attitudes and values and developing life skills. Life skills provide a link between motivating factors and behavior by translating knowledge of "what to do" and the attitudes and values of what "one should do" into "abilities for how to do"
>
> (Scripture Union of Uganda, n.d., paragraph 2)

Generally each child is an individual with a character and personality on which he/she needs to draw in order to live well. In this case, The International HIV/AIDS Alliance, (2010) observe that life skills help the child to live a safe, happy and healthy life. The alliance further explains that these life-skills include having self-esteem and self-awareness, skills for critical thinking, communicating, negotiating, and assertiveness, skills for decision-making, taking responsibility and solving problems.

UNICEF, UNESCO and WHO list 10 core psychosocial life skills that should be acquired in the context of fulfilling the basic rights of children: critical thinking, creative thinking, problem-solving, decision-making, self-awareness building skills, coping with emotions, coping with stress, empathy, effective communication skills and interpersonal relationship skills. The 10 life skills are anchored on UNESCO"s

four pillars of learning: learning to know, do, live together and be (Maclong-Vicencio, 2010).

2.2.1.2 Practical or concrete life skills

The report of the Inter-Agency Working Group on Life Skills in EFA UNESCO, Paris, 29-31 March 2004, in panel 2, made an effort to describe "manual or hands on skills" and described them as those skills related to "making things or objects" or doing something, especially with the hands, e.g., first aid bandaging skills, switching on a computer, or putting on a condom (UNESCO, 2004, p5). It was agreed that these should not be considered "life skills" because this leads to the futile task of making an endless list. It was made clear, however, that both types of skills (psychosocial and concrete) could be considered practical. Psychosocial skills are practical in the sense that, e.g., being assertive requires actually doing something and so psychosocial skills should not be thought of as only cognitive – or only "happening in one's head" (UNESCO - Inter-Agency Working Group on Life Skills in EFA, 2004, panel 2). Bakhshi, et al. (2004) called these life skills traditional life skills which include "cooking, washing dishes, personal grooming, grocery shopping, street crossing, counting money, etc." (Bakhshi, 2004). Thus life-skills can include skills that children can use to make a living like farming, carpentry, hair dressing and business skills. It is notable that practical or concrete skills are not a focus of the Ugandan primary school life skills" programme. (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997).

The focus of this thesis is psychosocial life skills rather than practical life skills. Psychosocial skills have been attached to behaviour in the Ugandan primary school life skills education programme. In the explanation of what life skills are in the life skills manual, "skills related to behaviour and interaction" are said to be "the life skills addressed in the life skills initiative" (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, p6). It is the psychosocial skills which are the focus of this study. As explained in chapter one the psychosocial skills are listed in the life skills education syllabuses and infused in the lessons the teachers teach each day. Behaviour change is discussed in the next section.

2.2.2 Behaviour change

Mark Lund, the Chief Executive, of COI observed that:

> Tackling some of society's most intractable and costly problems most often requires us to change behaviours in some way. Some steps may be small, like turning off lights, and others may be large, like changing our diets. Some behaviours can have tragic short-term consequences, like driving too fast, and others longer-term damage to ourselves and other people, like smoking.
>
> (Lund in GCN, 2009, p5):

This quote shows that there are a variety of behaviours in which people engage. All negative behaviours people engage in require them to change. Any behaviour detrimental to human life can be addressed using life skills education which equips people with psychosocial competencies. When explaining psychosocial competence above, it was referred to as mental wellness which was taken to be synonymous with psychological well-being. This study focuses on life skills as a programme in primary schools intended to facilitate children's development of the psychosocial competences through learning. It is in this context that behaviour change becomes an area of focus in life skills development. Behaviour change is also imperative for children because it is related to social emotional competence and "young children who lack social and emotional competence frequently demonstrate discipline problems in school and are at risk for not achieving future academic success" (McClelland 2006 cited in Berber and Wilcox, 2011, p.123). For example, "conduct difficulties increase the risk of school dropout, substance abuse, delinquency, and violent behaviour" (Schultz, Richardson, Barber, and Wilcox, 2011, p.143). Consequently, fostering social and emotional development is just as important for helping students attain positive life outcomes as it is for helping students to advance academically (Richardson 2000 in Schultz, et al 2011, p.143). People can only change behaviour when they are appropriately informed. Discussion of information and behaviour change follows.

2.2.2.1: Information and behaviour change

Children need information that will make them knowledgeable and aware. It is this awareness that people need in order to embrace the new or existing initiatives like the life skills education or types of behaviour, and understand what the benefits are for them (Department for Transport (DfT, 2014, p.3). People seem to take more notice of

benefits that they themselves value. That is why people need to be communicated to and get information that enables them to "start or adopt a new behaviour; to stop doing something damaging; to prevent the adoption of a negative or harmful behaviour; and/or to change or modify an existing behaviour" (GCN, 2009, p.7). Therefore an individual child or anybody else has to be influenced in some way to change behaviour. This is because an individuals' behaviour is influenced by "personal ("micro") factors which are intrinsic to the individual, such as their level of knowledge or their belief in their ability to change their behaviour and their habits" (p.11). They are also influenced by "social ("meso") factors which are concerned with how individuals relate to each other and the influence of other people on their behaviour" (ibid). These two categories of factors show that children are "guided as much by what others around them say and do, and by the "rules of the game" as they are by personal choice" (Jackson, 2005 cited in GCN, 2009 p7). In other words, life skills education needs to give sufficient information to influence a child into changing his or her behaviour. In this case, the interconnectedness of issues in behaviour change, attitude and skill development have to be clarified from the onset (UNICEF-ESARO, 2002). The discussion of attitudes and behaviour change follows in the next section.

2.2.2.2: Attitudes and behaviour change:

Attitudes are also defined as:

> Mental postures that guide conduct. Each new experience is referred to these mental postures before a response is made. Before an activity (behaviour change) is undertaken, the individual has to be guided by his or her evaluative feelings or attitude.
>
> (UNICEF-ESARO, 2002, p.4)

In specific terms "attitudes are personal biases, preferences, and subjective assessments that predispose one to act or respond in a predictable manner" (WHO, 2003, p.13). WHO further explains that attitudes make people to like or dislike something, or to consider things good or bad, important or unimportant, worth caring about or not worth caring about. UNICEF has become more context specific and defined attitudes in the context of life skills education to encompass the broad domain of social norms, ethics, morals, values, rights, culture, tradition, spirituality and

religion, and feelings about self and others (UNICEF ESARO, 2002). Behaviour change requires the requisite skills. A discussion of skills and behaviour follows.

2.2.2.3: Skills and behaviour change:

Life skills training can enable students to act in pro-social ways (Birell Weisen and Orley, 1996 cited in Pishghadam, Zabihi, and Ghadiri, 2013) and help them take more responsibility for their behaviours and actions (Orley, 1997 cited in Pishghadam, Zabihi, and Ghadiri, 2013). In the case of the life skills education for the prevention and management of HIV/AIDS, children have to put into practice skills such as assertiveness and being able to make and stand by one's decisions. Eventually a skill one has acquired could take on the quality or characteristics of certain behaviour (UNICEF-ESARO, 2002). To summarise all these,

> Life skills are, therefore, essentially those abilities that help promote mental well-being and competence in young people as they face the realities of life. …They can be utilized in many content areas: prevention of drug use, sexual violence, teenage pregnancy, HIV/AIDS prevention and suicide prevention. The definition extends into consumer education, environmental education, peace education or education for development, livelihood and income generation, among others. … Life skills empower young people to take positive action to protect themselves and promote health and positive social relationships.
>
> (UN Office on drugs, Module 7 (n.d.) p.2).

2.2.3: Life skills education

Life Skills Education has been defined by UNICEF as a structured programme of needs- and outcomes-based participatory learning that aims to increase positive and adaptive behaviour by assisting individuals to develop and practise psychosocial skills that minimize risk factors and maximize protective factors (UNICEF, 2003). In this section the concept of life skills and life skills education are going to be discussed.

2.2.3.1 Life skills in the primary school curriculum

In the Ugandan life skills education programme, Life Skills in the Primary Teachers Training Manual are categorized as said earlier in chapter one into three categories namely; life skills for knowing and living with oneself, life skills for knowing and living with others and life skills for decision-making (Republic of Uganda/ UNICEF,

1997). Each of these categories of life skills is psychosocial in nature and in the manual they are categorised as below:

- Life skills for knowing and living with oneself: self-awareness, self-esteem, assertiveness, coping with emotion and coping with stress.
- Life skills for knowing and living with others: interpersonal relationships, friendship formation, empathy, peer resistance, negotiation, non-violent conflict resolution and effective communication.

(ibid, p7-10)

In contrast to the grouping in the Ugandan Life Skills education programme, UNICEF loosely groups them into three broad categories of skills that are: cognitive skills for analyzing and using information, personal skills for developing personal agency and managing oneself, and inter-personal skills for communicating and interacting effectively with others (UNICEF, (n.d.) Definition of terms).

These categories suggest that the first category can be seen as Life Skills for decision-making, the second category involves Life Skills for knowing and living with oneself and the third category are Life Skills for knowing and living with others. The difference between UNICEF"S conceptualisation of life skills and the interpretation of life skills in the Ugandan curriculum is not as great therefore as it first appears. This categorisation can take on another perspective but still in the same context. For example life skills "are further categorised into social skills, cognitive skills and emotional/coping skills" (Mangrulkar, Whitman and Posner, 2000 in Amarasinghe, 2014, p.1). In this case, social skills are skills for knowing and living with others, cognitive skills are skills for decision-making and emotional and coping skills are skills for knowing and living with oneself.

Later in this chapter, I am going to deal with skills for knowing and living with oneself and then in chapter three, life skills for knowing and living with others and life skills for decision-making are discussed. All these life skills, according to Ugandan Life Skills programme are meant to be developed in the learners while in the school through a Life Skills learning programme. Let us now look at life skills education in this context.

2.2.3.2: Life skills education

Life skills education "is an interactive process of teaching and learning, which enables learners to acquire knowledge and to develop attitudes and skills which support the adoption of healthy behaviours; it is also a critical element in UNICEF"s definition of quality education" (UNICEF, n.d., 2010).

Research has shown the positive effects of the integration of life skills in learning programmes aimed at developing life skills. Research results show that life skills have:

- Lessened violent behaviour; increased pro-social behaviour and decreased negative, self-destructive behaviour;
- Increased the ability to plan ahead and choose effective solutions to problems;
- Improved self-image, self-awareness, social and emotional adjustment;
- Increased acquisition of knowledge;
- Improved classroom behaviour; gains in self-control and handling of interpersonal problems and coping with anxiety; and
- Improved constructive conflict resolution with peers, impulse control and popularity.

(UNESCO, 2007, p1)

The above research findings agree with literature on life skills education which show that life skills education has been developed by different organisations with different objectives, for example, "prevention of substance abuse" (Perry and Kelder, 1992 cited in actionresearch.net (n.d.) Chapter Four: Life Skills) "Prevention of bullying and prevention of HIV/AIDS" (WHO, 1994).

In summary, "life skills are a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, solve problems, think critically and creatively, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, empathise with others, and cope with and manage their lives in a healthy and productive manner"(WHO, 2001 cited in UNICEF 2011, p.10). How life skills are viewed in different countries is discussed in the next paragraph.

In different countries, life skills education takes on a name based on the content areas being focussed on or addressed. "Life skills-based education addresses real-life applications of knowledge, attitudes and skills, and makes use of participatory and interactive teaching and learning methods" (IRC, 2004, p.5). Depending on a specific country, life skills "can be applied to many issues and aspects of life such as peace, human rights, or the environment" (ibid). In this context, basing on the area of focus

of the country in question, life skills education can take on (ibid) a range of different terms such as skills-based health education when the focus is health issues; peace education when the focus is violence prevention or conflict management, or even civic education depending on the objectives of the learning area. UNICEF clarifies this further and clearly explains what the terms life skills education, life skills based education and skills based health education specifically refer to:

> Life Skills Education: This a structured programme of needs- and outcomes-based participatory learning that aims to increase positive and adaptive behaviour by assisting individuals to develop and practise psychosocial skills that minimize risk factors and maximize protective factors (UNICEF (n.d.), Definition of terms).
>
> Life skills based education: This is a term which came into use to describe life skills education addressing specific content or undertaken to achieve specific goals, e.g., life skills-based peace education or life skills-based HIV & AIDS education. The term makes it clear that a life skills approach will be used to teach the subject matter, meaning that participatory teaching/learning methods will be used to help learners develop not only knowledge, but also the psychosocial life skills they may need to use knowledge to inform and carry out behaviour.
>
> (UNICEF, n.d. ibid)
>
> Skills-based health education: This is a term used to describe life skills education that aims to prepare individuals to make decisions and take positive actions to change behaviours and environments to promote health and safety and to prevent disease (UNICEF, ibid).

Many countries have taken on life skills based education to be used interchangeably with life skills based health education. For example in Uganda, a very big portion of life skills education addresses HIV/AIDS prevention and management. Research studies have shown that sex education based on life skills was more effective in bringing about changes in adolescent contraceptive use; delay in sexual debut; delay in the onset of alcohol and marijuana use and in developing attitudes and behaviour necessary for preventing the spread of HIV and AIDS.(Maclong-Vicencio, 2010). Literature on life skills shows that:

> Research demonstrates that possessing life skills may be critical to young people's ability to positively adapt to and deal with the demands and challenges of life. … Life skills are behaviors that enable individuals to adapt to and deal effectively with the demands and challenges of life. There are many such skills, but core life skills include the ability to: Make decisions, solve problems, and think critically and creatively.
>
> (UNICEF, Advocates for Youth (n.d.) p1)

That is why, around the world, Life Skills Education is being adopted as a means to empower young people in challenging situations by different countries.

In the above explanations, life skills education is the context for all other interventions using the life skills education approach. Life skills education promotes and consolidates "psychosocial skills in a culturally and developmentally appropriate way; it contributes to the promotion of personal and social development, the prevention of health and social problems, and the protection of human rights" (United Nations Inter Agency meeting report 6th-7th April 1998).

It is important to recognize however, "that in many programmes and interventions, life skills-based training is included as part of a larger education programme which may or may not make use of participatory methods" (Yankah & Aggleton, 2008, p.466). The definition of life skills education is based on what methods and curriculum materials are used, what competencies, and the participatory learning methods and what learner changes have been experienced as a result of what learners have learnt (Shaffer, 1999). According to UNESCO 2008:

> Life Skills Based Education (LSBE) is distinguished from other education strategies in that it is designed to enhance efforts to positively develop or change behaviours through a balance of knowledge, attitudes and skills. The approach uses a wide variety of participatory and interactive techniques (small group discussions, role playing, debating, community partnerships and projects, and other exploratory learning techniques) to archive a key goal of attitudinal and behavioural change in learners.
>
> (UNESCO, 2008 p.2)

Life skills education is therefore not just about content. The next section explores how teaching methodologies are crucial to life skills.

2.2.4: Teaching life skills

Development of Life Skills is closely linked to a pedagogy of active learning. It is "through participative teaching methods, such as role play, debates, situation analysis, and one-on-one problem-solving, life skills programs can actively engage young people in their own development process" (Mangrulkar, 2001, p.6). This is because Life Skills need to be taught in a participatory learning mode that engages the whole learner in an experiential learning environment. Children require attitudinal and behavioural change. They come to school with their already acquired behaviour which

makes the school have divergent behaviour inside and outside the classroom in the school (UNICEF, 2012). To help the children, teachers need to include life skills in their daily lesson plans. This will help the teachers to integrate life skills education in every teaching situation in the class. In the Ugandan Life Skills programme, teachers infuse life skills education in their lessons with every subject through use of a variety of approaches to life skills development in children (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997). For example, as teachers teach their lessons, children develop respect for each other, play and work together in groups and help one another all of which show how life skills are developed in children (Tyrer, 2010). Tyrer further explains that these are not taught as subjects but are integrated in the teaching of different subjects. This is the way life skills are taught in Uganda as explained below.

Life skills education in Uganda is provided to the learners in "a skills based approach to enable learners take positive health choices, make informed decisions, practice healthy behaviours, and recognise and avoid risky health situations and behaviours" (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, p.11). Traditionally in Uganda, health and life skills education were taught through a knowledge based approach where children were given facts and information about dangers of misusing drugs or the reproductive system (ibid). In Uganda today, the skills based approach follows the path of exploring attitudes and values and developing certain psychosocial competencies alongside the knowledge component (ibid). In this context, life skills are infused in the curriculum and are developed among the children as they learn different content and use different methods for delivery of the content. As teaching goes on, facilitation of the development of different life skills using the content and the methods is done. For example, in religious education for primary two the overall theme for the year is "CHRISTIANS LIVING TOGETHER IN GOD"S FAMILY" (NCDC, 2007). This theme has 12 learning outcomes. Learning outcome number 7 is "The child understands the importance of serving others is ready to persevere and looks for ways to serve" (p57). One of the bible stories to teach under this learning outcome is "Jesus raising Lazarus from the dead" (JOHN 11: 17-44) (ibid). The life skills to be developed include among others, empathy, coping with emotions, friendship formation (ibid). In order to develop Life Skills, teachers will typically not teach the life skills as content on its own but, they can use drama and act the scene of the death and resurrection of Lazarus, or role play Jesus raising Lazarus from the dead. The

whole process of the drama or role play will include situations that require sympathy, empathy, coping with emotions, Jesus as a friend who resurrects, etc. The teacher will integrate in the lesson discussion of the acting or role plays. This is how the subject matter or content of a lesson can be used to develop different life skills because:

> Life Skills Education (LSE) is a novel promotional program that teaches generic life skills through participatory learning methods of games, debates, role-plays, and group discussion. Conceptual understanding and practicing of the skills occurs through experiential learning in a non-threatening setting. Such initiatives provide … a wide range of alternative and creative ways of solving problems.
>
> (Srikala & Kishore, 2010, p347)

In the above quotation, the participatory learning methods identified are games, debates role plays and group discussion. Debate is important because it can enable learners to engage in creation of an argument which requires research of issues, organization and synthesis of data and development and evaluation of conclusions. In this process, the learner is involved in developing a variety of life skills because the formulation of an argument requires the:

> Debater to consider differing methods of critiquing reason, the decision-making formula, the audience and the criteria of decision-making. In the end, arguments must be communicated to an audience clearly and succinctly - a difficult cognitive process requiring conversion between thought, written rhetoric and oral rhetoric. At the end, the debate itself requires the processing of other's arguments and then the reformulation and defence of one's original position.
>
> (Parcher, 1998, pp1-2)

Clearly reflected in Parcher's explanation here are life skills that include critical thinking, effective communication and decision-making. On the other hand, "games and simulations enable students to solve real-world problems in a safe environment and at the same time enjoy the process" (Bhattacharjee & Ghosh, 2013 p2).

In some cases, debate can be combined with role play. "Utilizing the techniques of drama, role-playing teaching is a holistic teaching method that inculcates the process of critical thinking, instigates emotions and moral values, and informs about factual data" (Bhattacharjee & Ghosh, 2013 p2). As noted above, the example of a Religious education lesson on the resurrection of Lazarus can be an example where a role play can allow pupils to explore and discuss emotions and morals. Teachers can also use role-play debates on a topic like home hygiene and children take the roles of a father, mother, sister, brother, father, granny, grandfather and visitor. Through the debate of

the issue from various points of view, pupils can broaden their understanding of the issue of hygiene in the home (Bhattacharjee & Ghosh, 2013 p.2).

One further important feature of life skills education is that life skills are conveyed to children through the relationships they have with their teachers. Teachers teach children about how to treat others through their relationships with pupils in the classroom (Webster-Stratton, 1999). When teachers treat children respectfully they convey to children that they are important and consequently facilitate the development of children's self-esteem. In addition teachers can explicitly encourage a positive sense of self by naming children's positive personal attributes and skills. As life skills involves learning how to be with others, it necessarily implies the use of active and interactive methodologies, in particular, group work and other related methods.

The classroom should feel like a small community where everyone has a role of responsibility, when the children have their presence recognised, they feel they have achieved. On this, Hoffman (2009, 544-546) compares the American and Japanese classroom situation. Hoffman observes that practices like "time outs", "removal of children from the classrooms", and defining behaviour problems as issues of student "self-control" genuinely address the emotions that arise in the classroom (ibid). Hoffman explains that these could easily be used by the teacher as techniques to erase or mitigate emotions the teacher finds difficult to deal with (ibid). However, Hoffman observes that these may solve the problem in the short run and may not engage with the larger and deeper questions surrounding the issues of belonging and community in the classrooms and schools. In contrast, the Japanese approach focuses not on rules, contracts, external behaviours, or physical interventions such as those explained above (e.g. removal of children from the classrooms) but on the consistent cultivation of positive bonds of emotional attachment and belonging. The Japanese methods of conflict resolution rely on the interpersonal unity of the Japanese classroom (Lewis in Hoffman, ibid). The child needs to be emotionally connected to the teacher which means the teacher should reciprocate his or her efforts to connect to the class twice as much by using diversified supportive emotional encouragement. To consolidate this, Lewis (in Hoffman ibid) gives two illustrative examples; a teacher stops a child from throwing a stone at a friend by reminding him of how the other boy might feel if he

were hit by touching the stone to his head but proceeds immediately to give the stone back to him. In another example, a teacher who does not want a child to sharpen a pencil, just appeals to the emotions of the child by saying that, “your pencil will feel miserable”. These two examples reflect how empathy can be developed in children. This is clearly reflected in the meaning of empathy which refers to a learner understanding what is happening in the life of a colleague in order to establish how they can support each other (Gordon, 2006).

Life Skills education is facilitated by the use of such participatory learning methods (UNESCO, 2004) and is based on interactive learning that involves explanation and hearing of the skill in question, observation of the skill being practically shown in different situations in an environment that enables children to know how they are performing the skill. These approaches can thrive when teachers clearly state the learning objectives of each activity they intend to achieve (ibid).

The situations, in which the role play is conducted, facilitate the practice of the skill. In a World Bank paper on Hygiene, Sanitation and Water, it was asserted that children are not “empty vessels” because they come to school with previous experience and can therefore best learn when using a range of their senses. Learning and skill development in children should therefore be encouraged interactively in a stimulating and playful manner to make children eager to put their new knowledge and skills in practice. This explains the difference between traditional education methods and life skills-based education methods. This difference is reflected in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Differences between traditional education and the life skills-based education approach

Traditional education method	Life skills-based education
Teacher-centred	Child-centred
Emphasis on reproducing and learning by heart and academic knowledge	Emphasis on the application of the content and learning of skills and attitudes
The teacher uses one-way teaching, during which the teacher speaks and the students listen	Students learn from both the teacher and each other
Children sit in rows one behind another all the time and the teacher sits facing the class	Sitting arrangement is flexible and the teacher moves around the class, working with an individual, a group or the whole class depending on the activity
Learning is mostly through written text (textbooks and taking notes)	Besides written text, teachers make use of participatory and interactive activities
The lesson content is not adjusted to local conditions	The content of the lesson is adapted to real-life situations

Adapted from International Water and Sanitation Centre 2004, p.7

2.3: Principles of life skills education

2.3.1: Introduction

A principle as a fundamental, primary, or general law or truth from which others are derived (Collins English Dictionary, 2009). I am therefore considering principles of life skills to be fundamental, primary, or general truths in education that form a basis for life skills education or development approaches and methods. In this section, I will discuss some of the principles on which life skills education is based.

2.3.2 Some principles of children's learning

Principles of life skills education do not function in a vacuum. They operate in the context of researched and accepted principles of children's learning (WHO 2003). In their tool kit on Hygiene, Sanitation and water in schools, the World Bank (2005), assert that children's learning can be more effective if the following considerations (principles) are taken into account:

2.3.2.1: Children have previous experiences and insights.

Children come to school with previous experience and insights. For example in countries like Sudan (Southern Sudan now) and Uganda where there have been wars, the following observation is true.

> Learners bring many things with them when they come to school; their language, culture, and experiences. Two generations of children in many parts of Sudan have known only war and its attendant traumas, including psychosocial trauma, personal abuse, poor health, lack of education, and broken families. Teachers need to be prepared to receive learners with a wide range of life experiences, and be able to work with them to meet their social, emotional, and educational needs.
>
> (UNICEF/Operation Life Line Sudan (OLS), 2012, paragraph 2)

The recognition of children's previous experiences allows teachers to meet the needs of learners and also to apply the constructivist principle of teaching from the known to the un-known. It seems that teachers are convinced that facts are not learnt abstractly but basing on what children already know. These constructivist principles apply to life skills as they do to other areas of education. For example, when teachers apply the constructivist psychology theory,

- The learning process occurs through social interaction in peer learning, cooperative groups, or open discussion situations
- Developing life skills in adolescents, like other processes of teaching and learning, is infused with layers of cultural beliefs and values
- Developing skills through the interaction of the individual and the social/cultural environment can lead to changes both in the individual and in the environment (peer group, classroom, family, youth group)

(Adapted from Mangrulkar, 2001, p21)

Children also effectively develop the different life skills based on the experience they have. For example, decision-making, social problem-solving and empathy are, informed by accumulated knowledge and experiences. For example, children's ability to empathise with others will to some extent depend on whether they have shared similar experiences. Thus, a child who is punished for misbehaviour by being denied the opportunity to eat with others will understand how another child, similarly punished might feel. In this same context, Premack and Woodruff (in Gillibrand, 2011, p. 216) state that "in order to understand other people's mental states, we must first be able to understand our own mental state". "It is this understanding that enables

us to identify with the emotions of others and to read the physical expression of emotions in others" (ibid, p. 218).

2.3.2.2: Children learn best when using a variety of senses

According to Baxter (2007) Children are born with our reflexes and senses. This means that initially children learn about their world through their senses. Through their sensory experiences, children develop much of their brain in their early years. The senses of sight, smell, sound, taste, and touch, contribute to the child's acquisition of knowledge (Smith, 2009). Smith further explains that the great thing is that children do not need to be encouraged to engage in sensory experiences, they will naturally do this in an environment that offers a variety of sensory opportunities so that your child will naturally come to explore. The best way to know what a child needs is to watch her interests and follow her lead (Smith, ibid). That is why in constructionist classrooms "learners are encouraged to construct their own knowledge in richly equipped learning centres, small groups and individuals solving self-chosen problems, and a teacher who guides and supports in response to children's needs"(Laura, 2012, p. 467-469).

Such experiences help to develop life skills like self-esteem in that the children will value various activities and success as those activities will emerge and strengthen with age (ibid, p. 457). Engaging in exploration using their senses develops children's knowledge of themselves.

2.3.2.3: Children like to copy from models

According to Laura (2009, p.144) "scientists have identified specialized cells in motor areas of the cerebral cortex in primates called mirror neurons that fire identically when a primate hears or sees an action and when it carries out that action on its own". She further explains that "brain imaging studies confirm that human beings have elaborate systems of mirror neurons, which enable us to observe another person's behaviour while stimulating the same behaviour in our own brain" (ibid). In the context of life skills, Iocaboni et al and Schult-Ruther et al (in Laura, ibid) explain that mirror neurons are believed to be the biological basis of a variety of interrelated,

complex social abilities, including imitation, empathic sharing of emotions, and understanding others" intentions. Using this biological endowment, children can easily pick up both bad and good habits, so good role models are needed at school and at home.

Muijs and Reynolds, (2005, p.133) observe that "the underlying principle of social skills coaching is that children's social skills problems are often caused by the fact that they do not know what to do in social situations, and that they can be taught to overcome these deficiencies". Muijs and Reynolds further explain that "modelling the desired behaviour by the teacher or other professionals in the school can contribute to the child's understanding of the pro-social behaviour" which in many respects is the basis for life skills education" (ibid p.133).

2.3.2.4: Children need praise

By nature children need encouragement and praise. When praising, Brophy (in Muijs & Reynolds, 2005 p.92) explains that teachers can use incentives, rewards and privileges to reinforce desired behaviour. Praise in form of these incentives, rewards and privileges makes children feel good (Watson, 2012) and when learners feel good about themselves, they are much more likely to become better achievers in the classroom. The World Bank (2005) also supports positive reinforcement arguing that it helps children to experiment successfully.

Children learn best in supportive, friendly environments. These environments should provide positive reinforcement that is more effective and consistent with the goals most early childhood educators have for children, namely, to foster self-esteem, autonomy, self-reliance, achievement, and motivation for learning (Randy and Amy, 1989). Praise can be used to encourage progress toward these goals.

On the other hand, recent research indicates that some teacher attempts to create such environments by using praise may actually be counterproductive (Randy and Amy, 1989). Some praise statements may have the potential to lower students' confidence in themselves. In a study of second graders in science classrooms, Rowe (cited in Randy and Amy, 1989) found that praise lowered students' confidence in their

answers and reduced the number of verbal responses they offered. The students exhibited many characteristics indicative of lower self-esteem, such as responding in doubtful tones and showing lack of persistence or desire to keep trying. In addition, students frequently tried to "read" or check the teacher's eyes for signs of approval or disapproval (Randy and Amy, ibid).

2.3.2.5: Children love to play

By nature, humans are born to play. Kemp and others explain that playing helps children to survive and thrive by interacting with others. As they play, children are energised, made calm, relaxed and in the process arouse their brain and body and become inventive, smart, happy, flexible, and resilient (Kemp, et al, 2009). In this way play is an active form of learning (Muijs and Reynolds, 2005, p. 179). It gives young children practical activities for learning about life. Play is important and can help develop children's receptive and expressive language, as well as their skills in joint planning, negotiation, problem-solving, and goal seeking (Bergen, 2002). Creative play develops children's self-esteem, creativity and completeness in life (Borden, 1997).

Borden further talks about cooperative play and notes that working together helps children to learn to respect the ideas of others. Through cooperative play, children learn how to work together to achieve a goal and how to problem-solve together. Furthermore, they can practice social roles while playing. Play therefore enables children to develop social skills and social competence.

2.3.2.6: The school is a significant personal and social environment in the lives of its students

A child-friendly school ensures every child an environment that is physically safe, emotionally secure and psychologically enabling. In these schools teachers are the single most important factor in creating an effective and inclusive classroom. In Watson's (2012) article on inclusive classrooms, the teacher facilitates the learning by encouraging, prompting, interacting, and probing with good questioning techniques

such as “How do you know it’s right, how do you know it is not right, can you show me the way to do it?” The teacher democratises activities in the class to ensure that every child’s interests are met. Teachers also give students the opportunity to engage in problem-solving activities. This is fitting for life skills development because children think best when they have a problem to solve (Dewey, in Watson, ibid).

2.4: Importance of life skills education

Life skills have already been defined as abilities for adaptive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life (WHO, 1994; 2003; Bakhshi, et al 2009; Hoffman, 2012). Children grow up in a complex environment and are vulnerable to risks. Amidst all these challenges, life skills enable youths to make informed decisions. According to UNICEF life skills enable children to explore different courses of action as they reflect on the odds for and odds against their day to day living in order to make reasoned decisions to solve problems or issues as they arise (UNICEF, 2012). As children explore and decide on different courses of action, they need skills to weigh future consequences emanating from their actions and those of their colleagues based on their own values and the values of those they stay with (ibid). Now armed with informed decision-making, the child will be able to evaluate available chances as s/he prepares to face any challenges ahead of him or her which may emanate into social awareness of the concerns of one’s family and society (ibid). In the remainder of this section, the importance of life skills in promoting healthy living will be discussed.

2.4.1 Life skills and healthy living

While health is often conceptualised in terms of physical health it is in fact a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being (WHO, 2012). Life skills support psychological health in terms of personal well-being and the development of healthy relationships. Life Skills also play an important role in the development of behaviours that support physical health. Life skills may therefore be directed toward

personal actions or actions toward others, as well as actions to change the surrounding environment to make it conducive to health (WHO, 2012).

As noted earlier, children in Uganda and other African countries are often exposed to challenging environments. Life skills enable children to adapt and develop positive behaviour that enables them to deal effectively with these challenging environments as they live each day (WHO, 2003). According to UNDOC (n.d) Module 7:

> Developing life skills helps children translate knowledge, attitudes and values into healthy behaviour, such as acquiring the ability to reduce special health risks and adopt healthy behaviour that improve their lives in general (such as planning ahead, career planning, decision-making, and forming positive relationships). With life skills, one is able to explore alternatives, weigh pros and cons and make rational decisions in solving each problem or issue as it arises. It also entails being able to establish productive interpersonal relationships with others.
> (pp. 7-2 & 7-4)

Consequently, many countries are now considering the development of life skills based education in response to the need to reform traditional education systems which appear to be out of step with the realities of modern social and economic life ibid.

In some of the literature, life skills are seen as a panacea for many of life ills (UNICEF, 2007). They are said to enable economic and political participation and ameliorate gender inequalities (ibid) enhance the quality of parenting (Olen, 1994) and reduce antisocial behaviour and crime (Botvin, Griffin, and Nicholas, 2006; Deffenbacher, Lynch, Oetting and Kemper, 1995).

The impact of life skills education has been demonstrated in in the United States, life skills based programmes have been said to reduce alcohol and tobacco use (Botvin, Griffin Paul, and Macaulay, 2003) and reduce substance use (Griffin, Botvin, Nicholas and Doyle, 2003). The development of life skills can help young people to take greater responsibility of their own lives. These youth often lack the tools and life skills that will help them navigate the uneven, uphill course ahead of them. It is therefore argued that school and community programmes should promote life skills such as responsibility, respect, caring, and peaceful conflict resolution (Lickona, 1992; Noddings, 1992). Life skills such as these can act as a powerful force for children's change while at home, in their relationships with their peers, and in the community.

That is why in a UNICEF (Youth net) Module 7 on life skills, it is further observed that programmes aimed at developing life skills have produced the following effects:

> Lessened violent behaviour; increased pro -social behaviour and decreased negative, self-destructive behaviour; increased the ability to plan ahead and choose effective solutions to problems; improved self-image, self-awareness, social and emotional adjustment; increased acquisition of knowledge; improved classroom behaviour; gains in self-control and handling of interpersonal problems and coping with anxiety; and improved constructive conflict resolution with peers, impulse control and popularity. Research studies have also shown that sex education based on life skills was more effective in bringing about changes in adolescent contraceptive use; delay in sexual debut; delay in the onset of alcohol and marijuana use and in developing attitudes and behaviour necessary for preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS.
> (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNDOC) (n.d.) Module 7, p. 5)

The potential impact of life skills prompted the Ministry of Education in Uganda to consider how to equip primary school pupils with life skills for effective, positive decision-making, and the ability to act unhampered by forces around them, so long as they are convinced of the correctness of the stand to be taken (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, Foreword). With proper life skills education, life skills in Uganda can be seen as one of the young people's principle protections against HIV/AIDS infection (Buczkiewiz and Carnegie, 2001). The need for life skills education in Uganda is still based on the fact that those children and young people between 5 and 14 years of age, both in-school and out-of-school, though largely uninfected by the virus, are affected. As Urban Jonson, the Regional Director UNICEFESARO observes, "Young people are currently at the centre of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, they can at the same time play a critical role in reversing the trends" (UNICEF, UNAIDS, WHO, 2001). Young people thus offer a window of hope in trying to find solutions to the problem. But if the young people are to be part of the solution to the HIV/AIDS pandemic, they must urgently be exposed not just to HIV/AIDS messages but also to prevention skills as explained below:

> Not only do they need knowledge about HIV/AIDS, they need to be equipped with skills to put that knowledge into practice. Because a fairly high percentage of the youth in the region are still in school, particularly in the countries of Southern Africa, education systems have an essential role to play in providing them with the knowledge and skills needed to reverse the trends. For those outside the formal education system, measures must be put in place, especially through the children in school, to reach them through non-formal and informal educational channels.
> (UNICEF ESARO, 2002, p. 3)

Public policy, medical treatment and attempts to reduce environmental causes of illness are important means of maintaining and restoring health in society at large, and schools that undertake activities in these three areas will go far toward reducing student health problems. However, such measures will not protect children from the harmful effects of their own behaviour if for example, they choose or are pressured to smoke, use drugs, act in violent ways, engage in unprotected sexual activity or take other risks, children need skills-based health education (UNESCO, 2008). Life skills health education enables children to avoid such health risks by developing negotiation skills and resistance to peer pressure, communication and interpersonal skills, decision-making and critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills and coping and self-management skills (UNESCO, 2008). This enables children know therefore when there is a likelihood of danger and how to take appropriate action in good time (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, Foreword).

It seems many researchers believe that an individual's ability to relate successfully to other people is a key to life effectiveness. That is why peer problems such as peer isolation or rejection are said to be predictive of a variety of problems of depression, school dropout, and other psychiatric problems in adolescence and adulthood (Ladd and Price, 1987). These are characteristic of children who find it difficult to form friendship due to difficult temperament including hyperactivity, impulsivity, and inattention (Campbell and Ewing, 1990). Such children have social difficulties and often misjudge what is expected of them in social situations: they may be impulsive or disruptive when entering a group, have trouble sharing and waiting their turns, or make inappropriate or critical remarks.

Positive relationships promote resilience and maintain positive behaviour. In order to develop positive relationships, children and young adults require friendship formation skills and the skills to maintain such friendships (Webster-Stratton et al, 1999). The ability to form friendships enables children to avoid difficulties such as lonesomeness and low self-esteem (Asher and Williams, 1987). For example sharing and conflict management is a fruit of possession of negotiation skills. Taking turns is only possible when there is tolerance, patience, and cooperation. One being able to put oneself in another person's situation is only possible when a child has empathy skills. Agreeing and working cooperatively with each other is possible when one has negotiation

skills. Asking for help requires the skills of assertiveness, self-awareness. And finally, being polite requires the skills of self-awareness, respect, and communication; and giving up a turn to someone else is possible when there is cooperation and empathy. We need young adults who can think and act creatively, who value human life, are able to communicate and negotiate rather than fight (Rogers, 1994). These life skills are discussed further in the next sections and chapters three and four.

2.5: Potential pitfalls in the implementation of life skills education

While there might be a great deal of support for life skills education, there are some difficulties in its implementation. Some of the challenges and potential pitfalls in life skill education are discussed in this section. They include limitations of the infusion method and issues surrounding hostile social and cultural environments and failure of teachers as role models. In this section, limitation of the infusion method and lack of participatory methods, unfavourable socio-cultural environments, failure of teachers to be role models, using praise when communicating and giving feedback to children, large class numbers and some life skills content areas being sensitive are going to be discussed.

2.5.1 Limitation of the infusion method and lack of participatory methods

As explained in chapter one, the life skills programme in Uganda adopted an infusion approach. This means all the primary school materials like the syllabi and text books are required to include this infusion in some way. On examination of the current thematic curriculum materials, it is clear that life skills are listed in both the curriculum and manuals. However, despite this most of the emphasis is on the organization of teaching the subject content and hardly any guidance is given on organising the life skills element of the lessons. The lesson plans also, only list the life skills to be developed. How these are going to be developed is not in any way reflected in the lesson development section. This suggests that the infusion method in Uganda has problems of implementation because life skills education requires instructors to change both content and their teaching approaches whilst not advising them how to do so. Interactive and participatory communication and activities offer

the only means for any real possibility of accomplishing behavioural change (UNICEF 1990). This is a departure from the norm as pointed out by students at a Life Skills and Education forum in Uganda. The learners, who were participants at this forum, expressed dissatisfaction with the way life skills were being taught;

> Teachers are a big hindrance; participatory methods are lacking. Teachers are only humans and some of them may not be able to use these methods. We need creative teachers who have the ability to teach Life Skills. For example in Social Education and Ethics, if you express your view it is put down by the teacher. We need somewhere where we can express our opinion. The common approach that teachers use is boring-traditional teaching- they only write notes and that's it. We also have ideas that are burning in our heads.
>
> (Naim Seif in Wamahiu, 2000)

Consistent with this finding, a UNICEF ESARO (2000) report documents that life skills programmes that are taught separately are far more effective than those infused into other subject areas.

A number of reasons for the failure of infusion method in Uganda has been outlined by Wamahiu as indicated below

- Many teachers find it easier to follow and work with written materials than think of and create working materials from a guideline.
- The education system has been exam-driven and hence a culture strongly attached to examinations and its syllabus.
- Life skills' component is not adequately highlighted even within health topics.
- Pupils believed strongly in "what is the correct answer?" and not "what do you think?"
- Most teachers have hardly used participatory methodologies: It takes time to prepare them.

(Adapted from Wamahiu 2000)

Problems implementing an infusion approach are also evident in a study in Kenya where, according to Gillespie (2002 in Mugambi and Muthui, 2013, p.5), "infusion as an approach to curriculum implementation has a major disadvantage in that it does not give learners time to practice the learnt concepts". It also encourages shallowness in content coverage.

2.5.2 Unfavourable socio-cultural environments

Generally, life skills education programmes are influenced by culture in any school and community where life skills are being implemented. It therefore follows that:

> Cultural and social factors will determine the exact nature of life skills. For example, eye contact may be encouraged in boys for effective communication, but not for girls in some societies, so gender issues will arise in identifying the nature of life skills for psychosocial competence. The exact content of life skills education must therefore be determined at the country level, or in a more local context.
>
> (WHO, 1997, P.3)

The competencies to be acquired in a life skills programme include communication, negotiation, decision-making and critical thinking, assertiveness and stress management. The acquisition of these competencies demands that the thinking of girls and boys, women and men and different generations experience a radical change. The females should transcend tradition and move up into or occupy higher levels in society beyond cultural prescriptions. This is because "traditional mind sets relegate women and girls to inferior social status resulting in social structures characterised by unequal gender power relationships" (UNICEF ESARO 2001). Under the circumstances, girls, further disadvantaged by their age, find it difficult to "transgress gender boundaries" or engage in behaviour culturally associated with the opposite sex (ibid). The voice of the woman local council leader from Uganda quoted below demonstrates the difficulties of developing and using life skills in hostile socio-cultural environments:

We women grow beans. But men do not allow us to use them without their permission. Men are the ones making the children suffer malnutrition.
(A *Woman LC3Representative in Kamuli, Uganda)*

This statement clearly explains the unequal power relations between the male and female genders. This is clearly reflected in the findings of the research conducted by Shazia Mohamed among adolescents in Karachi's low-income communities to assess their knowledge, attitudes and behaviour regarding sexual health in order to prepare a life skills curriculum. They interviewed young girls and boys aged 12 to 19 on the subjects of bodily changes, drug abuse, gender-based discrimination, sexual abuse and violence, and health-seeking behaviour. The girls' responses included: strict segregation of the sexes, being forbidden to play on the streets or even talk to boys and men which sometimes led to being removed from school, for bidden by their fathers from standing in the doorway of her house because their fathers felt that girls should not be seen. In some cases being entirely prohibited from leaving the house

unaccompanied and being married off with often little say. Shazia observed that such restrictions pose barriers to seeking care from qualified health practitioners. For example, Shazia said, it is common for a girl to take medication on the advice of her aunt or mother (Shazia, 2011)

According to *Women Win*, a programme being implemented in Tororo, Uganda, gender-based violence is a major public health and human rights problem throughout the world.

> This type of violence often happens behind closed doors. Too often, cultural norms and legal systems treat violence against women as a private family matter or a normal part of family life. A girl, regardless of age, may fear attacks at home, on the streets and even at school. This type of violence takes the shape of rape, molestation, and physical or emotional abuse, such as intimidation, punching or grabbing. Perpetrators can be family members, teachers, boyfriends and complete strangers.
> (Women Win, 2011)

Furthermore, when girls resist being positioned in this way, the boys assert themselves by sexualising girls and constructing them as objects of their free sexual desires (UNICEF ESARO, 2002). One of the consequences of this is unwanted and early pregnancy in girls which life skills education is supposed to avert (ibid).

Shazia Mohammed's study of Life Skills in in Pakistan (2011), they simply use different case studies to maximize the relevance of gender equality, to boys and girls. Shazia explains what they have done in Pakistan as below:

> We have made a special effort to ensure that the curriculum and our methods are sensitive to issues of gender. For example, the lesson entitled "Equality" includes a case study about a girl who is sexually harassed by some young boys on her way to school. Upset and frightened, she tells her younger brother who, in turn, reports the incident to his father. He then prohibits his daughter from going to school. The list of questions that follow provoke classroom discussion about a person's freedom of movement and education, and the violation of that right in the name of honour and respectability. It also generates discussion about whether girls are at fault when they face unwanted sexual advances.
> (Shazia 2011)

Shazia emphasized that there is need to build the self-esteem and confidence of girls and boys, and increase their access to quality sexual health services. That is why, the aforementioned *Women Win*, an organisation in Tororo, Uganda observe that a girl needs a safe space to discuss experiences, violations and fears, and receive validation that her fears are okay (Women Win, ibid). Furthermore, a girl needs to understand

her legal rights. She also needs a place where she can learn confidence that will help her avoid becoming a victim of gender based violence. A team and trusted coaches can provide that environment. (Women win, ibid) The problem is that women emancipation programmes make life skills education inclined to the females as if boys do not need it. This is even in traditional consonance where girls by African culture need to keep virginity and no one cares about the condition of the boy during marriage.

2.5.3: Failure of teachers to be role models

Peterson (2008) emphasises the importance of teachers acting as role models in teaching Life Skills. Peterson advocates training teachers and other school staff on how to integrate character education into the entire school learning experiences - there is a need for adults to serve as role models of exemplary character traits and social behaviours. However, as indicated in the background of this study, there have been instances of teachers sexually abusing pupils (Saturday Vision newspaper of 2nd August 2008). Much as this may not be unique to Uganda, it is a pitfall because life skills development is character development and teachers and other adults are important role models, standard setters, and sources of influence (Peterson, 2008).

2.5.4: Using praise when communicating and giving feedback to children

It has also been observed that the way some parents and teachers communicate and give feedback to the children in a way that can cause low self-esteem in children. For example, some teachers or parents use praise instead of acknowledgement and encouragement to appreciate performance of their children but praise can involve judgmental feedback which raises children's standards perhaps to a point where they feel that they can seldom attain what you expect and can cause low self-esteem when such standards are not met by the children (Porter, 2003). For example, if a child performs a task in class and she is given 90% with a "very good" and the following day the same child performs another task and is given 40% with a "poor". This will automatically affect the child's confidence, self-concept and consequently self-esteem.

2.5.5: Large class numbers

Another pitfall in developing countries like Uganda is the issue of large class numbers. Buczkiewicz and Carnegie (2001) make an observation about life skills education in Uganda and say "Life skills education requires children to participate actively in the lessons, which makes it hard to implement Ugandan schools with their huge classes and didactic styles. In using the life skills approach to make Ugandan primary schools learner friendly, despite the large classes, an effective teacher should carefully select appropriate approaches to enable learners participate and learn actively, acquire life skills and become healthy and successful" (Rockefeller Foundation, 2006). This is because the large class size issue cannot be solved instantly given that Uganda is a developing country where infrastructure improves slowly as the economy also improves.

2.5.6: Some life skills content areas are sensitive

Ugandan parents and other adults fear that providing even the most basic information about reproduction will unleash their sexual desires. In Uganda, research on sexual maturation and growing up in primary schools and Primary Teachers' colleges revealed among other things that:

- Teachers do not handle topics related to growing up and sexual maturation
- Teachers are embarrassed to talk about growing up and sexual maturation
- Some teachers are afraid to talk about HIV/AIDS

(Increasing Retention through Improved Literacy and Learner Friendly Primary Schools in Uganda Project 2005, p2)

This is a reflection of the traditional fear to talk about anything sexual in which these teachers have grown and been nurtured. Yet Shazia observes that yet on television, even in Uganda today, teens see sex used overtly to sell items like deodorant and chewing gum. In their neighbourhoods, especially in the cities, many are exposed to pornography or perhaps to a poverty-stricken neighbour who must sell sex to feed her children. It is also evident in Uganda today that some local daily newspapers have a lot of pornography in them and these newspapers are scattered everywhere in the

country. Shazia further observes that many of pupils' peers may experiment sexually, while their teacher skips the chapter in their biology textbook on reproductive processes out of embarrassment or shyness. This issue is also problematic in other countries such as Mexico where among the most widespread beliefs and practices regarding sexuality are the following: "Talking about sexuality encourages and induces adolescents to initiate sexual activity; a woman who talks to her partner about sex may cause her partner to leave her; people will have a negative opinion of a woman who talks openly about sex and sexuality; talking about sexuality with one's parents is disrespectful; talking about sexuality with one's partner is acceptable only when the man initiates the conversation; and a woman who takes the initiative to communicate about sexual relations is too interested in sexual pleasure" Givaudan, et al (2007).

Consequently, misunderstandings about HIV continue to prevail, and traditional mind sets still support socially accepted practices that influence high-risk behaviour (ibid). Givaudan et al cite Módena and Mendoza's (2001), exploration of the social and cultural patterns related to sexual and reproductive behaviour which found that conformation to cultural norms regarding communication about sex means that communication between parents and their children, teachers and students and even between partners is limited. As a result, children and adolescents are poorly informed on sexual education.

2.6: The role of teaching methods and teachers in children's life skills development

Life Skills education in the formal sense is a fairly new academic discipline in the Eastern and Southern Africa Region (ESAR). According to UNICEF ESARO (2002) it is not just the content of life skills that is new to education to this region, but also the teaching methodologies which are participatory in nature and therefore differ from the methods normally used in classroom teaching. Participatory learning is integral for life skills development because it means, "that which is discussed, understood, practiced and applied by the learner and not just what is delivered by the teacher" (International HIV/AIDS Alliance, 2010). It is therefore essential that LSE resources provide sufficient information to the teachers as well as expose them to a variety of

teaching-learning methodologies to enable them to comfortably impart this “new” subject in interesting and creative ways. (UNICEF-ESARO, 2002). Using participatory methodologies means child-centred teaching-learning processes which may include the following techniques: games, posters, role play and drama, case studies, brainstorming, debates, panel discussions, group discussions, story- telling, songs, field trips, research, interviews etc.(UNICEF-ESARO, 2002; WHO, 2003 p.20).

Role play is an informal dramatization in which people act out a suggested situation (WHO, 2003, p.21). This method (ibid) provides an excellent strategy for practising skills, experiencing how one might handle a potential situation in real life, increasing empathy for others and their point of view, and increasing insight into one’s own feelings. Literature on role play also shows that role play facilitates development of different life skills. Role-playing in teaching is a holistic teaching method that inculcates the process of critical thinking, instigates emotions and moral values, and informs about factual data (Bhattacharjee and Ghosh, 2013). Role playing has been derived from the idea that knowledge is constructed by learners in their attempt to understand their experiences (Driscoll in, Bhattacharjee and Ghosh, 2013). Role-playing, like any good inquiry approach, transforms the content of education from theory into practice or experience.

For example, a teacher in a class discussion guides the class to examine a problem or topic of interest with the goal of better understanding an issue or skill, and reaching the best solution, or developing new ideas and directions for the group (WHO, 2003, P.21). For example, the teacher can be interested in developing the life skill of empathy among the children. One problem in Ugandan schools is that children do not have any meals at school. The teacher can organise children to role play a situation when one has nothing to eat and those who have are not helping. He or she can organise another situation when those who have are sharing with those who do not have. The teacher can then initiate a discussion on both scenarios in the class. What goes on in the discussion and the consequent outcome will show that role play:

> Provides opportunities for students to learn from one another and practise turning to one another in solving problems. Enables students to deepen their understanding of

> the topic and personalise their connection to it. Helps develop skills in listening, assertiveness, and empathy.
>
> (WHO, 2003, P.21)

Another participatory method used in life skills education is brain storming. In brain storming, students actively and spontaneously generate many ideas about a particular topic or question in a given, often brief period of time (ibid). Since brain storming enables children to use their imagination, the teacher's role is to organise a brain storming session in such a way that it expands children's cognitive capabilities that enable them (children) to think about the question or task from different perspectives, as they also explore the perspectives or points of view being contributed by their classmates. In the process, children develop a broader range of ideas. In a study, Richards (in Bradley, 2010) "found that pupil interaction was an important part of developing the cognitive skills involved in generating ideas, and found brainstorming was an effective way of achieving this. Results from this study showed that students who were trained in brainstorming techniques were more efficient at generating and organising ideas than students in a control group" (Richards, 1990 in Bradley (2010) p.2). In this way, brainstorming is a suitable method that facilitates the development of pupils" critical and creative thinking skills because it enables the pupils to give their own points of view as they also reflect on what other colleagues are contributing. Another method indicated here is debate.

In a debate, the teacher presents a particular problem or issue to the class, and pupils must take a position on resolving the problem or issue (WHO, 2003 p.23). Teachers organise debate to provide opportunity to address a particular issue in-depth creatively and creatively (ibid, p.23). World Health Organisation further explains that health issues lend themselves well to exploration through debate. Students can debate, for instance, whether smoking should be banned in public places in a community. Properly organised by the teacher, debating on such a topic enables children to develop a variety of life skills. First and foremost, they will critically and analytically generate views about the dangers of smoking which they need. Secondly the process of generating the views enables them (children) to become creative and critical thinkers. Thirdly, as they discuss to agree on who will propose or oppose, and on the order of the speakers, they develop negotiation skills. In this case, debate offers children a chance to practise higher thinking skills (Kennedy 2007 in Vargo 2012).

That is why Vargo (2012) says that perhaps no study equals debate in the acquirement of the power of logical thinking combined with clear expression. The role of the teacher after a debate is to create a post-debate discussion session which enables pupils to interact and consolidate views generated during the debate. This is a session of reflection, critical analysis, clarification, etc., all of which further consolidate pupil's critical and creative thinking skills.

Story telling involves the teacher or pupils telling or reading a story to a group (WHO, 2003 P.23). According to Health and Family Life Education (HFLE)

> Pictures, comics and photos, novels, filmstrips, and slides can supplement the story. Pupils are encouraged to think about and discuss important (health-related) points or methods raised by the story after it is told. Story telling can help pupils think about local problems and develop critical thinking skills. Pupils can engage their creative skills in helping to write stories, or a group can work interactively to tell stories. Story telling lends itself to drawing analogies or making comparisons, helping people to discover healthy solutions.
>
> (HFLE, 2001 in WHO, 2003 p.23)

Literature on storytelling supports the association between children telling and hearing stories and facilitation of development of a number of life skills. First, Haugen (2003) explains that the human brain has many remarkable skills, but one of its most outstanding is its pattern recognition facility (Haugen, 2003 in WHO, 2003 ibid). According to Haugen, filed away in memory, stories provide patterns pupils can use for comparison with their own experience, even when they are not consciously aware of noting similarities. This process generates empathy because the memory patterns of stories referred to here can create emotional attachment to goodness a desire to do the right thing, knowledge of codes of conduct that can help children to make sense out of life (Teaching values.com, 2009). On the other hand, the story can help children realise the dangers of negative behaviour. In traditional Africa, oral traditions folklore involves telling stories to:

> guide social and human morals, giving people a sense of place and purpose. There is often a lesson or a value to instil, and the transmission of wisdom to children is a community responsibility. Parents, grandparents, and relatives take part in the process of passing down the knowledge of culture and history. Storytelling provides entertainment, develops the imagination, and teaches important lessons about everyday life.
>
> (World Affairs Council of Houston – Teach Africa (www.wachouston.org) p2)

The important lessons about everyday life reflected in this quote are the life skills. Story telling is therefore, in itself, part of life skills education. Today in our teaching, stories bring in children a sense of imagination and enables them to get information that makes them (children) to act (Teaching values.com, 2009). As children listen to these stories in the classroom, their affection is aroused because in storytelling, through use of articulate language, oral messages touch children's minds and consequently facilitate socialisation among children and people in general depending on the nature of the messages (pp. 178-179). In this case, children's response to stories told during lessons and elsewhere includes sharing, affection, sympathy, cooperation, friendship and responsibility all of which are life skills or recipes of life skills development. The role of the teacher in storytelling is to integrate mind touching messages that can emotional enable the children to respond with behaviour in the context of different life skills.

According to Whitebread, Marisol, Kuvalja and Verma (2012, p.3) play is sometimes contrasted with "work" and characterised as a type of activity which is essentially unimportant, trivial and lacking in any serious purpose. As such, it is seen as something that children do because they are immature, and as something they will grow out of as they become adults. In Whitebread's explanation against this thinking, he argues that:

> Play in all its rich variety is one of the highest achievements of the human species, alongside language, culture and technology. Indeed, without play, none of these other achievements would be possible. The value of play is increasingly recognised, by researchers and within the policy arena, for adults as well as children, as the evidence mounts of its relationship with intellectual achievement and emotional well-being.
> (Whitebread et al, 2012, p.3)

In teaching, "play can be used for teaching content, critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making and for review and reinforcement" (WHO, 2003 P.23). Simulations are activities structured to feel like the real experience (ibid)."Games and simulations promote fun, active learning and rich discussion and require the combined use of knowledge, attitudes, and skills" (ibid). Furthermore, they "allow children to test out assumptions and abilities in a relatively safe environment" (ibid). Further literature on play (Anderson-McNamee and Bailey, 2010) shows that play is essential for a child's development and for learning life skills. Anderson-McNamee and Bailey go further to explain that:

> Play helps a child to learn social and motor skills and cognitive thinking. Children also gain knowledge and learn to think, remember, and solve problems through their play. Play gives children the opportunity to test their beliefs about the world. Children increase their problem-solving abilities through games and puzzles. Children involved in make-believe play can stimulate several types of learning. Children can strengthen their language skills by modeling other children and adults.
> (Anderson-McNamee and Bailey, 2010)

This quote shows that:

> Play is special for children. Not only is it fun, but it is also important for healthy development". It is their "work" and their way of learning about the world.
> (Child Action, Inc. 2007, p.1)

For example, "organized sports, athletic activities, arts and crafts, along with opportunities for conversation with friends and caring adults, will help to build self-confidence and encourage social growth" (p.4). The role of the teacher is to create an enabling environment in which children can play smoothly and cooperatively.

The discussion of teaching methods above shows that the introduction of life skills-based education approach in primary schools alongside traditional education, has a comparative advantage because of introduction and use of active participatory learning methods against the usual learners' passive reception of knowledge (Postma, et al, 2004). This is because in using the life skills education approach, the role of the teacher is different in that in life skills-based education children learn from the teacher and other fellow pupils in an interactive and participatory way (Postma, et al, 2004). The process of learning using participatory methods enables pupils to interact, listen, participate, observe, model, practice and use the skills. This enables the learners to be prepared and able to use the life skills wherever they are (UNESCO, 2008).

In summary, "different methods have different potential and develop different life skills, for example as said earlier: Group methods enhance learning how to be part of a group, how to get along by taking turns, sharing, team work, conflict resolution, tolerance, and leadership" (http/4hembiology.psu.edu/lifeskills.htm). The teacher is central because "children's academic progress depends heavily on the talent and skills of the teacher leading their classroom" (Joe et al, 2009, p.2). The following section examines the crucial role of parents in the facilitation of their children's life skills development.

2.7: The role of parents and other stake holders in their children's life skills education

It is useful to note that pupils spend more time with parents than with teachers Developmental psychologists have used parenting styles approaches to understand how parents influence children's development of social and instrumental competence right from the 1920s (Health Inc., 2011). Parenting style is defined as "a child's perceptions of her/his parents or care takers" behaviours in two dimensions parental responsiveness and parental demands" (Amirabadi, 2011, p.1). "It is a constellation of parental attitudes towards the child which creates an emotional climate or shapes the emotional relationships between parent and child" (Darling and Steinberg, 1993 in Chan et al, 2007 p. 849). Generally, parenting involves many particular behaviours which concurrently the child's behaviour (Baumrind 1978 cited in Alizadeh et al, 2011). There are many parenting styles but in respect to life skills development, in this study I am going to discuss authoritative and authoritarian parenting style. The authoritative style is "pattern of nurturance and reasoning of the parents that is both responsive and demanding" (Amirabandi, 2011, p.1). Parental responsiveness refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioural control) refers to "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Baumrind, 1991, pp. 61-62). Authoritative parents therefore enhance "higher social competencies in children. Thus, children of authoritative parents possess greater competence in early peer relationships, engage in low levels of drug use as adolescents, and have more emotional well-being as young adults" (Bornstein and Bornstein, 2007 p.2). Amirabandi also observed that a number of studies demonstrated that "children with authoritative upbringing have the positive cognitive skills, school achievement, and low levels of problem behaviors and good behaviors such as friendliness and cooperation" (p.1). On the other hand "authoritarian style is a pattern of power-assertive behaviors of the parents which are highly demanding and directive, but not responsive. Authoritarian style has low responsiveness and high demanding" (ibid).

Comparatively, Baumrind, in 1991, reported that parents who are authoritative were more successful than authoritarian parents, especially in helping their adolescents to avoid problems associated with drugs (Baumrind, in 1991 in Alizadeh et al 2011, p.196). Children and adolescents whose parents are authoritative rate themselves and are rated by objective measures as more socially and instrumentally competent than those whose parents are non-authoritative (Baumrind, 1991; Weiss and Schwarz, 1996; Miller et al., 1993).

Normally parenting goes hand in hand with attachment bonds. Normally, researchers attach healthy social orientation to secure attachment bond in the first few years of life of the child's life. This is because attachment is the special affective relationship that forms between infants and their primary caretakers (Ainsworth, et al, 1972; Bowlby, 1969). Research with humans and other primates has repeatedly demonstrated that the formation of a healthy attachment bond in the first years of life leads to many positive psychological outcomes (Bowlby, 1988) and that these outcomes are long-lasting (Kobak and Sceery, 1988). Successful relationships throughout a person's life have a bearing on secure or safe attachment relationships. For example, Park and Waters (1989) report that preschool children with secure attachments had more harmonious interactions with peers than did children with insecure attachments. Indeed, it has been argued that the attachment relationship is the template for most of children's later relationships (Oliner and Oliner, 1988; Sroufe and Fleeson, 1986) argue that the single most consistent cause of childhood antisocial behaviour is the lack of a secure attachment.

Another issue of focus in parenting is the development of children's self-control. Children, in the process of their cognitive development learn how to imagine, and in many ways control negative behavioural dispositions. The most marked gains in such cognitively-mediated self-control abilities seem to develop between approximately five and seven years of age (Berkowitz, 1982). This age range is of a primary one or two age of the Ugandan child.

Parents affect the development of self-control capacities in their children, through a process that is consistent with scaffolding or guided self-regulation (Sroufe, 1995 and Bruner, 1975 cited in Berkowitz, 1982). Both of these concepts refer to how parents

use guidance and feedback to provide support for skills which have not been mastered. Peterson argues that:

> The concept of it takes a village to raise a child is never more important than in the context of developing character. ...character education has always been a responsibility shared among parents, teachers and members of the community. Further still ... character education teaches children how to live and work together as families and friends and teaches them how important it is to be contributing and responsible citizens of the nation and world.
> (Peterson, 2008, p. 01)

Character education helps facilitates children's development of different life skills. In relating the development of empathy in children to parenting, Hoffman (1991) thinks empathy is a natural tendency in children to put themselves in the shoes of others in problems which Hoffman calls "global empathy". This kind of empathy is supported and promoted by the cognitive development of the child which enables the child to have ability to take others' perspectives (Damon, 1988). However, parents have a role in nurturing this potential may be by modelling it and allowing children to practice it. Parenting styles also have a big role in developing children's self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) reported that children's self-esteem can be promoted by parents' acceptance of their children, setting clearly defined limits for the child's behaviour, and allowing individual expression and respecting the child's unique personality and point of view. These are all characteristics of authoritative parenting. Parents can also use induction. Parental use of induction leads to children's increased understanding of moral standards and guilt in children (Hoffman and Saltzstein, 1967).

2.8: Life skills for knowing and living with oneself

2.8.1: Introduction

This thesis investigated the effectiveness of life skills education in primary schools. As said earlier, the initial life skills education programme in Uganda divided the life skills into three categories namely; life skills for knowing and living with one self, life skills for knowing and living with others and life skills for decision-making. In this section, I am going to explain what knowing and living with one self refers to. I will then proceed and examine the specific life skills under this category that include; self-esteem, self-awareness, and assertiveness as the life skills that have to be developed

to initiate, sustain and consolidate functional knowledge of one self. Such skills are part of the more general category of self-management skills (UNICEF, 2001). Discussion of self-esteem follows in the next section.

2.8.2: Self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to "the belief that a person is accepted, connected, unique, powerful, and capable" (Lavoie, 2002, p.1). Young and Hoffmann (2004) explain the concept of self-esteem in different perspectives and say:

> Some define *self-esteem* as what we think and feel about ourselves. It is our self-evaluation and our sense of self-worth. Sometimes the terms *self-esteem* and *self-concept* are used interchangeably. Some researchers have **written that self-concept includes the qualities, capabilities, and ways of thinking that define a person. Self**-esteem is sometimes defined as a part of self-concept that comprises self-evaluations. For example, a child may say, "I am a good reader" or "I am a slow runner."
>
> (Young and Hoffmann, 2004, p.87)

In the context of this quote, we can take self-esteem to be the judgment that we make about our worth and how we feel because of this judgment. These feelings of self-worth or worthiness emanate from a sense of acceptance by others (Leary, et al., 1995; Baldwin and Holmes, 1987; Baumeister and Tice, 1990; Greenberg, et al., 1986; Hogan, et al., 1985; Safram, 1990). Baldwin and Sinclair (1996, pp1130-1141) explain this further and say that, "successes and failures, therefore, bolster or undermine feelings of self-esteem precisely because they affect one's expectations of being accepted or rejected by others". Leary, et al., (1995) confirm this and assert that:

> most people would have no difficulty identifying desirable traits and behaviours (e.g., successes, competence, morality, physical attractiveness, and social skills) that generally lead a person to be accepted and included by others and corresponding negative traits and behaviours (failure, incompetence, immorality, unattractiveness, and lack of social skills) that lead a person to be rejected or avoided by others.
>
> (Leary, et al., 1995 in Baldwin and Sinclair 1996, pp1130-1141)

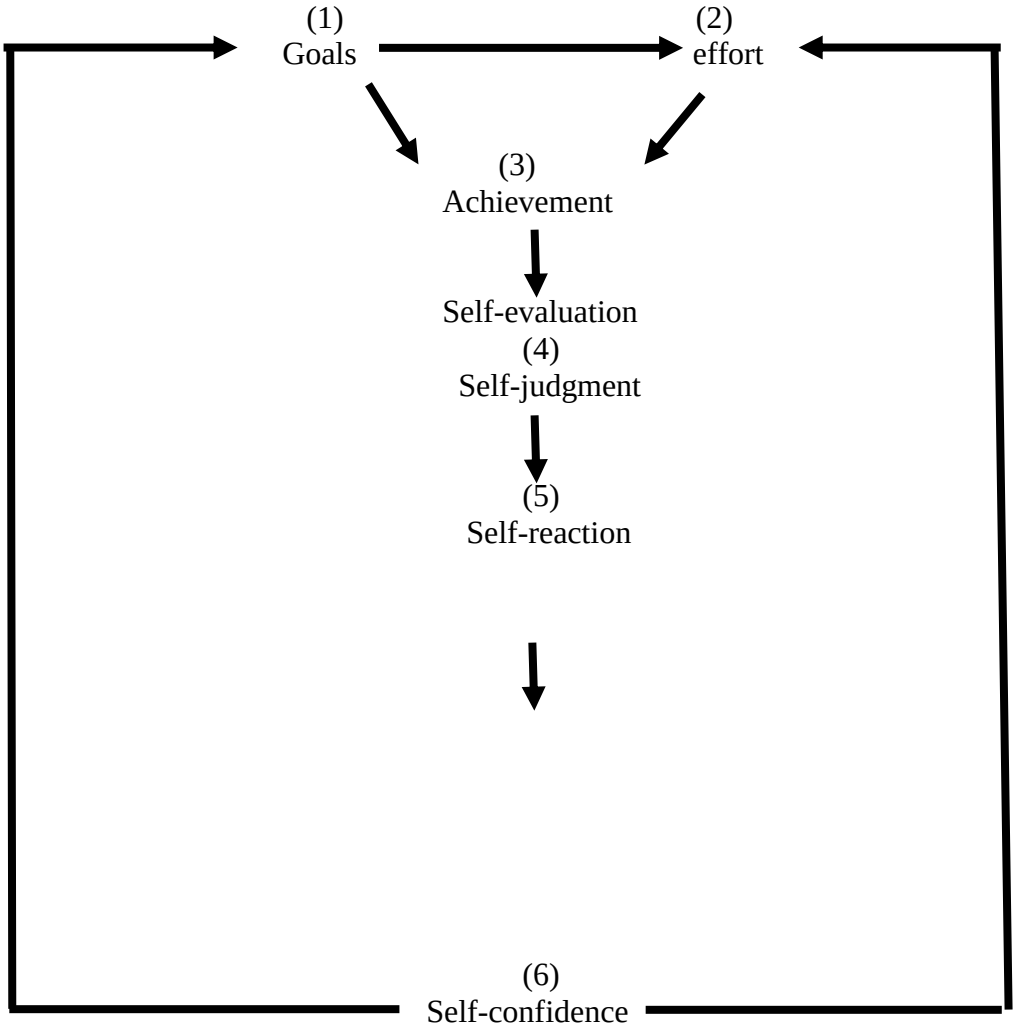
Self-esteem is therefore a judgment about whether our abilities and qualities meet or fall short of the standards we believe are ideal (Porter, 2003).

In the earlier quotation of Young and Hoffmann, self-esteem is reflected as self-evaluation which involves children judging the quality of their work, based on their

successes in life. This assessment becomes a basis for successful performance in future. This is normally done against known and challenging quality standards. Rolheiser and Ross further observed that learners' self-efficacy and increased motivation can be a consequence of self-evaluation (Rolheiser and Ross, 2013).

Research indicates that self-evaluation plays a key role in fostering an upward cycle of learning. In the illustration below; self-evaluations encourage students to set higher goals (1) and commit more personal resources or effort (2) to them. The combination of goals (1) and effort (2) equals achievement (3). A student's achievement results in self-judgment (4), such as a student contemplating the question, "Were my goals met?" The result of the self-judgment is self-reaction (5), or a student responding to the judgment with the question, "How do I feel about?" (Rolheiser and Ross, 2013, p.3ibid)

How Self-Evaluation Contributes To Learning



Adopted from Rolheiser and Ross 2013, P.2

In this illustration, goals, effort, achievement, self-judgment, and self-reaction all can combine to impact self-confidence (6) in a positive way. Self-evaluation is really the combination of the self-judgment and self-reaction components of the model, and if we can teach students to do this better we can contribute to an upward cycle of better learning (ibid).

People normally evaluate themselves in terms of whether they have succeeded or failed. That is why individuals' self-esteem can change when the way they think about success changes, or if their ideals and aspirations are adjusted (Mruk, 1999). That is why when talking about indicators of self-esteem, Pope, et al (1989) explains that

children's healthy self-esteem is characterised by realistic feelings about their short comings and positive reflection on them. In this case, how a child evaluates himself will be crucial in moulding his behaviour, thoughts and aspirations.

On the relationship between self-esteem and learning achievement, Reasoner (2010) suggests that there is general agreement that there is a close relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. Reasoner, however, adds that there are two positions in this area which are students have to develop self-esteem from doing well at school or children's positive self-esteem or concept enables them to do well in school. Reasoner further quoted Covington (1989) who in his research on self-esteem and academic achievement reported that, "as the level of self-esteem increases, so do the achievement scores, as self-esteem decreases, achievement scores decline" (Convicton 1989 cited in Reasoner, 2010 p.3). He further quoted Holly (1987) who compiled a summary of some studies on self-esteem and children's academic achievement which studies indicated that self-esteem was more likely the result of than the cause of academic achievement. However, Holly did acknowledge that, "a certain level of self-esteem is required in order for a student to achieve academic success and that self-esteem and achievement go hand in hand" (p.3). Adler, et al (2001) and Curry and Johnston (1990) highlight the following characteristics of children with healthy self-esteem. Children with a healthy self-esteem:

- Make transition easily,
- Approach new and challenging tasks, with confidence,
- Set goals independently,
- Have a strong sense of self control,
- Assert their points of view when opposed,
- Cope with (occasional) criticism and teasing,
- Tolerate frustration caused by mistakes,
- Describe themselves positively,
- Make friends easily,
- Accept remaining largely in control of their behaviour.

All these show that children who have low self-esteem can display a wide range of less adaptive behaviours because they do not believe in themselves. These children might constantly strive to attain adult approval by reacting unrealistically in many ways (Porter, 2003). However, a child's sense of competency, worthiness, and belonging is formed by a combination of three elements namely, the self-image, the

ideal self and how he/she others see him/her (Page and Page, 1992 cited in Dyer (n.d.) p.194). Dyer (n.d.) observes that:

> The foundations of self-esteem are created early in childhood. For instance, if an individual's interactions with parents and others were for the most part positive (mutually caring, happy, and sound relationships), the individual's self-esteem would likely be high. However, if parental and other primary interactions were mainly negative, an individual's self-esteem could be lacking.
> (Dyer, (n.d.), p. 194)

Self-esteem in childhood has been related to mental health later in life, while a lack of self-esteem has been related to social dysfunctions and mental pathologies such as depression and anxiety (Harter, 1997). The relation is not always straightforward as overly high self-esteem has also been found to be dysfunctional in peer relations (Hartup, 1983), but the bulk of the evidence suggests that a positive sense of self is psychologically healthy.

In conclusion, young babies get very excited when they walk for the first time; which shows that they have sensed and known that they are successful. Self-esteem is literally that self-evaluation. Children might doubt other peoples" opinion of them, but they will believe their own. Therefore we need to teach children how to assess their own actions and how to set realistic standards for themselves. Being able to do this will directly help their self-esteem throughout life (Porter, 2003). Porter further observes that self-esteem is important because it is an essential component in developing children's character. Self-esteem impacts attitude, confidence, skills learned, decision-making and personality. In short, self-esteem is one of the key components that make us who we are as adults, so we should try and foster high self-esteem in the younger generation. Let us look at self-awareness.

2.8.3 Self-awareness

Alongside self-esteem is self-awareness. Self-awareness refers to an individual being able to understand his/her weaknesses and strengths. This realization enables one to take actions, make choices and decisions that are consistent with one's abilities (IMAU, 2003). Self-awareness is a cognitive process which is the capacity for a child to perceive himself or herself in relation to what that child thinks or feels others think

s/he is (Prigatano and Schacter cited in Fleming 2012). That is why self-awareness involves an interaction between a child's thoughts and feelings (Fleming, 2012). Fleming further explains that self-awareness may also be called "meta cognition", which refers to a person's ability to know his or her own cognitive functions, or understanding what s/he knows. Meta cognitive functions therefore help a child to monitor and correct his or her behaviour. Self-awareness is broader because it helps children to have cognitive abilities, as well as understand their physical, social, and communicative functions (Fleming, ibid).

Self-awareness development skills therefore include children knowing and believing in their basic worth and dignity as individuals, their character, spirituality, strengths and weaknesses, what they like and do not like,, and their being unique individuals (Maclang-Vicencio, 2010). Self-awareness is a child's ability to see his or her actions as if she or he is watching herself or himself from a distance while at the same time working and interacting with others (Lopper, 2008). In this context (Demetrion, and Kazi, 2001) state the self-awareness theory as:

> When we focus attention on ourselves we evaluate and compare our current behaviour to our internal standards and values. We become self-conscious as objective evaluators of ourselves. Self-awareness develops systematically from birth through the life span and it is a major factor for the development of general inferential processes.
>
> (Demetrion, and Kazi, 2001)

In simple terms, self-awareness is the effort we make to know ourselves and why we conduct ourselves in the way we do (Charlotte, 2010). Charlotte, (2010) further observes that self-awareness helps us as long as we live and a child's ability to self-reflect is of value educationally.

All these definitions of self-awareness imply the impact of self-awareness. For example self-awareness results in self-consciousness. Rochat (2003) explained that the poet Arthur Rimbaud claimed that "I is someone Else", "suggesting that we conceive ourselves through the eyes of others" (p.718). Rochat explained further that:

> It appears indeed that by 2–3 years young children do start to have others in mind when they behave. The expression of embarrassment that children often begin to display in front of mirrors at around this age is the expression of such self-consciousness.
>
> (Rochat, 2003, p.718)

"Self-consciousness or meta self-awareness" is a state when a child is able to know who s/he is, how others perceive of him, what place s/he has in society, and the like (Rochat, ibid). This is what develops and consolidates a child's self-esteem. In this case, it seems to show that self-awareness is a recipe for the development of self-esteem.

2.8.4: Assertiveness

Assertiveness is a way of relating with others, in which we not only retain the ability to respect and value our needs, drives and feelings, we also respect the needs, desires and feelings of others (Strutzenbergeer, 2003). It is there clear with what Strutzenbergeer has said that being assertive means you balance responsibility for your own actions and are also able to face the consequences of your actions realistically as you relate with others. Using assertiveness individuals achieve whatever they want without hurting others (Burcham, 2010). This is the opposite of aggressiveness which is getting what one wants by any available means (Burcham, 2010). This clarification is important because many people confuse being aggressive with being assertive, when being assertive is about being clear, direct, open, honest and respectful (Grayson, 2010 and Ormondroyd, 2010). Being assertive therefore enables us to communicate openly, honestly and clearly in ways that make others comfortable (Ormondroyd, 2004 and Grayson, 2010). For being assertive is about one respecting the needs and goals of the other people.

Assertiveness (Walters, 2010) goes hand in hand with a person's confidence, good judgment decision-making, performance, health and overall effectiveness. Assertiveness enables individuals to recognize when they are being manoeuvred for someone else's benefits, and how to resist such treatment effectively without becoming angry and aggressive (Ormondroyd, 2004). Consequently, assertiveness is a very important component of life skills programmes aimed at helping children to protect themselves. In this context Agbakwuru and Ugwueze (2012) conducted a study to investigate the effect of assertive training on early-adolescents improvement of resilience and established that:

> Assertiveness and resilience are traits that are linked together. They are inter related and inter connected. Being assertive makes one to be more confident and there by

> improves ones resilience. In other hand when one is very confident he or she can with stand adversities from life's tasks and therefore becoming more resilience.
> (Agbakwuru and Ugwueze, 2012, p.80)

In another study to investigate the effect of assertiveness training on test anxiety of girl students in guidance schools, it was established that:

> The students in their continual training in assertiveness could interact with their teachers better than before. They could have their request easily for further information and have no feeling of embarrassment in any cases that they did not get something, feel more self-confidence in themselves and extend a good relationship with their friends.
> (Niusha, Azadeh, and Safari, 2012, p.1389)

According to Campbell and Fehr (1990), "those students with assertiveness skills such as requesting (say yes and say no) have more ability in interacting with their friends, teachers, and families that will result in a high self-esteem" (Niusha et al., ibid). In contrast, Niusha et al established that "unsuccessful students due to insufficient communicative experience would assess their talents and abilities negatively; the level of self-esteem is low in them (ibid). That is why Mohebi, Sharifirad, Shahsiah, Botlani, Matlabi and Rezaeian (2012) observed that "assertiveness training is a structural intervention which is used for social relationship improvement, anxiety disorder therapy, and phobias in children, teenagers and adults" (Mohebi, et al., 2012, p.38). Mehrabizade, Taghavi and Attari (2009) explain that "this training is a multi-content method which includes guidance, role playing, feedback, modeling, practice and the review of trained behaviors" (Mehrabizade, et al., 2009 cited in Mohebi et al., 2012, p38). This also shows how participatory learning methods are paramount in life skills education.

2.9: Chapter conclusion

It is evident that developing an effective life skills programme is a daunting task. The chapter examines the implications of the requirements of the Life Skills Curriculum for both teachers (and their teaching) and for parents in their relationships with their children. In this chapter, a number of potential pitfalls in the successful implementation of life skills education have also been identified. Nonetheless, the potential benefits of such programmes suggest that their implementation is worthwhile. This chapter also examines the first key component of the Life Skills

Curriculum: Life Skills for knowing and living with oneself. In the next chapter the other two key components of the curriculum, life skills for knowing and living with others are discussed.

CHAPTER THREE: LIFE SKILLS FOR KNOWING AND LIVING WITH OTHERS

3.1 Introduction

The second category of life skills in the Ugandan life skills curriculum are life skills for knowing and living with others. These life skills build on those discussed in the previous section, as understanding oneself is seen as a necessary foundation for understanding others. Life skills for knowing others encompass a broad range of interpersonal skills such as friendship formation, empathy, negotiation, and communication. In the following section, the life skills of friendship formation and empathy are discussed. Creative and critical thinking and problem-solving are discussed in the section thereafter.

3.2 Friendship formation

Friendships are important for children's development. Ferrer and Fugate observe that, "friends are vital to school-age children's healthy development" (Ferrer and Fugate, 2013, paragraph 1). In this case, "The ability of young people to develop healthy friendships with peers is critical to their emotional development and success in school because our relationships take on important roles-they serve to protect and help us, to give us comfort and joy, to sustain us in difficult times, and to validate our sense of worth and our concerns'" (Overton, 1997, p. 1).

For children, the ability to join a group, is a crucial part of friendship formation. Overton's (1997) sentiments on the importance of friendship for social and emotional development are echoed in the work of other authors. Welty and Sharp (1991) note that "of all the means to ensure happiness throughout the whole life, by far the most important is the acquisition of friends" (p. 65). Others argue that friendships play a central role in children's relationships because they are characterized by high levels of reciprocity, maturity, and affect and provide a context that supports numerous aspects of a child's development (Bukowski, Newcomb and Hartrup, 1996; Hartup and

Stevenes, 1997; Rubin, Coplan, Chen, Buskirk and Wojslawowicz, 2005). Research shows that children who are popular, likeable, and able to solve conflicts with others are more likely to succeed at school, and are generally more resilient than children with less developed skills (Resiliency Resource centre, 2010).

Making friends is therefore crucial to life adjustment. Sociologists explain that friendships are not only important tangible resources for dealing with life's demands; they also help sustain a social identity (Duck, 1989; Hartup, 1992; Alan, 1989). In children, getting along with peers and establishing friendships are major developmental tasks of early childhood that determine how they will be in late childhood, adolescence and adult life (Shonkoff and Phillips, 2000). A review on school readiness for example, "concluded that many children who enter kindergarten without the necessary social and emotional skills are often disadvantaged by behavioural, academic, and social problems that can continue to their adult life" (The Child Mental Health Foundations and Agencies Net Work (FAN), 2001).

Formation of friendships starts in the earliest stages of life (Howes, 1986; 1988). As children grow into late childhood and adolescents, they need to understand how mutually beneficial friendships are formed and how they are developed (IMAU, 2003). Characteristics defining friendships are evident even during early childhood. With respect to function, evidence suggests that friendships established during children's early period create a valuable context of availing children important opportunities to learn and practice skills essential to their emerging social needs. Research findings show that this trend has produced consistent behaviour patterns (Hartup et al, 1988; Newcomb and Bagwell, 1995). Across the lifespan, children's social competence is associated with friendship (Hartup and Stevens, 1997). Having at least one reciprocal friend is positively associated with social competence (Lindsey, 2002; Vaughn, Azria, Krzysik, Caya, Bost and Newell 2000; Vaughn, Colvin, Azria, Caya, and Krzysik 2001). A longitudinal study conducted by NICHD Early Child Care Research Network (2006), found that positive aspects of friendships occurring during the early elementary years, especially the number of friends, are predicted by children's social competence evident during early childhood. This suggests that early social competence plays an important role in friendship formation across childhood.

In support of this Ferrer and Fugate (2013) explain that "research has found that children who lack friends can suffer from emotional and mental difficulties later in life" (paragraph 1). Ferrer and Fugate further observe that friendships help children develop emotionally and morally as they interact with friends and learn many social skills, such as how to communicate, cooperate, and solve problems (ibid). Longitudinal studies have also shown that "children entering first grade have better school attitudes if they already have friends and are successful both in keeping old ones and making new ones" (Ladd, 1990 cited in Hartup and Stevens, 1999, p.2).

However, research in this area also shows that friendship has been overlooked as a component of life skills education (Turnibull, Turnbull, Shank, and Leal, et al, 1995). This situation is likely to emanate from the observation of Krunc (1992) that although schools have different programmes to meet children's needs, helping children form friendships receives relatively less attention. Friendship seems to be traditionally perceived to occur automatically. And this seems to make parents, caregivers and teachers withdraw from the responsibility of nurturing or supporting children's friendship formation. This seems to be the prevailing situation in Ugandan primary schools. Conversely, according to Bosworth, (1995) and Noddings (1992), this may be changing as teachers and researchers are looking for more functional interactive interventions especially now through life skills education as they understand that "friendships foster self-esteem and a sense of well-being, socialise one another in coping with developmental transitions and life stress" (Hartup and Stevens, 1999, abstract)

Children's friendship formation or lack of it is influenced by behaviour but researchers have also identified other factors such as proximity and living arrangements (Clark and Ayers, 1988; Barber and Hupp, 1993), type of educational setting and emotional arrangement of the physical space at home and at school (Hamre-Nietupski, Herdrickson, Nietpski, and Sasso , 1993; Kemple and Hartle, 1997) and in this context, family influence and access to support and encouragement and continuity (Parke and Bhavngri, 1989; Lutfitya, 1991).

Further to this Allan (1989) argues that children having friends and what they do with these friends depend on the social structure of a child's environment (cited in Overton, 1997). Overton explains that:

> Children go to school each day and participate along chosen classmates in the activities designated by their respective teachers. They may or may not have after school activities in which they participate. Likewise, children's home settings and families' degree of social interaction within the community are largely determined by their parents. Thus, most, if not all, of the child's environments are determined by adults, and the structure of these environments impacts the types of peer relationships formed, what friends are able to do together, and the depth of their interactions. Careful construction of these environments, therefore, can serve as a basis for intervention.
>
> (Overton, 1997, paragraph 13)

To conclude, as pointed out by Hartup and Stevens (1997) gaining insight into the developmental significance of friendships involves recognising the existence of friendships, the qualities of friends and the quality of friendship. The nature of friendship is influenced by the context or nature of the environment in which friendship is being operationalized. The primary school life skills education curriculum emphasises the development of relationships as an important area. For example, on pages 47 and 48, of the Primary Teachers' Training Manual, the following description of a brain storming session organised to discuss relationships is described. There is an illustration of a ship on water. Learners are to be asked about what can make the ship sink and what can make it remain afloat. The indicators of friendship, i.e., faithfulness, trust and honesty, are written on the ship as what can keep it afloat and deceit, unfaithfulness and jealousy are written on water as what can make the ship sink. Children are supposed contribute through the brain storming other things that can keep the ship afloat and those that can make the ship sink.

3.3 Empathy

3.3.1 Introduction

Empathy is a life skill that involves putting oneself in the shoes of another person. By putting ourselves in the 'mental shoes' of another person and simulating his or her

experience in our own mind, we can intuitively understand what that experience might be like (Gordon, 1986 cited in Rameson and Lieberman, 2009, p. 94). Empathic people are skilled in seeing the world through that person's eyes (Brooks, 1999). It has been suggested that empathy is necessary for psychological health in children (Dadds, Hunter, Hawes, Frost, Vassallo, Bunn, Merz, and Masry , 2007, p.111) because it helps them to connect with each other emotionally (Scottsdale, 2011).

"Empathy can help our children understand and accept others who may be different from them, which can improve their social interactions, for example, in situations of ethnic or cultural diversity" (Maclang-Vicencio, 2010, p.7). Empathy is the ability to listen and understand other's needs and circumstances by "being sensitive to or identifying with another child's situation" (ibid). In this same context, Hoffman (1991) considers empathy to be an affective response to another's distress, that is, "more appropriate to someone else's situation than to one's own" (p. 275). He describes it as a bystander phenomenon, such that empathy is aroused in one who is observing (or imagining) another's plight from the outside. In a fairly complex developmental model, Hoffman describes five types of empathy ranging from automatic involuntary reactions of infants to other infants' cries to mature, reflective reactions to the meaning of others' unfortunate circumstances. Empathic responding has been positively related to altruism (Eisenberg and Miller, 1987) and negatively related to antisocial behaviour (Gibbs, 1987). Empathy facilitates the social relationships that are important for our development, given the extreme sociality of our species (Dunbar, 1998, cited in Rameson and Lieberman, 2009, ibid).

It is also a mental process and can therefore refer to a child's ability to identify himself or herself mentally with another person. By doing this, the child may be in a position to understand the feelings of others and therefore to help or advise them (IMAU, 2003).

3.3.2 Empathy as a life skill in the context of morality

Empathy has been linked to morality because it involves being tuned into the reactions of others while on its own it cannot lead to action. According to Kagan

(1984) empathy is one of the "core moral emotions." That is why Damon (1988) considers “empathy as one of morality's primary emotional supports” (p. 14) and argues that "because morality is fundamentally concerned with one's obligations to others, it cannot be developed solely through introspection and recognition of one's inner feelings... children must learn to become attuned not only to their own emotional reactions but also to those of others” (p. 128). In order to understand empathy properly, one should look at the factors that enhance moral behaviour in relation to the role and necessity of empathy in stimulating moral emotions like shame and guilt (Eisenberg, 2000 and Bierhoff, 2002, cited in Steuber, 2008). However, morality is not exclusively controlled by children’s empathic competencies (Hoffmann 1981, in Steuber, 2008). Knowledge of abstract moral principles is however needed in order to overcome the limits and biases of an emotional and empathic response to seeing others in distress (Steuber, 2008 pp. 19-20).

Brooks (1999a) notes that empathic people are more likely to turn these empathic feelings into action. This idea is supported by Martin Hoffman who states that morality springs from empathy because when you feel for someone in danger, that feeling can drive you into the necessary action (ibid). The affective and cognitive dimensions of empathy are discussed next.

3.3.3 Affective and cognitive empathy

According to Kilpatrick (2006) cognitive empathy is the non-emotional ability to understand another’s perspective and involves understanding what is happening in another person in order to discover the cause of the overt behaviour being exhibited and decide whether there is need for concern. Goldstein (1983) explains that cognitive empathy is children’s ability to take the role or perspective of another person (Goldstein, 1983, cited in Dadds, et al 2007). This is in consonance with research findings which state that “we come to understand and share in the experiences of others by commonly recruiting the same neural structures both during our own experience and while observing others undergoing the same experience. This is because people understand the thoughts and feelings of others by using their own mind as a model” (Rameson and Lieberman, 2009, p.94). Cognitive empathy

developed in children therefore enables them to react to others' situations in a rational rather than emotional manner.

Empathy can also be affective. In the affective sense, empathy is an emotional response. As an emotional response, Hoffmann (2000) explains empathy as "the psychological processes that make a person have feelings that are more congruent with another's situation than with his own situation" (Hoffman, 2000, p. 30). Affective empathy is enabled by lower brain functions (Serani (n.d), in Scottsdale, 2011). What is important is that affective empathy is, according to Rameson and Lieberman, (2009, p.95) "the matching of affective experience between a participant and a target individual". In precise terms, the affective empathy refers to how we feel about other's situations other than our own (Hoffman, 1984; Eisenberg and Fabes, 1990, in Dadds et al, 2007).

Steuber (2008) critically analyses Hoffman's definition and explains that to empathise does not necessarily require that the person at whom the empathy is targeted also feels like the one having the empathy because it is possible that you can understand and have empathy for a person who is not aware of his or her situation. For example, I lost a brother, who had a son doing university examinations at the time of the death. I instructed everyone to keep it secret from my nephew. Automatically, I had empathy for my nephew but he did not know what was going on in me or my empathic emotions for him. What is clear however is that "genuine empathy presupposes the ability to differentiate between oneself and the other. It requires that one is minimally aware of the fact that one is having an emotional experience due to the perception of the other's emotion, or more generally due to attending to his situation" (Steuber, 2008, p.13). For example, if a child is happy or unhappy because of what he or she has seen in another person then in order for that happiness or unhappiness to be genuinely empathic it has to be happiness or unhappiness about what makes the other person happy or unhappy (Sober and Wilson, 1998; Maibom, 2007).

Empathy and sympathy: While empathy may give rise to sympathy in certain conditions (Hoffman, 2000), empathy and sympathy are distinct constructs. First, sympathy does not necessarily require having the same feelings as the person with

whom one is sympathizing; just understanding that the other person is suffering might just be enough (Scheler, 1973; Nichols, 2004). Second, Steuber (2008) notes that "empathy or empathic distress might not at all lead to sympathy. We should therefore not confuse empathy with sympathy". In this sense, sympathy consists of "feeling sorrow or concern for the distressed or needy other," a feeling for the other out of a "heightened awareness of the suffering of another person as something that needs to be alleviated'' (Eisenberg, 2000a; Wispe, 1986; and Wispe, 1991 in Steuber, 2008). While empathy, according to Eisenberg and Strayer (1990) is "an emotional response that stems from another's emotional state or condition and is congruent with the other's emotional state or situation" (Eisenberg and Strayer, 1990, p.5 cited in Cress and Holm p.4).

Empathy and altruistic behaviour: Hoffman also views empathy as a biologically based disposition for altruistic behaviour (Hoffman, 1981). This is because empathy enables one to have selfless behaviour when feeling for those for whom action is required. People who are selfless have altruistic feelings for others.

Stages of empathic responses: Hoffman also distinguishes between five developmental stages of empathic responses ranging from the reactive new born cry, egocentric empathic distress, quasi-ego-centric empathic distress, to veridical distress and empathy for another beyond the immediate situation. He conceives of full blown empathy on a developmental continuum that ranges from emotional contagion (as in the case of a reactive new born cry) to empathy proper reached at the fourth stage. At the developmentally later stages, the child is able to emotionally respond to the distress of another in a more sophisticated manner due to an increase of cognitive capacities, particularly due to the increased cognitive ability to distinguish between self and the other by becoming aware of the fact that others have mental states that are independent from its own. It is therefore important that empathy is developed in children when they are still young so that they can utilise these skills in childhood and adulthood.

Empathy and socialization: The ability to take the perspective of the other has long been considered by symbolic interactionists and cognitive developmentalists as fundamental to the development of the self (Figurski, 1987). Without empathy, we are

not able to understand what we experience and feel in the context of what others also feel and experience (Dharmavdya, 2010). Empathy is thus important in understanding ourselves in relation to others. Feeling for others help peers to relate positively and support each other. Trying to accept people as they are and taking efforts to adjust with them defines empathy (Manali, 2011). Research shows that with empathy, students show an increase in pro-social behaviours such as sharing, cooperation, trust and kindness, and experience a decrease in negative behaviour like all forms of aggression. Conversely, a lack of empathy can be a risk factor that compromises higher order thinking, the formation of friendships and can contribute to students hurting others (Bayer, 2004 cited in INGRAM, 2011).

Empathy in the classroom: Kimberly Hunter in his article on 'A Rationale for Empathy in the classroom' says empathy has long been an intrinsic part of the education system. Hunter quotes Hinton who explains that "if schools are involved in intellectual development, they are inherently involved in emotional development" (Hinton, 2008, p. 90cited in Hunter, n.d.). Since students' emotions impact on how they behave in class Hunter therefore asserts that teachers must have empathy for their students in order to best teach them, and must also develop this skill in their students. This is because McLennan observes that "expressing care for another is not an innate ability present more naturally in some people than others, but rather a skill that can be taught and nurtured through a supportive educational environment" (McLennan, 2008, p. 454). In the same context, Hunter further observes that when classrooms are well organised, children value interpersonal skills because they know they have a relationship with everyone around them. Children enter the classroom with their own unique behaviours while also being compelled by the necessity to associate and belong. Teachers need to take this into account as they work together with their students to build knowledge.

It is therefore important that as teachers develop pupils' life skills, they take and make use of all the available literature on empathy and develop empathy as one of the core life skills for living with others.

3.4: Life skills for decision-making

3.4.1: Introduction

> Each day one wakes up, one must make decisions. Should one go to the garden or wait for more rain to sink into the soil? Should a family cook beans or green vegetables? These are relatively simple decisions which may not critically affect one's life. However, an individual is frequently confronted with serious decisions in regard to relationships, future life etc. There are frequently conflicting demands each of which cannot be met at the same time. One must make a choice but at the same time one must be aware of the possible consequences of one's choice. Thus it is important 'to weigh the consequences before making a decision and have a framework for working through these choices and decisions'
> (Republic of Uganda/ UNICEF, 1997 p.10).

Decision-making is "the ability to utilize all available information to weigh a situation, analyse the advantages and disadvantages and make an informed and personal choice" (IMAU, 2003). As noted in the opening quote to this section as one grows up, one is frequently confronted with serious demands, which require one's attention and demand decision-making. These may be in regard to relationships and to one's future.

Effective decision-making involves listing our options before making a decision; choosing among several alternatives; thinking about what might happen because of our decision; and evaluating decisions we have made (Maclang-Vicencio, 2010). There is an interlinked relationship between decision-making, critical thinking, creative thinking and problem-solving life skills. Maclang-Vicencio (2010) explains that critical thinking skills and decision-making skills include information gathering and problem-solving skills. The individual must also be skilled at evaluating the future consequences of their present actions and the actions of others. They need to be able to determine alternative solutions and to analyse the influence of their own values and the values of those around them. Decision-making therefore involves the ability to think critically about situations.

Decision-making skills also involve a lot of thinking which is creative and innovative and that leads to new insights, novel approaches, fresh perspectives and whole new ways of understanding and conceiving of things (Facione and Facione, 2001). Decision-making is facilitated by creative thinking skills such as generating a range

possible solutions, challenging presuppositions and seeing the world in imaginative and different ways. Problem-solving is related to decision-making and requires many of the same skills (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, P10). Children can improve their skills in problem-solving through practice.

3.4.2 Critical thinking

According to the Islamic Medical Association of Uganda:

> Critical thinking is the ability to think through situations adequately, weighing up the advantages and disadvantages so as to be able to take appropriate decisions concerning people or one's environment. Today, young people are confronted by multiple and contradictory issues, messages, expectations and demands which interact with these young peoples' own aspirations and ambitions, and constantly require them to make decisions. They need to be able to critically analyse the environment in which they live and the multiple messages that bombard them.
> (IMAU, 2003, p.6)

Critical thinking is the ability to analyse information and experiences in an objective manner. It involves identifying relevant information and information sources and evaluating information. It also involves analysing the factors that influence perspectives and perceptions, such as peer and media influences and attitudes, values, social norms and the beliefs and factors that affect those attitudes, values and norms. When this analysis has been completed, critical thinking involves applying and analysing what has been learned (Maclang-Vicencio, 2010).

Wade, (1995) further identifies characteristics of critical thinking that include asking questions, defining a problem, examining evidence, analysing assumptions and biases, avoiding emotional reasoning, avoiding over simplification, considering other interpretations, and tolerating ambiguity. Another characteristic of critical thinking is meta-cognition which is being aware of one's thinking as one performs specific tasks (Jones and Ratcliff, 1993). Angelo (1995, p.6) explains that the intentional application of rational, higher order thinking skills, such as analysis, synthesis, problem recognition and problem-solving, inference, and evaluation are essential aspects of critical thinking and involve identifying, evaluating, and constructing arguments.

Critical thinking is clearly related to decision-making as it involves making reasoned judgments, i.e., a disciplined manner of thought that a person uses to access the validity of something (Beyer, 1995). Our children today need to develop and effectively apply critical thinking skills to their academic studies, and to the critical choices they will be forced to make as a result of the information explosion and other rapid technological changes (Rutemoblen, 1995). In fact Beyer, (1995) suggests that if students learn to think critically, then they can use good thinking as the guide by which they live their lives. According to Oliver and Utermohlem, (1995) students are too often, passive receptors of information but with technological advances, the amount of information available today is massive. Students therefore need a guide to weed through the information and not passively accept it. Since critical thinking involves a lot of questioning, it is important to teach students how to ask questions. "Every field stays alive only to the extent that fresh questions are generated and taken seriously" (Center for Critical Thinking, 1996a).

According to Rusbult (2001) "critical thinking is not an isolated goal unrelated to other important goals in education. Rather, it is a seminal goal which, done well, simultaneously facilitates a rainbow of other ends. It is best conceived, therefore, as a hub around which all other educational ends cluster" (Rusbelt, 2001, paragraph1). Rusbult further observes that without critical thinking systematically designed into instruction, learning is transitory and superficial (Rusbult, 2001).

3.4.3 Creative thinking

Creative thinking is the ability to think of and explore the possibilities of doing a task or dealing with a problem in more than one way. It may involve coming up with a new idea and/or trying out a new and more challenging way of doing a task or approaching a problem (IMAU, 2003). In some cases creativity is taken to be fun. In productive problem-solving, ideas are creatively generated and critically evaluated. Ergamreddy (2013) uses creative and innovative thinking interchangeably and define them as "the kind of thinking that leads to new insights, novel approaches, fresh perspectives, whole new ways of understanding and conceiving of things. The

products of creative thought include some obvious things like music, poetry, dance, dramatic literature, inventions and technical innovations" (Ergamreddy, 2013, p. 127). But Ergamreddy also list a number which they say is not obvious. These include ways of putting a question that expands the horizon of possible solutions, or ways of conceiving of relationships that challenge presumptions and lead one to see the world in imaginative and different ways. The International Centre for Studies in Creativity say that, "Creativity is an effective resource that resides in all people and within all organizations. And, creativity can be nurtured and enhanced through the use of deliberate tools, techniques and strategies". According to Pucio (2010) creative people function primarily as adapters who focus on improving an existing situation. Research on whether the level of creativity could be enhanced found out that creativity can be enhanced through formal training (Torrace, 1992; Torrace and Presbury, 1984).

3.4.4: Problem-solving

Problem-solving refers to the ability to identify, cope with and find solutions to difficult or challenging situations. Problem-solving is related to decision-making and the two may often overlap (Chapman, 2009). It is only through practice in making decisions and solving problems that children and adolescents can build the skills necessary to make the best choices for them (IMAU, 2003).

Problem-solving enables children to deal constructively with problems in their lives. Significant problems that are left unresolved can cause mental stress and give rise to accompanying physical strain among children. Problem-solving as a life skill involves information gathering, goal setting, needs identification, planning and organizing, risk assessment, analysis of the influence of one's own values and the values of those around one, evaluation of the future consequences of the actions of self and others and determining alternative solutions to one's problems (Maclang-Vicencio, 2010).

A problem in life can be viewed as an opportunity (McNamara, 2010). McNamara outlines a seven step process of solving a problem which is; define the problem, look at the potential cause of the problem, identify alternative approaches to resolve the problem, plan the implementation of the best alternative (this is your action), monitor

implementation of the plan and finally verify if the problem has been resolved or not. This process can be employed successfully if individuals are enabled to deal effectively with adversity by enabling them to have access to a range of flexible strategies for addressing conflicts, seeking help, and dealing with unforeseen setbacks. When children are nurtured in problem-solving using these steps, their understanding and implementation of these steps through practice will eventually enable them to be constructive and effective problem solvers.

According to Foundation for Critical Thinking, successful problem-solving requires critical thinking which is the intellectually disciplined process of actively conceptualizing, applying, analysing, synthesizing information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, and communication as a guide to belief and action. This is because the idea of non-violent, collaborative problem-solving in response to conflict is increasingly viewed as a critical skill for the health and effective functioning of individuals, groups, communities, organizations and society at large (Piscolish, 2011).

3.5 Chapter conclusion

In this chapter, I have explored the set of skills that act as ingredients for children's socialisation and effective decision-making. Children growing up in the world of today are confronted by multiple and contradictory issues, messages, expectations and demands from parents, peers, teachers, the media, religious leaders, advertisements, music etc. Forming friends and being able to make the right decisions is the way forward for the children's well-being and health.

CHAPTER FOUR: QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE INVESTIGATIONS

4.1: Introduction - research design and methodology

This chapter explains both the methodology and the methods applied in relation to the aims of this study. It is useful to begin by distinguishing between methodology and methods

Generally a methodology:

> Refers to the choices we make about cases to study, methods of data gathering, forms of data analysis, etc., in planning and executing a research study. So our methodology defines how one will go about studying any phenomenon. In survey research, methodologies may be defined very broadly (e.g. qualitative or quantitative) or more narrowly (e.g. grounded theory or conversational analysis). Like theories, methodologies cannot be true or false, only more or less useful.
> (Silverman, 2005, p. 99)

Within the methodologies, we have specific research techniques which are methods. According to Silverman, these quantitative techniques, include statistical correlations, as well as techniques like observation, interviewing and audio recording (Silverman, 2005, p. 99).

This chapter explains the research aims and the methodological approach and methods applied to this study. It provides details of the research design and the analysis and the methods including details of the sampling processes which were used or undertaken and the data collection and analysis procedures used and ethics. Discussion of research aims follows.

4.2: Research aims

The aim of this study was to explore how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. It investigated teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions, competencies and attitudes towards life skills education. The study further explored children's experiences of life skills and life skills education. It also identified the challenges in the development of pupils' life skills in primary schools in Uganda.

The objectives of this research were to:

- Analyse teachers', parents' and education officials' perceptions of, competencies in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools.
- Examine pupils' knowledge and awareness of life skills in their day to day experiences.
- Investigate the extent to which pupils show evidence of life skills.
- Examine how the different methods used in primary school facilitate pupils' life skills development.
- Identify challenges in life skills education in primary schools.
- Recommend strategies for implementing and promoting pupils' life skills education in primary schools.

4.3: Research methodologies

4.3.1: Research paradigms within social science

There are two broad research paradigms within social science namely qualitative research and quantitative research. The debate over these paradigms is an issue that has received much attention in the social sciences (Kuhn, 1962, cited in Mehmetoglu, 2004 p. 176). Guba and Lincoln refer to a paradigm as a set of basic beliefs that guides the investigator (cited in Mehmetoglu, ibid). Patton (1978) also explains in detail and says a paradigm is:

> A world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world. As such paradigms are deeply embedded in the socialization of adherents and practitioners; paradigms tell them what is important, legitimate and reasonable. Paradigms are normative, telling the practitioner what to do without the necessity of long existential or epistemological consideration.
>
> (p. 203)

Bodgan and Biklen also define a paradigm as "a loose collection of logically held together assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orient thinking and research" (Bodgan and Biklen 1982 cited in Cary, 1988). According Weaver and Olson (2006, p 460), "paradigms are patterns of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline by providing lenses, frames and processes through which investigation is accomplished".

Guba and Lincoln (1994, cited in Mehmetoglu, ibid) also suggest that choice of paradigm should be the primary concern of any researcher prior to the question of method. According to Sandelowski (1995, cited in Mehemetoglu, ibid) a paradigm precludes certain research questions and the data collection/analysis techniques for answering them. Mehemetoglu further explains that as noted by Hyde (2000) and Punch (1998), there are two main research paradigms in the social sciences (Tribe, 2001), namely, positivist and interpretivists. These are the two domains which in the contemporary arena are referred to as worlds. In this context, Snow differentiates two domains of knowledge which he termed the "scientific" and the "literary" world (Snow 1964, cited in Cary, 1988, p.4). Cary then explains that "in the contemporary arena, the two worlds are referred to as qualitative and quantitative research respectively". Cary further explains that Hatch (1985), Lincoln and Guba (1985), Bogdan and Biklen (1982), and Geotze and LeCompte (1984) are among those who argue that qualitative and quantitative research are separate paradigms in the Kuhnian sense, each with its own set of philosophical foundations, assumptions, characteristic methodologies, and goals. Cary also quotes Bogdan and Taylor (1975, cited in Cary, ibid) who contrast phenomenology, the foundation of qualitative research, with positivism, an important foundation of quantitative research and say that positivistic inquiry seeks facts and tries to establish causes of social phenomena whilst phenomenology is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the perspective of the individual.

In relation to models, of how we look at reality, Silverman (2005, p. 97-98) relates a model to a paradigm and says, "Models provide an overall framework for how we look at reality. In short, they tell us what reality is like and the basic elements it contains ("ontology") and what is the nature and status of knowledge (epistemology). In this sense, models roughly correspond to what are more grandly referred to as paradigms."

Thomas Kuhn (1970) explains that "the study of paradigms is what prepares the student for membership in the particular scientific community with which he will later practice (Kuhn 1970 cited in Cary, 1988 P.51). Since s/he will have learned the bases of their field from the same concrete models, his subsequent practice will seldom

evoke overt disagreement over fundamentals" (Kuhn 1970 cited in Cary, ibid). Kuhn clarifies this further and says that:

> Within the sciences there are various groups of scholars who agree among themselves on the nature of the universe they are examining, on legitimate questions and problems to study, and on legitimate techniques to seek solutions. Such a group is said to have a "tradition". ... A tradition can occur either as a discipline or as a school within a discipline.
>
> (Kuhn, 1970 in Jacob, 1998, p.17)

Let us now examine the paradigms of quantitative and qualitative research for critical understanding of what each paradigm is, its advantages and disadvantages.

4.3.2: Quantitative research

Walle (1997) points out that the ''master paradigm'' has been the quantitative or scientific method, which still dominates the social sciences (Walle 1997 cited in Mehmetoglu, 2004, p. 181). According to Mehemetoglu, quantitative research is a 'research strategy that is based on hypothetical deduction and statistical analysis' (Mehemetegulu, 2004, p. 182). Ghauri and Grønhaug (2002) observe that "a quantitative study can be either of a descriptive or causal nature" (Ghauri and Grønhaug 2002 cited in Mehemetoglu, 2004, p. 182). Any research is characterised by its overall research design. Here, research design is taken to be as "the overarching framework providing guidelines for all research activities (e.g. data collection and analysis) throughout the course of a study" (Mehmetoglu, 2004, p. 182). Punch (1998) aligns research designs along a continuum stretching from experimental to non-experimental (Punch, 1998, cited in Mehmetoglu, ibid). Such designs include basic experiments, quasi-experiments, repeated measures, matched pairs, longitudinal, cross-sectional and even sequential designs (Cozby, 2004 cited in Mehmetoglu, 2004).

According to de Vaus, quantitative survey research is sometimes portrayed as being sterile and unimaginative but well suited to providing certain types of factual, descriptive information - the hard evidence (de Vaus, 2002, p.5). On causality, Lincoln and Guba (1985) explain that scientific inquiry asks whether x cause y in the contrived setting of the laboratory (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, cited in Cary, 1988).

That is why, Cary refers to quantitative research as verificative research which "attempts to test propositions, to develop evidence that a hypothesis fits certain data, and to generalize beyond the study at hand" (Cary, op cit p.32). Scientific inquiry or quantitative research begins with a hypothesis and through a process, seeks to verify that hypothesis. As these quantitative researchers attempt to verify the hypotheses, they also attempt to control all extraneous elements or variables to the item under study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, cited in Cary, 1988). This helps to establish cause and effect of specifically the variables under study.

4.3.3: Qualitative research

The use of qualitative research methodologies has gained increased popularity over the last decade mainly due to a reaction to an over emphasis on quantitatively based methods and the special attributes of qualitative approaches and what these approaches may lend to a research setting (Meyer, 1981, Lofland, 1971, and Patton,1980, cited in Stiegelbauer, 1982). Qualitative research has been defined differently by different people. Jacob suggests that attempts to arrive at one general definition of qualitative research which subsumes all of the extent species has resulted in confusion that diminishes its parity with quantitative research traditions (Jacob, 1987, cited in Cary, 1988). Schmid described qualitative research as the study of the empirical world from the viewpoint of the person under study and identified two underlying principles namely; that behaviour is influenced by the physical, socio-cultural, and psychological environment which is the basis for naturalistic inquiry and that behaviour goes beyond what is observed by the investigator (Schmid, 1981, cited in Krefting, 1990). That is why "subjective meanings and perceptions of the subject are critical in qualitative research, and it is the researcher's responsibility to access these" (Krefting 1990, p.214). These subjective meanings and perceptions represent the experiences of the subject being studied. In this context, Kirk and Miller (1986, cited in Krefting, 1990) suggested a working definition of qualitative research that reflects these two principles and defined qualitative research as "a particular tradition in social science that fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory and interacting with them in their own language, on their own terms" (p.214).

Qualitative research therefore implies a "direct concern with experience as it is "lived" or "felt" or "undergone" (Sherman and Webb, 1988, cited in Wilson, 1998). "Its aim is not to understand the world but to understand it through the eyes of the participants whose world it is" (Wilson, 1998, p. 2). Consequently, Wilson argues that qualitative research must occur in a natural setting. In this natural setting,

> The researcher interacts with participants to varying degrees, observing, questioning, and sometimes actually living as one of those to be studied. The researcher is concerned with "process," with how and why things happen the way they do, with distilling the "meaning" of what are observed. The study begins not with hypotheses to be proved or disproved but with a flexible plan to explore a phenomenon. Only when all data are collected is inductive reasoning used to draw conclusions.
>
> (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982 in Wilson, 1998, p. 2)

That is why qualitative research is a naturalistic inquiry in which the researcher is the instrument because the research "must rely on the researcher to develop the themes, questions, etc., and their answers as the inquiry progresses" (Cary, 1988, p. 27).

The researchers thoroughly examine naturally occurring phenomena to isolate that which is important "until they find those in which nature has arranged an experiment without benefit of man's intervention" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, cited in Cary 1988 p.28). That is why, normally, "naturalistic inquiry prefers to conduct inquiry into phenomena in the settings in which they naturally occur" (Cary, 1988 p.28). In this context, Stiegelbauer explains that "qualitative research can most easily be described as common sense knowledge that underlies any phenomenon" (Stiegelbauer, 1982, P. 3). Generally, "these approaches are much the same as individuals use to make sense of events that happen to us daily" (ibid). According to Stiegelbauer, "we observe, participate, categorize, analyze and order the profusion of stimuli around us" (ibid). She concluded that:

> For this research, this activity becomes a process of selection from the social phenomenon under consideration through which to develop understanding, hypotheses and conclusions.
>
> (Stiegelbauer, 1982, p.3)

Lofland observes that, "social phenomenon in this case become the acts, activities, meanings, interactions, relationships and settings ... the forms they assume and the variations they display" (Lofland, 1971, cited in Stiegelbauer, 1982 p. 3). The researcher has the role to order this phenomenon as s/he focuses the research effort on the question under study (Stiegelbaeur, 1982 ibid).In this context, Wilson explains

that qualitative research can also be referred to as discovery research where variables are neither pre-chosen nor pre-defined (Wilson, 1998). Wilson further explains that "theorized processes are not paired down to a few measurable variables, stripped off their complexity, and removed from context" (Wilson, 1998 p.4). It is therefore the people themselves who talk about the sum total of their experiences because they are the ones who have gone through the situations that have caused these experiences.

In terms of approaches, qualitative research is pluralistic, consisting of a variety of approaches, "including phenomenology, semiotics, ethnography, life history, and historical research" (Krefting, 1990, p.214). Since these methods are used in the respondents' natural setting, they "are often regarded as providing rich data about peoples' real life and situations and enable researchers to make sense of their (peoples') behaviour in order to understand it (behaviour) within its wider context" (de Vaus (2005, p.5). That is why Silverman advises that,

> If you are concerned with exploring peoples' life histories or everyday behaviour, then qualitative methods may be favoured. This suggests a purely pragmatic argument, according to which our research problem defines the most appropriate method.
> (Silverman, 2005, p.6)

Evidently heeding this caution, Bogdan and Biklen (1982, cited in Wilson, 1988) define qualitative research mostly by listing its parts or sub-fields. They explain that they use qualitative research as an umbrella term to refer to several research strategies that share certain characteristics like participant observation, in-depth interviewing, and field research, naturalistic, ecological and descriptive strategies (pp.2-3).

Bogdan and Biklen (1982, cited in Wilson, 1988), note that all qualitative research methodologies share to some degree a phenomenological orientation. According to Lester:

> The purpose of the phenomenological approach is to illuminate the specific, to identify phenomena through how they are perceived by the actors in a situation. In the human sphere this normally translates into gathering 'deep' information and perceptions through inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions and participant observation, and representing it from the perspective of the research participant(s). Phenomenology is concerned with the study of experience from the perspective of the individual, 'bracketing' taken-for-granted assumptions and usual ways of perceiving.
> (Lester, 1999)

Lester (ibid) further explains the epistemology of phenomenological approaches and says:

> Epistemologically, phenomenological approaches are based in a paradigm of personal knowledge and subjectivity, and emphasize the importance of personal perspective and interpretation. As such they are powerful for understanding subjective experience, gaining insights into people's motivations and actions, and cutting through the clutter of taken-for-granted assumptions and conventional wisdom.
>
> (Lester, 1999)

Cary seems to summarise what Bogdan and Biklen and Lester are saying here by explaining that:

> The central feature of phenomenology as it applies to qualitative research in education is that meaning or knowledge or truth is relative and depends on the particular perspective by the individual. Phenomenological researchers do not impose external concepts on subjects nor do they assume that they know what subject's experiences mean in terms of other than the subject's own.
>
> (Cary, 1988, p. 8)

On reality in qualitative research, Cary explains that "phenomenologists believe that for human beings, multiple ways of interpreting experiences are available to each of us through interacting with others, and that constitutes reality" (ibid). This means that reality is socially constructed (Berger and Luckman, 1967 in Cary, 1988) because '"objects, people, situations, and events do not possess their own meanings; rather, meaning is conferred on them" (Blumer, 1969, in Cary 1988, p.9). The important reality for the phenomenologist is therefore reality as it is described by people under study (Cary, 1988). It is also when all data are collected from the subjects of the study that inductive reasoning is then used to draw conclusions (Wilson, 1998). Hence, Stiegelbauer explains that "the use of qualitative methods in the beginning allows for an understanding of situations and participants in situations such that descriptive categories allow the researcher to explore and describe events as they are becoming understood to allow for later quantification, formulation of variables, or the development of other more sharply defined categories" (Stiegelbauer, 1982, p.5). In this case, "the qualitative base allows for the emergence of categories from the data and the beginning of analytic structure in looking for interrelationships across categories" (Lofland 1971 in Stiegelbauer 1982, ibid).

However, qualitative research is criticized for "lacking generalisability, being too reliant on the subjective interpretations of researchers and being incapable of replication by subsequent researchers" (de Vaus, 2002, p. 5). That is why McRoy

observes that among the most cited criticisms of qualitative research are the presumed lack of reliability and validity of its findings (McRoy, (n.d) Issues in Qualitative Research, paragraph 1). In regard to field research, Kirk and Miller (1986) explain that critics question the ability of qualitative research to replicate observations (reliability) or to obtain correct answers or correct impressions of the phenomenon under study (validity) (Kirk and Miller, 1986 in McRoy, (n.d.) ibid). The difficulties in establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research emanate from the subjectivity of the inquiry (Key, 1997).

McRoy explains that "other criticisms concern the reactive effects of the observer's or the interviewer's presence on the situation being studied and selective perception or bias on the part of the researcher" (McRoy, (n.d) Issues in Qualitative Research, paragraph 1). In agreement with this, Key also asserts that it is very difficult to prevent or detect researcher induced bias (Key, 1997). Also of concern has been the researcher's inability to observe all factors that might influence the situation under study (McCall and Simmons, 1969; Schaffir and Stebbins, 1991 in (McRoy, (n.d) Issues in Qualitative Research, paragraph 1). This is because the scope of qualitative research is limited due to the in depth comprehensive data gathering approaches required (Key, 1997).

There are also ethical issues. McRoy observes that:

> Due to the subjective nature of data collection, interpretation, and analysis in qualitative research, there appear to be more ethical dilemmas and concerns with confidentiality associated with this method than with quantitative research. … It is the researcher's ethical responsibility to maintain confidentiality, but there have been cases in which research data have been subpoenaed. Despite attempts to protect respondents through the use of pseudonyms, identities sometimes may be decoded.
>
> (McRoy, n.d. Ethical issues, paragraph 1)

Despite its potential drawbacks, the characteristics of qualitative research make qualitative techniques the preferred ones for this study because life skills education occurs within the natural settings of the home, school and community. The children who are also the main target of this study live in these settings from which they have gathered stories to tell. The study also sought however, to quantify the use of teaching methods and the frequency of indicators of life skills, so quantitative methods in the form of a questionnaire were also used. Let us now look at integrating qualitative with quantitative research.

4.3.4: Integrating qualitative research with quantitative research

In this study, I used both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to benefit from the strengths of each approach.

This was in the context of Cary's observation and caution that:

> An instance that any research worth its salt should follow a purely quantitative logic would simply rule out the study of many interesting phenomena relating to what people actually do in their day-to-day lives, whether in homes, offices or other public and private places.
>
> (Cary, 1988, p.6)

In consonance with the need for integration, both paradigms were used because it was "recognised that no one methodology could answer all questions and provide insights about all issues on pupils' life skills development" (Rist, 1977, in Cary, 1988, p.57). I also took cognisance of Flick's assertion that 'qualitative research has, in many cases, been developed in the context of a critique of quantitative methods' (Flick, 2002 cited in Mehmetoglu, 2004, p. 183). In view of this critique, "scholars from both paradigms … have also advocated for a combined approach, stressing the importance of not being restricted to stereotypes in their thinking about the purposes of the two approaches" (Miles and Huberman, 1994 cited in ibid p.183). In other words, it was fitting for me to make use of both approaches in the same study. Relatedly, there was need "to capitalise on the strengths of each of the two approaches, and to compensate for the weaknesses of each, and secondly, to consider the practical issues and context of the research" (Bryman, 1992, cited in Mehmetoglu, ibid). In this combination, there was no single way of using both qualitative and quantitative research since I had to add one approach on to another and interweave, integrate or link two approaches (Punch, 1998 cited in ibid). Bryman (1992) also lists several other specific ways of combining qualitative and quantitative research and most important for this study were to: provide a more complete picture, selection of informants for qualitative research, combining views of both quantitative and qualitative respondents and improve the credibility and validity of the study (Bryman 1992 cited in Mehmetoglu, 2004, p.183).

In the context of all the above arguments supporting integration of qualitative and quantitative research, in this study, a mixed methods approach, combining qualitative

and quantitative approaches was chosen. This choice was based on the fact that the aim of this research was to explore children's understanding of life skills, and the qualitative paradigm was appropriate because it particularly allowed for the exploration of participants' experiences and perspectives on life skills education. On the other hand, the study aimed at measuring behaviours that are directly observable, such as the use of particular teaching methodologies and so, for that reason, quantitative observation methods and questionnaires were also used.

These integrations could enhance achievement of validity, reliability, credibility, applicability and acceptance of the results of the study as a result of having a balanced study. These terms are explained in the next section.

4.3.5: Rigour and relevance in this study

In this section the key terms credibility, applicability, reliability and validity are explored in the context of this study. According to Whittemore,

> Much contemporary dialogue has centered on the difficulty of establishing validity criteria in qualitative research. Developing validity standards in qualitative research is challenging because of the necessity to incorporate rigor and subjectivity as well as creativity into the scientific process.
> (Whittemore, 2001, abstract)

Some researchers have rejected the terms validity and reliability (Peck and Secker 1999 cited in Tobin and Begley, 2004 p. 390) as pertaining to qualitative research because they belong to the quantitative paradigm (Altheide and Johnson 1994, Leninger 1994 cited in Tobin and Begley, 2004, p.390). However, caution has been advised regarding this denunciation because it might result in qualitative research being rejected as a science (Morse, 1999 cited in Tobin and Begley, 2004). This is because science is concerned with rigour and the moment the concepts of validity and reliability are rejected, then the concept of rigour is also rejected (ibid). Rigour helps to demonstrate integrity and competence (Aroni et al. 1999 cited in Tobin and Begley, 2004). It is also argued that research may lose its worthiness of being a contributor to knowledge if there is no rigour (Morse et al. 2002 cited in Tobin and Begley, 2004). However, Tobin and Begley have another view when he suggests that 'qualitative researchers are not rejecting the concept of rigour, but are placing it within the epistemology of their work and making it more appropriate to their aims' (Tobin & Begley, p.390) . This is because; rigour is the means by which researchers

show integrity and competence regardless of the paradigm. Tobin and Begley further observe that 'rejection of rigour undermines acceptance of qualitative research as a systematic process that can contribute to the advancement of knowledge' (Tobin and Begley, 2004 p.388). In further support of rigour, Tobin and Begley explain that the attributes of rigour span all research approaches as a construction, application and operationalisation that require innovation, creativity and transparency in qualitative study (ibid). In this case, it was important to ensure rigour before I embarked on the study, when I was conducting the study and after the study. To ensure rigour before the study I used purposive sampling based on literature and the knowledge of the subject area. This guided me to select cases under study, rather than attempt to observe or collect data from all respondents, who may be affected by the phenomena under study (McRoy n.d. Issues in qualitative research, paragraph 2).

One of the major concerns of qualitative research is to establish credibility. In this respect Leininger (1985) 'noted the importance of identifying and documenting recurrent features such as patterns, themes, and values in qualitative research' (cited in Krefting 1990 p.217). Krefting explains that the 'emphasis on recurrence suggests the need to spend sufficient time with informants to identify reappearing patterns because credibility requires adequate submersion in the research setting to enable recurrent patterns to be identified and verified' (p.217). Thus, an important strategy is prolonged engagement (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This, according to Krefting, "allows the researcher to check perspectives and allows the informants to become accustomed to the researcher" (Krefting, op cit, p.217).

Given the above, the researcher spent prolonged time with the respondents. The head teachers were the respondents I first had contact with in the school. I sought for permission from them and as I did this, I first explained the purpose of the study to them. I worked with them as colleagues to help me access the teachers, the parents and the pupils. By the time I interviewed them, I had established rapport and they freely gave their views on life skills education. The process of working with the teacher respondents was prolonged by first having a pre-observation conference with the teacher, observing the teacher teach, and having a post observation conference. When I began interviewing the teachers, we were already familiar with each other and the teachers talked to me freely and openly on life skills education in which some of

them had participated for more than five years. By the time I gave the teachers the questionnaire to answer; they had sufficient exposure and knowledge to reflect on their experiences of working with children on life skills education and to draw on those reflections in answering the questionnaire. I have worked with pupils since my time as a primary teacher for eight years and since then I have worked as a teacher educator about 30 years. I have held a number of interviews with children on different occasions and therefore had sufficient experience in how to establish rapport with pupils. This made me comfortably establish the comfort and freedom of the pupils to talk without fear or reservation. This freedom was enriched by about ten minutes of casual talk with the pupils before the actual interview. As for the parents, the interview was both conducted in groups and individually. In both categories of interviews, the parents were first taken through rapport establishment as explained in the section on parents.

District education officials had very busy offices which made it very difficult to conduct a credible interview in those offices. This required sufficient negotiation which eventually made them find alternative places other than their offices for the interview. Rapport was established through talking about other issues; educational and non-educational in the district. Then I proceeded to the interview which took about 30 minutes because of the tight schedule of the officers and the fact that the officers did not have much to say about life skills in schools either because of their being left out during the initial stages of life skills training or being in new districts which emerged after the establishment of the life skills programmes in primary schools. All this was intense participation which supported accessing research findings through intimate familiarity and discovery of the hidden fact (Kielhofner, 1982). This extended time period was important because as rapport increased, informants volunteered different and often more sensitive information (Krefting 1990, p.217-8)

Alongside issues of credibility, criticisms of qualitative research also often focus on the reactive effects of the observer's or the interviewer's presence on the situation being studied and selective perception or bias on the part of the researcher – the Hawthorne Effect (Hunt, (n.d.)). Aware of this, I controlled my biases because I was aware of them and how they would influence the interviewees' responses (Cohen

2000 et al in O'Reilly 2011). I was also aware of the scientific attitude of the mind which involves a sweeping away of all other desires in the interests of the desire to know (Hunt, (n.d.), The debate, paragraph 2). In this case, I suppressed my "hopes and fears, loves and hates, and the whole subjective emotional life of mine, until I became subdued to the material, and was able to see frankly, without preconceptions, without biases, without any wish except to see it as it was" (Schriver (2001), cited in Hunt n.d. debate paragraph 2). I was therefore (Boeree, 2005) very careful not to listen to the interviewees through any prejudiced ideas of mine. I had to make sure I was not leading the interviewee in the direction I would like him or her to go (ibid).

On the issue of reliability, I realized that I was able to get reliable information because of the quality and quantity of the interviews I had with at least 10 children in each of the selected schools. Further reflection on my interviews enabled me to answer the following questions in the affirmative:

Had I succeeded in reading behind the clichés of adults and reaching what Piaget has called the children's genuine answers, expressions of their situation and thoughts? This was possible because the children were able to reflect on what I asked them and arrived at answers after they had sufficiently pondered over the questions (Deverbog and Pramling, 1993, p.51). The use of follow up questions also helped in checking the reliability of the answers given or information obtained.

Another check on reliability involved how a specific child comprehended the situation, task, or question which was easy to do through asking the child questions like "What should you do?" or "What did I ask you about?" These questions guaranteed some reliability because the respondents gave responses which either confirmed or clarified the response they had given earlier which was of great value in the interview analysis (ibid).

Also of concern was the researcher's inability to observe all factors that might influence the situation under study (McCall and Simmons, 1969; Schaffir and Stebbins, 1991, cited in McRoy's n.d.). I have been personally involved in observing lessons being taught as a qualified tutor. And as a tutor educator, I have also been supervising tutor trainees as they observe their primary teacher trainees teach lessons

in the primary school. In all these supervision activities, I used anecdotal records and a video camera. In the absence of the video camera during this study, I used the anecdotal record alongside the observation instrument as I observed teachers' lessons. I later used the results of both the anecdotal record and observation instrument to discuss the lesson with the teacher during the post observation conference. To ensure validity of interviews or observations, I used the technique of "member validation", in which the respondents were given a copy of the observations or interview to provide feedback (Schaffir and Stebbins, 1991, cited in McRoy n.d. Issues in qualitative research, paragraph 2). Individual bias was also addressed by using my research assistants and other colleagues who are researchers to read through the data, codes and themes.

Language is another concern in interviews. Dana, Keslay, Thomas, and Tippins (1992) observe that the researcher needs to be cognizant of interviewer's use of language (i.e. dialects, idioms, jargon and slangs). They advise using language that is understandable and comfortable for informants. This is because in order for informants to answer a question, they must understand it (ibid). In this study I could ably speak the local language of all the respondents in all the districts used. This helped me to establish rapport, talk fluently with the respondents, and communicate effectively with them in the local language which enabled us to understand each other as the interview proceeded.

In qualitative research, the researcher interacts with the interviewees to get closer to their views, perceptions, opinions, and experiences in the context of what they think of the experiences they have and the focus of the study. To consolidate the rigour, I used a digital recorder which was checked before each interview for battery level and audibility. The process of using the recorder has been explained when explaining the interview process with each category. At least two days lapsed between the interviews for each school in each district. This gave an opportunity for the researcher to go through the completed questionnaires, data from the observation instrument and anecdotes and to listen to the recordings on the recorder from one school and to make notes and address any changes before collecting data from the next school in the district. The same procedure was followed after collecting data from one district but

the lapse between district and district was at least two weeks. This gave me sufficient time to share findings with some of the respondents. Summaries on data from one district were made before going to the next district. In the intervening time between going from one district to the other, the researcher coordinated with his two research assistants and using their reflexive notes, came up with the emerging issues from the data before moving to the next district.

Another way of handling rigour was triangulation. According to Owens (1989), "triangulation is a technique used to establish credibility of data gathered in qualitative ways" (p.1). This "notion is used somewhat metaphorically in the context of social research, to signify the use of two or more methods to check if they yield the same result" (Tiainen and Koivunen 2006, p.6). That is, "confirming a proposition by two or more measurement sources" (ibid, p.6). In this way, Tiainen and Koivunen further observe that "triangulated conclusions are more stable than any of the individual vantage points from which they were triangulated" (ibid, p.6). In this study, I used both data and methodological triangulation. In the case of this study, I collected data from:

- School head teachers who were the managers of the schools used in the study and had all the information about the different programmes in their schools including life skills education,
- Primary school teachers who were trained to teach life skills in the primary school and were teaching the classes used in the study. They had all the information on how they were implementing life skills and were also witnesses of the indicators of different life skills among the pupils in the schools,
- Primary school children who were the focus of this study and their experiences had a story to tell on life skills education in the primary school,
- Parents and guardians who knew their children before they went to school and had an insight into the impact of exposure to life skills education,
- CCTs who were the tutors on site in pilot schools' catchment areas and were the organisers and trainers of life skills in primary schools and were also the monitors of the life skills implementation in the primary schools, and

- The district education officials who were the managers of education in the districts used in the study.

In-depth interviews were conducted with each of these groups to gain insight into their perspectives on life skills education in primary schools (ibid). During the analysis stage, feedback from the stakeholder groups was compared to determine areas of agreement as well as areas of divergence (ibid).

I also used methodological triangulation which involved use of both qualitative and quantitative methods. These methods included; observation of primary two and primary five classes being taught, interviewing children, teachers, head teachers, parents, Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTS) and education officials, and administering questionnaires to primary school teachers. The next section discusses research design, procedure and data collection instruments.

4.4: Research design, procedure and data collection instruments

4.4.1: Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. This aim was achieved through exploring the experiences, knowledge and opinions of children, educators and parents. Children had experiences and knowledge of how they had been coping with different situations in life while at home, on the way to school, at school and on the way back home. They had experiences from their interaction with their teachers and from participation in the daily lessons at school. They had experiences from their play time at school. Children's accounts of how they had responded to these situations reflected the extent to which life skills education had influenced children's lives. Educators in school (teachers and head teachers) had experiences of how the children had responded to life skills education. They had witnessed children participate in learning activities, work with their colleagues and play together. Consequently, they had opinions on how life skills had influenced children's (pupils') behaviour. Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTs) were the tutors on site in Uganda and they monitored and evaluated teaching and learning in the primary schools. They had information from their monitoring and evaluation of teaching and learning in the primary schools on how life

skills education was thriving. Parents were directly responsible for the nurture of their children. They all had information concerning the behaviour of their children in response to their nurture at home and in response to their children's school influences.

In the case of the children, the impact of life skills education was measured by asking children to respond to hypothetical scenarios which required the use of life skills. Children were also asked their opinion on their interaction with their teacher in the classroom. Teachers were interviewed and also responded to questionnaires regarding their opinions of the life skills curriculum and the methods they used to teach life skills. They were also required to indicate whether they had witnessed any life skills indicators as a result of the methods they had used in the teaching learning process. In addition, a number of lessons were observed to measure the way in which life skills was taught in the classroom. Head teachers, district education officials and Co-ordinating Centre Tutors were asked in their interviews about the value of the life skills curriculum and the life skills' orientation training provided. Finally, parents were interviewed about their opinion on life skills education and the role of the school and the home in the development of life skills. Further detail on the content of each data collection instrument was provided below, following a discussion of the ethical considerations in this study and the composition of the research sample.

4.4.2: Ethical considerations

Ethical principles were applied to the whole process of this study, i.e., both the qualitative and quantitative study. All data collected are subject to the Data Protection (Amendment) Act, 2003 - Uganda. Ethical safe guards which were used in the study are outlined in the following paragraphs. Generally the three principles utilized throughout this study were the principle of beneficence, respect, and the principle of justice (Polit and Beck 2006; 2009 in O'Reilly, 2011).

In line with the principle of beneficence, ethical approval was sought from Mary Immaculate Research Ethics Committee (MIREC) and approval was obtained on 25th June, 2010. MIREC ensures that robust criteria are considered and applied to all potential research studies.

The principle of justice was upheld by ensuring that all the respondents were given the freedom to participate, withdraw when they felt they would not continue to participate, or not to participate at all. The study was designed in such a way that the teachers were asked to participate in three different data collection sessions. These sessions involved being observed while teaching, being interviewed and answering questionnaire items. At every stage, teachers were requested for consent before they could proceed to the next stage. For example, after being observed teaching, the teachers were asked to consent to being interviewed and after the interview teachers were again asked to consent to completing the questionnaire. In each case, all of the teachers participated willingly in each session. The teachers were allowed to fill the questionnaire during their own free time. This was done to eliminate the tension that would emanate from putting them under pressure on the same day they taught and were interviewed. Teachers felt very comfortable with this option. For the children, twenty to twenty five children were purposively selected depending on the number of children in the class. The purposive selection was used because the success of the interview depended on children being able to converse with the interviewee and some children would not effectively communicate as clarified by the teachers. All the children who were selected were then given both the participant information sheet and consent form. The participant information sheet was first read to them aloud and explained to them in the local language. The willingness of each child himself or herself to participate in the research was first sought before he or she was given the participant informed consent form and participant information sheet to take to his or her parent or guardian. Five pupils were then randomly selected from the number in each of the primary two and primary five classes who had returned the consent form. Children were only interviewed if they and their parents gave consent. Parents were contacted by the school authorities since I did not know them. I had a face-to-face interaction with the parents at their respective schools after they had been called by their head teachers. In these interactions I explained the purpose of the study verbally since some parents had difficulty with reading. Every parent I talked to agreed to participate in the study and therefore be interviewed. Some parents who were together accepted to be interviewed together in a focussed group discussion, others opted to be interviewed alone. There were a few in Manafwa district who could not be available for the interview at school but welcomed me to their homes for the interview. Since I

felt parents were justified to opt for the location with which they felt most comfortable I agreed to conduct the interviews in the location of their choice. Further reasons for conducting the parents' interviews in groups is discussed in the section below on parents' interviews

The principle of respect was upheld by ensuring that all the participants were given a participant information sheet (refer to Appendices 2.1 - adults & 2.2 - children) to read. This gave the participants an overview of the whole study in respect to what the project was about, who was undertaking the study, what was being undertaken, the benefits of the research, what was exactly involved for the participant, right to withdraw, how the information gathered would be used or disseminated, how confidentiality would be kept and contact details that included those of MIREC and the researcher's. Children were respected as dignified individuals and given a special information sheet (refer to Appendix 2.2) which they read and which gave the details of how they would participate in the interview, including use of a recorder, their right to withdraw and how the information gathered from them would be used. After reading and understanding what the project was all about the participants signed an informed consent form (refer to Appendix 2.3 - adults and 2.4 - children). For the pupils, the parents or guardians were the ones who signed the informed consent form before the selected children were interviewed. Every adult participant returned a signed informed consent form before he or she was interviewed, given a questionnaire (teachers) or observed while teaching (teachers). The participant information sheet and consent form was read aloud to participants who had difficulty reading the information independently. Further to this, for the participants who could not understand English, these forms were first translated to the local language before they were read loudly to the participants.

For all the adults who were interviewed (CCTs, teachers, head teachers, district education officials and parents), they were contacted individually to arrange for the time and venue. For the focus group discussions with parents, convenient venues for the discussion were organized by head teachers and CCTs, in collaboration with the parents themselves. On my arrival, I would then further discuss with the respondents to verify and agree on the most appropriate venue for the interview. All these venues were located in the primary schools used in this study except for a few parents in

Manafwa district who were interviewed at home. During the interview, further briefing on the overview of the study was given. The participants were further told about their freedom to withdraw at will in case the respondent felt he or she wanted to. They were again assured of confidentiality in the use of the data collected from them.

Further consolidation of the principle of justice was done by upholding both anonymity and confidentiality throughout the process of the study. All names and any other means of identification were removed from all processes of writing the report. The digital recorder, questionnaires, classroom observation records, lesson progress anecdotes and audio files on my computer were all kept under key and lock by the researcher. All the audio records were removed after coding.

Co-ordinating centre tutors participated in the study as interviewees. Given their knowledge of schools and districts, they also assisted the researcher in conducting teacher interviews. They interviewed 8 teachers in total including 4 teachers from Manafwa district and another four teachers from Kampala district. This assistance was required in order to ensure that some teachers' interviews could be conducted at the same time as children's interviews. Conducting these interviews simultaneously was necessary in order to ensure that time in schools could be maximised.

To ensure that the CCTs roles as interviewee and interviewer were not conflated, the CCT interview process was completed before CCTs were asked to assist as interviewers. On arrival at the coordinating centre, I first requested the CCT to participate in my study as a respondent. When a CCT accepted, I gave him or her the participant information sheet. After reading the participant information sheet, all the CCTs approached accepted to be interviewed. I then gave the CCT the informed consent form to sign. After signing the informed consent form, I started the interview. When the interview was completed, I asked the CCT if he or she would be willing to assist me as a research assistant. All CCTs who were asked agreed to participate in the study as research assistants. I then went to another centre.

When I had finished interviewing the CCTs, I organised an orientation seminar to ensure that the CCTs were aware of the ethical context of the study. The orientation

of research assistants was done independently in Manafwa district. But due to proximity, the orientation for research assistants in Mukono and Kampala districts was done together in the same training session. The orientation involved discussion of the structured interviews, ethical issues, need for the participant information sheet, need for the informed consent form, interviewer conduct, relationship with the interviewee, why the interviewee has a right to withdraw, what to do with the data when an interviewee withdraws, and the process of interviewing the teachers. On the process of interviewing, the research assistants were guided on how to start the interview with familiar talk to the teachers as a way of establishing rapport. They were also guided on how to begin the actual interview for example, how to enter the actual interview session. Then they were guided on how to ask the interview questions, probe when need arose, pause where the situation warranted, clarify when ambiguity cropped in, etc. To master this process of interviewing, simulated interview sessions were used. In the simulated interview sessions, the research assistants practiced recording information by noting down in a writing pad. For confidentiality, they could not use the recorder. Each simulated practice session was discussed by the research assistant trainees. After the discussion, a follow up practice session was conducted until we were all satisfied that mastery had been attained and that the research assistants were able to bracket their own opinions while eliciting the opinions of teachers. In addition to helping me interview eight teachers, most of the other support of these assistants was helping me and the head teachers to organise for the interviews of teachers and parents. Since these research assistants were more familiar with the geography of the school environments and even had motorcycles, they would help me to go to the trading centres to buy for me snacks for the participants. They would even help in distributing these snacks to the participants or respondents. They also helped me to collect the signed informed consent forms for the children and parents from the teachers because these forms were not brought back in one day by all the pupils or parents.

4.4.3: The research sample

In the study, the researcher used purposive sampling. The use of this purposive or non-probability sampling was due to the fact that there were cases in the study which were of particular interest (De Vaus, 2002 p.90). Purposive sampling was also used because I wanted to increase the scope of the range of data, the likelihood that a range of multiple realities would be uncovered and to maximize my ability to identify themes in the data (Lincoln & Guba in Cary, 1988, p. 30). The selection of the three districts was based on ethnic, cultural and economic diversity in Uganda. These were Manafwa situated in a male circumcising ethnic Bamasaba of Eastern Uganda, Mukono an ethnically integrated district of central Uganda and Kampala the only urban area which is a district in Uganda. Further to these characteristics, there was divergence in the socioeconomic status of the parents and their education level. For example, parents from the Manafwa district were mostly either primary school drop outs or had never gone to school at all. Most of the schools in Manafwa district were Universal Primary Education (UPE) schools where the government pays tuition fees of less than a dollar per term. The district of Mukono had schools better supported near the headquarters, Mukono town, but these were very few. The deep rural schools of Mukono district used in this study shared the same characteristics like those of Manafwa. It is these deep rural areas which were targeted because they had mixed ethnic groups. Kampala was an urban district where even the UPE schools which were used in this study had children who had food packed for them by parents and could even be dropped by their parents to school in vehicles. The parents in Kampala also subsidise the UPE fees of their children because they are either government employees or are doing some business. Most of the parents in Kampala district had been educated to at least lower secondary level as evidenced by their ability, for the most part of the interview, to speak in English. The composition of the parents sample therefore reflected the ethnic, educational and socioeconomic diversity in Uganda. Giving the extreme difficulty in travelling long distances in Uganda, the four schools in each district were selected for easy access so that the data could be collected within the time and financial limits of the study. The total number of schools used in the study were therefore 12 (twelve).

Head teachers are the executive managers of primary schools. The head teachers were asked to contribute in 4 ways:

- Giving official permission for the study to take place in their schools.
- Officially inviting or connecting the researcher to the parents for the interview
- Participate as respondents in the study.
- Officially allow the pupils and the teachers to participate in the study.

First and foremost, the head teachers were requested for permission to use the school in the study. Secondly, they had the official mandate to invite or connect the researcher to the parents for the interviews. Thirdly, they had to allow the teachers to be used as respondents in the study. Finally they had the official mandate for allowing the pupils and teachers to participate in the study. In this respect, a letter (see Appendix4.0) seeking permission to use the school in the study was given to the head teacher on arrival at the school. Fortunately, all head teachers instantly gave permission allowing their schools to be used in the study. Having obtaining permission, I started the process of organising the research interviews in collaboration with the head teacher and my research assistants. The detail of how interviews for each category of respondents was organised is discussed in section 4.4.4.

In each of the 12 primary schools, primary two and five classes were selected. Two teachers from primary two and primary five in each school participated in the study. At least two parents or guardians of primary two and five from each school were used in the study except in two schools where I managed to interview only one parent from each one of them. The head teacher from each school was interviewed. The sample population from the schools therefore included a total of 120 pupils including 5 pupils from primary two and 5 pupils from primary five in each school, 12 head teachers, 5 Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTs), two selected from each district save one district where only one CCT was selected, 22 parents, 24 teachers and 3 district education officials. The total number of respondents was therefore 186.

The details of the respondents are as indicated in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1: Details of respondents per category

Category	Class	Female	Male	Total
Pupils	Primary Two	28	32	60
	Primary Five	24	36	60
Teachers	Primary Two	10	02	12
	Primary Five	03	09	12
Head teachers	NA	05	07	12
District Education officials	NA	00	03	03
CCTs	NA	03	02	05
Parents	NA	14	08	22
Totals		**87**	**99**	**186**

As seen from Table 4.1, the design of this study involved a sample of 186 respondents who all had a stake in primary education. The qualitative part of the study tended to focus on the individual aspects of the pupils', parents', teachers', CCTs', and head teachers' experiences and tried to capture them in their entirety, within the context of their own experiences (Polit and Beck, 2009). The details of the data collection techniques used are provided in section 4.4.4.

4.4.4: Data collection procedure - interviews

Data collection in this study was done using a variety of instruments which included interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaires, and observation. In this section, interviews of teachers, pupils, head teachers, Coordinating Centre Tutors and district education officials are be discussed.

Interviews were used to obtain relevant data on the implementation of life skills education and its impact on pupils in the primary schools in Uganda. This was because, as a qualitative researcher, I was interested in the teachers', parents', head teachers', pupils', and CCTS' own perspectives, thoughts, assumptions, world views, etc., in their own words and in their own minds (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982 p.29). Bogdan and Biklen term this as a concern with 'participant perspectives'. During the interviews, respondents gave their personal views and opinions on the areas under discussion (Streubert - Speziale and Carpenter, 2007). I used interviews knowing that they had both advantages and disadvantages. I made effort to use the advantages by seeking more in depth information from the interviewees through asking follow-up

questions that resulted in clarification and elaboration of questions and responses (Cohen et al, 2000). The main disadvantages of interviewing relate to reliability issues such as interviewer bias and interviewee being asked different questions. The manner in which these issues were addressed in this study is clearly explained in the sections on rigour (in section 4.3.5) and in the description of the interview process for each category of respondents below.

In each interview, the interview followed a predetermined semi-structured interview guide. This was selected as the most suitable and popular method for collecting self-report data. Informed consent was sought from the respondents, they answered the questions voluntarily and could withdraw at any time with their entire answers erased if they so wished (Barbara, 2009, P.2). The purpose of the data collection was also explained and a guarantee was given that the data would be used for the study purposes only (ibid). Each category of respondents had a separate interview guide based on the nature of the information sought from the category as indicated below.

4.4.4.1: Interviewing children

According to Kyronlampi-Kylmanen and Maatta (2010) "traditional research focusing on children has been in many instances carried out by collecting information from the children's parents, teachers, and other adults" (p.1). Kyronlampi-Kylmanen and Maatta further observe that 'information acquired from the children themselves has been considered of secondary importance. As the number of studies focusing on children has increased, it is important to consider the children themselves as research subjects' (Kyronlampi-Kylmanen and Maatta, 2010, p.1).

As we consider children as research subjects, Eder and Fingerson suggested using group interviews with children rather than one-on-one interviews (Eder and Fingerson, 2003 in Epstein et al, 2006 p. 2). Heeding this suggestion, I conducted all pupil interviews as group interviews. Other group interviews were the focused group discussions conducted for some parents and the reasons for this are given in that section on parents' interviews. In this study, I considered pupils' interviews as group interviews because I had designed a structured interview guide for the pupils (refer to Appendix 3.6) and asked the questions in the structured interview guide one after

another as pupils answered them individually according to each pupils' experiences. As a pupil would answer a question, another pupil was reminded of a similar experience in his or her life and responded accordingly. On the other hand, I had also designed a structured interview guide for parents (refer to Appendix 3.4) which I used on individual parent's interviews until I realised the need for a focus group discussion as explained in the interview section for parents. I considered the discussions I had with groups of parents, focussed group discussions because; each question in the structured interview guide for the parents was a discussion point. The parents gave their views and counter views as they discussed the question before I could introduce another question after satisfaction that they had generated enough points on the question.

The group interviews were very useful as the children were more at ease in groups. Furthermore, children's answers were a basis or source for new questions. In the process of these group interviews, children became conscious of different thoughts and understandings and consequently come to understand one thing or another that they had not understood earlier (Deverbog and Pramling, 1993, p.31). As I interviewed, I was conscious of group mechanisms. I made sure that quiet children were able to participate in the conversation. There was also appropriate regulation of the children who tried to dominate using indirect and positive methods of control like, "Can we also here from Mary? Could you wait a bit for Paul to finish first or make his point clear? Walter, you seem to have something nice to tell us, what is it? Jane, you seem to have something to supplement Isaac's point, what is it?" Consequently, I was able to obtain in-depth knowledge by listening to children as they shared and compared their experiences, feelings and opinions (The Pennsylvania State University, 2007).

Pupils' pilot interviews were conducted in one school to test the feasibility of the interview design on collecting information from the pupils in primary two and primary five (Thabane et al 2010). This was a mini version of a full-scale study that served to check the feasibility of the initially designed structured interview guide for the pupils by pre-testing it on the primary two and five pupils (NC3Rs, 2006). This

helped to gather information prior to the larger study in the twelve participating primary schools. The pilot revealed that the pupils in primary two and five did not have the capacity for abstract systematic thinking because their thinking falls short of adult intelligence and could not easily conceptualise the abstract questions (Berk, 2009 p.21). This prompted the researcher to organize pictorial stories for the children to look at and be able to respond to questions during the interview. The modified interview guide (refer to Appendix 3.6) that was used alongside the pictures demonstrated that the interview guide used together with the drawn stories could work (NR3Cs, 2006, Thabane et al 2010).

After refining the interview guide for pupils' interviews, I embarked on the process of interviewing the pupils. During the interview, I first introduced myself and then started a conversation. The conversation was started in a way that could make the pupils feel at home. One of the things I normally did was to ask the pupils to introduce themselves which they did. This could then be followed by some questions, casual talk on familiar but interesting things to the children, jokes, etc., depending on the sensed mood of the pupils. All these acted as ice breakers and systematically and naturally made children feel at home. I also briefed the pupils on the right to withdraw. For all pupil interviews, I had a recorder which I used. The recorder in most cases became a motivator of the interview as in some cases pupils requested to hear their voices after the interview. I had some pictures for the pupil interview which I normally introduced at an appropriate point in the time of the interview, i.e., at a time when every pupil would have settled in the session and was ready and comfortable enough to speak.

In a free, natural school atmosphere, I started the interview. Children naturally responded, talked freely and even in some cases competed to give their views and opinions. They even had the chance to ask some questions when they wished. There was no limitation to divergence because there was no right or wrong answer to a question. In some cases the pupils could not speak English fluently or understand it fully. I could turn to vernacular since I could fluently speak and understand the vernacular or local language spoken in all the three districts of the study. In some cases there were long pauses during the interview when children could not immediately respond. I waited patiently and, where necessary, used verbal cues to

sustain the conversation. At the end of the interview, I asked pupils to mention what job they would like to do after school. I got interesting responses that reflected pupils' self-awareness, self-esteem and critical thinking. As the interview progressed, the interviewer and interviewee had the latitude to ask and provide information which may not have been asked for, but yet was relevant to the study. The interview guide in itself allowed the pupils autonomy to reply (Bryman 2008). At the end of the interview pupils were given chance to listen to their conversations. Later on, I listened to the recorded interviews to note the information that had bearing on the emerging themes. Each aspect of the pupils' interviews is discussed in more detail in the remainder of this section.

Deverbog and Pramling, (1993) observe that "children's comments are not things for amusing adults, for without them, the adult could not know how children view their own world" (p.16). According to Deverbog and Pramling, "interviews make clear what children think, and through interviews children are compelled to think and reflect" (Deverbog and Pramling, 1993, p.14). It is what children say or the manner in which they express their thinking that reveals their comprehension of the world in which they live (ibid, p.16).

It is observed that "with the help of professionals, even young children can provide rich verbal accounts of their own experiences and of their understanding of the world around them" (Garbarino, and Stott, 1992, p.170). However, "interviewing is an adult form of inquiry" (ibid). As far as children are concerned they, "are sensitive and affected by the questions adults ask them" (Wood, MacMahon and Crastoum in Garbarino and Stott, 1992, p.170). To substantiate this statement, Wood, et al explain further that "pre-school children and even school-age children are often reluctant to answer questions that do not appear legitimate or interesting to them – questions that children know the adult can answer for herself" (Wood, MacMahon, and Crastoun, 1980, in Garbarino and Stott, 1992, p.81). Garbariano and Stott therefore, observe that asking questions that children know we know the answer to may deter their participation in a conversation. For example, a parent who took her son for an interview for admission to primary one in one of the primary schools in Kampala said:

> The teacher who was interviewing first called her son by name i.e. 'X' come here. The teachers' first interview question was, 'What is your name?' The boy did not answer until he failed the interview and went away. On the way, the mother asked him why he had refused to tell the teacher his name. The boy replied in the affirmative, "But, mummy she knew my name".
>
> A parent in Kampala

Consequently, the interviewer needs to know something about the child's experience so that the adult can "ask informed questions to which children can respond with more detailed information" (Garbarino and Stott, 1992, p. 82). The reason here is that the more adults know about what a child has experienced, and the more awareness professionals have of the typical activities of children and their patterns of thinking, the more effective they will be in engaging children in conversations that elicit information about their well-being (ibid).

The knowledge of the child's experience that Garbariano and Stott talk about above is very useful at the starting point of the interview because:

> The starting point of the interview should be a situation or experience which the child is familiar with. It is always easier for the child to reflect upon concrete situations, experiences, etc. than to reflect upon theoretical principles. The closer one comes to the children's environment in the interview situation, the easier is to arrive at a suitable starting point for the interview.
>
> (Deverbog and Pramling p.35 in Garbarino and Stott, 1992, p.170)

I made an effort to create this trust between the children and me during the beginning of the interviews by engaging children in a conversation on daily issues in the school and community. I organised them in a circular formation and also sat beside them in the circle. This is supported by Bell and Osborne when they give this guidance:

> The first problem is to gain the confidence of the pupil whom you wish to interview ... gain rapport with the pupil on the way to the interview room and/or when the pupil first enters the room. Very casual conversation "How are you getting on today?", and soon all helps to put him/her at ease.
>
> (Bell and Osborne, 1981, p.3)

Another effort I made during the interview was to put the pupil further at ease by explaining quite openly, clearly and honestly. For example, I explained that the interview was simply a conversation I was going to have with the children on their experiences at school, home, on their way home, their relationships with others, their play, etc.

On using the tape recorder, I followed and implemented the following guidance that Bell and Osbone give:

> Now, unfortunately I won't be able to remember everything that you say so I would like to use the tape recorder. If you say anything you are unhappy about then I will remove it from the tape before you leave. Nothing will be held against you! O.K.?
> (Bell and Osbone, 1981, p.3)

Deverbog and Pramling (1993) also support the use of a tape recorder during the interviewing session and observe that, "it is always good to use a tape recorder because it is difficult to take good notes at the same time as the interview is in progress" (p. 27). This is because the speaking speed of the child is always faster than the note taking speed of the interviewer (Deverbong and Pramling 1993). Therefore, information will be missed without a tape recorder (ibid).

Alongside this establishment of rapport, I also made practical arrangements. Deverbog and Pramling (1993) further observe that in an interview situation, it is not only the questions and their phrasing which influence what can be obtained from children. Just as important is the contact created with the child, for without the child's willingness to work together with us; we cannot learn anything from him or her. They explain that there are some external circumstances which affect the interview situation, irrespective of whether it involves an interview with a single child or with a group. I therefore sustained children's involvement and commitment by keeping the mutuality of the conversation through listening intensively to what each child would be saying as I nodded in approval, smiled, hummed, probed, sought clarification, etc. This gave the children the impression that I was really interested in each child as the interview progressed.

The intention of interviewing pupils is to learn from them. However, "what adults learn from young children has as much to do with the adult's competency, sensitivity, and knowledge about the child and his way of thinking and speaking as it does with the child's linguistic competencies" (Garbarino and Stott, 1992, p.90). As Melton and Thompson observe, "communicative skill is an attribute of speaker-listener pairs, not just the speaker" (Melton and Thompson, 1987, p.14). This is because, "if communication between two partners is to function, things must have the same meaning" (Deverbog and Pramling, 1993, p.22). Cognisance was therefore taken of how meaning was conveyed to the children during the interview (Hymes, 1971a,

1971b; Riggs, 1986, in Garbarino and Stott 1992). I asked questions which were easy rather than difficult, neutral rather than leading, but on the other hand penetrating rather than superficial (ibid). Such questions were used to get the children to talk and express their own ideas in their own words (Bell and Osborne, 1981, p.4). During the whole process of the interviews, as Garbarino and Stott (1992) advise, "there was assessment of the vocabulary and grammatical complexity of statements made by child respondents and adjusting to their questions and comments accordingly" (p.179). That is why in some cases, as reported in chapter five, children were allowed to speak or express themselves in the local language.

Bell and Osborne add another skill to do with the interviewer's tone of voice, expression, emphasis and intonation. They explain that these are important variables and should be encouraging but not suggestive of expecting any particular answer. Care was therefore taken to convey nothing else other than the intended messages to the pupils (Bell and Osborne, 1981).

During the interview, there should be deep (intensive) interviewing which involves following up answers in an interview so that the child can reveal his or her thoughts (Deverbog and Pramling, 1993). This can be possible when interviewers are sensitive to the children's answers and formulate follow up questions depending on what the child says (p.41). Effort was made during the interview to ask clarifying questions. These were intended to follow up on information which was not clear and needed clarification. However, care was taken to ensure that the penetrating follow up questions were not leading. For example, questions which encourage no or yes responses were avoided because they could just seek a confirmation of or disagreement to my views (Bell and Osborne, 1981. p. 6).

According to Bell, "if the interviewer can both by word, emphasis, and mannerism, convey to the pupil that he, or she is really interested in the pupil's view, whatever that view happens to be, then pupils respond and grow in confidence as the interview proceeds" (Bell and Osborne, P.6).

Another observation is that communicative competence requires not only linguistic competence but also an understanding of social and cultural rules for using language.

For example in some cultures, like a number of them in Uganda, it would be rude for a child to contradict an adult (Garbarino and Stott, 1992pp.172-3). With this knowledge in mind, I did three things:

I explained to the pupils that I was just going to talk to them and wanted to know what they like, how they learn, how they play and how they work together with others. As for me I did not know what they knew.

I explained that everyone in the group had different information so whatever they were going to say was right because they were just telling me what they knew.

I explained that everyone was free to say what she or he felt to say as we conversed.

I did this because, as cautioned by Bell and Osborne, when they say; "do not lead the pupils to new conceptions because it is not the interviewer's conceptions that we are trying to get into the pupil's head but the pupil's conception that we are trying to get into the interviewer's head"(Bell and Osborne, 1981, p.5). Bell and Osborne further observe that "this is important because pupils are accustomed to making effort to give the teacher's answer" (ibid). The pupil might seek to give the interviewer's answer if the tone of the interview reflects a teacher in disguise who is giving the pupil an oral examination. (p.5)

Practically, during the interview, I explained to the children that they have the answers to my questions. And the answers were not the same because they do not stay in the same homes or think the same way or do the same things or like the same things, etc. One example that I found working was this explanation: "What did you eat yesterday? Do I know the answer? OK, now to any of my questions, you tell me what you know and whatever you tell me is not wrong. Today, whatever you say is right". I reminded children whenever I entered a new area of focus. For example, on what future jobs the children would like, I started by explaining, "People do different jobs to get money. Each person has thoughts about a future job and why she or he likes that job. What job would you like to do in future and why do you like that job?"

In some cases, a useful technique I used when the pupil gave me an unanticipated answer was to repeat the pupil's answer back to him or her as if mulling it over. This had a dual purpose. It checked that the pupil's response be recorded on the tape, and it allowed both the pupil and I time to think about the answer (Bell and Osborne 1981,

p.7). Pupils were therefore given appropriate and sufficient time to formulate responses.

During interview sessions, there was also need to explore doubt and hesitation. Normally this happened because in some cases pupils lapsed back into thinking that I was looking for the right answer. I therefore repeated the question and re-emphasized the pupil's meaning. For example statements like, "Jane, I just wanted to know why you need to have friends while at school and at home. What is good with having friends or a friend?" Such probes helped me to clarify the questions which would seem to have been misunderstood.

In some cases there was a need to remember and reflect on pupils' earlier responses so that contradictions with respect to an earlier part of the interview could be picked up and clarified. For example, "when you looked at this picture, you said you love to play with friends. But, now looking at this picture seems to have made you say you do not like to play, what is here that makes you think playing is bad? What is in this picture that has made you say playing is bad? How can you avoid situations like what you see happening in this picture?"

At the end of the interview, pupils were given the chance to listen to the recorded conversation which they appreciated. During the interview, I also used pictures explained in the next paragraph.

The use of pictures was decided after the pilot of the first pupils' interview guide. Epstein and colleagues observe that 'until recently, most researchers and clinicians have used proxy reports to obtain information about children' (Epstein, Stevens, McKeever and Baruchel, 2006 p.2). Consequently, "children have been excluded from research and from many aspects of decision-making because they are considered less experienced, less rational, more dependent, and less competent than adults" (Bluebond-Langner, 1978; Christensen, 1997; Franklin, 1995 in Epstein et al 2006, ibid). In contrast, today, there is a shift to looking at children as persons who can contribute actively (James, Jenks, & Prout, 1998; Mayall, 2000). This shift has emanated from using photographs or pictures in interviews. According to Clark, the problem has been use of "verbal interviews which rely on linguistic communication,

and for very young children, verbal language limits the issues and questions that the researcher can explore" (Clark 1999 cited in Epstein, Stevens, McKeever and Baruchel, 2006 p.2). Clark also argued that in their everyday life, children seldom take part in sharing information in question-and-answer sessions; thus, the question-and-answer interview is outside their sociolinguistic repertoire (ibid). Epstein et al (2006) give examples of some researchers who have called for placing interviews with children into their everyday or larger activities, such as 'show and tell' activities (Tammivaara and Enright 1986) or puppet show (Beardslee, 1996; Eder).

In keeping with above discussion, I found during the pilot study that children needed something concrete to support their comprehension or thoughts about what they would be explaining. I therefore had to develop and use pictures to help reveal their comprehension or thoughts about certain situations and experiences.
With the use of the pictures, the children could describe the content of the scenes shown. Then starting from their answers, other questions could be formulated (Deverbog and Pramling, 1993 p35).

The pictures gave focus to the interviews and kept the children's attention. Pictures were also helpful in building relationships with children. However, a problem experienced in using pictures was in some cases loss in eye contact (Fabian, 1996, pp. 5-8). An effort was made to remind the children to focus on the picture being discussed by asking question like 'now, what is happening here? Have you seen what these two children are doing?

4.4.4.2: Teachers' interviews

A total of 24 teachers of primary two and five were interviewed. Since teachers had already been teaching life skills in the primary school, they had information on how life skills in primary schools were progressing. The interview guide used for teachers is presented in Appendix 3.5. For teachers' interviews, I also used research assistants who helped me to collect the data. These researchers were CCTs and their role has been discussed in the section on ethics.

I conducted 16 teachers' interviews myself. The research assistants conducted 8 teachers' interviews, 4 in the Manafwa district and 4 in the Kampala. Research assistants helped me to conduct interviews when I would be busy with pupils' interviews. They interviewed primary two teachers who normally went home after lunch, because their lesson ended at lunch time. After the CCTs had conducted the interviews, we sat together and reflected on the interview records. Later, I reflected further on their records alone to ensure that the whole interview was conducted within the context of the research assistants' orientation seminar conducted earlier. After coding and developing the initial themes, I gave the research assistants a chance to look at the codes and initial themes before I could proceed to further data analysis. In all cases, that is whether it was me interviewing or my assistant, the teacher to be interviewed was requested to organize a more suitable place for the interview. This was done to set the interviewee at ease. She or he was asked to choose a comfortable place for the interview, which was open but free from interruption. She or he could then call me or the research assistant when ready to be interviewed.

I began with establishing rapport by introducing myself, the study and its aims, and any other confidence building conversation as the situation may have warranted. For example, I checked with the interviewee if it was fine to use a recorder. Each of the 16 teachers interviewed by me agreed to the recording. The CCTs did not audio record their interviews. An effort was made in all interviews to ensure that the teachers were free to express themselves and give views on life skills education in their schools. The freedom was consolidated by prior rapport established, and assurance of the teachers that the information that was gathered was purely for the project and was not in any way official. It was lack of official implications that enabled the teachers to freely and honestly talk about how life skills education was being implemented by them. In some cases some interviewees requested to listen to the recorded conversation and we did listen to the conversation together.

4.4.4.3: Parents' interviews

In this interview, an interview guide was used (refer to Appendix 3.4). Initially, the researcher initiated a process of individual interviews with parents. However, it became evident that there was a need to interview the parents in groups as the cross-

checking and corroboration which group discussions would provide would strengthen the data with group processes helping parents to explore and clarify their views in ways that would be less easily accessible in a one to one interview (Kitzinger, 1995, cited in Sagoe, 2012 p.2). This is because when group dynamics work well, the participants work alongside the researcher, taking the research in new and often unexpected directions. In this case focus groups with parents helped me to tap into the many different forms of communication that parents use in their day-to-day interaction, including jokes, anecdotes, teasing, and arguing (ibid). In this way, focus groups had the potential to generate data that may not have surfaced in individual interviews (p.3). Hughes and DuMont (1993 in Sagoe, 2012 p.1) define focus groups as "in-depth group interviews employing relatively homogenous groups to provide information around topics specified by the researchers". Similarly, Powell and Single (1996) define a focus group as "a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research" (Powell and Single cited in Sagoe, 2012, p.1). According to Kitzinger the idea behind focus group methodology is that "group processes can help people to explore and clarify their views in ways that would be less easily accessible in a one to one interview" (1995 cited in Sagoe, 2012 p.2). This was necessary because in this study, respondents had divergent views on life skills that emanated from their divergent experiences in divergent settings. In this case, focus groups with parents helped to explore parents' knowledge and experiences which could be used to examine not only what parents thought but how they thought and why they thought that way about life skills education (Kitzinger, 1995, cited in Sagoe, 2012 p.1).

As explained here, parents were either interviewed individually or in groups by me. Fourteen individual parent interviews were conducted in the districts of Manafwa and Mukono. Conducting group interviews in these districts was difficult because of the sparseness of the homes and schools. Of the 16 parents approached from the eight schools in the two districts, 14 consented to be interviewed.

Eight parents from the Kampala district participated in group interviews and were from schools that are physically very close together. I conducted two interviews combining four parents from two schools each time. However, in either case, the questions remained the same and were asked in the same order. Each question served

as a discussion point. In some cases, parents' interviews were conducted in both English, vernacular or local language. There were instances when the interview was exclusively conducted in vernacular or local language, especially in the rural districts of Manafwa and Mukono. This was done to enable parents to express themselves freely. The free and open ended discussions enabled the parents to give any information they had on the life skills of their children and how this impacted on the type of child they feel they should have after school. I made sure that the parents were comfortable by giving them freedom to choose the time and venue for the interview. This enabled them to be interviewed at times when they were did not have other pressing commitments.

On the day of the interview, I went to the school and the CCT or school head teacher gave me the parents' signed consent forms. The CCT or Head Teacher introduced me to the parents and vice versa. We then agreed and organised the interview venue and then proceeded with the interviews. A few interviews in the rural primary schools were organised in the homes of the parents. This gave me chance, alongside the interview, to get the feel of the homes where the children came from.

I had to ensure the comfort of the parents by welcoming them, explaining the purpose and significance of the interview, involving them in casual talk about their school and area and organising for them refreshment in form of a soda and a snack. I also informed them that each one of them was free to leave when he or she wished. I also told them that during the interview, there was no right and wrong answer. The parents therefore knew that their responses were derived from their experiences and the views they held about these experiences in regard to their children's life skills' development.

4.4.4.4: Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTs) interviews

The Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTs) served as both research assistants and respondents in the study. As said earlier, without any knowledge of whether they would be research assistants, the CCTs first participated in the study as respondents. The interview process started with requesting for the acceptance and availability of the CCT for the interview on the same day I visited the centre. Luckily, each CCT accepted to be interviewed on the same day. After accepting, I requested the CCT to

arrange the most convenient place for him or her for the interview. At the place of the interview, I started with establishing rapport by first having a casual talk with the CCT on some matters of the centre and education in the district or area. For example, when she or he was posted to that centre, how she or he found the centre, how the centre was progressing then, how she or he enjoys CCT work, etc. Sometimes I would comment on something had happened in the area, district or nation. In some cases, when I saw it fitting, I would crack a joke, etc. I would then progress to talking about confidentiality, the right to withdraw and use of a recording device during the interview. What I emphasised here is that all the information was purposely for the study and between the interviewee and me. I had to emphasise this because many people go to CCTs to get information for writing performance reports. Consequently, CCTs are cautious in disclosing information.

With this assurance, I started interviewing the CCTs (see Appendix 3.2 for the interview guide). The interviews with the CCTs took a minimum of one and a half hours and a maximum of two hours. This was longer than initially thought. In the process of the interview care could be taken to clarify any ambiguities that emerged. The long-time taken was because I paused to allow sufficient reflection, to probe when necessary, to clarify when need arose and to encourage when I realised that there was need to do so. At the end I thanked the CCT and requested permission to contact them again if I needed further information. Finally, as said earlier, I requested them to help me as research assistants. Those who accepted were oriented as explained above on a day after the CCTs' interviews were accomplished in the whole district.

4.4.4.5: Primary school head teachers' interviews

The head teachers' interview was done last in each school because I wanted to first get information from the other respondents from the school before I could finally interview the head teacher as a summary of the interview in the school.

All the head teachers of the participating schools accepted and participated in the study as interviewees (see interview guide in Appendix 3.3). On the day of the interview, the head teacher was interviewed in a preferred place of his convenience.

All the head teachers preferred to be interviewed in their offices. I began the head teachers' interview with establishing rapport. I talked casually with the head teacher about the situation of the school, e.g., performance, parental support and involvement, progress of UPE, etc. These are the issues of common talk in Ugandan primary schools. I would then proceed to ask how long the head teacher had been at the school. I would then proceed to assuring the head teacher on confidentiality. The intention of the study, and right to withdraw were also explained to the head teacher. I proceeded to the interview. The head teachers' interview took about 45 to 50 minutes.

4.4.4.6: District Education Officials' interviews

The three district education officials used in this study were interviewed from their district headquarters. When I reached their offices at the district, I gave them the information sheet to read and understand what the project was all about. Then, I gave them the participant informed consent form which they signed. Each of them agreed to participate in the study.

Establishment of rapport was also used in district education officials' interviews as in the other interviews. I began by talking generally about educational matters in the district and then narrowed the discussion to the different interventions in the district and consequently started asking the questions in the district education officials interview guide (refer to Appendix 3.1). The length of time taken for district education officials' interviews ranged from 30 to 35 minutes. This was due to their busy schedules but mainly because they seemed to have limited knowledge in life skills education.

4.4.5: Data collection procedure - Observation of lessons in primary two and five

An observation instrument was designed and was used to observe lessons in primary five and two classes. 'Classroom observations can capture the naturally occurring events of an educational intervention' (Chesterfield, (n.d.) p.1). It (classroom observation) 'is a method of directly observing teaching practice as it unfolds in real time, with the observer or analyst taking notes and/or coding instructional behaviours in the classroom or from videoed lessons' (Hora and Ferrare, 2013 p.1). Hora and Ferrare further explain that two applications of classroom observations are the most

common: to support professional development, and to assess and/or evaluate teaching quality. T*eacher observation guides* guide the observer in determining what strategies have been used by the teacher as well as the extent to which the strategies used by the teacher are effective (American Institutes for Research, 2014).

Hora and Ferrare (2013, pp.3-4) provide seven questions to serve as a guide in designing observation instruments. These questions include covering areas on quality of teaching, level of granularity, focus (teacher or student or both), subject matter, degree of inference, structure and integration with other data sources. On the basis of the above, the observation instrument was made drawing further on the guidance from Joe, Tocci, Holtzman and Williams (2013 p.6) who give guidelines for developing the observation instrument as below:

- Define and document the dimensions of teaching practice and level of content-specificity the instrument should capture.
- Consider how the observation data will be used.
- Once the dimensions are defined, determine the scoring scale and criteria.
- Gather feedback from subject-matter (For this study it was life skills education content and the content of methodology used in the two classes).
- Try applying the instrument and its rubrics to classroom observation to determine what is working, what is not working, and what modifications have to be made. In this respect a pilot use of the instrument was done and it was found to be working with very minor modifications.

(Joe, Tocci, Holtzman and Williams, 2013, p.6)

Based on the above literature, the instrument was designed to capture the quality of teaching and learning in the context of life skills education. In terms of granularity, the observation instrument was designed to capture the dynamics of the entire lesson that included teacher behaviour and learner behaviour. The instrument went further to seek for information on how the teacher interacted with the pupils and vice versa and pupil to pupil interaction. In this case the instrument was also designed to establish the relationship distance between the teacher and the pupils. The instrument was designed in such a way that different situations in the lesson procedure would be captured to reflect this. I also noted that:

> Most observational instruments are forms that help a researcher to collect systematic observational information about research questions. Whatever the purpose of the form, it should contain certain basic information, including the name of the school

> and identification of the classroom and the teacher. … The context of the observation (e.g., language class, math class, recess) should also be recorded on the form, as well as the time that the observation took place. …it is always a good idea to leave space on the form to add codes or additional notes and comments.
> (Chesterfield (n.d.) p.12)

In this respect, I made sure that the design of the instrument included class, number of pupils (disaggregated), the subject, competencies to be developed, methods and life skills to be developed.

The design also took cognisance of the lesson procedure and included seeking for information on how the methods would be used, classroom tasks, and nature of content, classroom routines, and evaluation activities during the lesson. The information in these areas was to show how children's life skills development was being facilitated. The design also included seeking any evidence of life skills among the pupils. Finally the instrument had 19 sections (see Appendix 3.8). In all these sections, an effort was made to ensure that the sections had a potential to guide the observer, in all observations to consistently identify the strategies that facilitated development of certain life skills and the classroom or lesson progress behavioural indicators of the life skills in question (Chesterfield, (n.d.) p. 9).

The instruments and all the rubrics to classroom observation in the instrument were piloted. The instrument was found fitting with only two amendments substituting competencies for objectives and instructional aides for instructional materials. The next section describes how the observation instrument was used.

4.4.5.1: Process of using the observation instrument

Pre- observation phase: Prior to the observation, I gave the teachers the opportunity to explain their lessons to me (Wilkerson, 1986, The pre-observation conference). I had sufficient time for discussion with the teacher to ask questions to clarify any confusing points in the lesson plan. This was done because the teachers needed to have the opportunity to reflect on the design of their lessons that incorporate life skills education strategies and I needed to be clear about what the teachers intended to do to guide my recording of the lesson progress. In this case, I managed to establish rapport

and understand the lesson competencies, content, and methods for the lesson. This also served to enable me to get familiar with the whole lesson plan.

Observation phase: During this phase, the observation instrument was used to collect descriptive data on the progress of the lesson which 'was meant to provide an account of classroom behaviour and interaction without making an effort to judge these events as good or bad, right or wrong, effective or ineffective' (ibid, Observation).

Post observation phase: To make sense of the collected data, I met with the teacher and discussed the results together with him or her (ibid, Post observation). This was because the guide was not intended to evaluate teacher performance but was used as an objective instrument to provide useful information for the study and working together with the teacher enabled sharing perspectives and interpretations (ibid). In this case, during this phase, there was collaborative reflection on the record of the lesson in the instrument which was intended to clarify certain issues in the data collected. This helped to develop a summary of the issues that became a basis for the codes and emerging themes.

4.4.5.2: Coding the observations

The reflection on the observation data with the teachers and further reflection while alone enabled me to develop codes that reflected what transpired in the 24 lessons observed in relation to the research questions of the study. A code in qualitative inquiry:

> Is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data. Any researcher who wishes to become proficient at doing qualitative analysis must therefore learn to code well and easily. The excellence of the research rests in large part on the excellence of the coding.
>
> (Strauss, 1987, in Saldana, 2008, p.1)

However, "coding is not a precise science; it's primarily an interpretive act' (p.4). Following Berkowitz's guidelines, while coding the following was done:

- Common themes that emerged and the patterns they formed were identified based on the research questions
- An examination of whether there were any deviating patterns was done and the majority of the themes were in the context of the research questions.

- An examination as to whether the themes represented past experiences of the respondents or participants was done. This established the story of life skills development in children as related to the context in the home, community and school.
- The emerging themes as emerging stories in the data were identified.
- Whether any of the stories suggested review of the question was reflected on and the stories were found to be answering the research questions.
- The patterns which emerged were related to literature and studies on life skills education in many respects.

(Berkowiz 1997 cited in University of Texas at Austin, 2007).

All the above were based on Bogdan and Biklin's (1998) common types of coding categories which helped me to shape my coding scheme and develop the themes as explained above in the context of the study's research questions.

4.4.6: Questionnaire

A questionnaire (see Appendix 3.7) was designed and administered to all the teachers who participated in the study. As said above this was the third instrument to consolidate triangulation of data collection. In the literature, "a questionnaire is a set of questions designed to gather information from a respondent" (Statistics Canada, 2014 Paragraph 1). A questionnaire "is the interface between the respondent and the researcher, and therefore plays a central role in the data collection process" (ibid). Further to this, the interviewer can administer the questionnaire or the respondent can himself or herself complete the questionnaire (Statistics Canada, ibid). In this study a questionnaire for teachers was designed keeping the questions and statements as simple and short as possible to increase respondents' comprehension (Fink 2003; Dillmann 2000 and Fordy 1993 cited in Leitz, 2010). When designing, I made sure I minimized the possibility of reporting errors, ensured that the instructions to respondents were short, clear, and easy to follow (Statistics Canada, 2014).

In designing the questionnaire, I examined the scope of the study and the inherent aspects and issues in this study. Aspects and issues included the life skills content, life skills education, and the teaching and the learning environment. The result of this examination was the construction of a questionnaire that sought basic information from the teachers about their classroom and information of how they had handled

development of ten life skills was finally designed. Information to be given on each of the life skills was both closed and open ended. In the questionnaire, there was no item on subject matter because life skills education in Uganda is infused so that the focus of the programme is on methodology or approaches and not subject matter. For each of the life skills, teachers were asked to select from a list the activities they mostly use to develop the life skill and the indicators that show they had developed them. Teachers were given the option of adding a method or indicator to the list if they wished. The indicators listed on the questionnaire are a summary of those listed in the primary school curriculum as to list all of the indicators as they are described in the curriculum would have been too cumbersome. Administration of the questionnaires was done as I moved from school to school. It always happened after the observations and interviews were completed. Analysis of the data in the questionnaires was done using percentages, cross tabulations, and chi squares and is described in detail in chapter 6.

4.5 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has described the aims and objectives of the current study. The primary aim was to explore how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. Methodological and data triangulation was used to ensure credibility, reliability and validity of the study. Quantitative methods were used to enumerate methods and indicators of life skills and qualitative methods were used to explore understanding of life skills education amongst respondents. Data were gathered through interviews, focus groups, observations and interviews. The study gave rise to ethical considerations, particularly around the interviewing of children and the complex relationships in the study. These were addressed through careful engagement with the respondents and delineation of research boundaries.

CHAPTER FIVE: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

5.1: Introduction

A great deal of qualitative data was gathered in this study. Children participated in group interviews and parents participated in focus group discussions. Teachers, head teachers, Coordinating Centre Tutors and District Education Officials were interviewed using a structured interview. Twenty-four lessons were also observed. These respondents' attitudes, world views, experiences and explanations of the impact of pupils' life skills education in primary schools were ascertained through each of these data collection methods. Specifically, the data address the research questions relating to teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions of, competencies in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools, and children's knowledge and awareness of life skills. They provide insight into the extent that children demonstrate life skills and the methods teachers use to develop life skills. Finally, the qualitative data highlights the challenges involved in implementing life skills education in Uganda. In this chapter the methodology used to analyse the interview and focus group data is described and the results of that analysis are presented. The summary and conclusion describe the ways in which the data address the research questions.

5.2: Data analysis process

This section presents the analysis of the results of interviews and focus group discussions and begins with the tables showing the number of each category of respondents and the codes assigned to them.

Table 5.1: Categories of respondents, their numbers and assigned codes for focus group discussions

Category of respondents	Number	Codes
Pupils	120	PA0001-PZ0120
Parents	08	PFGA001-PFGB008

Table 5.2: Categories of respondents, their numbers and assigned codes for Interviews

Category of respondents	Number	Codes
Parents	14	PRT009-PRT022
Head teachers	12	HT001-HT012
Teachers	24	T001-T024
CCTs	05	CCT001-CCT005
District Education Officials	03	ED001-ED003

To analyse the data collected from this qualitative part of this study, thematic analysis was used. According to Boyatzis:

> Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organises and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, it also often goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic.
>
> (1998 in Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 79)

Braun and Clarke (2006) describe thematic analysis as a process whereby repeated patterns and themes within the data are identified, analysed and reported. While some researchers describe themes as emerging (Rubin and Rubin, 1995 in Braun and Clarke, 2006 p. 80), others disagree, arguing that such accounts deny the role of the researcher in actively selecting themes and patterns of interest (Taylor and Ussher, in Braun and Clarke, ibid). According to Ely et al, the language of "themes emerging" can be misinterpreted to mean that:

> Themes "reside" in the data, and if we just look hard enough they will "emerge" like Venus on the half shell. If themes "reside" anywhere, they reside in our heads from our thinking about our data and creating links as we understand them.
>
> (Ely, Vinz, Downing, and Anzul, 1997 in Braun and Clarke 2006, p. 80)

In this context, the researcher himself developed the themes by actively playing a role in analysing the data as he determined the themes that emanated from the reported experiences, meanings and reality of the respondents. The themes in this analysis did not therefore just emerge "like Venus on the half shell" but were derived from the researcher's analysis and interpretation of the subjects' discussion of their experiences (Ely, Vinz, Downing, and Anzul, 1997: 205-6 in Braun and Clarke p.80).

Summer and Seckor (2004) also explain that thematic analysis involves reading and re-reading the data so that the author familiarises him or herself with the content and

begins to identify regular recurring experiences and feelings described by the respondents. They further explain that these regular re-occurring patterns are then formed into themes which give an overall description of the views of the respondents (Summer and Seckor, 2004).

In the process of reading and re-reading the data, I first coded the participants' responses. This enabled me to have a global view of the data and then I began to identify regular re-occurring patterns which were consequently formed into themes. This process gave an overall description of the views of the respondents. Ultimately, this enabled the researcher to decide whether the themes reflected the salient features within the overall research question. The respondents who provided information and the kind of information gathered is described below.

Children: Children's responses that reflected the level of their sensitivity and responsiveness to situations that required life skills, including risky or insecure situations in their day to day living.
Parents: Testimonies from parents that showed how their children behave these days as a result of life skills education.
Teachers: Testimonies from teachers on the behavioural dispositions of children as a result of life skills education.
At school: The effectiveness and potential of the methods used in the teaching learning process and how these facilitate life skills development. There was also considering the adequacy and quality of the orientation and training done to equip teachers with life skills development strategies, approaches and skills. Further to this, there was examination of the school infrastructure, schedules and availability and use of different resources in facilitating pupils' life skills development.
At home: Parents' attitudes, knowledge and competencies and how these influenced children's life skills development.
Home and school: Information integrating what happens at home and at school and how these affect children's life skills education.
Out of class activities: Information on how out of school activities like play influence children's life skills education as reflected in children's testimonies of their experiences during play and other activities.

Culture: How culture has influenced children's life skills development and children's inherent behaviour as a result of this.

Children's Laws: Children's laws in this study refer to the rights of children. Information was collected as to how children's laws influence children's life skills development and the inherent character of children as a result of implementation of these laws.

5.2: Data analysis

The thematic analysis process is discussed in more detail in subsequent paragraphs beginning with the three thematic maps which were derived from the data sets of this study. The four main themes that evolved from focus group discussions, interviews and observations are described in sections 5.4 to 5.7. Those themes were; (1) Understanding of life skills (2) Value of life skills curriculum, (3) Evidence of the impact of life skills education (4) Influences on children's life skills development. The next section describes how these themes were developed.

5.3: Development of themes

Each theme was generated as a result of investigated perceptions, competencies, attitudes and challenges in the development of pupils' life skills in the primary schools in Uganda. Since the study had a specific aim of establishing how the life skills education programme in Uganda was being implemented, a focus of the analysis was to establish how life skills education was being operationalised and the influence it had on primary school pupils' lives. This influence was measured by analysing information from children, teachers, CCTs and parents about the influence of life skills education on children's lives.

This study followed six phases process of thematic analysis that included; familiarisation with the data, generation of initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining and checking the consistency of the themes, and then finally producing this report (Braun and Clarke, 2006 pp. 86-93). A theme was

defined as a patterned level of response or meaning within the data set (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.82).

However, heeding Braun and Clark's observation, the thematic analyses for this study did not follow a linear process which would have simply involved moving from phase one to each of the other phases. Instead, it was a more recursive process, where there was moving back and forth as it was needed throughout the phases (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.86). This developed over time and was therefore not rushed (Ely Vinz, Downing, and Anzul, 1997 in Braun and Clarke, ibid).

Phase one involved developing a thorough familiarity with the data collected by critically listening to the recorded interviews several times to get familiar with the content of the data. This thorough listening was accompanied with taking notes and marking or noting ideas for coding. The notes were then read and repeatedly re-read to search for meanings and patterns in order to understand the depth and breadth of the content (Braun and Clarke, 2006 pp. 87-88). The reading and familiarization with the data, facilitated the generation of an initial list of ideas about what was in the data and what was interesting.

Phase two involved generation of the initial codes from the data. This coding involved intensively working systematically through the entire data set, giving full and equal attention to each data item, and identifying interesting aspects in the data items that could form the basis of repeated patterns (themes) across the data set (Braun and Clarke, 2006 p. 88). The codes represented the most basic elements of the data that could be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the impact of life skills on primary school pupils (Boyatzis, 1998 in Braun and Clarke, 2006). The coding facilitated organising the data into meaningful groups that represented initially coded and collated data. This was outlined in a long list (Appendix 5.1) of the different codes identified across the data set.

Phase three involved sorting the long list of initial codes into potential themes and collating all the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes (Appendix 5.2). In this process, the codes were analysed and combined to form overarching themes. At this point two things were done namely; naming codes and giving a brief

description and developing thematic maps (Figure 5.1). This process helped to identify the main overarching themes and the sub themes within them. This phase ended in a collection of candidate themes and sub themes and all extracts of data that had been coded in relation to them. There were eight themes in the initial thematic map (Figure 5.1). These themes are:

- Life skills as a protection,
- Value of life skills curriculum,
- Perception of life skills,
- Stakeholders' perception of life skills,
- Testimonies of parents, teachers and pupils
- School influences on pupils' life skills development,
- Home influences on pupils' life skills development,
- Culture, tradition and pupils' and pupils' life skills development and
- Children's rights and conformity and pupils' life skills development.

Each of the themes had many interrelated or shared codes (Appendix 5.2). At this stage, I started to have a sense of the significance of individual themes.

In phase four the candidate themes were reviewed and refined at two levels. First the refinement focused on the meaningful coherence of data within themes and identifiable distinctions between themes. This was done to meet Patton's dual criteria for judging categories – internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity (Patton, 1990 cited in Braun and Clarke, 2006 p.20). Braun and Clark (2006) explain this criterion and say, "data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes" (p.91).This practically involved analysing the initial nine themes and refining them into six higher order themes (Table 5.3). In this analysis the two themes; Life Skills as protection and Value of life skills were merged because all codes for protection were connoting value and protection is just one of the values of life skills. Perception of life skills and Stake holders' perception of pupils' life skills development were merged into Stake holders` perception of children`s life skills curriculum. Going back and reflecting on the data sets, it was realised that testimonies of parents, teachers and pupils themselves provided evidence of the pupils' implementation of life skills and hence

the related codes were collated to form the theme, Evidence of pupils' implementation of life skills. Further scrutiny of the themes, Culture, tradition and pupils' life skills development and Children's rights and laws' influence on pupils' life skills, helped the researcher to identify the inherent overlaps. This was used to combine themes into one theme, Broader culture and laws' influences on pupils' life skills. The remaining two themes, i.e., Home influences on pupils' life skills and School influences on pupils' life skills were left as they were. These initial and higher order themes are represented in Table 5.3 below. The second thematic map in Figure 5.2 represents these six themes.

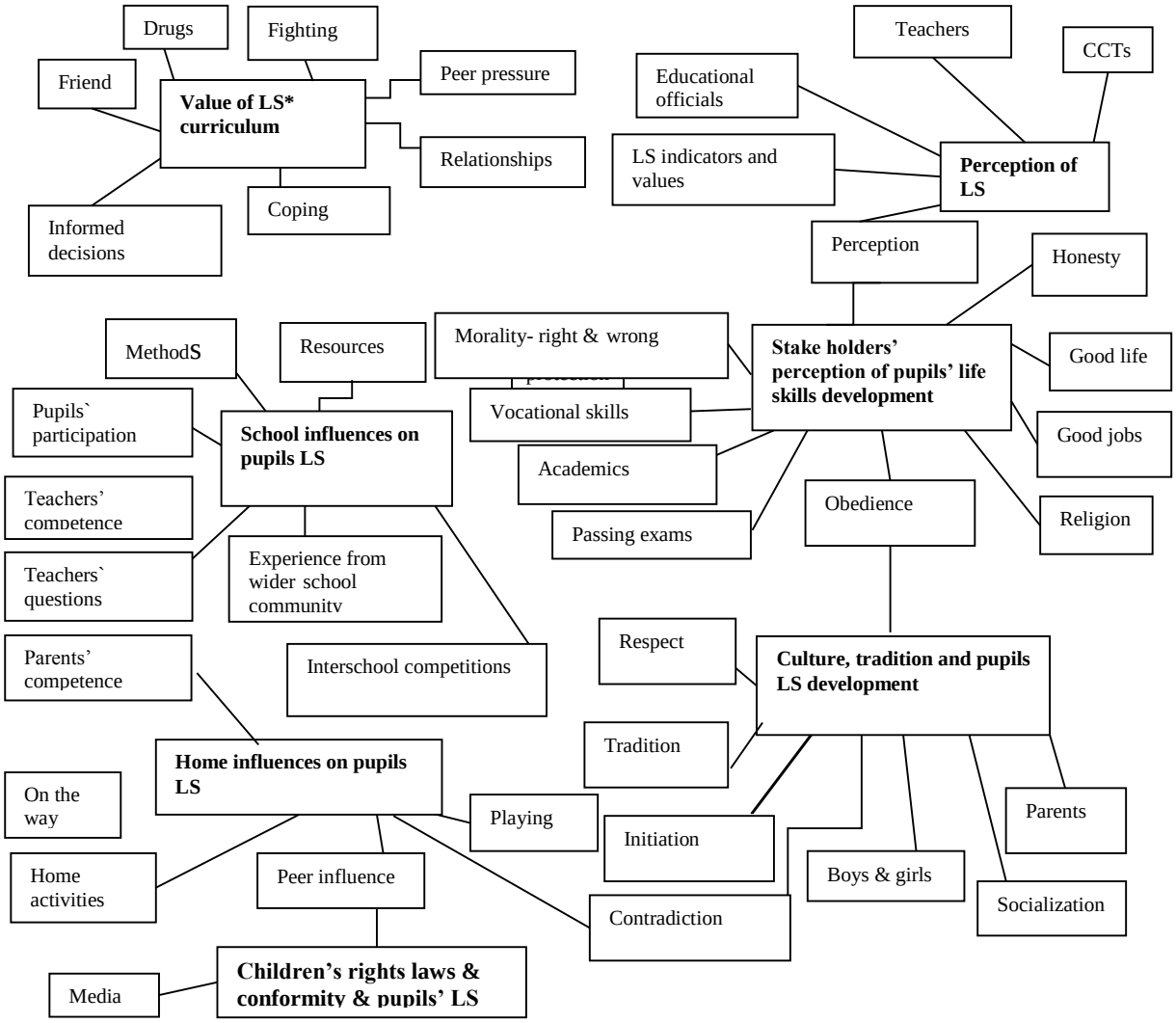
Table 5.3: Initial and higher order themes

INITIAL THEMES	HIGHER ORDER THEMES
Life skills as protection Value of life skills	Value of life skills
Perception of life skills Stakeholders' perception of pupils' life skills' development	Stakeholders' perception of life skills curriculum
Testimonies of parents, teachers and pupils	Evidence of pupils' implementation of life skills
Culture, tradition and pupils' life skills development Children's rights and laws on pupils' life skills' development	Broader culture and laws' influence on pupils' life skills development
Home influences on pupils' life skills development	Home influences on pupils' life skills development
School influences on pupils' life skills development	School influences on pupils' life skills development

Further re-reading and reflection on the above six themes was done to make sure that I did not miss anything. This helped me to identify a relationship between three themes. These are; Broader culture and laws' influences on pupils' life skills, Home influences on pupils' life skills and School influences on pupils life skills. These themes had a common phrase, "influences on pupils' life skills". These were all merged into a theme created out of this phrase, "Influences on pupils' life skills". This theme then had home influences, school influences and broader culture and laws as its sub themes. The theme Pupils' implementation of life skills was renamed Evidence of impact of life skills to reflect a broader interpretation of impact and to include knowledge and awareness as posed by the research question. There was also further refining that involved ascertaining whether the themes could work in relation to the data set and an on-going process to code any additional data within themes that had

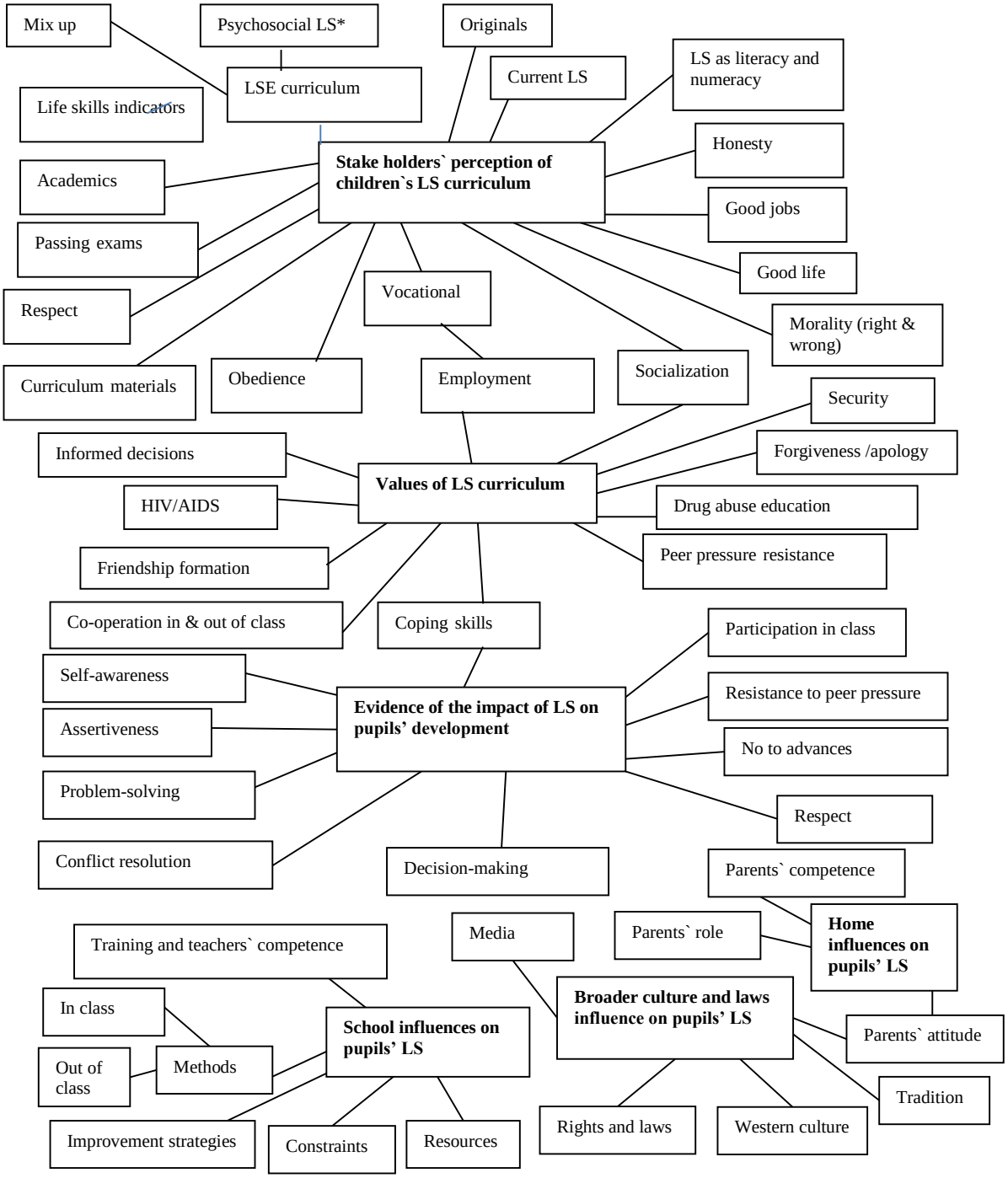
been missed in earlier coding stages. This resulted in a satisfactory thematic map for this study (Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.1: Initial Thematic Map



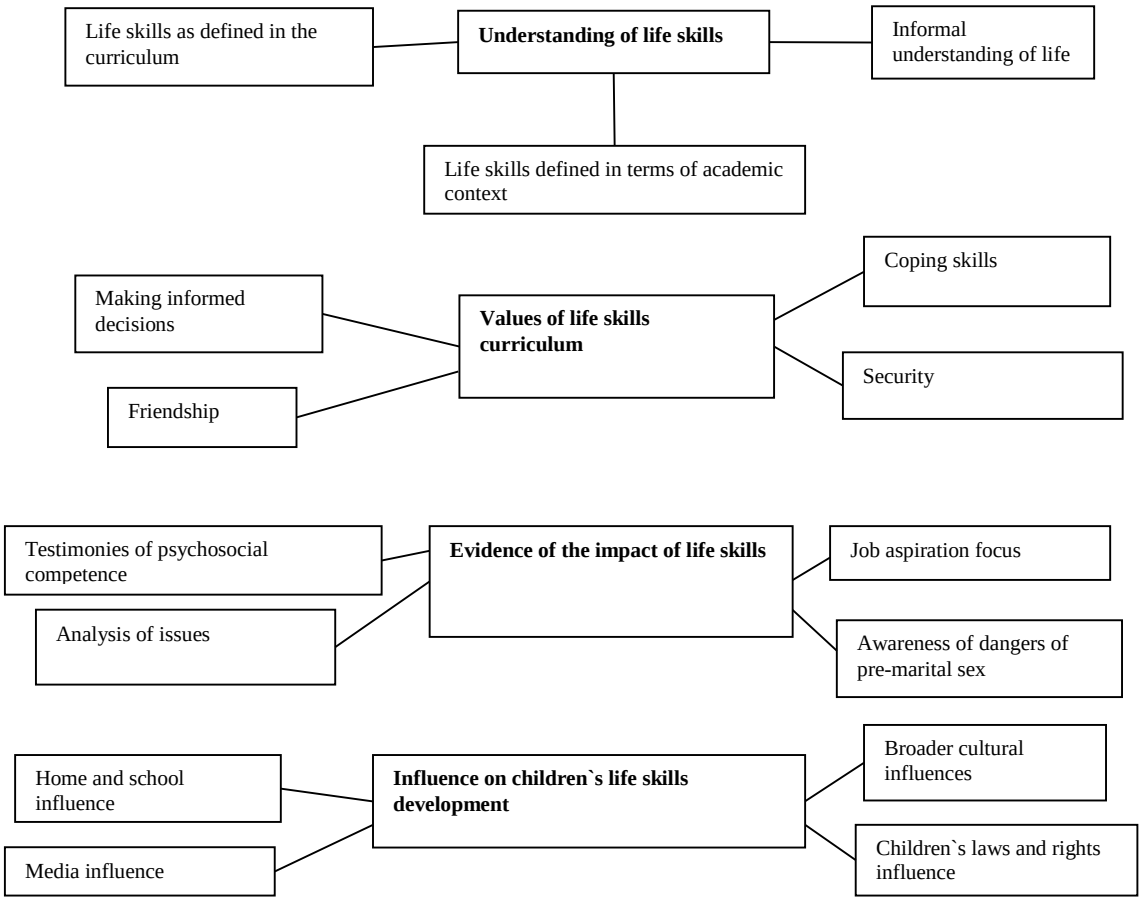
*LS = Life skills

Figure 5.2: Second Thematic Map



*LS = Life skills

Figure 5.3: Final Thematic Map



In phase five, I embarked on defining and checking the consistency of the themes after two research colleagues had helped in reviewing the themes in the context of the data sets. These colleagues identified themes in the data which corresponded to the themes I had identified. This consensus enabled me to proceed to relating all the data to each theme and collating and checking to ensure that the themes were linked to the codes and in all respects made sense. This involved understanding what each theme was about and finding out what aspect of the data each theme captured (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.92). I went back to the collated data extracts for each theme, and organised them into a coherent and internally consistent account, with clear explanations (ibid). For each individual theme, a detailed analysis was written as a story that unfolded and fitted into the broader story that was being told about the data in relation to the research questions of this study. An effort was made to consider

each theme in its entirety. This was done by considering the themes themselves in general, and each theme in relation to the others. This helped to minimize overlaps between the themes as each theme was related to the others. Refinement also involved identifying the sub themes. (Braun and Clarke, 2006 p.92). Below, Table 5.4 shows a summary of the codes, initial themes and final themes. The final themes and sub-themes are presented in the final thematic map (see Figure 3).

Table 5.4: Initial and final themes with codes

Initial themes	Codes	Final themes	Codes
1.Stake holders perception of children's life skills	1.Life skills indicators,(2) LSE curriculum, (3) importance of academics, (4) Passing exams(5) promoting respect (6) curriculum materials (7) Obedience (8) Vocational (9) Morality (9) Socialization (10) Good jobs (11) Good life (12) Honesty (13) Literacy/numeracy	**Understanding of life skills**	(1) Mixed life skills values and indicators (2) joining good schools and courses (3) vocational; earning and good life (4)Good behaviour; respect and obedience (2) Life skills defined in terms of academic context (3) Informal understanding of life skills
2.Value of life skills curriculum	1)Security, (2) Informed decisions, (3) HIV/AIDS (4) Friendship formation (5) cooperation in and out of class, (6) coping skills, (7)peer pressure resistance (8)Apologising/forgiving (9) Drug abuse education	**Value of life skills curriculum**	1)Coping skills 2)Making informed decisions 3)Friendship 4)Security
3. Evidence of the impact of life skills	1)Coping skills, (2) participation in class (3) Resistance to peer pressure, (4) No to advances (5) Respect (6) decision-making, (7) conflict resolution, (8) Problem-solving (9) Assertiveness (10) Self-awareness	**Evidence of impact of life skills**	1)Testimonies of psychosocial competence 2)Analysis of issues 3)Awareness of dangers of premarital sex 4)Job aspiration
4). Home experiences and life skills development	1) Parents role, (2) Parents' competence, (3) Parents' attitude	**Influences on children's life skills development**	1)Home and school influences 2)Media influences 3)Children's laws and rights influences 4)Broad cultural influences
5. School experiences and life skills development	1) Resources, (2) Constraints, (3) Methods (4) Training and teachers' competence		
6. Culture, laws, children's rights	1)Rights and laws, (2) Media, (3) Western culture, (4) Tradition		

In the following sections the codes and issues are outlined and discussed under each of the final higher order themes.

5.4: Understanding of life skills

Respondents' understanding of life skills was evident through three sub-themes: life skills as defined in the curriculum, life skills in academic context and informal understanding of life skills.

5.4.1: Life Skills as defined in the curriculum

An examination of the current primary school curriculum materials (syllabi, text books, handbooks, manuals) at all levels, i.e., thematic classes (P1-P3), transition class (P4) and upper primary classes (P5-P7) shows that each of the original 16 (sixteen) life skills, without any categorisation, have been clearly explained using a list of indicators or sub skills of the life skill (Appendix 1.1). For example, the primary five teachers' orientation manual clearly outlines the life skills as indicated in this appendix (Appendix 1.1)

Curriculum implementation in the primary school pivots around primary school teachers. However, responses from a sample of ten teachers show that they do not make a clear distinction between the life skills and their indicators as reflected in the current curriculum. On answering the question on what life skills are, teachers gave divergent mixed perceptions that included; life skills, life skills' indicators and values as indicated in the quotes below.

"Life skills are working as a team, effective communication, critical thinking, appreciation, co-operation and confidence". (T007)

"Life skills are effective communication, creative thinking and critical thinking". (T017)

"Life skills are fluency, articulation and confidence". (T008)

"Life skills are accuracy, love, confidence and fluency". (T016)

"Life skills are self-esteem and effective communication". (T012)

"Life skills are fluency, audibility confidence and intonation". (T018)

"Life skills are empathy, creative thinking, critical thinking, caring, logical reasoning and taking a decision". (T004)

"Life skills are effective communication, appreciation and co-operation". (T006)

"Life skills are team work, critical thinking, leadership and negotiation". (T014)

"Life skills are problem-solving, critical thinking, accuracy, orderliness and confidence". (T003)

Analysis of the observation data showed that when describing the life skills to be developed, teachers confuse indicators and life skills when writing lesson plans in their preparation books (see Chapter 6).

These preparation books are supposed to be checked every week by the head teacher. Head teachers' failure to provide feedback on the mix up seems to have undermined the accurate knowledge base of a considerable number of the teachers in respect to the difference between skills and the indicators of these skills and also the related values. A similar confusion is reflected in the stakeholders' lack of differentiating between the psychosocial, vocational, and basic knowledge skills. For example, CCTs', head teachers', and teachers' responses on what constitutes psychosocial life skills also included vocational and basic knowledge skills. For example:

A head teacher explained what life skills are (mixed local language and English for emphasis) and she said:

"Life skills nisyo sisiyeta umwana umwene (Life skills are what helps the child himself or herself) e.g. becoming a porter or business man". (HT001)

The following mixed what life skills are to include morals, psychosocial skills, and vocational education:

Life skills, I think may also include planning for the future, developing good morals, making decisions and being able to work"(CCT003)

"Life skills are teaching technology and problem-solving, and development of small scale industry". (T005)

"Life skills are skills that can make a child earn a living". (T020)

Life skills are good behaviour, morality, good relationships with others, sharing, self-defence, craft knowledge and physical skills". (T012)

In some cases, life skills were referred to as pure knowledge skills:

"Life skills refer to children having literacy and numeracy skills" (T016)

"Life skills are reading and computational skills which the child uses in society." (T014)

There were some teachers whose responses reflected only psychosocial and protection skills. For example:

I know life skills to be security and protection skills, making decisions, creativity and communication". (T019)

There was also a feeling among head teachers that they were not properly sensitized or trained and had very little knowledge about life skills. Consequently, they could only give responses like life skills are psychosocial skills as below:

"Life skills are these they call psychosocial skills". (HT010)

There were other respondents who gave responses that referred to life skills as mainly psychosocial skills although they included some life skills indicators and values

"Life skills are appreciation, friendship, and critical awareness". (T008)

"For example sharing, cooperation, empathy, assertiveness, and resisting pressure are life skills". (T011)

"Life skills are respect, tolerance, cooperation, appreciation, and interpersonal communication". (T017)

"Life skills, I think, may be; problem-solving, self-esteem, cooperation, effective communication, sharing, and also empathy." (HT005)

The following CCT also gave a list which was psychosocial but included one indicator cooperation:

"We consider life skills to be effective communication, critical thinking, creativity, cooperation, copping with stress, problem-solving". (CCT004)

The primary school curriculum in which the primary life skills curriculum has been integrated is monitored primarily by teachers, Head teachers and sometimes by CCTs who are tutors on site. There is a ray of hope that the majority of the teachers in this section described life skills in a way that reflects the psychosocial life skills intended to be developed among the primary school pupils. However, the concern is that there are still those teachers who confuse psychosocial life skills and their indicators. This seems to raise questions about quality of life skills education in primary schools.

5.4.2 Life skills defined in terms of academic context

Almost all teachers, parents, CCTs, head teachers and education officials gave responses that showed that they, in some ways viewed life skills in the context of academic success for children. This perception was prevalent in parents' responses

but also evident in head teachers and teachers' responses. In the context of life skills nurture and what influence they want the primary school to have on their children, parents' responses reflected life skills as the basis for better life for their children.

A high status, good standard post primary school (i.e. secondary school) was the target for parents because this could facilitate their children's going to University and read better courses or go to better tertiary institutions.

"I want life skills to help my child to go in a better school (secondary) to give me a sense of pride let it be day or boarding one". (PFGA003).

"We parents are happy with children who do good courses which assure us of better life skills for our children". (P014)

"These days we parents want primary schools which can enable our children to join good secondary schools. These are the schools which enable children to join the University" (P019)

"I need my child to perform well and go to schools like Budo, Gayaza, Namagunga, etc". (PFGB007)

"Life skills should make our children pass well and go to good secondary schools". (PFGA001)

"This Universal Primary Education is just killing the life skills of our children. It can only send a few of our children to third world secondary schools. What will they get from there?" (P015)

In this same context, parents were also sensitive to modernisation as reflected in this parent's comment that teachers should help their children aim high and also be computer literate.

"Our teachers should help our children to aim higher. Children should be linked to the outside world and get like this computer knowledge" (PFGA003).

She added that the consequence of better life skills is better life which is better pay. A number of other parents agreed:

They need to have better life financially because our parents used to tell us that they were sending us to school to have better life (better life – better pay)" (PFGA003).

Almost all of the teachers commented on the pressure primary school teachers were experiencing everywhere in the country to pass children with good grades. This reflects parents' perception of life skills in the context of their children gaining academic excellence. Some teachers explained it well and said:

"Sir you are talking about life skills, but the parents in our school and many others think a child who has attained life skills is one who passes well and joins a good secondary school, that is the pressure parents have put on us" (T002)

"However much you teach if the school has no first grades in the Primary Leaving Examination, you will have done nothing. Parents do not care about these life skills. For them, children will have the life skills they need if they pass examination" (T018)

"Me I concentrate on subjects set in PLE (Primary Leaving Examinations). Other subjects just waste my time". (PZ0119)

The importance of the Primary Leaving Examination (PLE) was also reflected in parents' comments:

"These days are not like our days, a successful child was synonymous with having good life skills. Today, Grade one in PLE, joining University etc. is what people equate with life skills" (P011)

One teacher commented on the parents' attitude towards teaching practical skills.

"There is that negative attitude from parents about teaching of practical skills in primary schools. For them it is academics and therefore passing examinations that matters". (T001)

"When you take children to the school garden for an agriculture lesson, they take it as if it is a punishment. Some of the parents do not also like it". (HT011)

Even this teacher emphasises the PLE when considering the question from a parent's point of view:

"I am a teacher here but I am also a parent. Our children cannot have life skills from subjects which are not set in PLE". (T009)

Some of the responses from the teachers, parents and head teachers reflected life skills as an enabling or facilitating factor for the children's better performance in examinations. The responses below show that even teachers and head teachers in some instances perceived life skills in the context of success in academics:

"Life skills make children perform well in their examinations". (T003)

"The value of life skills, children cannot perform well when they do not have life skills" (P022)

"Parents want their children to perform highly, but some of these children do not have life skills, how can they perform well" (HT009)

The CCTs also confirmed that, according to the common perception of a primary school pupil's success, a CCT is considered successful in his or her work when children in his or her catchment area have performed well in Primary Leaving Examinations (PLE) examinations:

"We the CCTs are rated to have performed well when the pupils in our catchment areas have performed well in examinations. The people these days consider a child's success in life in terms of success in examinations". (CCT002)

An education officer also explained that success in examinations is a route to everything in life:

"For us we consider success in examinations to be the life of the child. This success opens the child's way for everything he will get in life". (ED003)

Some pupils were well aware of their parents' desire for academic success and their parent's belief that such success would ensure future success.

"My parents desire that I study well, progress and have a good future". (PK0054)

"My mother always tells me to perform well like my sister because that will make me have better life in future". (PM0064)

"When I perform badly my parents do not give me gifts because they say this will make me have bad life when my friends are enjoying in future" (PM0065)

Some parents were clear that the primary school cannot in anyway convince them that their children have life skills when the children cannot read, write their name and go far in education.

For example this parent said:

"We parents want our children to be able to read and write. These days you give a Primary 7 child a letter and he cannot read for you". (P009)

That is why the parents wondered what life skills their primary school children have if in some cases they could not even write their names:

"How can you say children have life skills when a primary school child of these days cannot even write his name?" (P021).

"Our children here cannot go far in education. They will only may be our LC1 (Local Council One) chairmen. They cannot go far in education. Do you think life skills can help them?" (P013)

All these quotes here show that the understanding of life skills in the context of academics is a literal understanding that views the terms life and skill in their ordinary sense of life and a skill. For parents, children are sent to school to prepare for better life in the future. A skill is what a child acquires through attending a course to do a piece of work in order to earn a living. To parents, education is going to school to learn, pass examinations, join better schools, join good courses and get good jobs. All these put together seem to have led parents to think of life skills as synonymous with children successfully going through school education. All these appeared to have a relationship with informal understandings of what life skills are as discussed below.

5.4.3 Informal understandings of life skills (culture, tradition and values)

Stake holders (parents, teachers, CCTs, head teachers and educational officials) in many cases had informal interpretations of life skills. They looked at life skills as the education that gives a child access to better earning, helps them to be good children in the home and generally have successful life. They even thought about life skills in terms of gender. They wanted boys to grow up with competence that could enable them manage a home as husbands. For girls, they thought life skills should enable them to be good housewives, obedient and able to handle family chores competently. Also in all the ethnic groups among which this study was done, the girls are to a considerable extent obliged to be submissive. For example; among the Bamasaba, a girl should respect the circumcised man and among the Baganda of central Uganda a girl should kneel down when greeting or talking to elders or any other respectable person. This is interpreted as good manners which to the stake holders is synonymous with life skills.

In this case, there were instances of parents', teachers', CCTs' and district education officials' perceptions of life skills that were literal or informal. I am saying literal or informal because the responses quoted in the current section seem to reflect stake holders understanding of life skills as literally life and therefore what helps a child to live successfully. Informal because it is not the objective of the curriculum and

therefore not intended to be developed as a competence in the teaching learning process. It is also informal because it is not in the context of psychosocial competencies as prescribed in the life skills programme. These understandings seem to be influenced by the culture, tradition and values cherished by stakeholders and not so much by school. They can be thought of as informal perceptions of life skills. For example, responses from parents, teachers, head teachers, CCTs and education officials reflected life skills as development of morality or good behaviour as reflected in their responses below. To these stake holders, a child cannot be considered to have life skills when he or she is immoral or badly behaved. These stake holders also equate life skills with better life that should include good future earnings. To them therefore, a skill in life is a life skill that facilitates a child's future earnings. In the context of these good future earnings, a good number of the responses in this section are centred on equating life skills with vocational education. There were still some respondents who mixed psychosocial, vocational and life skills indicators as reflected in the responses below.

Parents, teachers, head teachers, CCTs, and District Education officials' responses reflected what they understood life skills to be.
District education officials' responses on what life skills are reflected an integration of all the child's spheres of development:

"Life skills are developing good morals". (ED003)

For me I understand life skills to be developing self-protection skills, children making decisions, communication skills, self-reliance and creativity". (ED001)

Life skills are good behaviour, morality, relating well with others, sharing, self-defence, craft knowledge and physical skills". (ED002)

A CCT said:

"Life skills refer to effective communication, critical thinking, creativity, cooperation, copping with stress, leadership and negotiation when they are in group". (CCT001)

A head teacher explained life skills in the context of health and communication and said:

"Life skills emphasized are health, communication skills, etc." (HT006)

A number of respondents included appreciating as a life skill because, according to them, a child who does not appreciate is considered to be very bad mannered. That is

why this teacher and other stake holders included appreciating as a life skill in their responses:

"Life skills are appreciating, critical awareness". (T024)

"A child cannot fail to appreciate and you say she has life skills". (HT011)

"I cannot say my child has life skills when he cannot appreciate" (CCT002)

"My children have life skills because they can appreciate when you give them something" (P012)

Alongside appreciation is sharing. That is why respondents, for example this teacher, considered sharing a life skill which is useful in and out of school and said:

"For example sharing as a life skill helps learners in and out of the school". (T006)

A head teacher explained what is meant by self-esteem and said:

"Self-esteem is where a child can understand himself as an individual". (HT003)

A head teacher, on life skills emphasized in his school, made the following list:

"Life skills emphasized are problem-solving to enable children solve problems among themselves. Others include; cooperation, effective communication, sharing, empathy, self-esteem, etc." (HT001)

In the context of life skills being for development of vocational skills, responses from teachers showed that to develop life skills in pupils, teachers need to do the following:

"S*ensitize the child about the importance of vocational education"* (T002)

"Help the child to comprehend the value of vocational education". (T007)

"Teach art and technology". (T010)

"Teach technology and life skills" (T022)

"Life skills are teaching technology and problem-solving, and development of small scale industry". (T015)

In the same context responses on the value of life skills from teachers and what type of child parents would desire to get or see after primary education were still inclined toward vocational skills development. They said:

"One who will join vocational institutions". (T009)

And almost all the teachers emphasized:

"One who is self-reliant". (TO22)

Further to life skills education being related to vocational education, some teachers' and parents' responses were centred on life skills as a key to enabling children get employment.

"To get employment" (About half of the teacher respondents)

"Knowledge to do something in future" (T009,)

"Life skills enable children to get jobs in future". (T021)

"Life skills facilitate children getting jobs in future" (T008)

"Life skills are for future earning" (T003)

"Job creation" (About a quarter of the teacher respondents had this view that life skills are for job creation)

"During interschool competitions, children should compete in several fields in order to identify and develop their divergent talents or life skills for future survival". (T015)

"We in this class use drama, role plays as methods of teaching. You know sir, these days people make a lot of money from drama. This can be the starting point for some people to become actors in future and make money" (T023)

"The good jobs children can get are in good offices. Even we here in this teaching are like casual labourers. Life skills should help children get these jobs". (T005)

One teacher came up with the value of the school garden but in the process included `hand crafts which seemed to be out of context of the value of the school garden, she said:

"School gardening is good because it helps drop outs for example to farm and make hand crafts" (T010)

"Bring a person with a skill like carving so that he can help the child develop that skill'. (T001)

Teachers felt that certain things from home may influence children's life skills development at school, things like home craft was evident in the responses as above and below here;

"There is an influence of making baskets, mats, modelling pots from home". (T001)

Parents' responses showed that they viewed their children's education as a facilitating factor for a future earning to enhance their children's better life in future. They were even aware of the contemporary earnings people are getting from sports:

"Co-curricular activities enable children to develop their talents and in future earn money, don't you see these people who play football in Europe'' (PFGA003).

"I want my child to have better life" (PFGA04).

"I want my child to be in a good office and good job so that he can earn good money. He will have life". (PFGA001)

A district education officials' response on what life skills are also reflected life skills as helping the child vocationally:

Life skills are planning for the future, being able to work, developing practical skills". (ED003)

A number of respondents viewed life skills education as development of morality. The parents, teachers, head teachers, CCTs, and education officials seemed to have the same view about life skills and morality:

"We have these children who come here when they are already spoiled, they are thieves, fight, and even want to rape girls on their way home". (HT011)

"Sir, children in our schools are not upright, even when religious education is taught. We wouldn't be having this rampant drop out of our girls because of early age pregnancies". (P015)

One teacher after observation of a primary five lesson and during the interview wondered if I saw a child who abuses others and can even abuse the teacher. Literally and informally, this teacher meant a child with life skills cannot abuse:

"Did you see that tall boy who sat next to you, the one I called 'X'? He has no life skills. He abuses his friends, cannot sit with girls and can even abuse you the teacher". (T005)

This was supported by pupils as reflected in the response below:

"What shows you have good behaviour is not despising friends, obedience, working with others at home … this is having life skills". (PK0055)

During their interviews, children were asked to respond to what was happening in scenes in different pictures. In one of the scenes, some children were rejoicing with their parents because they had performed very well in the examination. As children's reflections on the pictures progressed, children also supported parents on the relationship between life skills, behaviour and morality when they said that listening and obeying makes them (children) perform well:

"Listening and obeying the teachers and parents make you perform well". (PM0065)

"To perform well, you must be committed, obedient, respect your parents and …respect your teachers, they will be proud of you" (PN0068).

Teachers also referred to life skills as behaviour as illustrated in these responses:

"Life skills refer to the behaviour of the learner. Does he do good things or bad things?" (T013)

"Behaviour of children which is life skills is you can get children who are selfish, who share, etc.". (T002)

One CCT explained that children of these days are just bad because even at 15 years of age, they have started active sexual life. They therefore do not have life skills. The CCT said:

Mr Bwayo, do you think our children of these days have life skills, some children are really bad. It is now possible to find a boy of 15 years going about with girls. It is even worse with those boys of ours here who get circumcised. They think they are men and can do what they want with themselves". (CCT001)

5.5: Value of the formal life skills curriculum

Responses from parents, head teachers, teachers, CCTs, education officials and pupils reflected the value of pupils' life skills education. Their understanding of the value of life skills is discussed here under the sub-themes of making informed decisions, friendship, coping skills and security.

5.5.1: Life skills give children security skills

Parents and teachers valued the role life skills play in helping children to protect themselves. The response below reflects parents' desire for their children to be assertive in order to be secure from risky situations:

"We have boda-boda (motor bike cyclists) men on the way who can call our children when they are on their way home. The child should not just abuse them ''kumanyoko'', why are you calling me? When children abuse these boda-boda men, they can beat them or rape them or do anything. Life skills should help our children in such situations". (PFGB008)

Parents desire that the school should take responsibility and enable their children to assertively avoid situations that can make them contract STDs or get early pregnancies:

"The school should encourage our children to have life skills. For example, if someone is going to say, ''I love you'', is she one who is going to say yes or she can say, ahaa…, at our school, they say if I fall in such love, I can get STDs or pregnant''. (P010)

In Ugandan primary schools, children involve themselves in unsupervised play during mid- morning and lunch time breaks. They need life skills to manage themselves during this period because they sometimes confront risky situations that can cause conflict, body harm, etc., to them. An example is these two pupils' testimonies:

"Someone kicked me in the stomach for nothing when we were playing". (PY0117)

"Someone pushed me in the wall when we were playing and my hand got broken. I was picked and taken to Mulago hospital". (PY0118)

They also develop negotiation skills as reflected in the following pupil's explanation:

"When we are playing we first agree on who should be in which team and why" (PY0116).

However, these incidents are not unique because, when talking about the value of life skills one teacher said:

"Our children need life skills because we sometimes get serious cases when children are playing. Some children are bullies and they hurt others badly". (T006)

The above instances reflect very bad instances during children's play but there are also other threats in primary school children's lives. The issue of drug abuse is a real threat among children and programmes like the one this teacher is talking about strengthen children's life skills:

"In urban places like here, some children have started taking drugs. Some of us help these children not to take drugs. You know sir drugs spoil children. This has made us reduce on drug abuse among pupils in our school". (T023)

5.5.2: Life skills enable pupils to acquire and benefit from friends

In every group interview session that was carried out with pupils, there was at least one response on friendship. A number of responses reflected or implied the value of friendship as a cherished life skill for pupils. However, children did not themselves specifically say that the curriculum itself is working, rather they gave information pertaining to their experiences which is the best witness of what they have been made to be and what they are. A number of situations from which they were getting these experiences were created by the curriculum of the school. These include play time during mid-morning and lunch break, sharing writing materials during class work, helping each other solve hard problems during class work, sharing food because they are all at school, group work during lessons, helping each other solve a hard task in class, etc.

Children get friends because of the desired behaviour they see in them and the benefit they envisage:

"I got my friend when she came to primary three. I got her by her behaviour. When she came she would share. Her name was `x`. She would be kind, she would participate in class but the bad thing she would write on her body and she was like a boy". (PM0064)

She then continued:

"If you have a stubborn friend one day you will go to a party and she puts up her dress and fights". (PM0064)

Children explained how they get friends. Their responses generally highlighted a psychosocial competence that facilitates friendship formation, therefore pointing to the value of life skills. For example, kindness makes children become friends:

"We can get friends by being kind to them". (PE0023)

Forgiving facilitates children's friendship formation:

"We can get friends when we forgive them". (PN0069)

Children's helping each other in solving class tasks encourages friendship formation:

"We can get friends by helping them solve a hard number". (PF0029)

"By helping each other do the work given by the teacher we become friends" (PK0054).

Children gave responses which indicated how friendship helps them to associate with their colleagues who can cooperatively study with them. This can be during revision, working out a difficult number, studying a difficult subject, etc.

Children strategise and make friends with those who can help them in difficult subjects:

"When I came to P5, I made friends with the one who was the best in mathematics. He helps me when I do not understand or fail a number". (PS0095)

In the same vein pupils intentionally make friends with those they can revise with together:

"You cannot pass well when you have not revised with friends". (PX0111)

"We get some friends and we revise with them". (PS0093)

This is because, according to children, friends can also coach you:

"Sometimes you may be playing with a friend and you find he is quiet, well behaved and playing very well, you can go to him to coach you". (PN0069)

All the children interviewed said that as they play together with their colleagues they become friends because friends are nice to play with:

"We get friends as we play together". (PK0051)

"Playing makes us friends" (PKO052)

"We enjoy when we play together with friends" (PS0091)

"When you play with friends and kick them by mistake, they forgive you" (PA001)

"We get friends because they are nice to be with" (PB008)

"We need to be good friends not to fight". (PY0120)

Children's responses also reflected their day to day experiences of their friendship endeavours with their colleagues. For example, in almost all of the schools used in this study, pupils do not have any meals prepared for them by the school. This means that a pupil may leave home at 7.00am and get back home at 5.00 to 6.00pm before having anything to eat. Pupils see a friend as security for something to eat on a day of need:

"Even when `x` (name of the respondent) does not have money for break your friend can provide". (PF0026)

"*When you have a friend you don't feel hungry at break time even if you do not have money or eats".* (PY0120)

"My friends give me something to eat when I do not have". (PF0028)

"Good friends give you a mango and you also eat" (PJ0047)

These responses show how one of the reasons a life skill like friendship formation has value for children because it provides them with protection in times of need.

Another area children felt a friend was of real value was when one fell sick. None of the schools used in the study had a health unit to give children first aid treatment when the children fell sick while at school. Therefore when a child fell sick, it was a friend who reported the illness to the teacher and it was a friend who would take the colleague home or to the health unit if it was near. Pupils' responses reflected that children had learnt how to cope with this situation by caring for their colleagues who fell sick and consequently developed or sustained friendship:

"Taking home someone who is sick makes you friends" (PC0012).

Pupils' feel such friendship is sustained because, according to them, **"**One good turn deserves another"**:**

He will also take you when you are sick". (PC0012)

Alongside taking one home when sick, children gave other different things that reflect the value of friendship:

"Friends share, play together and care for the other when sick". (PM0064)

"Friends play, share, and support each other" (PM0065)

To support children's perception on what sometimes happens when they are playing, scenes of pictures of children fighting while others were separating them and counselling them were used. The children's responses suggested that fighting was a fairly common occurrence. As children reflected on these scenes, their responses also reflected on friendship as a precautionary life skill against fighting:

"A good friend does not fight you". (PF0029)

This is because according to children, friends forgive you when you do something wrong:

"Me I want to have many friends. They forgive you when you do something bad". (PK0055)

"When the fighting has ended, we usually want to be friends again". (PM0061)

"Friends don't fight for a long time. When they start fighting they sympathise with each other" (PM63)

"When a friend hurts you he will say sorry". (PM65)

Even though fights occurred amongst friends, it appeared that being friends made it easier to recover from these confrontations. Children continued to say a friend can separate you when you are fighting:

"A friend will separate you when someone is fighting you". (PT0099)

"One day I separated my friends who were fighting because I knew they could kill each other" (PT0098)

Pupils also regrettably reflected on how they lose friends. They explained a number of things that include rudeness, unkindness, bad behaviour, etc. that can make one loose friends. Their responses still reflect their experiences in friendship and the value they seem to attach to friendship.

"Being rude, unkindness, bad behaviour makes us lose friends". (PF0030)

"Some girls are just bad they give you something and when they see you do not have, they stop being your friends" (PC0013)

Children said that with a friend you avoid confrontation and learn how to control yourself. This in itself is also a life skill of conflict resolution or problem-solving:

"Like `Y`, just go away when a friend annoys you and cool from somewhere else". (PN0067)

In some cases, children expressed the need to forgive each other to sustain friendship:

"If you do not forgive you can end being friends". (PF0029)

"Forgiving can make children who have quarrelled to become friends again" (PN0067)

Children seem to find it difficult to get another friend when they lose one and moreover friends are still needed.

"When a friend annoys you, and you separate it may be difficult to get another one". (PF0028)

"That is why me, I do not want to annoy friends" (PF0026)

One teacher summarised it all and said:

"Children are naturally friendly and enjoy being together as friends" (T016)

The responses in this section suggest that life skills ae important for children because of their protective function and role in promoting positive choices. The next section discusses in more detail how these life skills influence children's lives.

5.6: Evidence of how life skills education has influenced pupils' lives

Respondents from each category gave responses which reflected evidence of influences of life skills education on pupils' day to day living. Pupils' responses indicated that they seemed to understand the value of life skills and that they appeared to subscribe to some of the values put forward by the life skills curriculum, such as respect for others, critical thinking, assertiveness, problem-solving, conflict resolution, self-awareness, empathy, peer pressure and resistance, decision-making and children being conscious about their security. Children's analysis of their actions appeared to show their level of self-awareness and social awareness. For example one child explained that:

"It is bad to steal an orange because when the others are sharing he will also share again". (PC0012)

When probed to clarify, pupils explained that:

"*The one who stole and ate an orange alone will share the remaining oranges with the colleagues who did not steal".* (PC0012, PC0011, PC0015)

This means that children have been nurtured to know that stealing is bad. In all the 24 focus group discussion sessions, children said that stealing is bad. The above and the following illustrate the extent of their knowledge:

"When you steal sugar and mammy comes, you hide and wipe your mouth, you do deny, you don't want to be known". (PC0011)

"When you steal you deny because they can cane you". (PCOO13)

There was also evidence of pupils' assertiveness competencies, in pupils', parents' and teachers' responses. When at home children are assertive enough to ask their parents to help them do homework:

"When at home, I do my homework and finish. Sometimes when I do not understand a number, I ask my mother or brother to help me". (PW0117)

Even when at school children are also assertive enough to ask their teachers or their neighbours to help them when they have anything they do not know:

"You can be number one when anything you do not know you ask your teacher or your neighbour who is always number one". (PW0116)

Parents were also aware of the level of assertiveness of their children:

"One evening while in the sitting room, I started smoking and my daughter in P2 told me that smoking is bad because their teacher told them not to smoke or sit near people who are smoking. Surprisingly she asked whether she should go out of the sitting room". (P013)

This was supported by pupils when they referred to what they learnt in class:

"We learnt in class that we are not supposed to take drugs or smoke''.

(PST0098).

And another pupil confirmed:

"Yes our teacher said taking alcohol spoils children". (PST0096)

There were two picture scenes which reflected children getting reports at the end of the year or term and parents hugging their best performing children. In the context of these scenes, children talked about performance and the benefits that accrue from hard work at school.

Three pupils in one school explained how they assertively seek clarification from teachers:

"For me, if I have not understood, I ask the teacher and then the teacher repeats for you and you can understand''. (PV0105).

"For me if a teacher teaches even a hundred times and I have not understood, I will just ask for an example''. (PV0103)

And another pupil interjected that asking for an exercise is the way to go:

"Then I ask for an exercise to show if I have understood''. (PV0101).

Responses from children reflected children's self-awareness and self-esteem in many ways. When talking about their performance at school, children exhibited a level of ability to analyse and reflect on issues in their education. For example, this pupil was aware of what position he would get at the end of the term:

"*My position will be number one or number two because I know all the subjects".* (PQ0083)

The pupils were also aware of how one could secure number one place:

"To become number one you have to struggle with reading". (PY0118)

"Me, I will be the third this term because I am working very hard and I participate in class work. When I do not know, I ask the teacher". (PN0068)

Children's discussion on issues of their performance is indicated in the following extract of what transpired at one point in a primary five class group interview when children talked about their performance at school:

"Me, when I am the first and I go home my parents give me gifts". (PM0064)

(At this time, a discussion which was left to flow continued as reflected below):

"But it is your sister who is always the first". (PM0061)

"This one is even the one who fights with boys". (PM0063)

"But she is now declining". (PM0065)

(She replied)

"But now I am changing. I want to be the first so that when I go home they can continue giving me gifts. Because when I am like the tenth they buy for me bad gifts. Because for me they just take me to my sister`s university. But my sister goes to a party and enjoys". (PM0064)

"I know why she has changed. She does not want to behave like children again. She wants to grow older than her age". (PM0065)

"Like on Fridays, during the assembly it is our class to read the message of the week. I feel well and happy when I am picked to read and when we go to class the teacher says you did a good job". (PM0064)

Still in relation to their education, children were also aware of their future needs and talked about the jobs they prefer to take up when they grow up. Their responses show a high level of aspiration which could be seen as an indication of their levels of self-esteem.

A pupil said he wanted to become a lawyer and why:

"I want to become a lawyer-(okuza abantu mumbera) meaning to rehabilitate people". (PC0015)

Some pupils, have noted how people in the country suffer and would like to save them, thus demonstrating empathy:

"I want to be a doctor so that I can help those poor and old people who are just barked at in hospitals so that they can live longer". (PS0092)

Some children like this one were aware of what jobs in the country people say bring a lot of money and opted to take on one in future:

"I want to be a manager because a manager gets money". (PY0116)

Some children have been convinced because of what they see the teacher doing and would like to become teachers:

"I want to be a teacher because a teacher teaches children". (PY0117)

"I want to be a teacher because a teacher teaches children every day and tells children correct things". (PY0118)

"I want to be a teacher so that I teach children good manners". (PB0006)

One pupil felt being a pilot is good because he wants to fly with his people:

"I want to be a pilot because I want to carry my people in my plane". (PY019)

There was more evidence of children's assertiveness from parents who bore witness of how freely the children in their school expressed themselves:

"I am a parent of grown up children. I have a grandchild in this school. For the little time I have observed, I feel that the school is making children have self-esteem because these children can express themselves freely to us the parents compared to my own children whom I had. These children express themselves freely to us the parents or even to the teachers'' (PFGB005).

"Children these days speak without fear". (PFGB006)

"Yes, that is right". (PFGB007)

Another parent explained and in a way supported children growing up with responsibility and assertiveness:

"I feel that the modern way in our school here is making children grow up with responsibility and also assertiveness. You go and touch these children here, they call them bad touches, they will tell you openly without fear". (PFGB005)

On assertiveness, another parent added that children also have self-esteem:

"If a teacher touches them, they can say, 'aaaah, teacher so and so was touching my breast, openly' or 'so and so… , my neighbour… was doing this' So I think this school is trying to make these children to be assertive and have self-esteem''. (PFGB005)

To confirm what the parents are saying, one pupil in one of the group interviews explained what a bad touch is:
"There is some girl … they seemed to be playing and then one boy touched the breast, and that is what they call bad touches". (PP0080)

In the same context, pupils' responses supported what the parents were saying:
"When my parents tell me they want me to marry, I tell them I have not reached getting married". (PM0061)

This was further supported by the teachers:
"These days when you the teacher soil your dress, these children can come and tell you that 'teacher, you have soiled your dress – we admire the modern way of handling these children. I feel that our primary school children today are assertive and confident''. (T009).

The parents interviewed seemed to have experienced their children telling them about certain things the children felt their parents ought to do or not to do.

Further evidence of personal development in terms of critical thinking, empathy, conflict resolution, peer pressure resistance and children being conscious about their security was also reflected in their responses. These responses are described next.

A number of pupils' responses in both primary five and primary two reflected a level of problem-solving and conflict resolution skills among the children. Most of them came from a discussion that was ignited by a fighting scene in one of the pictures used to facilitate the group interviews for pupils. In this scene, two children were fighting while one of the children was separating those who were fighting. Included here are also responses that reflected a recognizable level of violence and indiscipline in primary schools. The responses quoted here show how children are reacting to this violence and the reaction seems to signify positive life skills education influence on their day to day living.

In every group interview children said:

"Fighting is bad"

Children explained why people fight:

"People fight because they quarrel. Quarrelling results from misunderstanding". (PN0070)

According to children the consequence of this fighting is growing up badly:

"When you fight you may grow up badly". (PM0062)

Children went further to say that another consequence of fighting is injury:

"Fighting may lead to breaking one's leg". (PM0063)

Children were also aware that fighting could also result in death:

"You can be fighting and someone dies in your hands. That will be your responsibility". (PN0066)

Children showed an awareness of ways of intervening when fighting occurs and resolving the situations when fights are concluded. Children gave two options that could enable them avoid fighting:

"*We avoid fighting by forgiving each other or take one who is wrong to the teacher".* (PC0013)

Children explained what one should do when friends are fighting:

"When my friends are fighting I separate them'. (PW0107)

"When you are separated you need to stop fighting". (PW0109)

"If your colleagues are fighting, you have to separate them. If you do not and a person finds you, she will not understand you". (PN0066)

Children described how they separate those fighting to save the continuity of the play:

"*When friends start fighting during a game we separate them and tell them not to fight again. We continue playing and sometimes, by the end of the game these may be friends again". (P5P0078)*

The children also testified on their parents' role when they (the children) conflict while at home:

"At home, when we fight my mother separates us and tells us not to fight again". (PF0026)

Another pupil described an experience the day before the interview:

"Yesterday 'Z' kicked me. I wanted to stone him but 'R' stopped me". (PC0013)

A number of pupils' responses also provided evidence of pupils' conflict resolution competencies:

"When you are separating people who are fighting tell them to forgive each other if they don't, they will stop being friends". (P5Q0082)

"Ataasa abera nga tayagala balwane bamutte, naye yenyini aba tayagala kulwana (The one separating does not want the one being fought to be killed and he himself doesn't want to fight)". (PA0003)

"When you have fought with someone, you need to ask for forgiveness and become friends". (PM0065)

"Someone boxed me in the eye and she ran away and I left him". (PY0119)

According to children, saying sorry and apologizing is the key solution to the conflicts children have. A number of children's responses showed how, if implemented, their critical analysis of problem situations and how they should be solved can keep them safe or secure. In these responses they demonstrate an understanding of why fighting happens, how it can be avoided and how it can be resolved when it does happen.

According to children anger can be solved by apology:

"When someone annoys me I feel like I want to strangle the person but if he apologizes I forgive". (PR0087)

For the children even when you beat someone you have to apologise:

"When you beat someone you have to apologise". (PY0117)

Children observed that even when you hurt somebody, you should say sorry and solve the problem:

"When you hurt someone it is good to say sorry". (PY0118)

"When you say sorry to a friend you become friends". (PD0019)

Equally, they explained how one should forgive if others cause you pain:

"My friend hit me with a stone then they took me to the teacher and they asked me to forgive him. I was feeling pain but I forgave him". (PM0064)

'When we are playing and a friend kicks me, I sometimes endure and forgive him and we continue playing' (P5O 0075)

"We were playing, my friend knocked me down accidentally and I forgave her". (P5O0072)

For children, saying sorry is also the way to go when you have a problem with your parents:

"When I have done wrong and my parent wants to cane me I say forgive me and they forgive me". (PD0018)

This child gave reasons why children should forgive:

"Forgiving can make you friends and you can even hug each other". (PM0061)

Children were aware that normally to resolve conflict and maintain friendship, they need to repent or be sorry:

"People can fight and come back together and cooperate after repentance or being sorry. You say forgive me I will not do it again". (PN0067)

Another pupil's response reflected a level of maturity in critical thinking. She clearly explained the genuine causes of losing friends and the need to avoid peer pressure:

"Quarrelling, fighting and bad advising make you leave some friends. Now you are friends and he says let us go and steal. That is bad advice. You leave him". (PF0027)

There were also responses of children in different schools which showed that both the home and the school had enabled children to develop a level of noticeable life skills:

"When my friends tell me to steal something on the way to eat, I refuse. My mother has told me not to eat. My mother says if you eat they may have bewitched it and you die''. (PW106).

Children felt that feeling pity is a precautionary measure against fighting:

"You need to feel pity for others because when you don't you will continue fighting". (PM0064)

Children also testified on experiences of empathic feelings:

"When someone is hurt you need to help instead of just standing there". (PY0120)

In a high level of reflection that demonstrates the ability to analyse a social situation, a pupil explained that:

"When I see my friends fighting, I separate them and counsel them that when you fight you lose dignity because fighting is not for mature people". (PN0067)

And another pupil observed that:

"You may fight with your friends and bring for your parents problems". (PN0068)

Responses also brought out evidence of how the wider school environment (out of class) activities facilitate development of pupils' life skills. For example, during play, certain situations can facilitate pupils' development of life skills:

"We were playing football, I scored, but when I started running and rejoicing, a boy put his leg and I fell down. I got up and boxed that boy. Friends separated us. We were then taken to a teacher who saw us fighting. He told us that fighting is bad and he asked me to shake hands with that boy. We are now friends and we play together". (P5Q0084).

Children were aware that there is need for them to be socially aware and to behave responsibly to solve any inherent conflicts in certain situations. For example, children understood that fighting on the way to school or home could make them lose dignity:

"When you are going on the way and you fight, abuse each other and people see you, you lose dignity and even … makes your school to get despised". (PN0069)

This pupil gave a testimony of how she avoids conflict on the way home:

"Sometimes when friends are going home they fight on the way but for me I have learnt from my friends' self-respect and sharing, I just look at them". (PN0070)

This child seemed to say that you can play with those who do not like you but you do not reveal your dislike:

"Sometimes … play with those who do not like you but you do not show them". (PN0067)

What the following child said, supports what those above are saying because she said that it is what you do that earns you respect:

"Ebikolwa byokola byebikuwesa ekitibwa" (It is what you do that earn you respect) (PN0068)

In relation to their own security, one of the issues of which children were acutely aware, was the risk of sexual advances and premature engagement in sexual activity. Pupils said that abstinence from sex was the way to go because they were taught by their teacher:

"Our teacher taught us to abstain from sex. She said you can get AIDS or become pregnant". (PT0097)

"She told us to avoid bad touches and say no to sex". (PT096)

This pupil explained how she reacted to advances:

"When a man wants to touch me or says ''I love you'', I say "no" and run away''. (PT0100)

While the children quoted above were from one class, children from other schools also seemed to have the same idea of saying no to sex because they were taught. The children related what they had been told about sex and its dangers.

Pupils said their teacher said:

"Sex is bad; our teacher told us it brings AIDS". (PA0001)

Giving the reason that:

"AIDS kills". (PA0003)

And another reason pupils gave was that AIDS causes death:

"Me I don't want sex because I don't want to die of AIDS". (PA005)

Some children were told by teachers to avoid sex before marriage because of the risk of HIV:

"For us, teachers tell us to avoid sex before marriage and also say it can give us HIV". (PR0086)

That is why the following pupil said she had no boyfriend because she wanted to avoid getting AIDS:

"Ssebo nze sirina mulenzi, nyinza okufuna AIDS". (Sir I do not have a boy, I can get AIDS)(PH0036)

Sex was also cited by children as one of the reasons why children drop out of school. The children explained how getting involved in sex diverts children from the course of their education. Their responses suggest that such children are capable of analysing social situations and other people's behaviour:

"Omwana bwabera omwenzi, buli kasera amagezi ge gabera makyamu nga tatunula abasomesa bye basomesa" ('When a child gets involved in sex, all his or her intelligence is disoriented and cannot see (understand) what the teachers are teaching') (PB0009)

"Obwenzi buleta obutasoma kubanga ofuna omwana, ofuna obulwadde". ('Sex can cause dropping out because you can become pregnant or get sickness (STDs)') (PB0010)

Other reasons children gave for school drop-out were not being clever, consequent lack of effort and being tempted by money tokens, .

Children described how some children are enticed away from school with offers of money. These children may lack the ability to say no to advances and are consequently enticed with gifts of a few shillings and drop out of school:

"Some children bagenda eyo nebabalimba olwobusente nebaleka okusoma". ('Some children go there in the country side and they are deceived with money tokens and they leave schooling'). (PQ0082)

Some children drop out because, unlike others quoted in this section, they have difficulty with learning at school. In this quote there is a suggestion that such pupils do not study well and perhaps are not able to seek help in their learning:

"Children normally fail to study and complete successfully because they are not clever". (PB0010)

These responses from children on why and how children drop out of school are indicative of reflective ability which is a component of critical thinking. Children exhibited an ability to analyse the potential causes and consequences of their own behaviour and the behaviour of others. Such knowledge and awareness of threats to staying in school has the potential to strengthen children's decision-making skills, assertiveness and self-esteem when they are confronted by similar situations in life.

5.7: Influences on children's life skills development

Responses from pupils, teachers, head teachers, CCTs, and education officials showed that a number of factors influence the development of pupils' life skills development. These influences include; school and home factors, broader culture and laws. School factors reflected in the responses included methods, training and resources. Amongst the home factors were parents' role, competence and attitude. There were also factors emanating from the relationship between home and school. There were further influences from broader culture and laws. Tradition and culture were seen as influencing children's life skills development through child initiation and parenting styles. According to parents, western culture and degeneration of traditional values in society influence the development of pupils' life skills. These factors are discussed below in this section.

5.7.1: School influences on children's life skills development

This section describes school and home influences on children's life skills development. At school the major influencing factors are the methods and strategies used in the teaching learning process. Since life skills were an intervention, the issues of teacher orientation, training and resource support were paramount. Teacher orientation and training were supposed to equip the teachers with life skills education pedagogical competencies that would enable them to facilitate pupils' development of life skills. At school there were also influences from out of school activities that also facilitated pupils' life skills development.

5.7.1.1: Methods and other approaches

Data from Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTs), primary two and primary five teachers, children and parents demonstrated how methods used in the instructional process had potential in facilitating the development of children's life skills. One of the most commonly used teaching techniques was question and answer. Pupils, teachers and head teachers explained how question and answer was used during teaching and learning in the classroom and how it (question and answer) could facilitate pupils' development of certain life skills.

When the teachers acknowledged learners' responses with appreciation and praise, the children felt proud and confident to put up their hands and gave answers another time. When teachers positively acknowledge pupils' answers, the pupils feel proud and confident:

"I put up my hand every time a teacher asks a question. And … yes feel very proud when I give a correct answer and the teacher says very good". (PT0099)

"*When I give an answer and the teacher says 'very good'… you feel very good''.* (PX0111)

The pride and self-esteem encourages them to put up hands another time the teacher asks a question because they are confident they know the answer and they want to tell the teacher:

"You put up your hand because you want to tell the teacher the answer". (PY0116)

"Sir, oooooh!!!!, I make sure I put up my hand again" (PX0113)

"Knowing the answer gives you the strength to put up your hand". (PM0062)

It is the nature of appreciation and acknowledgement from the teacher that encourages the children to put up hands another time the teacher asks a question:

"When the teacher says 'very good' when I give an answer, I am encouraged to put up my hand and answer again". (PM0063)

Some of the common modes of teacher acknowledgement of pupils' responses to teachers' questions were 'very good' and 'clap for him or her'. This seemed to be a recipe for self-awareness and self-esteem:

"When I give a correct answer I want the teacher to say ''very good'' and clap for him and you first boast". (PST099).

"When the teacher tells the class to give me flowers or clap for me, "Y" (used his name) feels like a boss'' (PX0114).

It is the feelings that the children have during question and answer time that sustain their participation in the lessons. The positive feelings of children were sustained by being acknowledged by the teacher for giving correct answers. This, according to the children, made them feel good and proud:

"Owulira bulungi bwowa answer entufu omusomesa nakugamba very good (meaning; you feel good when you give a correct answer and the teacher says; very good)". (PST100).

"When the teacher asks a question another day, you boast again and be like a boss in the whole class". (PST96)

The teachers themselves confirmed that when they use question and answer technique in the teaching learning process, they develop pupils' critical and creative thinking.

The questions encourage children to think as they reflect on the answer to the question. This thinking may be a recipe for development of life skills like critical or creative thinking:

"When I ask questions, I make children to think critically and sometimes depending on how my questions have been phrased, creatively". (T014).

That is why these three teachers confirmed that:

"My pupils have developed critical thinking because of the effort they make to answer my questions". (T024).

"Sir, me, I like posing questions, they make children think". (T001)

"Me personally, I enjoy that situation in the class after asking a question. You see children putting up hands and withdrawing them, some putting up hands and saying sir! Sir!.., others putting together heads and whispering to each other, sir many things, they are thinking". (T012)

To confirm what the teachers were saying in relation to what goes on in the mind of the pupil, one pupil said:

"Omusomesa bwabuzza ekibuzo, osoka nolowoza mu kyogenda okuddamu" (Meaning: "When a teacher asks a question, you first think about what you are going to answer") (PM0063)

Head teachers also appreciated the need for pupils' critical thinking which is enhanced by questioning during teaching and learning. According to the head teachers, it facilitates children's attentive listening and creative thinking:

"Critical thinking helps them to listen attentively". (HT002)

"Through critical thinking children develop creative thinking". (HT001)

All the above were also confirmed by a primary five teacher whose response was:

"In my teaching, I use question and answer in every lesson. There is no way you can avoid it. But it helps to facilitate children's development of different life skills. For example, to think about the answer to the question, develops critical thinking, when the child gives a correct answer and I say very good, the child feels big and will have the confidence to continue putting up the hand because he/she knows can give another good answer (this is self-awareness) *and be praised with very good again, there are many others sir''.* (T016).

Critical thinking involves analysing and evaluating information (see chapter 3). Teachers seem to view questioning as a way of prompting this kind of reflection in children, thus promoting critical thinking.

Question and answer was also seen a s a way of developing self-confidence and assertiveness. A head teacher also explained and added another scenario that in case there are pupils who have not put up hands voluntarily, i.e., non-volunteers, teachers should pick them on to develop their confidence and assertiveness.

"To develop assertiveness, sometimes when teaching, these children are very shy; pick on non-volunteers so that when one gives the correct answer, he/she will be encouraged to put up the hand next time". (HT003)

A parent, whose response was in support of the above head teacher also, explained how to deal with children who do not put up hands during question time in class:

"How to deal with children who may fear to participate in the class, put up a hand half way if she he is not sure of the answer and immediately withdraw the hand when another one answers, for example 4x4 = 10 fearing to be picked". (PFGB008).

During observation of a primary two lesson, (observation 18 - more details in chapter 6) on things made in the community, the following was observed:

Teacher*: "'M', you put up your hand and then put it down. I know you can give us the correct answer, tell us what your mother makes at home"*

'M'*: "My mother makes baskets"*

Teacher*: "Very good, class, what does M's mother make?"*

Class*: "M's mother makes baskets."*

Teacher*: "Give 'M' flowers."*

Class*: "All rise up their hands and shake them as they move them towards 'M' to give her the flowers."*

In addition to questioning, teachers' responses reflected other ways and methods they use in the instructional process and how these facilitate pupils' life skills development.

A teacher explained that certain subject matter can facilitate development of children's life skills:

"When we teach subjects like Religious Education, our children are helped to develop many life skills. For example when you teach about how Jesus healed people, children start sympathizing and developing empathy for the sick''. (T017).

Teachers and head teachers explained that debate can facilitate pupils' development of confidence, self-esteem and self-awareness.

A head teacher felt that during debate children should be encouraged to speak in whatever they wish in order to become confident:

"During debate, encourage pupils to say whatever they are thinking even with no good English. They have to participate and become confident". (HT005)

A primary five teacher asserted that in upper primary classes, other methods like debate facilitate pupils' development of life skills of communication, creativity and critical thinking:

"I n this P5 class, I sometimes organize debates on some content issues. These help them to develop confidence, express themselves, communicate effectively, think critically and sometimes express themselves creatively" (T021).

A teacher went further and explained that the confidence the children get as they debate emanates into self-awareness and confidence:

"The confidence the children get as they speak during debate develops their self-awareness and self-esteem". (T007)

Another teacher added use of drama to debate and observed that debate and drama when used in teaching strengthen children's confidence and self-esteem:

"Sir, debate, drama and other methods when used in teaching make children have confidence and self-esteem" (T004)

One of the methods discussed in interviews with primary two teachers was small group methods. In Uganda there was a USAID project which bought furniture for primary one to three classes. These are small tables and small chairs which have enabled teachers to organize their classes into small groups. During the interviews teachers reiterated that the arrangement helps to develop different life skills in the pupils.

Teachers explained that:

"We have organized this class (primary two) into small groups. These small groups help children to develop teamwork, sharing, leadership (I have made it rotational in this class), negotiation, and problem-solving skills. The way they work also makes them to develop patience; for example one has to listen patiently when his friend is giving an idea. They even learn how to express themselves and therefore communicate effectively". (T003)

Teachers therefore appreciated the good job done by the project and how the small groups had become effective in facilitating pupils' life skills development:

"These whites did a good job for us. Sir, in these small groups, children develop friendship, learn how to work together, socialize, share and develop self-esteem and awareness. … You know they sometimes hold discussions in these small groups. When one gives a point and the others accept it he or she now knows can give a correct answer. This makes him or her walk with the head up" (T004).

An interview with a teacher in another school revealed more information about the small group organization in primary one to primary three. The small group arrangement was an arrangement that was intended to facilitate the use of cooperative learning. This teacher confirmed that cooperative learning helps in developing life skills:

"I think you know that we have to use cooperative learning. Even this sitting arrangement (in small groups) was caused by the introduction of cooperative learning. Sir cooperative learning helps in the development of all life skills. These are life skills like self-esteem, self-awareness, tolerance, patience, effective communication, friendship, negotiation, what can I say". (T011)

In one interview, a teacher gave a practical example of how a role play could be seen developing confidence, and empathy. The teacher said:

"Sometimes I use role plays here. These develop pupils' confidence because children have to stand in front of the class and act, talk etc. One time children acted the role of a doctor and nurse. I tell you that lesson was very successful. I saw children caring and empathizing with the sick". (T019).

Another strategy that was evident in the schools that also appeared to facilitate pupils' life skills development at school was compound messages.

In one of the two focus group discussions I had with parents, one of the parents also made an observation and acknowledged the existence of written messages displayed in the school compound. The parent said:

"There is a programme which I have discovered as a parent. As you enter our school here, there are writings in the compound. These writings are; 'stay safe', 'say no to sex', 'abstain from sex' etc. these help our children''. (PFGA004).

In all the 12 primary schools I visited, these compound messages were in evidence and the teachers confirmed that they are intended to encourage incidental learning for all the children. These messages included, in addition to those aforementioned:

''Avoid bad touches', 'HIV kills', 'HIV is preventable' 'keep the compound clean' etc.''

Although this was a suggestion from this one parent, parents seemed to be aware that there were activities that could facilitate development of pupils' life skills in their schools:

"*Our school needs to organize interclass and interschool competitions because these help children to socialize, make desirable friends, and through their excelling in performance develop self-awareness, self-esteem, and confidence".* (PFGA001).

Children certainly saw the value of play in promoting friendship formation:

"As we play together we become friends". (PI0044)

"The people you always play with become your friends" (PE0023)

The need for sharing was emphasized by pupils, head teachers, and teachers as a foundation for developing friendship and empathy. Teachers and head teachers explained how sharing could be encouraged during teaching and learning sessions in the classroom.

"Bring children together so that they can share, cooperate". (HT001)

"Make children share instructional materials and other things to develop their life skills". (T024)

"There are those who are antisocial, like we have five sitter desks, but someone just sits and makes legs wide to deny others chance to sit. The teacher encourages them to sit properly and share". (T008)

Teachers and head teachers were aware of instances in the class when children needed to be encouraged to share. For example, when a teacher gave a task, she or he could move around and come across a child who was not writing because of the lack of a pen or pencil. The teacher could look around and then encourage any of the children who could be having two pens to help.

"You may find someone not writing and you ask, why are you not writing? If she has no pen, you encourage others who may have two pens or pencils to give her". (T005)

And a head teacher appreciated that:

"Many teachers in the classes do a good job. They encourage children to share and develop socially. Sir those are the life skills we want" (HT002).

A number of pupils' responses also brought out instances or situations that made them develop self-awareness and self-esteem. These included positive comments in their exercise books when they performed well, good positions on the report at the end of the term and success during play, especially when one scored:

"*When I score when playing a fibber ball, I become very proud and my friends thank me''.* (P5N0069)

"One day I scored and my friends thanked me. I felt very happy". (P5N OO66)

Normally when teachers give homework or an exercise in class, they write comments according to the nature of performance. According to children, positive comments encourage pupils and build confidence:

"When the teacher puts good work in your book this makes you happy". (PY0116)

Awarding a numerical score, like 10 out of 10, was also effective. A pupil said that you can show your friends and they praise you:

"When you have got 10 out of 10 you show your friends and they praise you". (PM0064)

At the end of the term or year children get reports. The position on the report has an effect on the feelings of the child. Children said they felt very happy and walked with their heads up when they were the first or in the upper most quarter.

When a child is the first, he is happy and even has the courage to show the report to the parents. This appears to be a sign of self-esteem:

"What makes me happy when I get a report is when I am the first, I will be happy and even make an alarm and my mother will also become very happy". (PD0020)

Children are aware of their ranking in the class:

"When I look at a report, a good position makes me happy and I enjoy". (PY0116)

Pupils expressed their strong feelings of pride and happiness when they are the first and are called to go in front of the class to get their reports:

"When you are number one and going in front of the class to get your report, you feel proud and happy". (PD0018)

"One day when I was in primary one, I came to school then everybody hugged me and told me I was the first in the whole school. I felt very proud". (PM0063)

The mood of the pupils during group interviews when the discussion turned to the positions on the reports and being number one or in the upper quarter was mixed. While some children spoke of improvement in their marks over the year, others became less talkative when this issue was being discussed. Thus, while position in the class appeared to be significant for all children, some children were inhibited in engaging in discussion around it, possibly because their own ranking was not favourable.

All these are examples of how different methods and approaches were being used by the teachers to facilitate life skills development among primary school pupils.

However, responses from CCTs, head teachers and teachers reflected deficiencies in orientation and training which seemed to have had a negative influence on pupils' life skills development. These are discussed below.

5.7.1.2: Training and difficulties teachers experience in life skills education

Life skills education is an innovation and approach in the nurturing of primary school pupils. In this respect, teachers needed sufficient support in form of training that could orient them and help them to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes that could enable them to successfully facilitate children's life skills development. The discussion in the preceding section reflects the need for teachers' pedagogical competence in life skills education. This section reflects teachers' responses on the extent of their competencies and speaks to the research question of the challenges in providing life skills education.

Responses from teachers, head teachers and CCTs show that teachers in primary schools have divergent levels of competence in handling life skills education.
On the one hand some teachers said they were competent enough to handle life skills education, because of workshops and CCTs' Continuous Professional Development (CPD) workshops and seminars:
"I feel I have had sufficient training from the workshops and CCTs CPDs and can handle life skills teaching effectively'". (T003)

"Our CCT is good; he organized follow up school based training which made me understand life skills education better". (T007).

Some of the interviewees benefited from the initial training conducted. The responses also seem to point to the level of commitment to the initial training:

"In this school, I was the only one taken for training and my capacity to teach life skills is good. In other schools, they are there but some have been transferred''. (T009) "I took the initial training serious and gained a lot. I am convinced I can effectively teach". (T001)
There were some teachers who participated in the initial life skills education programme of BECCAD and who also attended the current thematic training in which life skills are integrated, like the following respondent:

"I am an experienced teacher. I attended life skills education orientation during the first life skills education here and added orientation during the current thematic curriculum. I am OK''. (T014)

On the other hand, there were some teachers who felt they were not competent enough to teach life skills but were nevertheless trying:

"They only took one teacher from this school for training. Some of us were not trained. But we only manage because we read about life skills from the Thematic Curriculum syllabuses and teachers' manuals'". (T011).

"Although we are struggling to cope, we have a problem because at the training, life skills was only one session and it was not handled effectively. We need refresher courses to become more competent'' (T008).

"For me, I came to replace a teacher who was trained. She was transferred to another school. But I have read and I am using my experience. I am trying to cope" (T012).

"I am teaching the class but to be honest, I need another training in order to become competent enough in teaching life skills''. (T010)

"You know on the day life skills was taught, there were other topics to be handled, so the time was not enough to make us competent enough to teach life skills effectively. However, I am trying". (T018)

"Sir, for the P5 training I attended, there was very little said about life skills, I am just struggling" (T013)

Responses from CCTs also reflected a feeling that their teachers had divergent competencies in the handling of life skills education. For example, this respondent echoed the problem of funding, inadequate time for training and busy schedules.

"*You know there is this problem of funding, we trained for only two days and there were many things to take the teachers through. Life skills had one short session. We have followed it up with school based CPDs but it has been difficult to cover all the schools due to our busy schedules''.* (CCT001).

This CCT was confident the school based Continuous Professional Development she had conducted for her teachers had made teachers in her catchment area competent:

"I have conducted school based follow up training CPDs and these have helped my teachers to master life skills teaching'' (CCT005).

In a number of cases, teachers' competencies varied either because not all teachers received the necessary training or because there was no follow-up Continuous Professional Development (CPD) to consolidate the initial training.

"The problem is that only one teacher was trained from each school. This teacher was supposed to take others through but no school based Continuous Professional Development workshops (CPDs) were organized in some schools. I think even the ability of the trained teacher to teach others were doubted as training was for a very short time'' (CCT003).

"The competence is maybe just 50/50". (CCT002)

"Sometimes the ministry does things in a very complicated way. The training was only given two days. We actually didn't do much. These teachers needed a follow up which was hard to conduct in most schools. However, in some schools where the head teachers organized school based CPDs, teachers know what to do'' (CCT003).

"Maybe the problem is with few teachers who have been posted or transferred to this centre. Otherwise my teachers are competent because they were effectively handled in the training and follow up school based'' CPDs''. (CCT004).

The following teachers said their competence was derived from refresher courses:

"*I can prepare and handle life skills education with confidence. You know I have attended refresher courses with other NGOs that have life skills for HIV. These have consolidated my skills in handling life skills education in the thematic curriculum'' (T005,*

"Sir, I am O.K., I have had sufficient refresher courses with NGOs". T024).

One education officer was also aware of the inadequate training and emphasized the need for further training because of the inadequate initial training:

"There is need for further training of all our teachers through workshops, seminars and retreats. The initial training was not sufficient". (ED002)

5.7.1.3: Impact of resources

Responses from head teachers and teachers included resources as a necessity for successful implementation of life skills education. However, the responses reflected deficiency in this area. In some cases the respondents gave advice on how the situation can be corrected.

There is need for more funding to improve the quality of Life Skills Education:
"More funding for life skills education activities can improve the quality of life skills education". (HT009)
According to teachers, instructional materials can improve quality of teaching because this will facilitate hands on learning as teachers teach:
"There is need for more instructional materials. You can imagine in some lessons we just talk". (T018)

An education officer felt that as an innovation, the provision of reading materials is necessary:
"Being something new, literature will increase peoples' knowledge base. I know Africans have very poor reading culture but sometimes people are forced to read when there are some simple readers around". (ED003)

Head teachers agreed that life skills education is inhibited by inadequate instructional materials:
"We have inadequate or no instructional materials for our teachers to use in the classrooms". (HT008)
They also noted that there are large numbers of children in each class:
"In the whole school, our classes have very large numbers". (HT005)
Head teachers felt that large classes consequently hamper individual pupil attention which is essential to facilitate life skills development in children:
"Teachers in classes have limited individual attention". (HT006).
"The situation of big numbers is a real deterrent of proper teaching and nurture of our children's life skills development". (HT006)

5.7.2: Home influences

Responses from parents, teachers and pupils indicated that parents have a major role to play in facilitating the development of their children's life skills. These responses also reflect the level of competence the parents have in facilitating their children's life skills development.

Some comments highlighted the role of parents in protecting children from unwanted sexual encounters. This pupil explained how parents teach children about safe behaviour. Parents caution their children to avoid grown up men:

"Abazadde baffe tebatukiriza kugenda ewa basajja bakulu" (Meaning: 'Our parents do not allow us to go to grown up men') (PB0008)

This parent emphasized the importance of parents as role models:

"If you are a single parent who is a lady, you have to respect yourself, when you don't, you can even fail to make those children do the right thing which you want those children to be''. (PFGB008)

One parent felt that parents should monitor the type of friends their children get and said:

"I think parents should monitor the type of your children's friends. Even the neighbours; try to restrain your children from mixing with them". (PFGB006)

Some parents were aware and convinced that they need to react to their children's demands positively in order to enhance the development of their children's life skills development:

"I f I am at the wrong the child has the right to tell me that 'Daddy, this is wrong' If she says I am supposed to do this and that, I say I am sorry. I have to see, I have to think why she is saying like this … I have to weigh it as a human being and react positively to support the child's self-esteem, confidence and assertiveness''. (PFGB005)

Parents were aware their children advise them but they wanted to keep their responsive status of reciprocating with a counter advice:

"When a child tells me about anything I have done wrong, I say sorry but tell her; you should not forget doing good things''. (PFGB005)

The same parent explained that parents' caution should be integrated with critical reflection because the parent needs to weigh whether what the child is doing is good and nurturing:

"You need to find out whether what your child is doing is good. Ask yourself whether it can bring this poor little girl up. Then you tell her you are right but advise her not to forget she should continue''. (PFGB005)

Parents need to listen but not to be harsh to their children:

"If you are doing something which your child sees as bad and she tells you, for example, mammy what are you doing, you should apologize because they have heard it and will not forget. If a child tells me, daddy you are a drunkard and teacher so and so told us that we should not drink then the child is right. We the parents need to listen to these children and not buck at them''. (PFGB006)

The parents quoted thus far were generally from the urbanised Kampala district. In most African cultures children should not contradict parents. In this context, one parent during one of the focus group discussions insisted a child should not contradict her. She said:

"Me!!! I will not allow my child to tell me, mummy what you are doing is wrong I have already told my grandchild to respect me. I even rebuke. For a child to tell me you are wrong, I say you are a child, I am right". (PFGB007)

The following responses are from the deep rural district of Manafwa where the main initiation ceremony for boys is circumcision.

One parent observed that children have to respect their parents and said:

Children have to respect what parents tell them to do. It is parents who know and can guide children's upbringing". (P019)

It seems that parents in the villages have divergent attitudes about their children's behaviour and this causes difficulties for those who wish to control their children's behaviour more. In this context one parent was concerned about the contradictions among parents:

"We the parents have a problem. We don't speak the same language. When you want to guide your children others leave theirs free. When you give your children freedom to express themselves others feel that you are spoiling them. And your children start thinking you don't like them. Let the school help us". (P016)

In support of the above, the parent below generalized that most of the parents in Manafwa district oppress their children:

"Most of the parents in Manafwa here oppress their children. For them a parent is final. If a child has an idea he is not allowed to express. This is partly culture and some are just individual". (HT005)

In support of parents oppressing their children, the following teacher said:
"If a child says mammy I am not going to do that, it is a very big offence, because it is considered undermining the parent". (T002)

However, the same parent observed that oppression depends on the nature of the family:
"Oppression depends on the nature of the family, for example elite parents are open and can allow children to express themselves while illiterate parents tend to stick to cultural norms where a child should remain silent. And the majority of our children here are from non-elite homes". (T002)
Another parent remarked that parents who have dropped out of primary school may not have sufficient life skills education knowledge base:
"Most parents who are primary school drop outs may not be knowledgeable in developing life skills". (CCT001)

5.7.3: Home and school influences

Over 90% of the children who participated in this study leave home and go to school very early and come back home in the evening. On weekends the children are at home. These children inevitably live in two worlds. At home the children are with their parents. At school the children are with their teachers. The nurture of these children in these two worlds seems to be in some cases contradictory.

Responses from parents, teachers and pupils reflect a level of parents' attitudes and practices in the home interfering with the development of pupils' life skills. When interviewing pupils, their responses reflected instances when children get confused about the right thing to do and received conflicting messages about values like sharing. For example, pupils are given certain things to go with to school like pens and food. Some pupils and teachers reported that parents did not want their children to share these scarce resources:
"Bwempa mukwanno gwange ekalamu, bazzadde bange bangamba mbu todamu kugaba" ("When I give a friend a pencil, my parents tell me not to give again") (PO0073)

"When I give my friend a pencil my parents say I am wasting their money". (PD0017)
"Pupils come here from home and when at school here we encourage children to share. When they go home, they get some homes where they do not like to share". (T007)

"There is a situation when a parent buys two pencils. The child comes to school and shares it with a friend. When she goes back home, the parent will ask, `I bought a long pencil why is it becoming shorter and shorter? ` The child says my teacher told me to share with a friend. The parent can reply, I do not want that, tell them it is mine and not their money". (T010)

Most of the Ugandan schools are deep rural schools. Most of the parents of the children in these schools are poor peasant farmers who cannot afford basic needs for their school-age children. However, on some days, they give them something to eat while at school. Responses from all teachers interviewed, reflects a very big problem in developing the value of sharing, which is one of the key indicators of life skills like empathy and friendship formation in children.

Teachers fear to ask children to share because it can cause conflict with parents: *"Sir, you cannot ask these children to share what they have brought to eat because you can get problems with parents''.* (T024).

I was present in two different schools and witnessed the following two different opposing scenarios:

In one school, before children went out for break, the teacher asked the children to first get their bags and get something to eat. Each child got his or her bag and opened it. They had carried each a variety of food I think according to the social economic status of the home. For example some had cakes, with juice, others a slice of bread, others hardly anything nice to present. But, each one ate alone and finished or kept part, I think for lunch. This was a primary two class where children are still in their formative years. I went to another school (the only difference is this was a boarding school) where a parent brought some bananas and oranges for his child. The child went out and received the package from the parent, but when she came in the class, the class teacher announced, *"Today A's parent has brought for us eats. Have you seen them? We are going to share before we go for break. Please clap for A and her parent."* The class clapped and before they went for break they shared.

The scenario of children eating alone was evident in the majority of the schools used in this study where parents pack some food. This seems to cause a lot of concern especially for the primary two classes in Uganda which are constituted by pupils who are in their formative years. The problem of sharing was also evident in the responses from more than half of the pupils interviewed.

However, there were children who were even being interviewed together who had different experiences on sharing. Below are two extracts from two interviews:

Interviewer: *"At school, sometimes your friends do not have what you have, for example groundnuts, pens, and books. What do you do for them?"*

Interviewee: *"We give them (mixed- not all)".*

Interviewer: *"Do your parents appreciate when you share things like pens?"*

Interviewees: *"No" (in chorus).*

Interviewer: *"Why?"*

Interviewees: *"They beat you" (some), "they back at you" (others).*

This extract shows that much as some parents are negative about sharing, the children seem to have been influenced by conditions at school to share.

Interviewer: *"In this school you have friends who come from homes where the parents cannot provide certain things, is it true?"*

Interviewees: *"Yes" (all)*

Interviewer: *"What things do they normally lack?"*

Interviewees: *"pens, pencils and eats" (at random).*

Interviewer: *"How do you help them?"*

Interviewees: *"Me, my father bought for me a box of pencils so that when my friends do not have I help."(Another interviewee) "For me when a friend has no book, I give". (Interviewee) "When my friends have no eats (food items) I help them and we share".*

Interviewer: *"Do your parents appreciate your giving away of these things?"*

Interviewee: *(divided) some, "'they bark at you' and others 'it is ok'"*

Pupils were also very critical about some parents' failure to provide something for their children to eat when at school. According to pupils, the children who are not given anything to eat at school by parents become disgusting beggars at school. But the children are aware of the problem and blamed the parents:

"Some parents are not good they do not provide anything for their children to eat when at school. Aaaah, these children beg everything they see you eating" (PQ0082)

Pupils blame this situation entirely on parents:

"This results from parents; a child comes from home when he/she has not eaten food or taken porridge". (PQ0081)

This is a dangerous situation for children as observed by one of the pupils:

"For example you can be there on the way then someone comes with money and gives it to you, you are hungry, automatically you will go and work for that person. Those are some of the bad behaviours". (PC0083)

However, another pupil emphasised the importance of coming to school even if one does not have enough to eat:

"When your parent pays fees with no money for food come and study because the most important thing is schooling". (PQ0084)

One teacher said that children's ability to appreciate may also be hampered by home background:

"Some children come from homes where when given something, they do not say thank you. Now when they come to school and a friend gives them a pan cake, they do not say thank you because it is not promoted right away from home". (T015)

One head teacher summarized it all and said

"Our children humanly have a problem, they need to be guided and counselled. ...parents are saying these ...teachers are saying that...peers are also interfering. Surely what do we want these poor human beings to do?" (HT007)

Because of the problems head teachers have noted about parents, they feel it is important that parents are brought on board in promoting life skills education:

"We need to sensitize our parents and even ... create teacher parent linkage on life skills education". (HT001)

On the other hand responses from all parents, in many ways lay heavy responsibility on teachers as the main participants in developing pupils' life skills. The parents expressed all these in terms of description of good teachers, practice in the class, talent development, co-curricular or out of class activities, friendship formation and security.

For the parents, good teachers are those who correct children. They specifically do not like arrogant teachers:

"Good teachers are those who can correct children where they have made a mistake not one who is arrogant''. (P011).

These good teachers should also make effort to develop the talents of the children to consolidate their self-esteem and confidence:

"Develop the talents of children in their potential areas to strengthen their self-esteem and confidence". (P016).

"Teachers should develop the talents of the children in their potential area to strengthen their self-awareness, self-esteem, and confidence". (P012).

This parent advised on what schools should do to strengthen children's self-esteem, critical thinking, and sociability:

"Schools should plan and implement interclass and interschool competitions to strengthen children's self-esteem, critical thinking and sociability". (P014).

Parents feel that the school should guide their children on the type of friends to have because some friends are dangerous:

"Our children have a problem in friendship formation. Schools should guide children on friendship formation so that they can know who is a good and bad friend. For example in Kasenke near here, last time cousins were playing and one pushed the other into a pit latrine which was being dug and the cousin died." (PFGA004).

According to parents, in this world of HIV, early pregnancies, defilement, forced marriages and immoral media influences, teachers also have an added responsibility to provide appropriate sex education:

"Our children now need appropriate sex education. With the rampant technology like TVs and internet, and newspapers like Red pepper and Bukedde (local dailies), our children need to be guided early enough to take appropriate precautions". (P012).

And also with the primary school children moving long distances to and from school and on the way facing divergent risky situations, parents feel teachers have more work to do in this area:

"Me I think the teacher has more work. Some of our children move long distances from home to school and back home, there are people on the way like boda-boda cyclists (motorcycle riders) who can entice our children and harass them sexually. The children should know how to respond to them. The child should not just abuse the cyclist when called. This can cause them to be beaten, raped or be hurt in any other way''. (P009).

Some parents therefore felt that they (parents) should cooperate with teachers to raise good children:

"We (parents) should cooperate with teacher to have good children. I want my children to have self-esteem''. (PFGB006)

This parent continued:

"We parents, there is a way we are training our children, we do not want the teacher to talk to our children, we interfere''. (PFGB006)

However, most of the parents, felt their children are difficult and it is up to the school to manage them. This transfer of responsibility was evident in a number of parents' responses in rural areas.

Since illiterate parents think their children look down upon them, they also feel that teachers should be the ones to help them in the nurture of these children:
"Our children think since we are not educated we don't know anything. Teachers should help us". (P020)
Some parents feel they have made effort to talk to their children but are still betrayed by availability of time; therefore, teachers should help them:
"I have tried to talk to my children but I do not have enough time with them. Children leave my home very early and come back very late when they are even tired. Teachers should actually help us". (P011)

5.7.4: Influences from broader culture and laws on pupils' life skills development

Culture, tradition and children's life skills are interrelated because children live in a cultural context. Responses from teachers, head teachers, parents and pupils reflected the influence culture, tradition, laws, and children's rights have on pupils' life skills development. The areas integrated in these responses include initiation, inheritance, traditional values, and gender issues.

5.7.4.1: Traditional and cultural influences on pupils' life skills development

The following are responses from parents from Manafwa district where initiation into manhood is through circumcision. On the one hand parents feel teachers disregard culture and handle boys badly which results in the boys dropping out. While on the other hand some respondents contend that the traditional nurture of boys makes them big headed and frustrates the positive nurture of girls.

According to the parents, some teachers did not recognise that through initiation boys become men and should be handled accordingly:
"The problem we have is that some teachers sometimes don't know that some of these boys are already men. They have already been initiated as men. They handle them badly and they drop out". (P021)

Parents doubted the knowledge of the teachers on how to treat boys:

"Our teachers here seem not to know that boys have a special consideration as people who are being nurtured to head families". (P015)

On the other hand, teachers from Manafwa also felt that the children's life skills development and their (children's) proper upbringing were being frustrated by the culture and traditions of the Bamasaba. The culture seems to frustrate girls' development of self-esteem and assertiveness due to the culture that brands them inferior. This was further complicated by early orientation of male children to adult male behaviour. Teachers also observed that special treatment accorded to boys in the home kept the girl child inferior. All these, according to the teachers seemed to act as deterrents to children's life skills development.

Female teachers were concerned about the nurture of girls due to negative culture that exalts boys at the expense of girls:

"I am a Mumasaba, yes, but as a female teacher, I have a problem because our girl children here can't develop self-esteem and assertiveness. It is the boys, especially those who have been circumcised who are given a platform to speak". (T0012)

In the same vein, female teachers were concerned that even the appropriate and positive nurture of boys was made difficult by the same culture:

"The Bamasaba culture makes the nurture of boys or their upbringing very difficult". (T0015)

A teacher explained the bad orientation the boys get:

"The boys are oriented as men even before they reach school going age. They have to a certain extent understood that they are men. That is why when anything happens to them the comments are 'don't behave like a woman, you are a man'. This is bad orientation". (T006)

Another teacher gave an example of how boys behave because they consider themselves men:

"Someone just enters the class without permission because he is a man". (T016)

In the same vein, head teachers expressed the difficulty of nurturing boys. They said:

Can you imagine? The child, after being circumcised is given a spear, panga, etc and sat on a traditional elders stool to be a man regardless of how old the boy is". (HT004)

And another head teacher further explained the magnitude of the problem:

"Some children are like kings in their homes for example for some their parents even give them special chairs to sit on and like boys eat with the father because they are men. Such cannot be guided at school". (HT002)

In addition, the initiation instructions complicate things further on the nurture of boys' life skills:

"Initiation- circumcision is what they talk for example when they are being initiated they are told: You are now a man. You can now make a family. Quickly look for a wife and make a home and give rise to children". (HT004)

One head teacher explained that, traditionally, the circumstances under which certain children are born also make such children untouchable and difficult to nurture. For example:

"Some children are heirs, some were got by chance e.g. one has stayed for years with no children and then all of a sudden gets a child, or she has buried and buried and all of a sudden she gets one child who lives such is untouchable". (HT001)

And traditionally a circumcised child is not the one you can discipline anyhow. In fact, the magnitude of the problem seemed to be so disturbing that head teachers were even still thinking about caning such children which is incompatible with the life skills curriculum:

"Circumcised children are men and are not supposed to lie down to be caned". (HT001)

"You cannot touch these circumcised children, how can a man lie down to be caned?''. (HT003)

Consequently these boys' attitudes fail to match or fit in school life and they become too big headed to remain in school:

"Circumcised children also become big headed because they are men and they drop out". (HT003)

Further explanation of the problem of nurturing boys was given by a head teacher who felt that some boys were pampered too much at home to fit in school life:

"Our children here, there are those who are like kings at home, the father can say ahaaa…! my child you sit on this chair. When such a child comes in your class like here and you say you share the desk, I think it will be very difficult. You will either find that child in the corner or he will absent himself''. (HT003)

5.7.4.2: Western cultural influences on pupils' life skills development

Parents felt that their children' life skills should enable them to successfully fit and live in their society. Parents had misgivings about the Western culture. They felt that their children were being derailed from traditional values by this culture.

Generally, parents want their children to fit in their society:

"My desire as a parent is that my child should successfully fit in our society''. (P014).

This was because, according to parents, Western culture was misleading:

"Our children should have the skills that will enable them to fit in our culture and in our community. The western culture is misleading our children''. (P020).

The parents felt Western culture made their children behave badly. For example parents said:

"Our children don't respect us. They do not respect the elders…you talk, they talk, what is that?" (P009)

To the parents, this was degeneration of values:

"This is total degeneration of our values… we may not have anything for tomorrow. Even our traditional religion is sincerely gone". (P017)

5.7.4.3: Children's rights, and laws' influences on pupils' life skills development

Apart from culture among the Bamasaba and Western culture, some parents and teachers generally felt that enforcement of children's rights and laws is inhibiting the proper development of their children. According to them, there were contradictions between rights enforcement, parental orientation, school orientation and conformity to traditional norms of nurturing children. The freedom to access media resources by the children was also seen by the parents as a deterrent to acceptable upbringing of their children.

Some parents expressed the view that children these days have no respect because of the laws (rights) regulating pupils' treatment:

"There is a law these days. A child can come and overpower the teacher with a word only and just tell him off. Teacher can say to the child, prepare your colour … the child can just move away like that, they are minimizing teachers. The child might think he is the best". (PFGB007)

In the past, parents felt their children's behaviour was controlled by enforcement of disciplinary measures, but with the implementation of children's rights, the story was different. For example, according to parents, lateness was punishable but now children come to school at will because of the rights:

"The children come to school at will. You are not going to blame the teacher, not the head teacher, but the laws of these days". (PFGB007)

That is why parents felt, implementation of the rights of children was therefore making the children big headed:

"The child, not mine, not yours, but children of these days are big headed a bit. There is a law that makes our children big headed a bit, that one should be pruned". (PFGB006).

Another parent put blame on the government:

"I am not blaming the school, I am blaming government. There are these rights of children. Children these days can talk more words than a teacher". (PFGB008).

Parents were concerned that it was possible now to find a child who stands before the parent with no respect which is not normal in traditional Africa:

"A child just stands before you the parent with no respect. You are paying fees, so if such a thing is possible, the government has to review it". (PFGB007).

Another parent confirmed what is being said above and said:

"Adding on what they are saying, children have much freedom''. (PFGB008)

And parents even blamed children being involved in drug abuse on the freedom children have:

"I don't know whether we know that our children taking on this drug abuse are because of the much freedom they have?"(T020)

According to the parents this is a contradiction with African values:

"I went to a friend's home. They have five children. These children were doing their own things. None of them came to greet me. ...yeah they are free. Can you imagine that is now happening in Africa? They call them 'rights', is this right?"(P019)

Parents therefore felt their effort in shaping their children was being undermined by advocacy of children's rights. That is why some parents said that children had too much freedom and some still even advocated for the use of the cane to discipline children.

"A cane at school and at home shaped me very well. Can you imagine, children are now being told they should not be caned by anyone? What type of children are we going to have?"(P019)

One parent blamed fellow parents for supporting rights and interfering with the work of the teachers:

"There is a way we parents are also training our children; we don't want the teacher to talk children's business, teachers to talk to our children. We should cooperate with the teachers to have good children. I want my children to have self-esteem'' (PFGB006).

5.7.4.4: Media influences on pupils life skills development

All parents and teachers were very critical of the media as a deterrent to their children's life skills development. They identified the internet, music, films and local dailies as negative influences on the moral behaviour and life skills development of their children through their promotion of immoral messages to the children.

Sex scenes may pop up abruptly when a child is on the computer:

"These days a pornographic scene can pop up even when a very young child is using a computer…ekyo kiki? (What is that? A child asks). This is damaging the morality of our children". (P009)

Parents were concerned that similar scenes were deliberately put in the local dailies:

"Even these papers like Bukedde and Red Pepper (Ugandan local dailies) are a challenge to our children's life skills development. There is a lot of pornography in them". (P021)

The messages in the songs to which children listen are, in most cases, immoral or sexual:

"I don't know what is wrong with our musicians these days; every song they compose is a love song. The bad thing is that even our children sing these songs" (P014)

These observations by the parents were confirmed by children's echoing of some parental restrictions to them:

"My parents are very strict they allow us to watch only cartoons. They say the TV shows bad pictures". (PC0013)

However, the restrictions seem to be limited to some homes because in other homes children were allowed to see the television once certain conditions were fulfilled:

"As long as we have finished the work my mother gives us, we are allowed to watch the TV". (PV0104)

Parents also expressed concern at the precociousness of young children and their lack of supervision.

"I don't know what generation we are going to have. Can you imagine, children at primary level are talking about pornography, romantic films…they even know the titles of these films". (T002)

"There are some days here when children rush home for specific films on some of these films they put PG and say parental guidance is encouraged. Do you think the parents are there when their children are watching these films? ...no way". (T015)

Comparatively, there are parents who still felt that their children were true traditionalists. I personally went to one of the homes of my interviewees. It was a day of children getting holidays. The son came, knelt before the father, gave him a report and waited for the father to finish reading the report. After the father made a comment, the boy got up and went to change his clothes. The father then said: *"I thank God because of my children. They have not been contaminated by modernization. They are true Baganda".* (P012)

5.8: Summary

This chapter has specifically analysed the data collected from all the interviews conducted in this study. In some cases, reference has been made to the data collected from observation of primary two and five lessons. In this summary, the major findings are outlined in relation to how the results answered the research questions.

This study intended to establish teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions of, competencies in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools. The summary below focuses on each of these categories of respondents in the study.

The analysis of teachers' interviews shows that:

- Teachers did not make a clear distinction between the 16 listed life skills in the curriculum and the indicators and values. This confusion of definition was also evident in the primary two and five lesson plans of the lessons observed.
- Teachers apportioned the blame for problems in life skills development to parents and the culture in which some of the parents were still strongly engrained. This was most evident in the rural districts of Manafwa and Mukono.
- More than half of the teachers expressed competence in life skills education due to the initial training in life skills education, the practice they have had

since they were trained, school based Continuous Development Courses (CPDs), refresher courses organised by non-governmental organisations and the orientation of training for the thematic curriculum which had the 16 (sixteen) life skills directly integrated and listed in the curriculum documents.

- On the other hand, about less than half confessed deficiency in life skills education competence due to inadequate or no training at all. This was supported by CCTs who accepted that the training period was short and only one teacher was selected from each school. Further to this the head teachers said that some of their schools had no life skills education trained teachers because of the indiscriminate transfers that had taken away the trained teachers.
- Teachers had a positive attitude towards life skills because they felt life skills were making children have self-esteem, assertiveness and self-awareness. Nonetheless, there was pressure on teachers to produce high academic results, notably through high grades in the Primary Leaving Examination.

For the parents, the analysis shows that:

- Parents' attitude to life skills appeared to reflect either an authoritative or authoritarian approach. In the former, parents recognised the validity of children's expression of opinions. In the latter, it appeared that parents felt children should submit to their parents. The parents who were authoritative were literate and mainly found in Kampala city district. Parents viewed life skills as a totality of development of their children that is in all spheres of life, for example, conformity to culture, moral upbringing, academic excellence and vocational skills. Life skills as psychosocial competence seemed not to be clear or known to most of these parents.
- Parents prioritised their children's academic performance and wanted them to attain high marks at school and in the Primary Leaving Examination.
- Parents had a tendency to transfer their responsibility of nurturing their children to the teachers in school. This was more evident in rural settings.
- Parents also associated life skills education with children's rights and in this context, viewed life skills as a detriment to the upbringing of children in their culture.

- Parents were wary of the media resources to which their children were exposed and viewed these resources as a deterrent to the proper nurture of their children.

Interviews with head teachers and CCTs indicated that:

- Head teachers felt incompetent in life skills education because of being excluded from life skills education training. They felt this crippled their supervision and management of life skills education in their schools.
- Experiences in life skills education at their schools had developed in them a positive attitude towards life skills education.
- Were also wary of traditional or cultural structures that they felt frustrated children's life skills development.

The study also aimed at ascertaining children's knowledge and awareness of the life skills listed in the primary school curriculum and the extent to which the children demonstrated these life skills. The analysis of data in this chapter shows that:

- Since life skills are infused in the school curriculum and are not taught as a separate subject, children are expected to learn life skills through the other subjects on the curriculum and do not have experience of direct life skills education as a subject matter area. This made in and out of class activities count as focal situations for pupils' life skills awareness and development.
- In the context of these in and out of class activities, children themselves and other respondents gave accounts of instances that showed that they cherish and benefit from friendship formation; they are critical thinkers, assertive, decision-makers, negotiators, empathic and have self-awareness and self-esteem.
- Testimonies from teachers, parents and children themselves reflected children's exposure to different situations in school, on the way to and from school and at home that were responsible for children's life skills education experiences and therefore development.

The analysis of the data also shows that teachers are responsible for children's life skills education and use a variety of methods to develop children's life skills. The findings in this chapter show that teachers:

- Mainly use question and answer. This was also supported by the pupils when they gave accounts of how they participated in answering teachers' questions. Children seemed to have more experiences in participating in answering the teachers' questions than in any other method.
- Use other methods like explanation, debate, brainstorming, drama, small group methods, class discussions and co-operative learning. These were mainly listed by the teachers who said they used them.
- Also use different forms of feedback to learners' participation in their lessons. This was also supported by the pupils who gave accounts of how they felt when teachers gave them positive feedback when they gave correct answers to teachers' questions.

The analysis of the interviews shows that life skills education in Uganda also has challenges which include:

- Lack of proper training for teachers and no training at all for education officials
- Divergence in perceptions of what life skills are among the teachers themselves and other educationalists and between the teachers and the parents
- Clash between the life skills listed in the curriculum and culture.

5.9: Conclusion

Teachers, parents and children had a positive attitude to life skills. There is evidence that life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools through what teachers teach in the classroom and a variety of other activities in the class, school and out of school. The parents, teachers and other educationalists had divergent views on what life skills are and the intended outcome of life skills education. In this case, while some teachers seemed to view life skills education in the context of children's psychosocial competence, parents had a wider scope of viewing life skills education that seemed to include all spheres of a child's nurture and development and in particular, the development of skills that would facilitate employment and further education. Support for the values underpinning life skills education was not universal. Some parents in straitened economic circumstances found it difficult to endorse the value of sharing unequivocally. Some parents also

felt that the promotion of assertiveness and children's rights was at odds with their cultural perspective. Indeed, both parents and teachers reported that traditional cultural values and the values of life skills education were not always incompatible and that this incompatibility makes the implementation of life skills education problematic. Through children's accounts of their experiences in daily living and the testimonies of teachers and parents, there seemed to be a strong indication that children were aware of certain life skills and even exhibited some of these life skills. Some teachers expressed a belief in their competence while others felt they were deficient either due to lack of or inadequate life skills education training. Other educationalists, especially the head teachers felt incompetent both as teachers and managers of primary schools because of being left out during life skills education training. Culture, and media were seen as deterrents to life skills education by a cross section of stakeholders. It is therefore important to note that while there are positive indicators of the fruition of life skills education in Ugandan primary schools, there also tensions between culture, children's rights and laws, media and the mechanisms of training primary school teaching staff for this intervention.

CHAPTER SIX: RESULTS OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS AND TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES

6.1: Introduction

In chapter five, data from interviews and focus group discussions were presented. In this chapter, I present data from 24 lesson observations of primary 2 and primary 5 classes and data from teachers' questionnaires. Analysis of the observation data revealed that teachers listed and used different methods to facilitate development of different life skills. Classroom interactions that facilitated life skills' development are discussed in the analysis of the observations. These include interactions between teachers and children and between children themselves. Data from teachers' questionnaires provided information on the methods used to facilitate pupils' development of certain life skills and the indicators of each life skill witnessed by teachers. The relationship between the methods used and the indicators of the life skills was investigated using cross tabulations and chi square analysis.

The data presented in this chapter address the following research questions:

- Is there any evidence that pupils' demonstrate the life skills listed in the curriculum?
    - This question is addressed through observations of lessons and the researcher's observation of behaviours that indicate the existence of life skills. It is also addressed by analysing the indicators of life skills which teachers reported observing in the teachers' questionnaire.
- What methods are teachers using to develop life skills?
    - This question is addressed through the researcher's observation of teaching methods. It is also addressed by analysing teachers' responses to the questionnaire which asked them to indicate the methods used to teach life skills.
- Are the indicators of life skills listed in the curriculum being observed by teachers?
    - This question is addressed through the teachers' questionnaire in which teachers were asked to select the indicators of life skills from the curriculum that they observed in their classrooms.

- Are the teachers who use the life skills teaching methods listed in the curriculum more likely to observe the indicators of life skills listed in the curriculum than teachers who do not use those methods?
    - This question is addressed through chi square analysis of the association between the methods used and the indicators observed. Specifically, the analysis examined whether the observed relationship between these two variables was significantly different from the relationship that would be expected by chance.

A summary of how these questions were answered is presented at the end of this chapter.

6.2: Presentation of data from observation of Primary 2 and Primary 5 lessons

The researcher carried out a total of 24 lesson observations; twelve observations in primary two and twelve observations in primary five using the observation instruments that are described in appendix 6.1. The findings are structured under five themes namely; strategies used to promote the life skills listed in the lesson plans, teaching strategies that promoted life skills, evidence of life skills as put forward in the curriculum, interactions between teacher and children, and interactions between children that would facilitate life skills development.

6.2.1: Strategies used to facilitate development of the life skills indicated in the lesson plans

During the observations, information about the class, subject, competencies (used in the place of what were formerly objectives), methods, instructional materials and life skills to be developed during the lesson process were recorded as reflected in each of the 24 lesson plans (see appendix 6.1). Each of these elements was listed as part of the basic information in each lesson plan. The competencies, methods, instructional materials and life skills indicated imply or represent the strategies teachers plan to implement during the teaching learning process. In each lesson, the class teacher planned to develop specific competencies and life skills in children. None of the lesson plans of the 24 lessons observed listed a learner competence that directly reflected the intention to develop specific life skills. Nonetheless, 23 out of the 24

lesson plans had lists of life skills to be developed. However, when the lesson procedure was analysed, there was no direct mention of how the life skills listed were going to be developed during the teaching learning process. At best, the connection between the life skills to be developed and the activities in the lesson was only implied in the lesson competencies. For example, in observations 11, 12, and 14 respectively, the life skills and competencies outlined were as follows:

Observation 11

Life skills to be developed as indicated in the lesson plan were communication, fluency, friendliness and love. The competencies stated were "Describes the type of letters clearly", "Follows the guidelines", and "Writes a correct personal/friendly letter". These competencies may imply, if well done, pupils' competencies in communication and fluency because they are writing a letter. The competencies may also imply development of friendliness and love because the pupils are writing a personal /friendly letter.

Observation 12

In observation 12, the life skills to be developed were self-esteem and effective communication. The stated competencies to be developed among the pupils were "Define what a river is", "Identify different rivers of Uganda", "State the longest river in Uganda" and "Draw the map of Uganda showing the major rivers". During the lesson, pupils were exposed to opportunities of giving definitions of the river, coming to the front of the class to identify different rivers of Uganda from a map of Uganda and a chart showing the different rivers in Uganda. Pupils were also given the chance to identify the river Nile as the longest river in Uganda from the map and charts. The teacher continuously varied the verbal feedback given to students, saying at different times, 'very good', 'well tried', 'that is very good', 'clap for him', 'give her flowers' and 'excellent'. In the process, the pupils could smile, try again to be selected to answer or to perform another activity which were signs of feeling encouraged. This seems to have strengthened their self-concept, awareness and esteem. And as they talked and explained to others during group discussions and plenary sessions, their ability to communicate was also being enhanced and strengthened. Thus, while the life skills to be developed were not evident in the competencies listed in the lesson plan, the methodology used to teach those competencies had the potential to develop life skills.

Observation 14

In observation 14 life skills to be developed were team work, critical thinking, leadership and negotiation. The stated lesson competencies of the Physical Education lesson were "The learner passes/ kicks", "Dribbles correctly with inside foot", "The learner listens and responds to instructions" and "Uses new words pass, kick, and dribble". Evident in this lesson were situations that would enable development of pupils' leadership and negotiation skills. These were during the game in which pupils practised the skills of a chest pass. Pupils in small play groups were able to negotiate and agree on who joins which side and which side of the pitch each side takes. There did not appear to be any opportunities in the lesson to develop critical thinking.

The details of the lesson plans for these lessons along with all of the lessons observed are included in appendix 6.1. In the Table 6.2.1 below, the methods listed to be used in the 24 lessons observed are reported as both frequencies and percentages. These methods are discussed in more detail in section 6.2.3. A review of these methods shows that teachers made an effort to deliberately plan hands on or participatory learning. The life skills approach emphasizes use of active learning in facilitating development of learners' life skills.

Table 6.2.1: Frequency and percentage of each method listed in lesson plans

Method	Frequency	Percentage of Total methods listed
Explanation	16	29.1
Question and answer	11	20
Discussion	9	16.4
Demonstration	7	12.7
Look and say	5	9.1
Brain storming	3	5.5
Discovery	1	1.8
Participation	1	1.8
Whole word	1	1.8
Whole sentence	1	1.8
Total	55	100

The teaching strategies listed in this table 6.2.1 are described in section 6.2.3.

6.2.3 Teaching skills that promoted life skills during teaching

This section describes how the methods listed in lesson plans were used.

6.2.3.1 Explanation: This was the most frequently listed and observed method in the 24 lesson plans, as it was listed 16 times (29.1%). There was also clear evidence that even the teachers who had not indicated explanation as a method of teaching in their lesson plans, used it during the teaching of the lessons observed. Explanations were focussed on providing information about the material to be learned and the focus of the lessons. For example, before an activity in every lesson observed, there was an explanation.

6.2.3.2 Question and answer: This was the second most frequently used technique in the 24 lessons observed. It was indicated 11 times (20%) as the method to be used in the lesson but was observed being used by the teachers in each of the 24 lessons. Through question and answer, teachers made an attempt to ascertain and evaluate the knowledge of pupils in regard to what was being taught in the lesson. This method ensured pupils' participation in the lessons. As it was used, children were given the opportunity to express themselves. Teachers encouraged pupils who knew the answers but did not contribute because of either being shy or reserved to give the answers. I observed that as pupils were given the chance to participate in answering the teachers' questions, they were rewarded by the teachers for their participation. Pupils putting up hands increased as they continued receiving the positive feedback. This seemed to encourage pupils to participate further. Further observation of use of question and answer established that while teaching, teachers deliberately noticed children who had problems in participating in the lessons and encouraged them to participate. Sometimes, children who knew the answer but who had not volunteered to answer were encouraged to answer, as evident in the following example.

This example is an extract from observation 12 of the primary five classes.

Observation 12

Teacher:*" What is the name of the longest river in Uganda?"*

(A few hands are put up which prompt the teacher to ask another question that would generate the same answer)

Teacher: *"O.k., on which river is the Owen Falls dam that generates electricity for us in Uganda?"*

(More hands are put up but the teacher notices that Pupil Y had not answered any question and was still not putting up the hand)

Teacher: *Moves towards 'Y' and then says, "Y we have not had your voice today, I know you know this answer, what is the name of this river?"*

Y: *"River Nile"*

Teacher: *"That is very good 'Y'. Can you make a full sentence for us?"*

Y: *"The name of the longest river in Uganda is River Nile."*

Teacher: *"Clap for 'Y'."*

Class: *"All clap for 'Y'."*

In this extract, other strategies included encouraging pupils who did not put up hands to answer teacher's questions.

The next teacher's question was on naming other rivers in Uganda and 'Y' put up his hand with confidence.

6.2.3.3 Discussion: Discussion was listed as a method in nine lessons. Each of these lessons used discussion sessions in two ways; organising children in small groups for a discussion and having a whole class discussion. In four lessons observed, the teachers involved the whole class in a general class discussion. This discussion was essentially a question and answer session because each teacher asked questions as the pupils answered them. Small group discussions were observed in five lessons. The teachers organised pupils in small discussion groups with a task or topic for discussion. In these groups, children selected secretaries and chairpersons from among the members of the groups. I moved around the class and witnessed pupils involved in exchanging and sharing ideas and recording them or sharing materials and using them as a group. As pupils communicated with each other, they also seemed to think and present their ideas in divergent directions to generate more varied and appropriate points to the topic (especially in primary five) and this was

accommodated by the members of the groups. Samples of what happened during the small group discussions are reflected in the following extracts from two of the five lessons where small group discussions were observed.

In observation 17 (P5), the teacher was teaching English to a P5 class. The topic was an 'Invitation Card'. The teacher organized a small group activity in which discussions were integrated as reflected in the extract below:

Observation 17

Teacher: "*Class, we have seen how we can design an invitation card. You are going to make an invitation card while in your groups. I am sure you know them. So get into your usual groups and first select a chairperson and a secretary. Use the example we have developed on the chalk board and develop a different invitation card for your group. Class, are you listening? Ensure that each one of you contributes his or her ideas. Listen attentively when your friend is talking. Agree on a point as a group before you write it down. The points in the card should reflect what all of you have agreed on. I am going to go round to see how each group is progressing. Later, when you display your cards, we shall select the best two."*

I physically went to one group and noted the following:

Chairperson: *"What occasion are we organizing? The teacher gave examples of birthday Party, family give away of girls who are going to get married party,"*

'D': "*Let us use a wedding party."*

'S': "*Chairman, no, that is the card on the chalkboard. The teacher said our card should be different."*

Chairperson: "*You are right 'S'. Can 'Y' suggest something?"*

'Y': "*Let us make one for a P5 class party."*

All pupils in the group clap with joy and say, *"We must today be the best."*

Chairperson: *"How do we start?"*

(There is total silence, as most of them stare at the chalkboard. Then one hand up, two, three, four…)

Chairperson: "*X, you have not given us a point today.*

'X':*P5 party.*

Two pupils quickly put up hands as if in protest.

Chairperson: "*What is it 'S'?"*

'S': "*The one on the chalkboard begins with To….."*

The second pupil who had also put up a hand says in the affirmative, before even being picked by the chairman, *'yes'* we should also begin ours like that.

Chairperson: *To whom?*

"X': *Let us invite our parents.*

Chairperson: *Do we need to write 'our parents' in the card?*

'D': *No, the one on the chalkboard does not have the people being invited.*

'S': *'D' is right, we just leave a gap as on the chalkboard and we shall just write the people we want to invite there.*

The activity continues and when the pupils finish their work in their respective groups, the teacher guides them to display and each secretary of a group presents his or her work to the class.

The second extract was from observation 7 of a P5 class Social Studies lesson on the Chwezi (pastoralists). The teacher divided a class of 77 pupils into 11 groups. The task was to discuss, in these 11 groups the reasons for pastoralism. The teacher organized the 11 groups and set them to start. I went to one group to see how the discussion would proceed. In this group, children were able to critically reflect, and using their experiences on pastoralism, communicate what they felt. The extract below illustrates the content of the children's discussion. To understand some of the children's contributions, it is important to note their context.

In Social Studies and even from common talk among people, children have heard that long horned cows are found in Western Uganda where the Chwezi pastoralists were located. Children have heard that in the semi-arid Karamoja of Uganda, people move from place to place in search of water for their cows. The chairperson of this group, which I was able to see, was able to communicate effectively as he conducted the discussion.

Observation 7

Chairperson: *We are supposed to discuss pastoralism. Yes, what is it?*

Pupil: "*Many long horned cows.*"

The chairperson sustained the discussion by asking questions that provoked further thinking.

Chairperson: "*What else?*"

Another pupil: "*No grass*"

Chairperson: "*Is that all?*"

Third pupil: "*No water in Karamoja.*"

When the groups had finished, the teacher conducted a plenary session as below:

Teacher: "*Have you all finished?*"

Class: "*Yes!!!!!" (in chorus)*

The teacher then put the pupils to task to critically analyse what was being presented by other groups in relation to what each group had on their list. If an idea a group had listed was presented by another group, then each group that had not presented had to tick it so that they could not present the same point again to save time.

Teacher: "*All of you sit upright. Now I want each secretary to read your points. As one group reads, you note the points which have been read and not repeat them during your presentation."*

6.2.3.4 Demonstration: This method was indicated by seven teachers in seven lesson plans (12.7%). It seemed as if most of the teachers indicated that they were going to use this method without taking cognisance of the technicalities involved. In the six lessons of the seven lesson plans observed, the teachers used explanation rather than demonstration. In fact, none, other than the physical education lesson, were suited for this method. In the physical education lesson, the method enabled the teacher to show the learner a model of performance of a skill or activity. There were two major skills to be learnt by the pupils during the warm up activities and actual game of the day. These were rope skipping and passing the ball. The teacher asked two pupils to demonstrate the skill of skipping. He encouraged the pupils by saying, 'since you practice skipping at your homes and in the school compound, let one of you come and show others how to do it'. In this case the teacher asked for a volunteer to come and demonstrate the skill of rope skipping. Two pupils did this but the teacher explained the basics involved to enhance accuracy and perfection. Children copied and practiced rope skipping individually. He then proceeded to a chest pass. He demonstrated how to perform a chest pass twice The teacher then organised the pupils in three groups (because he had only three balls) to practice the chest pass while each group was in a circular formation.

6.2.3.5 Look and say: This was a special method for teaching language in primary two. It was listed by five teachers in five lesson plans of the lessons observed. This method combined the whole word and whole sentence methods explained above because the pupils were exposed to recognizing whole words and whole sentences. The teachers who used this method would flash a word on a word strip or a sentence on a sentence strip and would sound the word or sentence and then give chance to the

pupils to repeat the sounded word or sentence. In some cases, some teachers accompanied the word or sentence strips with pictures or objects.

6.2.3.6 Brain storming: As reflected in Table 6.2.1, brain storming was a method used 3 times (5.5%) in the 24 lessons taught and observed. Using this method, children were asked to generate their personal views or ideas. The ideas were not criticised or rejected by the teacher. The teacher just wrote each idea on the chalkboard as it was contributed and acknowledged or gave positive feedback to the child who had contributed. It was only later that the class discussed the contributed ideas and refined them. Then the teacher asked the class to thank themselves for the work well done.

6.2.3.7 Discovery: Only one teacher indicated this method in one primary five English lessons (1.8%). However, what was observed was more of use of question and answer and explanation than discovery. Normally the discovery method is largely unstructured, situational method of philosophy of teaching where by pupils are facilitated and permitted to find solutions to problems on their own and at their own pace. In the lesson observed the teacher just asked questions to establish the knowledge of the children on what they were going to learn and then what they were learning.

6.3.2.8 Participation: This was indicated once as a method alongside the demonstration method in the Physical education lesson plan. Participation is not in itself a method of teaching but a process of involving children in the teaching learning process. In this lesson, the teacher demonstrated the skills of rope skipping and chest pass. The pupils participated by practicing or performing the skills. Participation was therefore limited to the practice of the skills.

6.3.2.9 Whole word: This method was used in teaching an English language (new words) to a primary two class. New words had been written on strip cards and would first be flashed to the class as the teacher read them and would then consequently be repeated by the pupils. This activity was preceded by the teacher first showing a real object, e.g., some of the things made at home and saying its name. This is normally

the basic process of developing the reading proficiency which requires a child's ability to recognize and process printed text. In this same lesson, the teacher had indicated whole sentence as a method.

6.3.2.10 Whole sentence: Just as the whole word emphasizes flashing a word, pronouncing it and making the children repeat pronouncing the flashed word, the same applies to whole sentence. The teacher started the lesson with sentences prepared on strip cards. These sentence strips would be flashed and then the sentences read aloud by the teacher and repeated by the pupils.

6.2.4: Evidence of children's life skills as put forward in the primary school curriculum

There was at least an instance in each of the 24 different lessons observed of children exhibiting life skills already developed.

In observation 17(P5), in the lesson where children were given a task to write an invitation card, children behaved in a way that exhibited critical thinking, as defined in chapter 3, assertiveness, and effective communication before the group work activity, during the group work and plenary sessions, as reflected in the extract below. When pupils were divided into groups, one pupil assertively requested the teacher,

Pupil: *"Excuse me sir, may I go to group three? We are very many in group five."*

In the same lesson (observation 17 of P5), during the plenary session, pupils were able to critically discuss the presentations of the invitation letters made by their colleagues, thus demonstrating the evaluation that is part of critical thinking. Comments made included:

Teacher: *Let us look at these invitation cards one by one. I want you to make your comments about what your friends have done. Just say what you think.*

In response, pupils made the following comments:

'X': *"Those have no space for writing the name of the one you are inviting"*

'Y": *"Those ones copied what is on the blackboard"*

'Z': *"These ones have not indicated the one who invited"*

In all the lessons observed many pupils raised their hands while calling out ‘Sir! Sir!’ or ‘Madam! Madam’! These attempts to get the teachers’ attention are indicators that they are aware and confident they knew the correct answer. This happened in almost every P2 class where lessons were observed.

In the lesson on writing the invitation card, the following interaction between the pupils in one group, as already shown before was evident

Chairperson: *To whom?*

‘X’: *Let us invite our parents.*

Chairperson: *Do we need to write ‘our parents’ in the card?*

In this exchange, pupils demonstrated the ability to communicate effectively with each other and to question each other as they worked towards the solution of a problem.

The interaction the children had in the small group discussions, the closeness with which they worked and talked to each other, and the sense of belonging to the group reflected a friendly atmosphere which was cementing pupils’ friendship. These showed pupils’ attachment to each other. In these groups, there were, in many instances, negotiated positions of how to proceed with the discussion or activity. Statements and questions like; ‘I think let us talk in turns’, ‘How do you think we should proceed? ‘Members let us be patient and listen to each other’s point’ were evident. In these groups, there was evidence of discussing and arriving at a decision. The children were able to come to a joint decision about task completion through negotiation. For example, negotiated positions on how to proceed with the group activity was decision-making.

During the class discussions and question and answer sessions, children actively participated in the lessons when answering teachers’ questions. A child would evidently become happy, confident and feel his or her worth after being praised by the teacher for giving a correct answer or participating in making effort to answer self-awareness

6.2.5: Interaction between teacher and children and between children that facilitated life skills' development

Interaction in the classes occurred between the teachers and the pupils and pupils and fellow pupils. The different forms of interaction encouraged politeness, assertiveness and friendliness which represent an informal encouragement of pupils' life skills development.

When pupils responded to teachers' questions, the teachers gave feedback in many ways. The impact this interaction had in facilitating development of children's life skills depended highly on how the teacher handled the whole situation or process, from asking a question to giving feedback. The different extracts of parts of lesson sessions observed reflect how the teachers handled the lessons. The most common forms of feedback were praise in form of 'very good', 'good', 'excellent', 'that's right', 'well tried', 'a fair trial', 'clap for him or her', 'give him or her flowers', etc. It also included phrases in the local language which meant 'thank you very much' e.g. "Asante sana". "Webale nyo" "Wanyala nabi" etc. The following are extracts from different observations. They show how different teachers asked questions and provided feedback.

In a lesson on cultural values and practices in a P2 class (observation 2), the teacher asked a question but when she realized that all the children, very eagerly wanted to give the answer, she requested them to allow one person ('B') answer then allowed the whole class to echo the answer. She acknowledged B's answer was very good but still had feedback for all of the class.

Teacher: *"When boys grow up what happens to them?"*

Pupils: *"All pupils put up hands and the majority accompanied it with; Madam! Madam! Madam!"*

Teacher: *"You are very good children. You all know the answer but let 'B' tell us."*

"B": *"They are circumcised."*

Teacher: *Very good. Class what has 'B' said?*

Class: *(in chorus) "They are circumcised."*

Teacher: *"Mwanyala mwamanya naabi." Meaning: "Thank you very much, you all know a lot."*

This type of interaction brought the pupils nearer to the teacher. As it is seen in this interaction, it was just like a conversation between the teacher and the pupils as

friends. The interaction was even more informal when the teachers could move around the class and have more informal talk with the pupils. The following extracts are examples in this area.

In one class (observation 9, P2) the teacher gave an exercise and then went round to see how pupils were performing. She found one pupil not doing anything. The following interaction occurred:

Teacher: *"Why are you not doing the work?"*

The pupil kept quiet. The teacher asked her again.

Teacher: *"Don't you have a pencil?"*

The pupil looked down and then said:

Pupil: *"Yes".*

The teacher then enquired:

Teacher: *"Who has a free pen or pencil to help 'F'?"*

A neighbour on the same desk gave her one. The teacher thanked the neighbour:

Teacher: *"That is very kind of you Z."*

Then the teacher turned to the whole class and told them:

Teacher: *"Whenever you do not have a pen, tell me. Don't you think it is good to help each other?"*

The whole class replied in the affirmative.

Teacher: *"Yes". 'Why'. "OK 'N'.*

"N" replied:

'N': *"You can leave a pencil at home and your friend gives you."*

The teacher concluded.

Teacher: *"You are very nice children".*

This example does not just show the benefit of informal interaction, it also shows how the teacher encouraged prosocial behaviour between pupils.

The influence of the teacher on how pupils behaved in the classroom also depended on established traditions, culture and routines in the classroom. These included permission to go out, sharing materials and entering the classroom. A number of life skills are being developed through these activities. For example, respect, effective communication and assertiveness through asking for permission to go out and enter the class and friendship formation through sharing materials are evident. The next two

examples are instances in which tradition, cultures or routines in the classroom helped to develop life skills.

In observation 20 of P5, one pupil wanted to get out and go to help herself and said,

Pupil: *"Please excuse me sir, may I get out".*

The teacher replied:

Teacher: *"OK 'Q' but don't delay there."*

When 'Q' came back, she stood at the door way and politely said:

"Q": *"Excuse me sir, may I come in?"*

The teacher withdrew his attention from the class and looked at her then said:

Teacher: *"Q", you have come back, OK come in".*

This was a P5 class. A similar situation happened in observation 24 of a P2 class and the teacher handled it in the same way.

In observation 18, a primary two teacher in a polite and friendly manner, skilfully handled, encouraged and sustained pupils' participation during question and answer time.

Teacher: *"What craft things does your mother make at home?"*

(Pupils put up hands then the teacher notices 'M' putting up the hand and then pulling it down)

Teacher: *'M', you put up your hand and then put it down. I know you can give us the correct answer, tell us what your mother makes at home'*

'M': *"My mother makes baskets"*

Teacher: *Very good, class, what does M's mother make?*

Class: *"M's mother makes baskets".*

Teacher: *"Give 'M' flowers".*

The class raise their hands and shake them as they point them towards 'M' to give her the flowers.

There was also a lot of interaction during the small group discussions between pupils as evident in the previous description of small group discussions. This interaction gives them chance to develop assertiveness as they were required to put forward their point of view, while listening to the opinions of others. It also potentially promoted

self-awareness, as pupils were required to listen to the feedback of others and self-esteem self-awareness as pupils' ideas were affirmed.

6.2.6: Summary

In each of these observations much was revealed about pupils' life skills development. Teachers are aware that when planning they have to include the life skills to be developed in the lessons they teach. However, the delivery plans or phases of the lessons did not reflect how the infused and listed life skills would be developed. When teaching the lessons, teachers made commendable effort in using a variety of situations, methods and activities that were seen to be facilitating development of life skills, albeit implicitly.

6.3: Presentation of data from questionnaires to teachers

6.3.1: Introduction

Teachers' questionnaires were used to collect data from teachers regarding the methods used to teach life skills and the indicators of those life skills that the teachers observed. Teachers were asked to select from a list the activities or methods they used to facilitate the development of each life skill. They were also asked to indicate any other activity which they used to facilitate development of the life skill in question that had not been outlined in the list on the questionnaire. For each life skill, a list of indicators of the life skill was provided in the questionnaire. Teacher respondents selected from this list the indicators of each life skill they had witnessed among the pupils in their day to day teaching. There was also provision for respondents to indicate any other additional indicator of the life skill that was not on the list but had also been witnessed by them.

In order to explore the relationship between methods and indicators, cross tabulations of the number of teachers who used each method and the indicators witnessed were calculated. These cross-tabulations yielded four possible outcomes:

a) Teachers used the method and witnessed the indicator;
b) Teachers used the method and did not witness the indicator;

c) Teachers did not use the method and witnessed the indicator;
d) Teachers did not use the method and did not witness the indicator.

The statistical significance of these relationships was explored using chi-square. The majority of the chi-square results had at least one or more cells with expected count less than 5. In this case the Fisher's exact test result was used. The chi-square test indicated whether the observed relationship between these methods used and indicators observed was significantly different from the relationship that would be expected by chance. Significance could be indicated when any of the possible outcomes (a to d above) of the cross tabulations had a higher frequency than that expected by chance. For example, a chi-square could be significant because the number of teachers who used the method and witnessed the indicator was higher than that expected by chance.

Most of the chi-square tests were not significant. Where significant relationships were found, the source of that significance was determined by examining the frequencies in each cell of the cross tabulations. In a number of cases, the chi-square appeared to be significant because the number of teachers who did not use the method and yet witnessed the indicator was higher than that expected by chance (i.e., outcome c listed above). Consequently, the details of the chi-square analyses are presented in an appendix in most cases in order to facilitate the clear presentation of results. In the remainder of this chapter, the results of questionnaire are presented for each life skill in turn.

6.3.1 Assertiveness

Table 6.3.1.1 below shows the methods teachers used to facilitate the development of assertiveness in children and the number of teachers who used each method. This table shows that most teachers (19, i.e. 79%) used debate to facilitate development of pupils' development of assertiveness. This was followed by enabling pupils to practice effective communication exercises and also participate in open class discussions and arguments, both of which were used by 18(75%) teachers. More than half of the teachers indicated that pupils answering teachers' questions (15, i.e. 62%) and giving pupils an opportunity to participate in group discussions (14, i.e.58%)

facilitated pupils' development of assertive skills. Fourteen (58%) teachers also indicated that giving pupils the chance to participate in group discussions facilitated development of assertiveness.

Table 6.3.1.1 Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' assertiveness

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to the nearest whole number)
Answering questions	15	62
Chance to participate in group discussions	14	58
Effective communication exercises	18	75
Debate	19	79
Open class discussion and arguments	18	75
Other – chance to act group activities	4	17
Other – quiz	2	8
Being open	2	8

Table 6.3.1.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of assertiveness. Half of the teachers witnessed communicating clearly and precisely as an indicator of assertiveness. This was followed by pupils giving their own point of view as an indicator of assertiveness which was witnessed by 9(37%) teachers. These two were the indicators listed in the questionnaire. When asked if they had witnessed any other indicators of assertiveness, teachers listed critical and creative thinking (6 teachers, i.e., 25%), listening to others' views (4 teachers, i.e., 17%) and problem-solving (4 teachers, i.e., 17%).

Table 6.3.1.2: Indicators of assertiveness as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Effective communication	12	50
Giving own point of view	9	37
Other critical and creative thinking	6	25
Other- Listening to others views	4	17
Other- problem-solving	4	17

Further analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses was done using cross tabulations and chi-square. This analysis involved finding out the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of assertiveness and the indicators of assertiveness that teachers witnessed. Only one of these chi-square tests, the relationship between communication and the indicator critical and creative thinking, was statistically significant: χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 7.41, exact p = .018. In this case, as shown in table 6.3.1.3 (see Appendix 6.2), most respondents who witnessed this indicator did not use this method. This tendency was significant. Table 6.3.1.3 shows that more than 50% of the teachers who did not use the method of communication nonetheless observed the indicators of point of view and critical and creative thinking.

6.3.2: Self-esteem

Table 6.3.2.1 below shows the methods teachers used to facilitate the development of self-esteem and the number of teachers who used each method. The table shows that most teachers (21, i.e., 87%) involved pupils in answering their (teachers') questions to facilitate development of pupils' self-esteem. This was followed by teachers reciprocating pupils' answering of questions with positive feedback, which was used by 17 (71%) teachers. More than half of the teachers (14 teachers, 58%) indicated that giving the pupils individual tasks to perform facilitated development of the pupils' self-esteem. Some teachers (3 teachers, i.e., 12%) also indicated that open class discussions, where pupils express their views and exchange ideas with their colleagues was an instance that facilitated pupils' self-esteem.

Table 6.3.2.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote self-esteem

Activities Used during teaching	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (To nearest whole number)
Answering questions	21	87
Teacher giving positive feed back	17	71
Working on individual tasks	14	58
Other- Open class discussion	3	12
Other- Physical education	1	4
Other- Giving materials like counters to share	2	8

Table 6.3.2.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of self-esteem. Eighteen teachers (75%) witnessed pupils volunteering to perform tasks on the chalkboard and freely contributing while in groups as indicators of self-esteem. This was followed by pupils putting up hands and accepting responsibility as indicators of self-esteem which were both witnessed by 17(71%) teachers. The table also shows that pupils acknowledging confidently that they could perform tasks on the chalkboard were witnessed by 16(67%) teachers. When asked if they had witnessed any other indicators of self- esteem, teachers listed free expression, responding positively to tasks given without fear and freely associating with others. The first two were both witnessed by two teachers (8%) and the last one was witnessed by one teacher (4%).

Table 6.3.2.2: Indicators of Self-esteem as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Putting up hands	17	71
Volunteering to perform tasks on the chalk board	18	75
Acknowledging confidently	16	67
Accepting responsibility	17	71
Freely contributing while in groups	18	75
Other – Free expression	2	8
Other- responding positively to tasks given without fear	2	8
Other- freely associating with others	1	4

Further analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses was done using cross tabulations and chi-square (see Tables 6.3.2.3 and 6.3.2.4 in Appendix 6.2). This analysis involved finding out the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of self-esteem and the indicators of self-esteem witnessed teachers. None of the chi-square analyses were statistically significant. Table 6.3.2.3 in Appendix 6.2 shows that many of the teachers who used the methods listed observed the indicators of self-esteem listed indicating a strong relationship between methods and indicators. This was particularly the case in relation to the methods of question and answer and positive feedback. However, the cross-tabulations revealed that the teachers who did not use those methods still witnessed the indicators, suggesting that the witnessing of the indicator was not as strongly associated with the use of the methods as it appeared.

6.3.3: Self-awareness

Eighteen teachers (75%) indicated that they facilitate their pupils' development of self-awareness by giving them positive feedback (see Table 6.3.3.1). Fifteen teachers (62%) acknowledged that giving children a chance to answer the teachers' questions facilitates pupils' development of self-awareness. It is also shown in this table that 12 teachers (50%) used giving individual tasks to their pupils to develop pupils' self-awareness. The 24 teacher respondents were also asked to indicate any other method they used to facilitate development of pupils' self-awareness. Three teachers (12%) indicated both guidance and counselling and thanking children and giving them rewards as methods of facilitating development of self-awareness. Four teachers (17%) indicated that following up on how the children were performing in different areas facilitated development of children's self-awareness.

Table 6.3.3.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote Self-awareness

Activities Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (To nearest whole number)
Teacher giving positive feed back	18	75
Chance to answer questions	15	62
Performing individual tasks	12	50
Other- guidance and counselling	3	12
Other- thanking children and giving them rewards	3	12
Other- making follow up	4	17

Table 6.3.3.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of self-awareness. Eighteen teachers (75%) witnessed the indicator of pupils acknowledging confidently that they can perform certain tasks given to them by the teachers. This was followed by 17 (71%) teachers who witnessed three indicators; putting up hands, accepting responsibility and contributing freely during group work. Fifteen teachers (62%) who indicated they witnessed pupils freely volunteering to perform tasks on the

chalkboard. The teachers were also asked to indicate any other indicator of self-awareness they had witnessed apart from those which had been listed in the questionnaire. In response to this, 2 (12%) teachers indicated witnessing pupils talking about their individual worth and 3 (13%) teachers indicated witnessing pupil's ability to give his or her own views.

Table 6.3.3.2: Indicators of self-awareness as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Putting up hands	17	71
Volunteering to perform tasks on the chalk board	15	62
Acknowledging confidently	18	75
Accepting responsibility	17	71
Contributing freely during group work	17	71
Other- talking about oneself	2	12
Other- ability to give his her views	3	12

Further analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses was done using cross tabulations and the chi-square. This analysis involved finding out the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of self-awareness and the indicators of self-awareness that the teachers witnessed (see Tables 6.3.3.3 and 6.3.3.4 in Appendix 6.2). The chi-squares measuring the association between whether teachers used the method of giving children a chance to answer questions and witnessed the indicators of pupils contributing while in groups ($\chi^2(1, N = 24) = 5.93$, exact $p = .02$) and pupils' ability to give their own views ($\chi^2(1, N = 23) = 2.62$, exact $p = .026$) were statistically significant. In each case, teachers who did not use the method were more likely to witness the indicator than teachers who did use the method. Table 6.3.3.3 shows that all of the nine teachers who did not use the method giving children a chance to answer questions nonetheless observed the indicator pupils freely contributing while in groups. In contrast only 53% (8 out of 15) of teachers who used the method witnessed the indicator. Furthermore, two thirds of the

teachers who witnessed the indicator pupils' ability to give their own views had not used the method 'giving children a chance to answer questions'.

The association between positive feedback and the indicator pupils putting up hands was significant: χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 5.45, exact p = .04. In this case, Table 6.3.3.3 shows that 15 teachers (83.3%) of the teachers who used the method positive feedback observed the indicator pupils putting up hands. In contrast, only 33% of those teachers who did not used positive feedback said that they observed children putting up their hands. Further analysis, as shown in table 6.3.3.3 reflects a strong, but not statistically significant, association between positive feedback and the indicators children acknowledging that they can perform certain activities on the chalk board and pupils accepting responsibility. Of the 18 teachers who used positive feedback, 14 (77.8%) teachers witnessed both indicators.

The chi-square examining the association between guidance and counseling and the indicator putting up hands was significant: χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 5.71, exact p = .04. In this case, as shown in Table 6.3.3.3, all respondents who witnessed this indicator did not use this method. The method of giving pupils individual tasks was also used by 10(100%) teachers. Of these 10 teachers, three witnessed the indicator pupils' ability to give their own views. There were no cases of teachers not using the method but witnessing the indicator. This tendency was significant:χ^2 (1, N =23) = 5.28, Exact p = .037. This therefore means that 12teachers (100%) did not use the method but nonetheless witnessed the indicator pupils ability to give their own views.

6.3.4: Friendship

Table 6.3.4.1 shows each of the methods for promoting friendship listed in the teachers' questionnaire were used by most of the teachers. Giving children the chance to participate in groups and helping others in need were used by 21 teachers (87%). This was followed by teachers giving pupils a chance to share with others and

teachers showing friendship both of which were also used by 20 (83%) teachers. The method helping others in need had a high frequency of use but was a method indicated as an added one by the teachers to those that had been indicated in the teachers' questionnaire. Other methods teachers added as being used by them to facilitate the development of friendship that had not been included in the teachers' questionnaire were playing with others (9 teachers, i.e., 37%) and use of polite language by teachers (5 teachers, i.e., 22%).

Table 6.3.4.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to facilitate pupils' friendship formation

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to the nearest whole number)
Chance to participate in groups	21	87
Chance to share with others	20	83
Teacher showing friendship	20	83
Other- playing with others	9	37
Other- use of polite language	5	22
Other- helping others in need	21	87

Table 6.3.4.2 below shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of friendship. All the teacher respondents (100%) witnessed the indicators sharing things and ideas, good relations among pupils in the class and love. This was followed by the indicator affection for each other which was witnessed by 18 (75%) teachers. The indicator working together with others was also witnessed by more than half of the teachers. Other indicators added by teacher respondents that were not in the questionnaire list of indicators were solving problems for others (4 teachers, i.e., 17%) and leadership skills (1 teacher, i.e., 4%).

Table 6.3.4.2: Indicators of friendship as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Sharing	24	100
Affection	18	75
Working together	16	67
Relationships	24	100
Other- love	7	29
Other- solving problems for others	4	17
Leadership skills	1	4

Further analysis of the relationship between the methods used to facilitate development of friendship and the indicators the teachers witnessed (see table 8.3.4.2) was conducted using cross-tabulation and chi-square (see Tables 6.3.4.3 and 6.3.4.4 in Appendix 6.2).

The association between playing with others and the indicator solving problems for others was significant: χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 8.00, exact p = .01.In this case, as shown in table 8.3.4.3, four (44.4%) out of the nine teachers who used this method witnessed the indicator solving problems for others. There were also four teachers who did not use the method and none of them witnessed the indicator.
The association between the method helping others in need and the indicator solving problems for others was significant:χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 5.69, exact p = .04.In this case, as shown in Table 6.3.4.3, three teachers out of eight teachers who used this method witnessed the indicator solving problems for others. None of the teachers who did not use the method witnessed the indicator.

As previously noted, the indicators sharing and good relationships with others were witnessed by all teachers, regardless of the method they used. Similarly, the indicators of affection and working together were witnessed by most teachers, regardless of the methods used.

6.3.5: Empathy

It can be noted, from Table 6.3.5.1 that role plays of people who were in situations that required empathy (16 teachers, i.e., 67%) and telling stories of people in need (15 teachers, i.e., 62%) were the most commonly used methods to facilitate pupils' development of empathy. Participating in group discussions of situations that need empathy and caring for others were used by half of the teachers to facilitate pupils' development of empathy. Some teachers also felt that pupils playing together in the field and being selected to take others home when they were sick promoted empathic feelings in children.

Table 6.3.5.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' empathy

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to the nearest whole number)
Telling stories	15	62
Role play	16	67
Chance to participate in groups	12	50
Other- caring for others	12	50
Other- playing in the field	8	33
Other- being selected to take others home	9	37

Table 6.3.5.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of the life skill empathy. This table shows that all the teachers witnessed the indicator sharing. The table also shows that 23teachers (96%) witnessed the indicator care for others. Eighteen teachers (75%) and 17 teachers (71%) respectively witnessed the indicators sympathy and affection. In response to the request for any other indicator of empathy that had been witnessed by the teachers but had not been included in the questionnaire, teachers added cooperation (4 teachers, i.e., 17%), making friends (7 teachers, i.e., 29%) and responsibility (5 teachers, i.e., 21%).

Table 6.3.5.2: Indicators of empathy as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Sharing	24	100
Care for others	23	96
Affection	17	71
Sympathy	18	75
Cooperation	4	17
Making friends	7	29
Responsibility	5	21

Further analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses was done using cross tabulations and the chi-square to establish the relationships between the methods used to promote empathy and the indicators of empathy. Table 6.3.5.3 in Appendix 6.2 shows that the indicators share and care were witnessed by nearly all of the teachers (between 90% and 100%), regardless of the methods they used. The indicators affection, sympathy and empathy were also witnessed by most teachers, regardless of the methods used.

The relationship between the method of giving pupils the chance to play in the field and the indicator responsibility was significant: χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 6.19, exact p = .03. In this case, as shown in Table 6.3.5.3 in Appendix 6.2, four (50%) teachers out of the eight teacher respondents who had used the method witnessed this indicator. Only one teacher out of the 16 teachers (i.e., 6.2%) who did not use the method of giving pupils chance to play in the field nonetheless observed the indicator responsibility.

6.3.6: Negotiation

It is notable 20(83%) teacher respondents indicated that giving pupils and opportunity to settle their own disputes promotes the life skill of negotiation (see table 6.3.6.1). The teachers 17 (i.e.,71%) also indicated that giving pupils the opportunity to take turns while doing different activities in and out of class promotes children's development of negotiation skills. Sixteen (67%) teachers used organization of the pupils for different activities in and out of class to facilitate development of pupils' negotiation skills.

Table 6.3.6.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' negotiation skills

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents
Chance to participate in group work	13	54
Taking turns	17	71
Settling disputes	20	83
Organizing	16	67
Other-requesting	2	8
Other- role playing	5	21
Other- selection of leaders	2	8

Table 6.3.6.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of negotiation. Minimised or no fights among pupils in the class or compound was witnessed by 21teachers (88%). Pupils patiently taking turns while working in groups was witnessed by 18 teachers (75%) and pupils' controlled free play together during break was witnessed by 16 teachers (66%). This table also shows that other than the indicators which were listed in the questionnaire, teachers also indicated they had witnessed the indicators pupils apologising to each other (4 teachers, i.e., 17%),encouraging each other to be friends (3teachers, i.e., 12%) and working together (4 teachers, i.e., 17%).

Table 6.3.6.2: Indicators of negotiation as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Taking turns	18	75
Playing together	16	66
Fights	21	88
Apologising	4	17
Encouraging friendship	3	12
Working together	4	17

Further analysis using cross-tabulations and chi-square was conducted to investigate the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of children's negotiation skills and the indicators of those skills (see Tables 6.3.6.3 and 6.3.6.4 in Appendix 6.2). Table 6.3.6.3 shows that a high percentage of all the teachers who used each method and even all those who did not use the methods witnessed the indicator minimized or no fights among pupils in the class or compound.

Further analysis shows that all the methods indicated in Table 6.3.6.3 had a strong relationship with the indicators patiently taking turns while working in groups and controlled free play together during break. The only exception was the method of taking turns when doing an activity and the indicator controlled free play together during break where 17 teachers (70.8%) used the method and only 3of those teachers (42.9%) witnessed the indicator. At least 50% and at most 100% of all the teachers witnessed the indicators taking turns when doing an activity and controlled free play together during break regardless of whether they used the methods listed on the questionnaires or not..

In the analysis of the relationship between the method children organizing colleagues for an activity and the indicator controlled free play during break, the chi-square results were significant: $\chi^2(1, N = 24) = 6.00$, exact $p = .02$.. In this case, as shown in Table 6.3.6.3, half of the respondents who witnessed this indicator used this method.

The table also shows that all the 8 teachers (100%) who did not use the method witnessed the indicatorcontrolled free play during break.

6.3.7: Decision-making

The data summarised in Table 6.3.7.1 show that teachers identified playing games as the method most used to facilitate the development of decision-making in children (18 teachers, i.e., 75%). Other common methods which teachers indicated they used in facilitating the development of pupils' decision-making were participating in group activities (14 teachers, i.e., 58%), debating (13 teachers, i.e., 54%), and field trips (12 teachers, i.e., 50%). Methods teachers used to facilitate the development of decision-making that had not been indicated in the questionnaire, were role plays (3 teachers, i.e., 12%) and giving children clear instructions (2 teachers, i.e., 12%).

Table 6.3.7.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' decision-making

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Playing games	18	75
Chance to participate in groups	14	58
Debating	13	54
Field trips	12	50
Other- giving instructions	2	8
Other- role plays	3	12

Table 6.3.7.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of decision-making. As seen in this table, 14 teachers (58%) witnessed generating alternative solutions to problems as an indicator of decision-making. Fewer teachers (less than 50%) witnessed the indicators of children taking feasible courses of action (11

teachers, i.e., 46%), giving their own views (5 teachers, i.e., 21%) and leading others (4 teachers, i.e., 17%) as indicators of decision-making.

Table 6.3.7.2: Indicators of Decision-making as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Finding solutions to problems	14	58
Taking action	11	46
Giving their own views	5	21
Leading others	4	17

Table 6.3.7.3 and table 6.3.7.4 in Appendix 6.2 show further analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses which was done using cross tabulations and the chi-square. This analysis explores the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of children's decision-making skills and the indicators of decision-making that the teachers had witnessed. The chi-square results did not indicate any significant relationship between the methods used to promote decision-making and the indicators of decision-making witnessed by teachers. In most cases, the indicators of decision-making were almost equally likely to be observed by teachers whether or not they used the methods listed in the questionnaire.

6.3.8: Critical thinking

Table 6.3.8.1 below shows that all teachers used brain storming to facilitate development pupils' critical thinking skills. Other highly used methods were debate (18 teachers, i.e., 75%), giving quizzes (17 teachers, i.e., 71%), asking and answering questions (16 teachers, i.e., 69%) and giving pupils the chance to participate in group work (14 teachers, i.e., 58%). To a lesser extent, think-pair-share (10 teachers, i.e., 42%) and exposing children to selecting and evaluating information (4 teachers, i.e., 17%) were used by the teachers to facilitate children's critical thinking skills.

Table 6.3.8.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' critical thinking

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to the nearest whole number)
Quiz	17	71
Doing assignments	6	25
Answering questions	16	69
Brainstorming	24	100
Think - pair – share	10	42
Chance to participate in group work	14	58
Debate	18	75
Other selecting and evaluating information	4	17

Table 6.3.8.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of the life skill critical thinking. Most teachers (18 teachers, i.e., 75%) witnessed the indicator children developing arguments and presenting them systematically. Other frequently witnessed indicators of critical thinking were children giving their own views (16 teachers, i.e., 67%) and children giving properly reasoned out answers to teachers' questions (13 teachers, i.e., 54%). In response to any other indicator of critical thinking the teachers may have witnessed but was not indicated in the questionnaire, teachers indicated giving a correct answer and children appreciating and accepting defeat.

Table 6.3.8.2: Indicators of critical thinking as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Giving own views	16	67
Giving reasoned answers	13	54
Developing arguments and presenting them systematically	18	75
Other- giving correct answer	2	8
Other- Children appreciating and accepting defeat	2	8

Further analysis of the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of children's critical thinking skills and the indicators of critical thinking witnessed by teachers was conducted using cross-tabulations and chi-square (see Tables 6.3.8.3 and 6.3.3.4 in Appendix 6.2). The chi-square tests indicate that there was no statistically significant relationship between any method used to facilitate development of the life skill critical thinking and any of the indicators of the life skill. In most cases, teachers observed the indicator whether or not they used the methods listed on the questionnaire. Brainstorming was used by all of the teachers and was associated with each indicator of critical thinking except giving correct answers and appreciating and accepting defeat. These indicators were added to the questionnaire by teachers. In the case of the method of think-pair-share, there was evidence of some relationship with the indicator of developing reasoned arguments, albeit not a significant one. Ninety per cent of teachers who used this method witnessed the indicator in contrast to 63% who did not use the method and who witnessed the indicator.

6.3.9: Creative thinking

Teachers used a variety of methods to facilitate children's development of creative thinking as reflected in Table 6.3.9.1. Fourteen teachers (58%) used both storytelling and essay writing, 13 teachers (54%) used involving children in solving a conflict and 12 teachers (50%) used both craft work and jigsaw puzzles to develop creative thinking. In response to any other method teachers may have used to facilitate development of creative thinking that was not listed in the questionnaire, 8 teachers (33%) indicated completing a jumbled story.

Table 6.3.9.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' creative thinking

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Craft work	12	50
Jigsaw puzzles	12	50
Telling a story	14	58
Writing an essay	14	58
Solving a conflict	13	54
Other- completing a jumbled story	8	33

Table 6.3.9.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of creative thinking. Fourteen teachers (58%) witnessed both telling interesting stories and solving problems. Thirteen teachers (50%) witnessed both writing interesting essays and identifying consequences to different courses of action. Finally 2 teachers (8%) witnessed pupils' writing and reading short stories.

Table 6.3.9.2: showing indicators of creative thinking as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Telling stories	14	58
Solving problems	14	58
Writing essays	13	54
Accepting consequences	13	54
Writing and reading short stories	2	8

Further analysis of the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate development of children's creative thinking skills and the indicators of creative thinking witnessed by teachers was conducted using cross-tabulation and chi-square (see Tables 6.3.9.3 and 6.3.9.4 in Appendix 6.2). The chi-square exploring the association between relationship using conflict resolution case studies as a teaching method and the indicator telling interesting stories, was significant: $\chi^2(1, N =$

24) = 4.61, exact p = .046. Table 6.3.9.3 shows that while 5 of the 13 teachers (i.e., 38%) who used this method witnessed the indicator, nine teachers (81.8%) of the teachers who did not use the method nonetheless observed the indicator telling interesting stories.

6.3.10: Problem-solving

Table 6.3.10.1 shows that teachers used a variety of activities to facilitate development of problem-solving skills in children. Fourteen teachers (58%) indicated they used three methods namely, enabling children to participate in case studies of conflicts, involving children in resolving conflicts in the class and discussing problem situations in children's lives. Twelve teachers (50%) indicated they used involving children in case studies of problem situations. In response to any other method that the teachers may have used but had not been indicated in the questionnaire, a high number of teachers indicated they had used (21 teachers, 87%) jigsaw filling. This is an interesting result which indicates a different interpretation of problem-solving. Six teachers (25%) indicated solving tasks and questions.

Table 6.3.10.1: Activities which teacher respondents indicated they use to promote pupils' problem-solving

Activity Used	Number of teachers	Number of teachers as percentage of the 24 teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)
Case studies of problem solutions	12	50
Case studies of conflicts	14	58
Resolving conflicts	14	58
Discussing problems	14	58
Other- solving tasks and questions	6	25
Other- jigsaw filling	21	87

Table 6.3.10.2 shows the number of teachers who witnessed each indicator of problem-solving. The table shows that the highest number of teachers (15 teachers, i.e., 62%) witnessed children helping others to avoid problem situations. Half of the teachers (12 teachers, i.e., 50%) witnessed children presenting alternative solutions to problems. Less than half of the teachers (11 teachers, i.e., 46%) witnessed children avoiding problem situations and nine teachers (37%) witnessed children negotiating consensus on conflicts. In response to any other indicator of problem-solving the teachers may have witnessed but had not been listed in the questionnaire, 14 teachers (58%) indicated they had witnessed answering questions.

Table 6.3.10.2: showing indicators of problem-solving as indicated by the teacher respondents

Indicator	**Number of teachers**	**Number of teachers percentage of the teacher respondents (to nearest whole number)**
Giving alternatives	12	50
Avoiding problem situations	11	46
Helping others	15	62
Negotiating	9	37
Other - answering questions	14	58

Further analysis of the relationship between the methods that teachers used to facilitate the development of children's problem-solving skills and the indicators of problem-solving witnessed by teachers was conducted using cross-tabulations and chi-square (see Tables 6.3.10.3 and 6.3.10.4 in Appendix 6.2). In the analysis of the relationship between the method discussing problem situations in children's lives and the indicator children presenting alternative solutions to problems, the chi-square results were significant: χ^2 (1, N = 24) = 10.97, p = .001. In this case, 9 teachers (90%) who did not use the method nonetheless witnessed the indicator presenting alternative solutions to problems.

In other cases the relationship between methods used to teach problem-solving and some indicators appeared strong albeit not statistically significant. Of those teachers who asked children to solve tasks and questions, 66.7% witnessed children avoiding

conflict and 83.3% witnessed children helping others compared to 38.9% and 55.6% respectively of those who did not use that method. Two thirds (66.7%) of teachers who gave children case studies of problem situations found that children suggested alternatives to problems compared to 36.4% who did not use that method. Similarly 64.3% of teachers who involved children in resolving conflicts in class witnessed children generating alternatives to problems in contrast to 33.3% of the teachers who did not use that method.

6.4 Summary of results

Data from classroom observations and teacher questionnaires were presented in this chapter. The main findings from these data sources are summarised here under each of the relevant research questions:

- Is there any evidence that pupils' demonstrate the life skills listed in the curriculum?
    - Classroom observations suggest that children show evidence of assertiveness, effective communication, negotiation, task analysis associated with critical thinking and positive interpersonal skills.
- What methods are teachers using to develop life skills?
    - Analysis of lesson plans shows that methods for teaching life skills are not directly listed but methods that facilitate life skills are evident in the methods listed and observed. Explanation was the method most frequently listed in lesson plans. While this method is not participatory other more participatory methods were evident in lesson plans. The most common ones were question and answer and discussion. Discussion was generally conducted on a whole class basis, where it was more like question and answer than group discussion. Teacher-learner interactions were observed that could facilitate life skills. These were positive feedback and encouragement, opportunity to explain points of view and opportunity to negotiate with others. There was also evidence of warm and positive teacher-learner interaction that encouraged politeness, sharing, assertiveness and friendly interactions between children.

- Analysis of questionnaires by life skill
  - Assertiveness – Most methods used by teachers focussed on children discussing, debating and giving their opinions. The methods listed in the curriculum were used by between approximately 60 and 80% of teachers.
  - Self-esteem – The methods listed in the curriculum were used by approximately 60% - 90% of teachers. Answering questions was by far the most common method.
  - Self-awareness – Of the three methods listed in the curriculum positive feedback was most common, being used by 75% of teachers, with the chance to answer questions used by 62% of teachers. The third method of performing individual tasks was only used by 50% of teachers.
  - Friendship – The methods listed in the curriculum were used by over 80% of teachers.
  - Empathy – The methods listed in the curriculum were used by 50% to 67% of teachers.
  - Negotiation – The methods listed in the curriculum were used by between 54% and 83% of teachers. The most frequently used method was settling disputes.
  - Decision-making – The methods listed in the curriculum were used by 50% - 58% of teachers. Playing games was the only exception with 75% of teachers using this method.
  - Critical thinking – Brainstorming was used by all the teachers. Methods relating to provide answers and debate were used by approximately 70% to 75% of teachers. Group activities were less common.
  - Creative thinking – The methods were used by 50% to 58% of teachers.
  - Problem-solving – The most commonly used method was jigsaw filling which is not listed in the curriculum. Most of the methods listed in the curriculum were used by 58% of teachers. Case studies of problems were used by only 50%

- Are the indicators of life skills listed in the curriculum being observed by teachers?
    - Analysis of questionnaires by life skill
        - Assertiveness – Indicators were listed by 50% of teachers at most. Of the two listed in the curriculum effective communication was listed by 50% of teachers and giving one's own point of view by only 37%.
        - Self-esteem – Indicators were listed by 67% - 75% of teachers. The indicators relate to pupils' willingness to offer answers and contribute to class activities.
        - Self-awareness – Indicators were listed by 62% to 75% of teachers. As with self-esteem, these indicators relate to pupils' willingness to participate in class activities and to give their opinions.
        - Friendship – Of the indicators listed in the curriculum, sharing and good relationships between children were observed by all teachers. Working together and affection were also witnessed by most teachers.
        - Empathy – Sharing was observed by 100% of teachers and care by 96%. Sympathy and affection were observed by over 70% of teachers but the other indicators were less frequent.
        - Negotiation – Three of the six indicators were observed by less than 20% of teachers. The remaining three were observed by 66% to 88% of teachers of which the absence of fighting was the most common.
        - Decision-making – Only one indicator – finding solutions to problems – was observed by more than 50% of teachers and that one was witnessed by 58%. Taking action was witnessed by 46% but the remaining indicators were witnessed by less than 20% of teachers.
        - Critical thinking – The three indicators were witnessed by 54% to 75% of teachers.

        - Creative thinking – The indicators were witnessed by 54% to 58% of teachers with the exception of writing and reading short stories which was witnessed by only 2 teachers.
        - Problem-solving – The indicators listed in the curriculum were listed by 37% to 62% of teachers. Of these, helping others was the most common. Almost 60% of teachers added the indicator answering questions.
- Are the teachers who use the life skills teaching methods listed in the curriculum more likely to observe the indicators of life skills listed in the curriculum than teachers who do not use those methods?
    - An effort was made to answer this question by analysing the relationship between methods and indicators on the questionnaire for each life skill. In this case, while some of the chi-squares were significant, they were significant because the number of teachers who witnessed an indicator even though they had not used the method was greater than that expected by chance. In the following summary, only those results that showed a statistically significant association between the use of a method and the witnessing of indicators are reported.
        - Assertiveness – no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
        - Self-esteem – no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
        - Self-awareness – no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
        - Friendship –a statistically significant association was found between giving pupils a chance to share materials and affection between pupils. A statistically significant association was found between playing with others, helping others and solving problems for others. A strong but statistically insignificant relationship was found between observed affection amongst pupils, getting children to work in groups and teachers' showing friendship to learners.
        - Empathy – a number of strong relationships were observed but only one was statistically significant, which was the association

between giving children a chance to play in the field and responsibility.

- Negotiation – no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
- Decision-making - no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
- Critical thinking - no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
- Creative thinking - no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator
- Problem-solving - no significant association between using the methods and observing the indicator

6.5: Conclusion

In this chapter, results from the 24 lesson observations of primary 5 and primary 2 data were analysed and presented. These analyses revealed that when teachers make their lesson plans, they list the life skills they intend to develop during the teaching learning process. However the lesson plans did not reflect how the life skills listed were going to be developed during the teaching learning process. Teaching methods in observations were dominated by explanation. Discussion was evident but mostly through question and answer and whole class discussion.

During teaching, the observation results indicated that teachers created situations that could facilitate development of pupils' life skills. Teachers created a positive class atmosphere through positive interactions with children. This appeared to encourage pupils and positive interpersonal relationships between children were also observed as was care for each other.

There appeared to be an emphasis on life skills for knowing and living with oneself and for knowing and living with others across the life skills in the questionnaires and observations, rather than on life skills relating to decision-making, with the exception of critical thinking. Looking at all the indicators, the most frequently indicated life

skills according to the questionnaire were friendship and empathy. Assertiveness was evident in class observations but evidence from the questionnaire was not as strong. On the other hand, self-awareness and self-esteem were frequently observed across all indicators. Observation of negotiation indicators was uneven but half of the indicators were frequently observed. Critical thinking was observed by most teachers Creative thinking and problem-solving were observed by a majority of teachers but were not as common as other life skills. Decision-making was the least commonly indicated life skill.

Methods for life skills suggested in the curriculum were being implemented most of the time by at least half of the teachers. The methods for assertiveness, self-esteem, friendship and critical thinking were most frequently implemented. It is notable that assertiveness was less frequently observed compared to others in this group. The methods for self-awareness, empathy and negotiation were implemented by one half to three quarters of teachers. Methods for decision-making, creative thinking and problem-solving were less common.

The association between methods and indicators was not statistically significant. In some cases, e.g., friendship, this is possibly because most teachers used the method and observed the indicator. Teachers who did not report using specific methods reported witnessing the indicators nonetheless, perhaps because much of life skill development is informal and not associated with particular methods. The picture that emerges from the analysis of the observations and questionnaires is a mixture of formal and informal methods that appear to encourage the development of life skills, although a clear association between deliberate teaching of life skills and observed indicators of life skills is difficult to establish. The implications of these results and of the results of interviews and focus groups are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1: Introduction

This study explored how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. Qualitative and quantitative research methods were used to ascertain the perception of life skills education amongst children, parents, teachers, head teachers and education officials. A purposive sampling technique was used to select the 120 pupils, 24 primary school teachers, 22 parents, 12 primary school head teachers, 5 Coordinating Centre Tutors and 3 district education officials who participated in the study by responding to questionnaires and taking part in interviews and focus groups. In this chapter, I will discuss the results of the study starting with perceptions or understandings of life skills, then proceeding to the value attributed to life skills, the influences on pupils' life skills development, relationships between methods and life skills indicators and life skills education challenges. I will then discuss the limitations of the study.

7.2: Perceptions of life skills (or) understanding of life skills

7.2.1: Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore how life skills education is being implemented in Ugandan primary schools. It also investigated educators' and parents' perceptions of, competences in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools. The study further explored children's experiences of life skills and life skills education. This section discusses the parents' and educators (teachers, head teachers CCTs and education officers) perceptions or understandings of life skills. Pupils were not asked explicitly about their perceptions of life skills because the life skills education programme in primary schools in Uganda was infused across the curriculum and so pupils' opinions of life skills are discussed in subsequent sections. The infusion means that there is no dedicated life skills curriculum, rather life skills is taught

through the content of other curricular areas, using a variety of methods and activities. The life skills to be developed among the pupils are listed against every theme or topic to be taught in each curricular area. The sixteen life skills to be infused and developed while teaching different subjects are listed in Appendix 1.1and 1.2

Literature shows that perceptions of life skills are divergent. Yankah and Angleton observed that according to the WHO, "Skills that can be said to be life skills are innumerable, and the nature and definition of life skills are likely to differ across cultural settings" (WHO/Western Pacific Regional Office, 2003 cited in Yank and Angleton, 2008, p.466). They further observe that a recent development agency report suggested that "the concept of life skills education is difficult to grasp in program documents" and that "the term life skills remains imprecise and even unclear to most actors" (Tiendrebeogo, Meijer, and Engleberg, 2003, cited in Yankah and Aggleton, 2008 p.466). The findings of this study reflect the findings in this literature because, as reflected in the paragraphs below, educationalists and parents' perception of life skills seemed to be divergent, focusing on the totality of nurturing a child other than specifically focusing on the psychosocial life skills initially earmarked for infusion in the Ugandan primary school curriculum.

7.2.2: Teachers' perceptions or understandings of the life skills curriculum

In this section, teachers' understanding and general implementation of the life skills curriculum is summarised. The use of specific methodologies is discussed later in this chapter. The teachers in the primary schools had mixed perceptions of what life skills are. The findings of this study show that teachers' concept of psychosocial life skills and the selection of these psychosocial life skills for their lessons was divergent. About 20% of the teachers had a clear knowledge of the psychosocial life skills advocated for in the Ugandan life skills programme. This was reflected in their lesson plans when they listed the life skills they felt they would develop among the children in their lessons. Teachers also knew and were aware that the psychosocial life skills are competencies for the protection of the child. They emphasized that life skills help the child himself or herself. Since these teachers were able to select the right life skills

to be integrated in their teaching, they were implementing the infusion approach adopted in Uganda's life skills programme (WHO, 2003).

On the other hand, the findings showed that the majority of the teachers (80%) did not distinguish between life skills, values and life skills' indicators. They seemed to take the concept of life skills as life and living in general. For example, to these teachers an indicator, a value, and anything moral or vocational were taken to be a life skill. The problem was reflected mainly in the data collected from the teachers during observation of the lessons and interviews. For example teachers' lists of life skills to be developed in the lesson plans reflected this confusion of indicators, values and life skills. These lists included the psychosocial life skills, values and indicators (see Appendix 6.1).

The primary school curriculum in Uganda focuses on the development of psychosocial life skills. Psychosocial life skills are a child's ability to maintain a state of his or her mental well-being and to demonstrate this in adaptive and positive behaviour while interacting with others, his/her culture and environment as asserted by World Health Organisation (WHO, 1997). In particular, life skills are a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, solve problems, think critically and creatively, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, empathise with others, and cope with and manage their lives in a healthy and productive manner (WHO, 2001 cited in UNICEF, 2005, p. 2). This is contrary to life skills defined in general terms. For example, Hendricks in the Targeting Life Skills (TLS) Model defines life skills as skills that help an individual pupil to be successful in living a productive and satisfying life (Hendricks, 1996). Hendricks' definition requires a child to be productive which has a connotation of vocational life skills.

The findings of this study show that participating teachers confuse general and psychosocial life skills. This confusion seems to be caused by cultural interference and literal interpretation of what life skills are due to teachers' experiences in daily life. However, as we shall see in the next sections, this was not unique to teachers. The results of the study show that the majority of the respondents, regardless of whether one was a teacher, a head teacher, a CCT, an education officer or parent,

understood children's life skills education in the context of moral, vocational or academic nurture of children.

This confusion, especially among teachers raises concern since teachers were said to have accessed an orientation or training before the commencement of the programme. Further still, successful implementation of the life skills programme in primary schools depends on effective teacher practice in the classroom. Joe et al observe that "for four decades, educational researchers have confirmed what many parents know: children's academic progress depends heavily on the talent and skills of the teacher leading their classroom" (Joe et al, 2009, p.1).One aspect of effective teaching is a clear understanding of subject matter (Barry, 2010; Bulger, Mohr and Walls, 2002). In the life skills education programme in Uganda, the sixteen life skills constitute the life skills education subject matter. However, these are not to be taught directly as subject matter. The emphasis is therefore on the methods used to infuse and teach the life skills through existing curricular content. For this approach to be successful, teachers need to understand the life skills to be infused. Lesson observations and interviews suggest that teachers have difficulty clearly defining life skills and consequently, have difficulty with the method of infusion.

One of the reasons for teachers' lack of understanding of life skills may be the reported deficiencies in orientation and training before the commencement of the implementation of the life skills programme. For proper implementation of innovations like life skills education, effective sensitisation and orientation of the whole user system, especially teachers are required. That is why Malderez and Wedell emphasize that "the effective teaching of teachers is the key factor influencing the extent to which the effective implementation of new education policies and curriculum reforms takes place as intended"(Malderez and Wedell, 2007, cited in Orafi, 2013 p. 16). In order to be effective, "teachers need to acquire the skills and knowledge to implement something, particularly if it is slightly different to their existing methods" (Careless, 1999, cited in Orafi 2013, p.17). Teachers reported deficiencies in training. Firstly, only one teacher was taken from each school when all the primary school teachers had to facilitate development of pupils' life skills development by the time of the study. Secondly, teachers who attended the training said that the training programme was overloaded with other things to cover. Life skills

education was therefore given insufficient time. This is a factor which Adey and Hewitt (2004 p.156, cited in Orafi ibid) suggest is detrimental to teachers' acquisition of new skills, knowledge and attitudes. Even after training, the curricular materials are also misleading in that the life skills section, in some sections of the curriculum is headed life skills and values and the lists under this heading include mixed lists of life skills, values and life skills indicators (National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC), 2008, P.9).

Two other important elements in the delivery of the life skills curriculum are the creation of an atmosphere of caring in the classroom and the use of participatory learning techniques (Chan, Lau and Yen, 2011; Weimer, 2013). In the lessons observed, care was observed. For example, teachers made an effort to encourage pupils' participation and cared to give positive feedback to motivate pupils and sustain this participation. With regard to participatory methods, a baseline study conducted before the life skills education in Uganda began indicated that such methods were not being used to promote life skills:

> In the baseline study to determine the level of life skills among Ugandan primary school children, Cele et al (1996) found that while the level of life skills was not very high, the teaching styles and teaching learning environments were generally not promoting the acquisition of life skills by the children. Teachers were using mostly teacher-centred methods which allowed limited or no pupil involvement and participation.
>
> (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, P.15)

The classroom observations conducted as part of this study indicated that progress had been made in this regard. During observation of the lessons, teachers tried to use methods like explanation, question and answer, demonstration, small group discussions, brain storming and discovery. During the lessons observed, pupils were also given the opportunity to share, work together as a team, select leaders and in some cases rotate these leaders. Pupils were also asked to stand up and answer the teachers' questions in well-constructed sentences with fluency. It appears therefore that teachers are taking on board the message that life skills education needs to be participatory.

7.2.3: Parents' perceptions and understandings of life skills

Parents seemed to view life skills as development of their children in all spheres of life. That is why their responses reflected life skills as being vocational, moral, social, academic and psychosocial development. Some of the parents had an explanation of life skills as having a good life which they even further explained as a good job. In this case, much as these parents associated life skills with their children developing in all spheres of life, they emphasised vocational skills that could enhance their children's earning. That is why these very parents seemed to associate life skills with the current trends in the international community where people are making a living from sports, computer knowledge, music, dance and drama. In Uganda, parents seem to have seen how sports including athletics, football, basketball, rugby, netball, etc., have become a lucrative asset for any child who is competent in any of them. Parents have also seen how music, dance and drama artists are earning. Computer skills are considered as modernity by the parents. In this case, some parents wished that their children's talents in all these areas be developed by the school to enable their children to earn high incomes. There were parents who added conformity to culture, socialisation, respect and their children's academic excellence to the vocational emphasis. In this context, parents felt that their children should have diversified education in all these areas.

These findings show that parents' perception of pupils' life skills was focussed on the total development of the child. The parents seemed to be contented with "a child's learned ability that could enable him or her do something well and live a fruitful, productive and satisfying life" (Francis, 2010, online). The learned ability could be in the areas of vocational skills, relationships, behaviour, morality or academics. For example, traditionally, life skills include abilities in cooking, washing dishes, personal grooming, grocery shopping, street crossing, counting money, farming, carpentry, hair dressing and business skills (Bakhshi, et al., 2004, p.5). This study also shows that a considerable number of Ugandans view life skills education as promotion of children's mental well-being and competence, health and positive social relationships, reflecting the categorisation of life skills into skills for knowing and living with oneself, skills for knowing and living with others and skills for decision-making.

It is clearly explained in the life skills manual that the focus of the life skills programme in Uganda are the psychosocial skills (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997). The focus of Uganda in this area is supported by World Health Organisation (WHO):

> Psychosocial competence has an important role to play in the promotion of health in its broadest sense; in terms of physical, mental and social well-being. In particular, where health problems are related to behaviour, and where the behaviour is related to an inability to deal effectively with stresses and pressures in life, the enhancement of psychosocial competence could make an important contribution. This is especially important for health promotion at a time when behaviour is more and more implicated as the source of health problems.
>
> (WHO, 1997, p.1)

In this context, the parents more general conception of life skills seems to interfere with a collective effort of focussing on the development of pupils' psychosocial skills. This raises difficulties because parents' attitudes, knowledge, skills and overall perceptions influence their children's life skills development which is being emphasised in school. According to the findings of this study, one of the issues for parents is that they were never trained or given any orientation in life skills education. It is only some of the teachers who underwent orientation or training. The other teachers, educationists and parents had none. This means what the parents knew about life skills was limited. The next section summarises the general stakeholders' perception of life skills.

7.2.4: General stake holders' perception of life skills

The adult stakeholders who participated in this study (educationists and parents) viewed the development of their children in totality and therefore viewed life skills as a way of developing their children in many spheres of life. They viewed life skills in the context of psychosocial, social, moral, academic and vocational development of their children. It should be noted, as discussed in the preceding chapter that parents were more interested in their children's development of vocational skills.

The perception of parents, teachers, head teachers, CCTs and education officials on the one hand, perceived life skills in the context of psychosocial competencies. They felt that the children had life skills because they were assertive, had self-esteem,

needed to have friends and communicated effectively. For example, parents wanted teachers to help their children to develop assertiveness (especially girls) in order to be secure on their way to and from school. The stakeholders also said that life skills involved making decisions, communication skills, critical thinking and coping with stress. These terms are listed in the life skills education programme for primary schools in Uganda.

Teachers and head teachers viewed life skills as social competencies. Further analysis of the results established that life skills listed in the above paragraph were in some cases mixed in with terms like cooperation, appreciation, respect, and tolerance. It is plainly clear that none of these terms or concepts is life skills are reflected in the life skills programme in Uganda. Rather, they are social competencies that children need to enhance positive relationships. In the technical language of life skills education, these are values which are also in some cases mixed in with the lists of life skills in the primary school curriculum and primary school teaching.

While parents recognize that psychosocial skills are part of life skills and would like their children to have psychosocial competencies, they emphasise vocational skills and skills that will lead to academic success. Educators recognize that psychosocial skills are the life skills they have to facilitate. The only problem is that they, especially teachers who plan and teach, confuse the 16 life skills in the curriculum with the examples of indicators of these life skills and values listed in the curriculum. Teachers, who are also parents, felt that their children should exhibit academic excellence as well as acquire vocational skills. It was also generally established in this study that cultural values led to a perception of life skills that was at odds with that promoted in the curriculum. This was noticeable in the area of gender equality. Teachers reported that traditional parents still expected girls to be submissive and also reported that some boys were difficult to manage because of their attitude to the girls. For example, boys did not want to sit with girls while in class. While assertiveness is promoted in the life skills curriculum, at least one parent praised a child for being assertive, when that child's behaviour could be interpreted as disrespectful. This further illustrates differences in parents' interpretation of life skills.

Teachers and parents also had concerns about the health of their children. They both see health education as part of life skills. The association of life skills education with health education by teachers is understandable given that many life skills education in the past focused on health issues. For example, as reflected in chapter one, the initial life skills related programme was the School Health Education Project (SHEP).

Culturally, parents also valued the role life skills education has in promoting abstinence from pre-marital sex. This was also supported by some teachers. According to these teachers and parents, a girl getting married before any involvement in sex is a cultural value. Parents and teachers also expected life skills to be reflected in behaviour. The problem here seemed to be demarcating what correct behaviour is for the child. For example, while children advocated for sharing of resources, some parents resisted their children's sharing of scarce resources.

7.3: Value of life skills

7.3.1: Introduction

In this study, it was established that life skills had value in different areas of the child's development. The value of life skills in this section is therefore going to be discussed under the sections: Value of formal life skills curriculum, Life skills enhance pupils' security, Life skills facilitate pupils' personal relationships and life skills facilitate informed decision-making.

7.3.2: Value of the formal life skills curriculum

The primary school curriculum is constituted by both formal and informal settings. The formal curriculum referred to in this section "includes the activities accommodated in the regular hours of school. The timetable of the school allocates specific periods of teaching time for different areas of the formal curriculum" (Jack, n.d. p.2). During the regular hours of school, children have sessions in the class and out of the class. When out of the class, children play. As they play, there is incidental learning which according to UNESCO (2005) is "random learning". During this time,

children gave testimonies of how they play together and learn many things. Children said that during this playtime, they associate and make friends. Children said they also develop negotiation skills because as they organise their play, they have to agree on who is to play for which side and why as they form teams.

The life skills curriculum promotes positive HIV/AIDS sensitization and sensitivity among the pupils. Children expressed sensitivity to the dangers of sexual abuse by explaining what bad touches were and the need to avoid them. Children also had knowledge of risky situations that could lead to sex before marriage. Part of the formal curriculum in primary schools includes deliberate distribution and placement of messages in different parts of the school compound. These are educative messages for the children. These messages include: sex before marriage is dangerous, virginity is a blessing, HIV/AIDS kills, avoid risky situations and places, avoid bad touches, etc. The value of these messages is that children are enabled to learn and review what the teachers and parents tell them at school and at home. It should be noted that while the study did not explicitly ask the children about the life skills curriculum, I did discuss with them situations where life skills would be required and consequently got an indication of their opinions about life skills.

7.3.3: Life skills enhance pupils' assertiveness and social relationships

Life skills enable children to develop strategies to protect themselves. Life skills education can help children to resist other negative behaviour (Botvin, Griffin and Nichols, 2003). For example, "there is growing evidence that prevention programs that effectively target early-stage substance use can disrupt the developmental progression to more serious levels of drug involvement" (Botvin, Scheier and Griffin, in press cited in Botvin, Griffin and Nichols, 2003, p.3). In this study, there were a number of examples of how children used life skills as protection for themselves. For example, a parent testified that his daughter told him point blank that smoking is bad when he started smoking while seated with her in the sitting room. Surprising to the father, the daughter insisted that she wanted to leave the room when she saw the father still smoking.

Pupils also use life skills to ensure their security during play. For example, children ensure that the continuity of play by resolving conflicts that erupt during play. They said they do this by separating those who fight after a misunderstanding, encouraging forgiveness of one another in situations of conflict, ignoring a situation that could erupt into a fight or misunderstanding and sometimes, when they feel the situation is extreme, seeking the counsel of the teachers.

Children also realised that friendship formation is a security measure because they were seemed to be convinced that friends do not fight one another. They also had experiences of providing for one another when one was in a situation of need. For example, children had accounts of friends sharing food and writing materials. In the literature on friendship, Ferrer and Fugate observe that "friendships help children develop emotionally and morally. In interacting with friends, children learn many social skills, such as how to communicate, cooperate, and solve problems" (Ferrer and Fugate, 2010, p.1). Each of these values of friendship listed by Ferrer and Fugate are evident in the children's testimonies, implying life skills influence pupils' social relationships. Personal relationships among children therefore require children's social skills' competencies. According to Kashani and Bayat (2010), "Social skills are a collection of learned abilities that enables an individual to communicate with a proper capability and form, in a social aspect" (p.1028). Different life skills have the potential to develop children's social skills. The role of assertiveness, empathy and negotiation and problem-solving in developing children's social skills is discussed next.

One of the life skills considered and studied in this study was assertiveness which means the child "standing up for his or her personal rights by expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways" (SkillsYouNeed.com-Assertiveness, 2014). Kashani and Bayat assert that "one of the important items of social relations and social skills is self-expression (assertiveness)" (Kashani and Bayat, 2010, p.1028). In this study, teachers, and children testified that life skills education had made the children assertive. For example, one female teacher said that if you soiled your dress and a child of these days saw it, s/he would freely inform you without fear. A pupil also said that if she failed to understand what the teacher was teaching, she would ask for help. Owing to the scarcity of transport in villages and

traffic jams in towns in Uganda, motor cycle riders (boys and young men) called boda cyclists provide easy and quick transport. These cyclists now cover the entire country and can be threatening to children. One parent explained that assertiveness would help their children avoid the dangers of boda cyclists while on their way to school and back home, without annoying them (boda cyclists). The children's ability to avoid the unwanted advances of boda cyclists, while not antagonising the cyclists is an example of Bury, Lovelavd, Storm and Gibson's (2003) explanation that "an assertive person not only insists on his or her logical request and shows disagreeable behavior to defend the requests, but also considers the other people's rights and tastes and avoids extorting other's rights and does not spoil them" (2003 cited in Kashani and Bayat, 2010, p.1028).

Kashani and Bayat's (2010) study to determine the effect of social skills training (assertiveness) on assertiveness and self-esteem increase of 9 to 11 year old female students in Tehran further illustrates the benefits of assertiveness. They concluded that assertive people can "with criticism, state their dissatisfaction, how to reject a suggestion or a request, admire other people's ideal behaviors and participate in group affairs and practice them" (p.1031). Children who are assertive can therefore "act in their own best interests, to stand up for themselves without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably and to express personal rights without denying the rights of others" (SkillsYouNeed.com-Assertiveness, 2014). People or children who lack the life skill of assertiveness may become aggressive and fail to consider the views or feelings of other people and may cause misunderstandings and loss of friends (ibid). Another life skill that has been seen to facilitate relationships in this study is empathy.

Empathy is a life skill that enables children to put themselves in the situation of someone else thereby understanding the feelings, needs, concerns and/or emotional states of others (Scottsdale, 2011). In this study children demonstrated empathy. For example, children expressed the need for sharing and advocated for sharing materials, even if some of their parents did not allow such sharing. The children cited the importance of helping others as a reason for contradicting their parents who did not want them to share with others. In this context, literature on empathy still shows that empathy is "as another-oriented emotional response congruent with the perceived welfare of another person" (Batson et al, 1995, p. 1042). Research has suggested that

individuals who can empathise enjoy better relationships with others and greater well-being through life (SkillsYouNeed.com-Empathy, 2014). According to McDonald and Messinger:

> Empathy is a potential psychological motivator for helping others in distress. Empathy can be defined as the ability to feel or imagine another person's emotional experience. The ability to empathize is an important part of social and emotional development, affecting an individual's behavior toward others and the quality of social relationships.
>
> (McDonald and Messinger, (n.d.) p.2)

Since empathy is a psychological motivator of helping others in distress, children need to have empathic competencies so that they can be of help to one another and other people in society. Parents, teachers and care givers, therefore have a responsibility to facilitate the development and consolidation of children's empathic skills in order to enable them have affection and socializing emotional feelings for each other and for adults. Let us now look at the value of negotiation skills.

Alongside empathy, children need negotiation skills in order to sustain their relationships. Children's experiences in the findings show that they have experience of negotiation. Naturally, at different points in time, the conflicts children were talking about inevitably occur because, as they said, they would disagree and consequently conflict. "The point of negotiation is to try to reach agreements without causing future barriers to children's communication" (SkillsYouNeed.com-Negotiation, 2014). According to the results of the study, negotiation enabled children to settle their differences by compromising or reaching agreements while avoiding separation and anything that would lead to further disagreement. For example, pupils negotiated and balanced their teams during play so that the potential and strength of the players could be balanced. Since children's play was mostly physical play, it would provide the pupils with "the abilities to perform under pressure, to solve problems, to meet deadlines and/or challenges, to set goals, to communicate, to handle both success and failure, to work with a team and within a system, and to receive feedback and benefit from it" (Goudas, Dermitzaki, Leondari and Danish, 2006, p.430). During lesson observation pupils managed to negotiate how the progression of a discussion so that no one child could dominate. Through negotiation, children fostered fair play in their relationships and avoided unnecessary arguments and

disagreements while they are working and playing together. The skills of negotiation are part of the problem-solving skills discussed in the next section.

Children's testimonies reflected how they involved themselves in problem-solving situations successfully. Negotiation can sometimes fail or pupils may be taken unaware and through conflict, problems emerge. For example, in the findings of this study, children talked about instances of fights during play because of misunderstandings. The children went further to explain that separating those fighting, telling them to forgive each other, forgiving and refraining from continuing to conflict or fight were strategies that helped them to sustain their play. Conflict among the children "is an essential and unavoidable human phenomenon because where there is human interaction; there is a likelihood of personal likes and dislikes. These agreements and disagreements among individuals and groups lead them to conflicts" (Ghaffar, 2010, Abstract). Problem-solving involves children overcoming the barriers or obstacles that arise during conflict and that prevent the immediate achievement of goals (SkillsYouNeed.com-Problem-solving, 2014). According to children's accounts, what was healthy here was that children were aware of their conflicts and goals. They also knew that they could only achieve their goal if they continued to work together. This is because "conflict involves situations in which differences are expressed by interdependent people in the process of achieving their needs and goals, and it arises when a difference between two or more people necessitates change in at least one person in order for their engagement to continue and develop" (Denohue and Kott, 1992, cited in Ghaffar, 2010, pp. 212-213). In this context, children need "creative and non-violent ways of handling conflict" (Lampen and Lampen 1997 cited in Baginsky, 2004, p.4). Children "are capable of resolving conflicts for themselves" (Baginsky ibid). And as children resolve their conflicts, "they benefit from doing so because they have to take responsibility for their feelings and behaviour" (Lawrence, 2000 cited in Baginsky 2004, p.5). Ugandan children's experience of free play during break time gives them a chance to develop the life skill of problem-solving and consequently enables the children to take responsibility for their own lives.

7.3.4: Life skills facilitate informed decision-making

Life skills education helps children in primary schools to make decisions based on the knowledge they may have about a certain situation. Children are faced with divergent situations that require them to make decisions. The Islamic Association of Uganda (IMAU) defines decision-making as "the ability children have to utilize all available information to weigh a situation, analyze the advantages and disadvantages and make informed and personal choices"(IMAU, 2003, p.6). Decision-making may also be referred to as the act of choosing between two or more courses of action (Skills YouNeed.com- Decision-making, 2014). Decisions in life are divergent. Children in primary schools in Uganda are exposed to different self-management situations that give them a chance to mature in decision-making. Situations like children managing their own play seem to enable children to make personal constructive decisions. This is because children have the chance to supervise themselves in some activities. And according to John Dewey,

> The essence of the demand for freedom is the need of conditions which will enable an individual to make his own special contribution to a group interest, and to partake of its activities in such ways that social guidance shall be a matter of his own mental attitude, and not a mere authoritative dictation of his acts.
> (John Dewey, 1916, cited in Kohn, 1993)

For example, the study established that children made decisions about friends and how to respond to friends. A pupil said when she came to primary five she decided to befriend a pupil who was the best in mathematics so that she could be helped in mathematics. Another child described how a pupil who was angered by another pupil went away and cooled down somewhere before responding instantly. This same pupil explained that when she was kicked while playing with others she decided to forgive the colleague and not fight back to enable playing to continue. One pupil said sometimes on their way home, her colleagues may decide to go and steal mangoes or other people's fruits because they are hungry, but she would make a decision, avoid them and go home. These instances provide examples of decision-making "as an intellectual process leading to a response to circumstances through selection among alternatives" (Nelson 1984 in Mincemoyer and Perkins, 2003). There are obviously some times when children make decisions that are risky which affect them and the people they live with. For example, deciding to steal because they are hungry.

However, “making sound decisions not only assists youth in resisting pressure to engage in risky behaviors, but also fosters social skills and social awareness, and encourages them to think about consequences, decide on goals, and understand their own and others' feelings” (Elias and Tobias 1990, cited in Mincemoyer and Perkins, 2003, Introduction-Paragraph 1). Reflecting on the type of decisions children said they had made during their free play, the situation of freedom in the schools has benefitted children’s decision-making even if it may not have been deliberately designed to do so.

7.4: Influences on pupils life skills development

7.4.1: Introduction

The life skills programme in Uganda was designed to be integrated in the existing curriculum of the primary school and not as a separate entity or area of content. Infusion in the entire curriculum meant integrating life skills education in the totality of learning experiences provided to primary school pupils so that they could attain the life skills and knowledge at a variety of learning sites (Marsh and Willis, 2003, Chapter 1). In the school, these sites include in and out of classroom activities. The situations in which these activities are performed, according to children’s, teachers’ and parents’ testimonies, constitute the worlds which influence children’s life skills development. The aspects of these children’s worlds that influence children’s life skills that are considered in this section are parents (home), teachers (school), culture, laws, rights, and media (Bronfenbrenner, 1970).

7.4.2: Home influences

Parental influences on children’s life skills revealed in this study related mostly to parenting style, interpersonal relationships and modelling of behaviour. The findings showed that some parents adopted an authoritarian while others adopted an authoritative parenting style. Parenting style is defined as “a child’s perceptions of her/his parents or care takers’ behaviours in two dimensions parental responsiveness and parental demands” (Amirabadi, 2011, p.1). According to Darling and Steinberg

(1993), “It is a constellation of parental attitudes towards the child which creates an emotional climate or shapes the emotional relationships between parent and child” (Darling and Steinberg, 1993 in Chan et al, 2007 p. 849). The authoritative style is “a pattern of nurturance and reasoning of the parents that is both responsive and demanding” (Amirabadi, 2011, p.1). Authoritative parents enhance “higher social competencies in children. Thus, children of authoritative parents possess greater competence in early peer relationships, engage in low levels of drug use as adolescents, and have more emotional well-being as young adults”(Bornstein and Bornstein, 2007 p.2). Amirabadi also observes that “a number of studies demonstrated that children with authoritative upbringing have the positive cognitive skills, school achievement, and low levels of problem behaviors and good behaviors such as friendliness and cooperation” (p.1). On the other hand “authoritarian style is a pattern of power-assertive behaviors of the parents which are highly demanding and directive, but not responsive. Authoritarian style has low responsiveness and high demanding” (ibid).

Authoritative parenting was evident in some parents’ nurturance of children’s assertiveness. For example, one parent said that if a parent is wrong, the child has the right to tell him or her that what she or he is doing is wrong. If the parent does something wrong and the child notices, the parent should also say sorry to the child. This parent emphasised that the parent has to see, think and weigh what the child is saying as a human being and react positively to support the child’s self-esteem, confidence and assertiveness. As earlier said, another parent explained that he was smoking while sitting in the sitting room with his daughter. The daughter told her father that smoking was bad and even begged to leave the sitting room if the father continued smoking. The father explained that the daughter had made the right step in advising him and he accepted it. In these examples, it can be seen that supportive authoritative parenting fosters children’s assertiveness (Bury, Lovelavd, Storm and Gibson, 2003, cited in Kashani and Bayat, 2010, p.1028). For example in the case of what the father explained, the father’s response allowed the child to be assertive without risk of censure. The parent was not hurt but instead, was very appreciative of the child’s assertive communication. In this context, assertive communication aims at enabling the communicator as well as the recipient of the communication to feel good. This is because an assertive person can insist on his or her request and even defend

that request with behaviour that might be disagreeable while at the same time considering the rights of others (Kashani and Bayat, 2010, ibid). Further observation also shows that the parent here was also helping the child to 'stand for his or her personal rights; expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways' (SkillsYouyNeed.com-Assertiveness, 2014).

Parents fostered children's life skills through acting as positive role models. One mother spoke about how single mothers need to model appropriate sexual behaviour for their daughters. In the Red Pepper newspaper (Ugandan daily) of Wednesday, 25 July 2012, on page 28, the Soroti district woman Member of Parliament, Angelina Osege accused parents in the district of fuelling child sexual abuse. In an exclusive interview Osege noted that many parents were exposing their children to early sexual behaviour triggered by alcoholism. One CCT also blamed some of the parents whom she said, needed to have life skills themselves. This is because, according to her, the parents are the ones who encourage early marriage for the girls.

In line with this view, parents and teachers in Manafwa district said that the problems of early pregnancy, STDs and HIV/AIDS among primary school children would not be so rampant if the parents implemented the traditional practice of ensuring that girls are kept as virgins until their rightful time for marriage. They said that in their olden days, a girl who got married when a virgin was appreciated or thanked with a goat given to her mother who had the major responsibility of ensuring the virginity of her daughter up to marriage. When a daughter came back with a goat and beddings that had blood as a sign that she was a virgin, it was a symbol of pride among the clan and the entire community. According to the teachers, these days, parents have ignored their responsibility to ensure their daughters did not engage in premarital sex. Some blame was also apportioned to peers. In this case, children and teenagers feel social pressure to conform to the group of peers with whom they socialize. This peer pressure can influence how children dress, what kind of music they listen to, and what types of behaviour they engage in, including risky behaviours such as using drugs, cigarettes, and alcohol, and engaging in sex (ibid). That is why, concerned parents felt that it was the duty of parents to monitor the type of friends their children had so that they could help their children to avoid bad friends. This shows that some parents were aware of the importance of good role models.

The importance of such modelling of behaviour is supported by literature on parenting. Robyn (2008) emphasizes open decision-making. She says, “When you have a tough choice to make, allow the children to see how you work through the problem, weigh the pros and cons, and come to a decision” (Robyn, 2008, Positive role models, paragraph 2). This will facilitate children’s development of the life skill of decision-making. It is important that children experience how their parents make informed decisions. In the same context, Robyn advises, “Apologise and admit mistakes: Nobody’s perfect. When you make a bad choice, let those who are watching and learning from you know that you made a mistake and how you plan to correct it” (ibid paragraph 3). Parents in this study have talked about the need for children to develop self-esteem. In this case, self-esteem in this study has been portrayed as one of the life skills that can make children experience and feel their worth. Robyn again advises, “Demonstrate confidence in who you are: Whatever you choose to do with your life, be proud of the person you’ve become and continue to become” (ibid paragraph 7). Indeed, numerous theorists have suggested that self-esteem is largely derived from interpersonal experience, with high self-esteem representing a feeling that one is accepted and valued by significant others (Greenberg, Pysczcynski and Solomon, 1986; Harter, 1993; Leary, Tambor, Terdal and Downs, 1995 cited in Baldwin and Keelan 1999, p.824). This perspective is consistent with findings in the attachment and social support literatures in which high self-esteem has been found to co-occur with positive working models of relationships with others (Collins and Read, 1990; Sarason et al., 1991, cited in Baldwin and Keelan 1999, ibid). The way some parents in this study expressed how they related with their children was supportive, responsive and therefore had the potential to develop children’s assertiveness, self-esteem and other related life skills.

Some parents used the authoritarian parenting style. One parent felt that parents had the final say on everything. She strongly argued against the view that children can tell parents that they (parents) have done wrong. She even went further to explain that she had already told her children not to do it. She made it clear that when a child tells her that she is wrong, she replies, you are a child, I am right. Such authoritarian parents are the ones who value obedience and restrict children’s autonomy (Baumrind, 1966, p. 890 in Alezadeh 2011). “The authoritarian parenting style has a significant

correlation with externalizing behavioral problems" (Brar, 2003 cited in Alezadeh, 2011, p.196), "because it is highly correlated with delinquency behaviour" (Odubote, 2008 cited in Alezadeh 2011, p.196). In the same context, teachers and head teachers in Manafwa district referred to such authoritarian parenting as oppression of children. They said that the parents in Manafwa district oppress their children because for them what a parent says is also final. A child is not allowed to express his or her opinion. The teachers attributed this to both culture and individual parent behaviour. This is a negative influence on children's life skills development because the atmosphere the children are nurtured in determines how they develop certain life skills. In particular, the lack of autonomy granted to some children might impact negatively on their self-esteem (Leary, et al., 1995; Baumeister and Tice, 1990; Safran, 1990; Baldwin and Holmes, 1987; Greenberg, et al., 1986; and Hogan, et al., 1985 cited in Baldwin and Keelan 1999). Teachers and head teachers in Manafwa district further observed that the oppression depends on the nature of the family. For example, they observed that parents who are educated are open and can allow children to express themselves while illiterate parents tend to stick to cultural norms where a child should remain silent and obedient. The head teachers and teachers' main concern was that the majority of their children come from non-elite homes. This is commensurate with literature from two comprehensive reviews which "concluded that lower SES parents, as compared with their wealthier counterparts, are less likely to use reasoning and more likely to use physical punishment as discipline, are less likely to reward children verbally for behaving desirably, and are less supportive and affectionate with their children" (Gecas, 1979, McLoyd, 1990 cited in Early and Eccles 1995 p.2)

Parents seemed to have experiences of the dangers of differences in parenting styles between neighbours and said this could cause difficulties for parents. In this case one parent observed that they (parents) have problems in nurturing their children. She said that some parents contradict the guidance others give their children. In this case, she said, when one parent guides his or her children to behave in a certain way, the other parents allow their children to behave in any way they like. For example, she said that when you want to give your children freedom to express themselves, others think you are spoiling the children. Barn, on the basis of this context of attitudes, concluded that it was vital to understand that parenting did not exist in a social vacuum because a number of factors, such as neighbourhood quality and resources, support networks,

poverty and housing all play a part in how parents parent their children in minority ethnic groups (Barn, 2007, cited in Shama Alia, and Fredericksona, 2011). This is because "the goals parents have for their children, the nature of the emotional relationship parents establish with their children, and the particular practices parents use in rearing their children all vary as a function of SES" (Hoff, Laursen and Tardif, 2002, p.231). Parents complained that when they set boundaries for their children, they react negatively, thinking that their parents do not like them. Divergence in parenting style has a particularly strong impact in Uganda because children who attend rural primary schools live with their parents in the rural communities for part of the time of the day. The other part of the day, children stay at school. In the rural communities in Uganda there is communal living. This means that children cannot avoid knowing what is happening to another child in the neighbourhood. What parents are reflecting here is a problem because parents who are authoritative and authoritarian are living in the same rural localities. The children of both of these parents, given the traditional African rural structure, live together, play together and go to school together.

7.4.3: School Influences

7.4.3.1: Introduction

The ways in which schools develop life skills was investigated through observations, interviews, focus groups and the teachers' questionnaire. In the questionnaire, teachers were asked to identify the methods they used to develop life skills and the indicators of life skills they observed in pupils. In this section, the main findings relating to how schools foster life skills, both formally and informally are discussed.

7.4.3.2: Informal school strategies that facilitate pupils' development of life skills

The section discusses informal messages, how children's play encourages life skills' development, teachers' encouragement of play and sharing as part of peer culture and in some schools as part of school culture.

Findings of this study established that there are a number of informal strategies which primary schools used to facilitate pupils' development of life skills. Hoffman (2009), referring to life skills as social emotional competencies, observes that, "many Social Emotional Learning (SEL) programmes are add-ons to the curriculum, but there are other more comprehensive approaches to SEL where the emphasis is on infusing social and emotional competencies such as self-awareness, self-management, a sense of community, and responsible decision-making into the entire school experience" (p.535). The data for this study showed that the development of pupils' life skills is facilitated through informal messages, children's play during mid-morning break and lunch and pupils sharing while at school.

The findings of this study show that informal messages in the school compound facilitate pupils' development of life skills. The school compounds have messages which remind children of the importance of virginity, avoiding bad touches, staying safe from HIV/AIDS through abstinence, avoiding risky situations and places, sustaining friendship with other people etc. These messages focus a lot on HIV/AIDS prevention. According to the Education For All Global Monitoring Report, it was observed that "We readily and reasonably assume that the provision of clear information about the sources of HIV/AIDS infection and, indeed, improved general levels of literacy, will allow those at risk to understand and judge their options better" (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, p.40). Thus, "the primary inherent value of formal education in this context is to enhance the learning skills required to understand the HIV/AIDS education to offer and make sense of the many related messages from other sources" (Badcock-Walters, Kelly and Görgens, 2004 cited in EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, p.40). These messages implement the recommendations of the report and provide incidental life skills education for the pupils on HIV/AIDS and other areas of children's living. This is because "knowledge and risk reducing skills are acquired through a complex network of formal and informal sources" (ibid). While these messages had been put in the compound formally by the teachers, children's potential learning from them was informal and would occur as they spontaneously moved around the compound. These compound messages were also noted by parents who appreciated they were educative and could facilitate their children's life skills development. Another informal method through which life skills were developed was children's play.

Children's play encourages development of children's life skills. The schedule of a day's activities in primary schools in Uganda provides children with free mid-morning and lunch breaks. In some countries, like Ireland, where I was in one of the primary schools, children's play time during break is supervised by teachers. In this case, "there is a concern that children, largely as a consequence of the pressures of urban living, with the loss of natural environments and concerns about safety, are over-supervised and do not have the opportunities for 'risky' outdoor physical play that supports their developing independence, resourcefulness and self-regulation" (Whitebread et al, 2012, p.19). The children in this study supervise themselves as they play during these breaks and therefore independently manage their own play. During the breaks, the children said they involve themselves in different forms of play and therefore benefit in different ways. For example, undirected play is useful in enabling children to work together in groups as they share, negotiate, resolve conflicts and project their personal images (McElwain, 2005, Hurwitz, 2003, Pelligrini and Smith, 1998 and Erickson 1985 cited in American Academy of Pedriatics, 2013). When play is allowed to be child driven, children practice decision-making skills, move at their own pace, as they discover their interest, and ultimately engage fully in the goals or passions for which they wish to strive (Hurwitz, 2003, Pelligrini and Smith, 1998 and Erickson 1985 cited in American Academy of Pedriatics, 2013). "In these forms of play children learn a range of social skills related to sharing, taking turns, and understanding others' perspectives through play" (DeVries, 2006 cited in Whitebread et al, 2012, p.24). These social skills were evident in children's testimonies of how they sustained their play through problem-solving skills which have already been discussed in this chapter.

Teachers also associated playing with others with enabling children to work together with affection. Affection and working together are both indicators of friendship. However, much as the chi square results showed these two relationships as being closely associated, they were not statistically significant. It is only playing together with others which was statistically significantly associated with enabling children to solve problems for each other. This is in keeping with literature which suggests that although the empirical work on cooperative problem-solving in school -age children has yielded a range of findings, the majority of the research suggests that joint

interactions with peers in experimental or school settings increases school-age children's understanding of problems and their problem-solving skills (Ramani, 2005). Children themselves, on several occasions, said that as they play they learn to tolerate and forgive each other and develop friendship.

The results of the study showed that, for pupils, sharing seems to be part of peer culture and in some schools part of school culture. In this case, pupils gave instances when they had to share. Pupils said that sharing is a foundation for friendship formation as well as a security measure for sustaining friendship. However, in some Christian founded schools used in this study, especially where children were in the boarding section, there was a school culture of sharing. When a parent brought some food for his or her child, the child received it from the parent in front of the other pupils. Then the teacher asked the children to thank that child's parent for bringing them something to eat. They could clap or do anything that the teacher told them to do in appreciation for the food. Then, depending on how many would have brought food that day the children would share. In fact, being aware of this, the teachers said the parents normally brought more than was required for their children. Teachers in this school said their children did not find it difficult to develop the value of sharing and consequently empathy and friendship. A guardian from another school which was also Christian oriented said he bought chocolates for his niece to eat while on the way back to a boarding school. The niece refused to eat and told the uncle that she was going to share the chocolate with her friends at school.

It was also evident that the children in rural schools did not think of sharing as a problem. For them, sharing initiated friendship and satisfied the child's feelings for others. And pupils said when they themselves lacked something, they would be helped by children they had helped in the past. This also seemed to be a problem-solving strategy or practice for the pupils because of lack of mid-morning and mid-day meals at the schools. Children in some cases left their homes at 7.00a.m and returned sometimes as late as 6.00 or 7.00p.m. This means such children spent all this time away from home without any formal arrangement for a meal at school. By engaging in reciprocal sharing, children had critically analysed their problem situation and were exhibiting a very high level of problem-solving skills.

When chi square tests were conducted, sharing was seen to be closely, although not statistically significantly, associated with pupils having affection for each other as an indicator of friendship. Friendship is important in enhancing elementary school children's healthy development. As friends, children 'develop the ability to think through and negotiate different situations that arise in their relationships' (Ferrer and Fugate, 2013, p.1). Overton (1997) observes that:

> Positive human relationships are essential to healthy lives. Our relationships take on important roles–they serve to protect and help us, to give us comfort and joy, to sustain us in difficult times, and to validate our sense of worth and our concerns. (p. 3)

In the context of what Overton is saying here, friendship helps children in difficult times because children's testimonies showed that they got the chance to eat something at school every day because of sharing with friends. The findings of this study show that sharing with friends, especially at school, seemed to sustain children's joy and comfort.

7.4.3.3: Formal classroom methods used to facilitate certain life skills

In this section the methods teachers used to facilitate life skills development are discussed. The methods focussed on here include, question and answer, debate, role play, and play. The findings of the study show that questioning was one of the most used methods during teaching. This is commensurate with the research on questioning which confirms that "questioning in the classroom is the second most common type of technique employed by instructors" (Ohio State University, 2008). During observation of primary two and five lessons, it was evident that regardless of whether questioning was indicated as a method to be used in the lesson or not, approximately 30 to 35% of the lesson time was spent on question and answer sessions. Therefore, "it is a consistent and well documented finding that teachers ask a lot of questions. In a summary of research on questioning published in 1971, Gall concluded that teachers typically ask between one and three questions per minute" (Gall 1971, cited in Walsh and Sattes 2005, p.12). Teachers also said that when they ask questions, they enable children to think and in the process develop assertiveness, critical and creative thinking, self-awareness and self-esteem. Research on questioning agrees with the

teachers on the issue of questioning enabling children to think and reflect in that "questions can be used to retrieve prior knowledge from long term memory and move it to working memory, where it will act as a scaffolding foundation to which the students will add new information (Ohio State University, 2008). The use of questioning in class can also nurture insight and encourage critical thinking skills (Ohio State University, 2008).

Teachers said that critical and creative thinking emanate from the effort the pupils put into thinking about the answer to the question. Pupils supported this when they also said that when a teacher asks a question, they first think about what they are going to give as an answer. In this case, research on questioning has established the need for wait time to allow this process benefit learners. Hyman (1982, cited in Indiana University, 2012) advises "After asking a question, wait for a response. Do not answer the question yourself; don't repeat it, rephrase it, modify it, call on another student to answer it, or replace it with another question until you have waited at least three to five seconds. While the teachers in this study spoke in support of the need for wait time most teachers who were observed seemed to be impatient and hardly allowed sufficient wait time. My observation is supported by research on questioning. Ohio State University observes that "in the classrooms studied, the average wait-time after a question was posed was one second or less" (Ohio State University, 2008). Walsh and Sattes (2005, p. 13) further observed that "Teachers typically wait less than one second after asking a question before calling on a student to answer". This interrupts learners' thought process and inhibits children's maximum benefit from the questioning process.

Teachers were aware that they used question and answer in every lesson. To the teachers there seemed to be no way they could avoid use of questioning. According to the teachers, it helps to facilitate children's development of different life skills. They emphasized that when the child gives a correct answer and the teacher gives positive feedback, e.g., 'very good', the child feels big and will have the confidence to continue putting up his/her hand because he/she knows s/he can give another good answer. The teachers interpreted this as an indicator of pupils' self-awareness. They further said that the child's practice of participating in answering teachers' questions could be sustained by the child being praised wherever s/he gives a correct answer.

This praise is a form of feedback or reinforcement which occurs as “teachers manage the environmental events that follow students' desired ways of behaving in order to increase the strength and future likelihood of that behaviour” (Reeve, 2009, paragraph 1). The pupils supported this, when they said that they put up their hands because they want to tell the teacher the answer they know. They said this practice of putting up hands to answer questions is strengthened and sustained by the positive feedback of the teacher in the form of ‘very good’, ‘give him/her flowers’, ‘clap for him’, etc.

The teachers in the classrooms have developed some positive strategies for encouraging pupils to raise their hands and answer teachers’ questions. These strategies include picking on children who may know the answer but fear to put up their hands. These are children who are not sure of the answers and tentatively raise their hands and then withdraw them. According to Sadker and Sadker (1985), research has shown that “teachers frequently call on volunteers, and these volunteers constitute a select group of students” (Sadker and Sadker 1985 cited in Walsh and Sattes 2005, p.13). In one study of fourth through eighth graders, “target students talked more than three times as often as their classmates; 25 per cent of the students never participated at all” (ibid). Lesson observation findings extracts in chapter six show that children were encouraged by the teachers to raise their hands and participate in lessons. These findings show that teachers can develop pupils’ confidence to participate in lessons and other class activities. If teachers did this, it would be a positive step in increasing children’s self-concept, self-awareness and consequently sustained participation in lessons and potentially improved learning.

Development of self-esteem depends on pupils’ successes and failures which bolster or undermine feelings of self-esteem precisely because they affect a child’s expectations of being accepted or rejected by others (Baldwin and Sinclair, 1996, pp1130-1141). Teachers and children in this study recognized that positive feedback for answers given in class contributes to children’s self-worth. For the children, the teacher is an important person from whom they take appreciation very seriously. “Behaviour that brings about satisfying effect (reinforcement) is apt to be performed again” (Morris and Maisto, 2001, cited in Asiae university, Chapter 4, p.89). Behaviour reinforcement strategies are therefore necessary for the development and

sustainability of children's life skills development, especially, self-esteem. The findings discussed here indicate that teachers, parents and all those who work with children need to have competencies in reinforcement. In the remainder of this section the use of debate and role play to facilitate children's life skill development will be discussed.

Participation in debate can enable children to develop critical thinking and confidence as they give their views. This eventually enables them to become aware of their potential to speak and develop arguments as they give their personal views. Debate is an argumentative perspective on communication which involves the study of reason giving by pupils as justification for acts, beliefs, attitudes, and values (McBath, 1984 cited in Parcher, 1998, p.1). Teachers said that during debate, they have a duty to encourage pupils to say whatever they may be thinking about on the topic, even without good English language mastery and use. This makes the pupils more confident. Teachers further added that pupils' involvement in debate systematically develops and consolidates their self-expression skills, critical thinking skills and creative thinking skills. Consequently, teachers said, children become confident and have effective communication, self-awareness and self-esteem. Research findings on "debate has demonstrated its effectiveness in promoting critical thinking and oral speaking skills" (Vargo, 2012, p.6). Parcher observes that "the empirical evidence demonstrating a connection between participation in debate and learning the skills of critical thinking is quite extensive" (Parcher, 1998, p.2). In a recent review of research on the subject, Colbert and Biggers noted that "50 years of research correlates debate training with critical thinking skills" (Colbert and Biggers, 1985 Cited in Parcher, ibid). It is therefore pertinent that teachers asserted, using their experiences on the use of debate, that debate consolidates communication, self-expression skills, critical thinking skills and creative thinking skills.

Role plays facilitate development of different life skills among the pupils. Teachers said that when the pupils act on the stage in front of other pupils in the class they develop confidence. They have to convey specific messages as they act and this has an impact on children's critical thinking because the children have to critically think about what they are going to say and how they are going to say as they act. This also helps to develop creative thinking because they have to figure out the messages they

want to portray as they act. Role play was also seen to enhance effective communication because the pupils had to convey specific verbal messages to the audience. The roles they enacted also benefitted children. A teacher gave an example of pupils acting the role of the doctor and nurse. He said, in the process of acting such a scene, children developed feelings of caring and empathy towards the sick. This is because role-playing teaching is a holistic teaching method that inculcates the process of critical thinking, instigates emotions and moral values, and informs about factual data (Bhattacharjee and Ghosh, 2013, p.2). Bhattacharjee and Ghosh go on to explain that the use of role-play in teaching increases the efficacy of the learning experience and makes it more grounded in reality. Role play facilitates the development of life skills including communication, problem-solving, self-awareness, and working cooperatively in teams (Jarvis, Odell and Troiano, 2002). Poorman (2002) found "a significant increase among students in feeling another's distress as their own" (pg. 34, cited in Jarvis, et al 2002) when they engaged in role play. For example, Steindorf (2010) explains that students who role-play the part of enslaved African Americans in a class on a pre-Civil War history lesson, develop greater empathy and come away with a better idea of the experience than they would if they were just taught in a typical lecture setting. These findings from the research literature show that the teachers were right to portray role play as a method that can enhance pupils' development of different life skills.

7.4.4: Integrated home and school Influences

The study established that parent school relationships were important for the development of children's life skills. Educationalists and sociologists agree with the premise that schooling divorced from what goes on in the world outside becomes irrelevant and meaningless (Elwyn, 2000 p.203). Recent cross-cultural research in the USA, China and Japan, carried out by Tobin, Wu and Davidson on the school as a socialising agent for the needs of society, showed that society often identifies the problems and the schools are asked to deal with them (Tobin, Wu and Davidson, 1989 in Elwyn 2000). For example, parents said they need their children to develop assertiveness, self-awareness and self-esteem. In this case, the parents felt and said that the teachers should use strategies like picking on children who do not put up their hands (non-volunteers) to enable development of their self-awareness, assertiveness

and self-esteem. Parents also felt that teachers should strengthen extra-curricular activities in the school and interclass and interschool competitions that can facilitate children's talent identification and development. To the parents, this will eventually develop learners' self-awareness of the talents they have and will also give them the opportunity to meet with other children from other schools and develop friendship.

Parents' attitudes to teachers' enforcement of discipline revealed an attitudinal dichotomy between groups of parents. Some parents wanted teachers to enforce life skills development and discipline of their children while others felt that respect for teachers in this area was detrimental. The parents in the former category were wary of the way other parents handled their children's relationships with teachers. While they felt that it was their cooperation with the teachers that would promote life skills development for their children they were critical of other parents who did not want their children to respect the teachers. Parents who were positive about cooperation with and involvement of the teachers felt that it was the teachers who knew what to do with children. This was very strong in Manafwa district where children are initiated into manhood through circumcision. Parents here said that the children were very difficult and it was the teachers who would manage them. One reason the parents gave was that children in this area thought that their parents, being illiterate, had no ability to guide them. One other constraint on parental nurture that was established in this study was the fact that parents did not have sufficient time with their children because children left home very early and returned very late. Consequently, parents felt that the teachers should help them. On the other hand, some parents felt that entrusting teachers with the life skills development of their children is detrimental because teachers undermine cultural values and practices.

Children learn about themselves (their self-esteem), about others, and how to have relationships from their families (Lichi, 2014). Lichi further observes that in the family children also learn important family values including level of spirituality, attitudes toward money, attitudes toward personal health, communication style, conformity or nonconformity to what are considered normal behaviours in society, competition vs. cooperation between family members, level of honesty, and approach to education (Lichi, 2004). In this study parents recognized that teachers and parents should give the same messages to the children although some teachers felt that this

was not always the case. For example, children get confused when their teachers tell them to share things like pencils and they are then reprimanded or punished by their parents because of wasting their parents' money. The dilemma of whether to share or not was further compounded in urban schools attended by children of diverse socioeconomic status, when children brought food from home. I was in one of the schools and during mid-morning break, the children ate these foods in the classroom in the presence of others who did not have anything to eat at all or had lesser quality foods, e.g. cakes compared to a piece of cassava. In such situations, the teachers were worried about how they could develop the value of sharing among these children, when their parents might not want them to share. There were, however, parents, as testified by children, who were helping their children to share by buying for them things like pencils in excess to enable them to share with others.

Parents also share responsibility on how well behaved their children are. For example, sharing with peers and appreciating each other is an ingredient of friendship needed by peers because peers have a key role in the process of each other's socialisation (Elwyn, 2000). Teachers observed that it is unfortunate that some children come from the homes where the value of appreciation is lacking. When they come to school they replicate that behaviour and they do not appreciate when they are given things by their friends. Teachers were concerned about this type of behaviour. The children, during interviews, talked about several instances of sharing food with those who may not have had anything to eat. If such children are given and they do not appreciate, others may not share with them again. In the process, they may fail to get friends because, as the children noted, friends share and appreciate the help they get from each other.

7.4.5: Broader cultural influences on children's life skills development

As noted earlier, culture has a lot of influence on children's life skills development. The World Health Organisation observed that:

> Cultural and social factors will determine the exact nature of life skills. For example, eye contact may be encouraged in boys for effective communication, but not for girls in some societies, so gender issues will arise in identifying the nature of life skills for psychosocial competence. The exact content of life skills education must therefore be determined at the country level, or in a more local context.
>
> (WHO, 1997, P.3)

Ugandan communities in some areas in this study appeared to still heavily influence by culture and tradition. “Cultural context may be about many things such as preferred language usage, unique ways of thinking and problem-solving, and the sanctity of certain cultural values and the holding of well-established attitudes” (Elwyn, 2000 p.23). This study shows that these aspects of cultural context negatively impacted on the development of children’s life skills in some Ugandan cultures. In areas like those of Manafwa district, teachers said that as a cultural issue, boys had to be handled with care and respect because according to culture they were men. Teachers were even aware that parents wanted them (teachers) to treat the boys likewise. In support of this, parents felt that anything to the contrary could cause these boys to drop out. This is contrary to article 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child which states

> “…the education of the child shall be directed to the development of the child’s personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential, …the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of the sexes, and friendship among all peoples …”.
>
> (WHO, 1997, p.13)

In this context, teachers felt that the practice of treating boys with respect as men is detrimental to the development of the girls’ self-esteem and assertiveness. In this case, the girls have to be culturally submissive to elders and any man which makes them inferior to boys. Teachers said that the boys have a level of freedom to talk accepted by culture. The culture also accepts boys to be oriented as men even before they reach school going age. They therefore seem to develop knowing that they are above reproach. In the same vein, teachers observed that the boys are nurtured as people who have to endure all forms of pain and frustration. Now when these boys are initiated into manhood through circumcision, the situation is further compounded because the initiation involves making the boys receive instruments of power as men which traditionally transit them into adulthood regardless of their age. The circumcised boy is initiated with a spear, panga, and is sat on the elders’ stool as now a full grown elder. Teachers are aware that after this initiation, boys behave like kings at home. They have the prerogative to sit at table with their father as fellow men and elders in the making. The research findings also clearly showed that the initiation promotes sexual immorality as initiation counselling and guidance by the circumciser

includes counsel for the initiate to quickly look for a wife, get a home and give rise to more children, especially boys. For such children, their self-awareness and esteem is interpreted in terms of 'I am a man'. Consequently, the boy sees himself above any discipline measures of family and school regulations.

When I visited some of the homes of children in this study, I established that these boys, even some as early as primary four, had their own small huts where they lived independent of the parents. While research suggests that parents and children in individualistic societies such as the U.S. and Australia have earlier expectations of autonomy than collectivist societies in Asia, Africa and Latin America (Chen and Farruggia, 2002; Triandis, 1993; Nelson and Fuvish, 2004, cited in Basu-Zharku, 2011) this is not the case in the Manafwa district where boys have an earlier expectation of autonomy than might be expected on the basis of their age.

Teachers and head teachers said there were other cultural factors that make it very difficult to nurture children's development of life skills. They said that some children are respected as heirs even at primary school age, others are privileged because of the circumstances of their birth, e.g., their parents were childless for many years before this child was born. Such children, they said, become untouchable and are very difficult to nurture in the desired direction because they are protected by the parents. Religious conflicts also impacted on life skills development. Religious values are good in the nurturing of children's life skills but school classes are multi-denominational. Teachers said that some children do not tolerate the views of other denominations and this makes socialization and development of life skills like friendship and empathy difficult.

7.4.6: Children's laws and rights influences

The situation of the children and their vulnerability has promoted international interventions to ensure that every child is protected and secure. These interventions include the "Convention on the Rights of the Child which is the first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights—civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights of the child" (UNICEF, 2013). In this study,

some parents were concerned that enforcement of children's rights interfered with the proper nurture and development of their children. Parents said that enforcing the rights of the children contradicts traditional values of nurturing children. Parents felt that rights education has negatively impacted on children's respect for both teachers and parents. The parents called the rights of children a 'law' and were against this law. To the parents, the rights make the children more vocal than the parents and teachers. Children therefore faced a dilemma because of the contradiction between how the children's rights orientation of life skills education suggests they behave and their parents' expectation that children conform to the traditional practices of obedience and loyalty. This difficulty comes from a clash between the culture of the home and the culture of the school that integrates the implementation of children's rights. However, one parent felt the parents themselves are, in some cases, to blame because they do not want the teachers to talk about their children. The parent advised that the best way forward is to cooperate with the teachers for the proper nurture of the children. This will, according to this parent, make the children have the right life skills. It seems the parents have not been educated on the children's obligations that go with the rights. Parents find it hard to see how laws for the protection of children can be reconciled with parental rights. That is why different countries have outlined children's responsibilities or duties and obligations that go with their (children's) rights. For example, in Vietnam, some of the duties and obligations of children that go with the rights include, 'To love, respect and be dutiful to grandparents and parents, to respect teachers, to be polite to adults, to love minors and unite with their friends, and to help the elderly, disabled people and people with difficulties, according to their capabilities' (Chapter 3 –Child Rights and Duties, (n.d.) p.61). However, "the laws of Uganda, Ghana, Burundi, Chad and Senegal do not specifically mention the duties of the child, although they explicitly spell out the duties of parents" (The African Child Policy Forum, 2009, p.7) Nonetheless, the responsibilities of the child are listed in the Ugandan life skills Primary Teachers' Training Manual. The list includes: to work for the cohesion of the family, respect parents, elders and other children and assist them; to use his or her abilities for the benefit of the community; to preserve and strengthen cultural values in his or her relations with other members of the society, in the spirit of tolerance, dialogue, consultation and to contribute to the moral well-being of the society; and to preserve and strengthen the independence, national unity and the

integrity of his or her country (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997 p.21). These responsibilities are:

> In line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child which talks of the responsibility of parents and guardians for ensuring that their children are brought up in accordance with acceptable cultural norms. Thus children's rights do not mean the freedom to do whatever they want without parental guidance or correction. What is needed is to find the correct balance between adult guidance and children's growing autonomy.
>
> (Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 1997, p.21)

Parents and teachers in this study appeared to be unaware of how to nurture their children in the context of rights and responsibilities. Other than the one teacher from each primary school, no other stakeholder was trained. There was therefore total lack of sensitization on the part of the parents about anything to do with the life skills education programme.

7.4.7: Media influences on pupils life skills development

Alongside these rights and laws in modern Uganda, there is the influence of the media. "Media effects must be considered in light of media content" (Kirkorian, Wartella, and Anderson, 2008, p.40). This was evident in research that established that "children who viewed the violent cartoons on TV showed decreases in measures of self-regulation, whereas those who viewed the prosocial programmes showed higher levels of task persistence, rule obedience, and tolerance of delay" (Kirkorian, Wartella, and Anderson, 2008, P.45). There is a clear indication that media can facilitate development of certain life skills when properly managed and can deter life skills development when mismanaged. The influence of the media on the psychosocial development of children is considered profound (Paediatrics and Child Health, 2003). The parents and teachers in the current study were very critical of the media influence because they looked at media as a deterrent to their children's proper nurture and therefore life skills development. Generally media includes newspapers, magazines, comic books, radio, video games, movies, and television (Gonzalez-Mena, 2010). Parents identified the internet, music, films and local dailies as having negative influences on the moral behaviour and life skills development of their children because, according to the parents these media send immoral messages to children.

Parents were concerned that pornographic images popped up when children are surfing the internet. Parents said that this happens even when a very young child is surfing. The parents' concern is pertinent because research done in the USA established that "the Internet and cellular phones have become important new sources of sexual information, pornography, "sexting" (sending sexual text messages and/or explicit images), and social networking" (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2010). In a recent study, nearly one-quarter of MySpace profiles referenced sexual behaviors (Moreno, Parks, Zimmerman Brito and Christakis, 2009, cited in American Academy of Pediatrics, 2010). American Pediatrics quotes another study where 20% of teenagers reported having sent or posted nude pictures or videos of themselves (National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy, Sex and technology. in American Academy of Pediatrics, 2010). Alongside this pornography, "paedophiles also use the internet to lure young people into early relationships" (Paediatrics and Child Health, 2003).

Internet threat is not yet very rampant in the Ugandan rural schools where access to the internet is still very minimal. However, parents from all areas were wary of the Ugandan local dailies like Bukedde (local language daily) and Red Pepper. They said these are a challenge to children's life skills development because there is a lot of pornography in them. Parents were worried because children have access to these dailies which are scattered everywhere in the country.

Problems were also identified with the music industry in Uganda. In the literature, "music videos may have a significant behavioural impact by desensitizing children to violence and making them more likely to approve of premarital sex" (Paediatrics and Child Health, 2003). According to Paediatrics and Child Health, "it is notable that music lyrics have become increasingly explicit, particularly with references to sex, drugs and violence" (ibid). In this context, parents observed that every song the musicians compose has sexual content. They were therefore concerned that their children had even got into the habit of singing these songs which parents consider carried immoral messages. To the parents, this could lead to children's approval of premarital sex.

Parents were also concerned about TV. Their specific concern was that television affects both the cognitive and social development. Children start watching TV at a very young age (Elkind, 2007 and Wright et al., 2001 in Gonzalez-Mena 2010). Parents were concerned that children were so obsessed with the TV programmes to the extent that they knew the days when certain programmes were being broadcast and hurried home for specific films. Parents also observed that for some of the programmes, there is an indication and announcement of Parental Guidance (PG) is required before the programme. However, parents expressed the difficulty for the parents to be there every time to give the guidance required. According to the American Academy of Pediatrics (2010), research confirms that children's exposure to images of smoking entice them to smoke (Millett and Glantz, 2010, Sargent, Beach and Adachi-Mejia et al 2005, in American Academy of Pediatrics 2010). In the same vein, alcohol advertisements encourage children who are exposed to them to begin drinking (Henriksen, Feighery, Schleicher, Fortmann, 2008; Wellman, Sugarman, DiFranza, and Winickoff 2006; in American Academy of Pediatrics 2010). In Uganda, parents who have TVs were aware that every TV programme is punctuated by a series of such advertisements for these products. Some children said their parents make their chance to watch TV contingent on when the child has finished family chores assignments. They said, for example, "As long as we have finished the work my mother gives us, we are allowed to watch the TV". The problem is that this television viewing is not censored. This means children can watch any programme, uncensored once they finish the family chores.

7.5: Association between methods and indicators of life skills

A number of life skills were identified for development in the Ugandan life skills programme. This study gathered information on the development of 10 of these life skills namely, assertiveness, friendship formation, empathy, self-awareness, self-esteem, negotiation, decision-making, critical thinking, creative thinking and problem-solving. Chi square tests were used to examine the association between the methods used to develop life skills and the indicators of those life skills observed in the classroom. In this method the observed association between methods and indicators is compared with that one would expect by chance. Of note here is that

teachers generally reported a high incidence of the indicators of life skills. Consequently, statistically significant relationships between methods and indicators were frequently not evident. Where they were evident, the source of the statistical significance was sometimes in an association between not using the method and observing the indicator or in the fact that the use of the method and the observance of the indicator were not related. In this section, I will focus on those incidences where methods and indicators appeared to be related. In some cases percentages of the cross tabulations will be indicated where it is deemed necessary.

7.5.1: Assertiveness

Teachers encouraged assertiveness by giving pupils a chance to answer questions, participate in group work, participate in communication activities, debate, and participate in open class discussions. Teachers further witnessed five indicators of assertiveness that were pupils giving their own points of view, communicating effectively, having creative and critical thinking skills, listening to one another and developing problem-solving skills. In this case, most teachers (75% and over) indicated that they used communication activities, debate and open class discussions to facilitate pupils' development of assertiveness. The study revealed that about half of the teachers who had given a chance to pupils to answer questions witnessed the indicator pupils giving their own points of view. This relationship was not statistically significant.

The chi-square results also showed that giving pupils a chance to participate in communication activities was very closely associated with the indicator communication although this relationship was not statistically significant. Teachers said that when pupils participate in communication activities like answering questions, group discussions, class discussions, and brain storming sessions, they improve their communication skills and consequently, communication ability. Communication ability, and sensitivity to what and how we communicate to others are the means by which assertiveness is realised (SkillsYouNeed.com, 2011). As children interact with each other in different situations, the development of assertiveness is facilitated.

7.5.2: Friendship

On friendship, the teachers identified the chance to participate in groups, sharing, and teacher showing friendship, as the methods they used to facilitate the development of friendship among the pupils. These methods had the highest frequency of teachers of over 80%. There was a very strong association between each of these methods and the indicators of friendship sharing things and materials and good relations among pupils in and out of the class because all the teachers who used these methods witnessed these indicators.

When children work in groups, they share basic needs, develop affection for each other, solve problems for each other, develop leadership skills, and consequently strengthen their relationships or friendship. The chi square results showed that there was a close association between children working in groups as a method of facilitating development of friendship and the indicators children solving problems for others and leadership skills.

As children also clearly said, the activity of sharing is both an activity (method) of facilitating the development of friendship and an indicator of friendship. According to the chi square results, the method sharing instructional materials and other things was significantly associated with the indicator of children having affection for each other. Children gave testimonies of playing together and the different instances of affection they had for each other during this play time. These instances included separating those fighting, taking those who had been hurt to the teacher, and apologising to each other and forgiving each other when one was hurt or wronged by another. These testimonies support the close association between playing with others and the indicator affection.

7.5.3: Empathy

The indicators of empathy witnessed by the teachers were sharing, care, affection, sympathy, cooperation, making friends and responsibility. These indicators are similar

or the same as the indicators for friendship. Teachers indicated that to facilitate the development of empathy they used the methods storytelling, role plays, group work, children caring for others, children playing in the field and being selected to take others home. The indicators of empathy that teachers had witnessed and which emanated from these activities were sharing, care, affection, sympathy, cooperation, making friends and responsibility. The relationship between each of the methods mentioned in this section and each of the indicators 'share' and 'care' was very strong. In each case, 100% of the teachers who had used each method witnessed each of the indicators 'share' and 'care'. In the case of empathy, there were teachers who had not used any of these methods mentioned here. However, 100% of these teachers also witnessed the indicator 'share' and over 90% of the teachers also witnessed the indicator 'care'.

Children's potential for caring and sharing was evident in children's interviews. Children at school do not have meals provided by the school and depend on what parents pack for them or some money they give them to buy what to eat. However, according to the children, having enough to eat when at school is not regular for every child. When at school, children also have other problems like sickness or accidents and may need to be taken home or to the health centre by colleagues. Children reported that other children shared food with them and accompanied them home or to the health centre when they were ill.

Role plays were also closely associated with the indicator 'sympathy' although the relationship was not statistically significant. In this case, 66.7% of the teachers used the method role plays of people who are in situations that require empathy and 87.5% of the teachers who used the method witnessed the indicator sympathy. There were also teachers who did not use the method role plays of people who are in situations that require empathy and 50% of these teachers witnessed the indicator sympathy. Literature supports the close association between role play and sympathy. It is the nature of the message in a role play that "increases the efficacy of the learning experience and makes it more grounded in reality" (Battacharjee and Ghosh, 2013, p.2). This is because, it seems human beings have an inborn tendency or interest in the fortunes of other people and would naturally sympathise with others in situations that require sympathy.

With pupils' development of empathy, children 'playing in the field' were significantly associated with pupils' development of 'responsibility' which is an indicator of empathy. Children in Ugandan primary schools manage their own play time and in the process of their play, they take full responsibility of conflicts that arise, put themselves in the shoes of those who are fighting and separate them, and sometimes counsel them to forgive each other knowing conflicts can make them end their friendship.

These findings show that (even if the relationship in some cases were not significant) strategies such as storytelling, role play, allowing children to play in the field or compound during break and lunch time and children being selected to take others home or to the health centre who are sick or have other problems, enable children to show affection, sympathy, responsibility and cooperation. These are all indicators of empathy.

7.5.4: Self-awareness

The methods the teachers indicated they used to facilitate the development of self-awareness were a chance to answer questions, positive feedback, individual tasks, guidance and counselling, thanking and giving rewards, and making a follow up. The indicators of self-awareness witnessed by teachers were, putting up hands, volunteering to perform tasks on the chalkboard, acknowledging confidently that one can perform, accepting responsibility, contributing in class, self-management, talking about oneself and ability to give his/her views. When teachers gave pupils a chance to answer their questions, pupils were encouraged to put up hands, volunteered to do tasks on the chalk board, acknowledged with confidence that they could do certain activities, accepted responsibility and contributed freely while in group discussions. During observation of the lessons, I found out that this was facilitated by the positive feedback teachers gave their pupils when they gave correct answers. This was also supported by the pupils themselves who said that when the teacher praised them for giving a correct answer, they were encouraged to continue participating in the lesson. This finding was also reflected in the results of the cross tabulations of the methods used to facilitate the development of self-awareness and the indicators of self-

awareness. There was a strong association between giving the pupils an opportunity to answer questions and the indicator acknowledging with confidence that they (pupils) could perform certain activities. In this case, children now seemed to have self-awareness and could appreciate their own strength in performing those certain tasks (IMAU, 2003, p.5). Giving children a chance to answer questions was significantly associated with pupils contributing while in group discussion. This was also evident during observation of the lessons in primary two and primary five where in some lessons group work was used. There was evidence that children freely contributed while in the group discussions.

Positive feedback was significantly associated with pupils putting up hands when a teacher asked them a question or requested them to do anything else in the class. Positive feedback was also closely associated with pupils volunteering to do tasks on the chalkboard. In this case, 50% of the teachers who had used the method positive feedback witnessed the pupils volunteering to perform tasks on the chalkboard and 100% of the teachers who had not used the method also witnessed the indicator volunteering to perform tasks on the chalkboard. This seems to show that the pupils volunteered regardless of the method used. While in classes observing lessons, I witnessed that a teacher could ask a question and then a pupil would put up a hand and be chosen to answer orally. However, in some cases the teacher required the child to solve a problem or write the answer on the chalkboard. Writing the answer on the chalkboard was more frequent in primary five than in primary two. It was also evident that as the teacher gave positive feedback in the form of 'very good', 'give her/him flowers' 'clap for him/her', pupils were encouraged to put up their hands and also perform tasks on the chalk board. Generally, positive feedback in teaching is a process in which an initial change will bring about an additional change in the same direction (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). This is because the power of feedback is influenced by the direction of the feedback relative to performance on a task (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). Hattle and Timperley further observe that "feedback is more effective when it provides information on correct rather than incorrect responses and when it builds on changes from previous trials" (ibid, p.85). Both pupils and teachers in this study indicated that the emphasis in teacher positive feedback was on correct

answers. This was also evident during observation of the primary two and five lessons.

Another method teachers used to facilitate development of pupils' self-awareness was guidance and counselling. Less than 25% of the teachers indicted they used guidance and counselling in facilitating development of pupils' self-awareness. There were teachers who did not use guidance and counselling and of these, 71.4% witnessed the indicator volunteering to perform tasks on the chalkboard. This tendency was significant. Teachers were observed to use guidance and counselling during the lessons. For example, as described in some of the lesson observation extracts in chapter six, there were teachers who identified two categories of children; those who were not putting up hands at all and those who were putting up hands as they withdrew them. The way the teachers handled these children and enabled them to participate in the lessons was intended "to bring about the desired changes in the individual for self-realisation (Chapter 2, p. 43). Guidance and counselling is intended "to provide assistance to solve problems through an intimate personal relationship" (ibid). As it was observed, the whole process helped pupils to develop knowledge of his/her potential (self-realisation) in an intimate personal relationship with the teacher.

7.5.5: Self-esteem

A number of teachers indicated they used different methods to facilitate development of self-esteem. Eighty seven per cent of the teachers indicated they used question and answer to facilitate development of self-esteem. On the other hand, 71% of the teachers indicated they used positive feedback to also facilitate development of self-esteem among the pupils. Normally, in the process of teaching and learning, when teachers ask questions, and pupils give responses to the questions, the teacher gives feedback. As reflected in chapter 6, during the observation of the 24 lessons in primary two and primary five, there was a sustained practice of asking questions and giving feedback. "Researchers have also noted that feedback improves student self-efficacy and motivation" (Butler and Nisan, 1986; Butler, 1987; Elawar and Corno, 1985, cited in Souter 2009, p.13), especially when it is teacher reinforcement (Hattie, 1991 Cited in Burnett, 2001 p.1). Hattie (1991):

> Reviewed 134 meta-analytic studies that evaluated the impact of various educational practices and ... found that teacher feedback was the most important variable in terms of enhancing achievement and noted that the simplest prescription for improving education must be dollops of feedback and praise. Hattie reported the effect sizes of 1.13 for teacher reinforcement (praise), 0.65 for feedback and mediation and 0.50 for mastery learning based on feedback.
>
> (cited in Burnett, 2001, p.1)

Since "self-esteem is the way an individual child feels about him/herself and how s/he believes others feel about him/her" (IMAU, 2003), teacher feedback in form of praise can go a long way into facilitating children's development of self-esteem. Children and teachers testified that when a teacher gives pupils praise, acknowledging their successful performance, the pupils increase their self-esteem. Pupils themselves said that when they were praised, they walked like bosses.

Further analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses was done using cross tabulations and the chi-square. The findings in this analysis showed that over 85% of the teachers used the method question and answer to facilitate development of self-esteem. Over 70% of the teachers who used question and answer witnessed the indicators contributing while in groups, volunteering to perform tasks on the chalk board and responsibility. This seemed to show that there was a strong association between giving chance to children to answer questions and these indicators. Positive feedback was also strongly associated with both of the indicators volunteering to perform tasks on the chalk board and contributing while in groups. Nonetheless, when chi-square tests were conducted, none of the methods teachers used to facilitate the development of self-esteem was statistically significantly associated with any indicator of self-esteem.

7.5.6: Negotiation

The methods that teachers indicated they used to facilitate the development of negotiation included group work. The use of group work was strongly associated with the indicators taking turns, play and settling fights. However this was not statistically significant. Generally, we know from experience that group work makes pupils feel connected, engaged, included and feel more satisfied with their learning (Barbara, 1999). In addition, group work provides pupils with more "real world" experience,

which is of value because the children will indeed be spending much of their lives working with people in their respective societies in groups (ibid).

In the lessons which were observed and where group work was used, the pupils were able to organise themselves and took turns during the group discussions so that some pupils do not dominate others. Taking turns was more evident in the physical education lesson where during the two activities of practicing a chest pass and rope skipping, the children organised themselves into groups for both activities. There were not enough ropes for each pupil to practice independent rope skipping so the teacher organised the children into groups for this activity. The struggle for the few ropes could have led to conflict. However, this was solved because children practiced in turns and by the end of the lesson every pupil had had a chance to practice rope skipping. As for the chest pass practice, the pupils were in three groups as reflected in chapter 6. The pupils negotiated in such a way that in each group, a pupil went in the middle and threw the ball to the colleagues in the circle beginning at one point until everyone had had a chance. These were real world experiences because in the world of scarcity (not enough ropes, balls, or instructional materials) children work in groups and use negotiation skills to effectively utilize what is available. This goes beyond the school to their play time in the school compound and homes. Literature on negotiation supports these findings because negotiation is "a process where two [or more] parties with differences which they need to resolve are trying to reach an agreement through exploring for options and exchanging offers" (Fells, 2010, cited in Clenny, 2013 p. 16).

Another method teachers used was enabling children to organise their colleagues for an activity which was used by 66.7% of the teachers. Of these 75% witnessed the indicator taking turns. This reflects a strong association between the method and the indicator. This was evident in the class during observation of lessons when children in groups had to organise discussions where they each had to contribute their ideas in turns.

7.5.7: Decision-making

Cross tabulations between methods teachers used to facilitate development of decision-making and the indicators of these methods showed that group work was closely related with helping pupils to find solutions to their problems but this was not statistically significant. It has been suggested that group work allows students to learn from each other and to benefit from activities that require them to articulate their knowledge (Al-Badi in Al-Sheedi, n.d., p.141). It provides an opportunity for students to refine their understanding through discussion with peers (ibid). This was evident during observation of lessons when children were able to work in groups and assist each other as they generated solutions to tasks for discussion that helped each member in the group to understand. This was, however, more evident in the field when children were playing in groups. Their description how they played in the field and resolved their differences provided instances of solving problems.

7.5.8: Critical thinking

Chi square tests and results for the association between the methods and indicators of the methods used to facilitate the development of critical thinking show that there was no significant association between any methods used to facilitate the development of critical thinking and its indicators, although the cross-tabulations indicated some relationships.

In relation to the methods used to facilitate the development of critical thinking, the method ‘brain storming’, was strongly associated with the indicators pupils giving their point of view when discussing and developing arguments, and presenting them systematically. In the cross tabulations, all the teachers (100%) used the method brain storming and of these 66.7% teachers witnessed the indicator pupils giving their own points of view while 75% witnessed the indicator developing arguments, and presenting them systematically. There were a number of sessions in the lessons observed where brainstorming was used although the actual recorded times in the lesson plans were three. The literature on brainstorming shows that it helps children to give their own point of view. Richards (1990) “found that student interaction was an important part of developing the cognitive skills involved in generating ideas, and

found brainstorming was an effective way of achieving this" (cited in Bradley, 2010 p.2). Explaining the results, Bradley (n.d.) notes that "results from this study showed that students who were trained in brainstorming techniques were more efficient at generating and organising ideas than students in a control group" (ibid).

Another method teachers said they used to facilitate development of critical thinking is debate. This method was strongly related to pupils giving their point of view and generating and supporting an argument. This is because 75% of the teachers used debate to facilitate the development critical thinking and 66.7% of these teachers witnessed the indicator pupils giving their own point of view. Debate was not used as a method in any of the lessons observed. However, in the questionnaire, teachers indicated they used this method to facilitate development of critical thinking. Literature reflects a strong association between debate and the two indicators, pupils giving their point of view and generating and supporting an argument, which were witnessed by the teachers. Debate offers an opportunity for students to move beyond the acquisition of basic knowledge in a subject matter and progress into the types of higher order critical thinking skills that good debate requires (Kennedy in Vargo 2012). That is why Shurter asserts that perhaps no study equals debate in the acquirement of the power of logical thinking combined with clear expression (Shurter in Vargo, 2012). A teacher said that in his primary five classes, he sometimes organizes debates on some content issues. These debates help his pupils to develop confidence, express themselves, communicate effectively, think critically and sometimes express themselves creatively.

7.5.9: Creative thinking

The method of exposing children to identifying and discussing conflict situations was used to facilitate the development of creative thinking. The method was significantly associated with the indicator of pupils identifying and solving problems. In this case, 54.2% of the teachers used the method and of these 76.9% witnessed the indicator. Children, in many ways testified how they sometimes entered conflict situations when working together or playing together. Their testimonies showed that they were equipped with knowledge of conflict resolution which they used to understand the

conflict situations and solve the problems. In the literature, conflict resolution is described as intending "to facilitate constructive resolution of interpersonal conflicts" (Garrard and Lipsey, 2007, p.10). In support of this, Jones (2004) observes that "conflict resolution programs have educated children about constructive approaches to managing conflict in their schools and communities" (Jones, 2004, p.233). This is because conflict resolution education "provides critical life skills necessary for building caring communities and establishing constructive relationships" (Jones and Compton, 2003 cited in Jones, 2004, p.233). Teachers indicating they used discussion of conflict situations and witnessed children identifying and solving problems is pertinent in this context. Discussing conflict situations to generate solutions appeared to require creative thinking.

7.5.10: Problem-solving

In the literature, problem-solving as a life skill involves information gathering; goal setting; needs identification; planning and organizing; risk assessment; children analysing the influence of their own values and the values of those around them; evaluating future consequences of their present actions and those of others; and determining alternative solutions to their problems (Maclang-Vicencio, Evelina, 2010). It involves decision-making because problem-solving and decision-making are closely linked and each requires creativity in identifying and developing options (Chapman, 2009). In the study, there are a number of instances when children had to opt for what they felt had better consequences. For example, children were hurt by colleagues, but instead of fighting back, the children opted to take their offenders to the teacher, or forgave them, or even in some instances ignored the offence to sustain play. Some children naturally create problems. For example, a teacher said that there are children who are anti-social and do not accept to sit on the five seater desks with friends. The head teacher gave an example of a pupil who could come and sit on the desk and spread his legs to prevent others from sitting on the same desk.

Case studies of problem situations are one of the methods teachers used to facilitate pupils' development of problem-solving skills. When chi square results were analysed, case studies of problem situations were significantly associated with the

indicator pupils answering questions. Much as there was a significant relationship here, the teachers seem to have taken problems literally to mean classroom tasks in relation to answering or solving them. The method discussing problem situations in children's lives was significantly associated with the indicator of children presenting alternative solutions to problems. It seems here that when children are provided with the opportunity to discuss problem situations, they get insights into how to solve them. The value of such activity is supported by the literature which suggests that "generating alternative solutions and evaluating and selecting an alternative solution are major steps in the process of problem-solving" (Beecroft et al, 2003).

7.6: Life skills education challenges in primary schools

7.6.1: Introduction

The implementation of life skills education in primary schools in Uganda has encountered a number of challenges that seem to frustrate its smooth influence on the pupils. The study established that inadequate or no training of teachers as role models and large class numbers were the major challenges associated with the implementation of the life skills programme.

7.6.2: Training

There was inadequate or no training for the stake holders. Teachers, head teachers and CCTs said that the major classroom player who is the teacher was taken for an orientation training to make him or her competent enough to champion the development of children's life skills in primary schools. However, they were critical of the initial training which seems to have been incomplete and to have left gaps in the competencies of some of the teachers' life skills knowledge and facilitation skills. The CCTs, head teachers and teachers were very critical of the orientation workshops in terms of appropriate duration and time allocation to the different topics. The CCTs also said there was a problem in ensuring the same quality of trainers to each workshop. The CCTs, teachers and head teachers stated that in some cases the workshops lasted as little as two days and there were very many topics to be covered

so that life skills was not given sufficient time for learning and practicing. In the literature on innovations, it is clear that, “in order to achieve full-scale change, schools need to ensure that strong professional development programs are in place and that teachers have a variety of opportunities for learning and growth”(CEO Forum, 2000; Price et al., 2002; Royer, 2002; Staples et al., 2005 all cited in CITEd Research Center). This is because “teachers must have frequent opportunities for in-depth and active learning that is authentic and useful in their daily practice” (CITEd Research Center). The provision of these kinds of opportunities would have enabled the teachers to have mastery of life skills education approaches and subject matter. According to recent research, “teacher content knowledge does influence classroom instruction” (Fenneme and Franke 1992, cited in Bennie and Newstead, 1999).

The problem of lack of training for some teachers was also compounded by the transfer of life skills trained teachers. This left some schools with no trained teacher. Since one teacher was trained, when s/he went away then no one else in the school could take over. To complicate it further, the head teachers and deputy head teachers were also not included in the training and they wondered how they could supervise something in which they had not been trained. At the Center for Implementing Technology in Education (CITEd), it was observed that innovations require informed leadership. It was extremely difficult for the head teachers in this study to act as informed leaders.

7.6.3: Modelling of life skills

Head teachers were critical of some teachers’ acting as life skills role models for pupils. They said some teachers did not live the life skills. They were not friendly, but were bullies in the class, befriending and even defiling the young girls and stories appear in papers, etc. Teachers are seen as role models in society (Nash, 2011) in relation to good character, fairness, honesty and conforming to professional ethics and codes of conduct. In research to develop developmentally appropriate models of child rearing in Thailand it was established that “as the adult community begun to feel more comfortable with themselves, they were better able to instil in their children the same sense of worth, pride and self-esteem. The children then became more confident,

receptive and comfortable at school, thus enabling their intellectual and social emotional skills to be further developed" (Tisana, Wong and Videhayasirinun, 1995, p.12). A teacher teaches best when he lives what he teaches because children will emulate as it is in Thailand. Teachers conduct in this regard is especially important for the teaching of life skills.

7.6.4: Large classes

Large classes in Uganda frustrate life skills' development among the pupils. The literature on life skills education states that "life skills education is an approach to teaching generic life skills through participatory learning methods like games, debates, role-plays, and group discussion" (Srikala and Kishore, 2010, p.347). Srikala and Kishore explain that these participatory learning methods provide experiential learning that provides learners with a wide range of alternative and creative ways of solving problems in a non-threatening setting. Repeated practicing of these skills leads to a certain mastery and application of such skills to real life situation and gain control over the situation (ibid). The findings of the study show that large classes in Uganda frustrate smooth use of participatory methods. For example, in the 24 classes observed being taught, 16 classes had over 60 pupils per class. There were even two classes with 111 pupils (a primary two class) and 135 pupils (a primary five class). In such classes there was very minimal individual pupil attention which is very essential in participatory teaching for life skills development. Forming small groups in a class of 135 pupils with only one teacher would restrict the reasonable number of groups to thirteen with at least ten pupils in each group. The primary two lesson's duration is 30 minutes while the primary five ones are of 40 minutes. There are problems here of availing time for individual learner attention and hands on experiences. This conclusion is supported by Buczkiewicz and Carnegie (2008) who observe that "Life skills education requires a participatory, active learning approach, which presents a challenge to Ugandan schools with their huge classes and didactic styles." (Buczkiewicz and Carnegie, 2008).

7.7: Limitations of the study

This study sought to investigate the multidimensional phenomenon of life skills education. As with all research, the study had certain limitations. Although it has been developing over a number of years, life skills education seemed to be a new phenomenon for most stakeholders and was consequently susceptible to many interpretations. For the parents, life skills seemed to be just what they knew as the nurture of their children in their literal or cultural sense. Life skills education orientation had also not been extended to the parents. Some parents had known about life skills as teachers or workers in government or by seeing how their children behaved. It was therefore difficult to relate parents' informal life skills education knowledge to the life skills education in the primary schools.

Life skills education also seemed to be related to the social skills that people were familiar with and were practicing. It was therefore difficult to draw a boundary between what the children, parents and teachers knew as the everyday social skills and what they knew and were practicing because of the life skills education in the primary schools. For example, according to the cross tabulations, there were teachers who witnessed certain indicators of life skills even when they had not used the methods for facilitating development of children's life skills.

Qualitative research must occur in a natural setting (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982; Marshal and Rossman, 1995) and yet the presence of the researcher necessarily changes the setting. While every effort was made to put children, parents and teachers at their ease, the respondents may have been reserved in sharing their ideas with the researcher. A further limitation was that, owing to time and financial constraints, only primary two and five pupils were used in each of the 12 primary schools when each primary school had seven classes. A larger sample would have strengthened the study's results.

The infusion approach to life skills education made it difficult to discern the impact of specific life skills methods. During observation of the lessons, teachers had lesson plans in which they had indicated the life skills to be developed during the teaching learning process. Teachers used a variety of methods when teaching their lessons.

Children also actively participated in the different learning activities. However, there seemed to be no guarantee that the activities were targeted to the development of the pupils' life skills development. They could just as well have been the normal teaching routine activities of the teachers.

7.8: Conclusion

This study set out to explore how life skills education in Uganda is being implemented. This exploration was guided by the following specific research questions:

- What are the teachers', education officials' and parents' perceptions of, competencies in and attitudes toward life skills education in primary schools?
- Do pupils have knowledge and awareness of the life skills listed in the primary school curriculum?
- Is there any evidence that pupils' demonstrate the life skills listed in the primary school curriculum?
- What methods are teachers using to develop life skills?
- Are the indicators of the life skills in the primary school curriculum being observed by teachers?
- Are the teachers who use the teaching methods listed in the primary school curriculum more likely to observe indicators of the life skills listed in the curriculum than teachers who do not use those methods?
- What are the challenges for providing life skills education in primary schools?

The conclusions that can be drawn in relation to these questions is discussed next.

Generally, teachers' and parents' perceptions of life skills seemed to be at best mixed. They were largely supportive of life skills education, although in some cases, they placed more emphasis on vocational and academic life skills than on psychosocial life skills. Some parents were concerned that the psychosocial life skills promoted in the curriculum eroded their cultural values, particularly when children were encouraged to be assertive. Such parents tended to emphasise children's obedience. Parents' competencies in handling their children's life skills' development appeared to be influenced by their culture, social economic status and elitism. Generally, the findings

of the study revealed that the parents mainly used two parenting styles, namely, authoritative and authoritarian. Authoritative parents appeared to be more comfortable with the life skills approach. Parents' understanding of life skills education was hampered by the fact that they had no orientation to the life skills programme. Surprisingly, the same was true of head teachers and district education officials who were expected to supervise the implementation of the life skills curriculum even though they received no formal orientation to it.

Pupils did not have specific concepts or definitions of what life skills are because they had no direct life skills instruction. However, the pupils did have experiences which suggested that life skills education had influenced their day to day conduct. This was reflected in their personal testimonies and parents' and teachers' accounts. Pupils did seem to have knowledge and awareness of the life skills listed in the primary school curriculum. While children's self-narrated experiences and teachers' and parents' testimonies of what they had observed and witnessed suggested that they were influenced by life skills education, there seemed to be no clear cut evidence or confirmation that this knowledge was as a result of the life skills education programme in the primary school. This was because even the teachers who did not use certain methods to facilitate development of pupils' life skills witnessed certain life skills indicators.

Teachers' life skill competencies seemed to be reflected in how well they planned and taught their lessons, role modelled life skills and consequently the life skills' indicators they witnessed. Teachers confused life skills and life skills indicators in their lesson planning, suggesting that they did not have a clear concept of the life skills to be developed. There was evidence that teachers are using participatory methods to facilitate pupils' development of life skills. The findings seemed to confirm that active learning in which there was use of participatory methods was still the most effective in facilitating development of children's life skills.

Samples of life skills indicators of the life skills in the primary school curriculum are listed in the curriculum documents. Teachers reported witnessing these indicators regardless of whether they used the methods aimed at facilitating the development of different life skills or not. Consequently, the study could not authoritatively conclude

that the teachers who used the teaching methods listed in the primary school curriculum were more likely to observe indicators of the life skills listed in the curriculum than teachers who do not use those methods. Interview data suggested other ways in which life skills may have been developed, e.g., through informal strategies like the encouragement of sharing, but further investigation of how life skills are being developed is required.

In the final analysis the study established a number of challenges that seemed to frustrate the implementation of the life skills programme in primary schools in Uganda. These challenges were practical and included large classes, culture and personality of the teacher. Of all these large classes seemed to be more felt by the teachers and other stakeholders who knew it inhibits the frequency of teacher pupil support which is paramount in the participatory life skills approach.

CHAPTER 8: RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1: Introduction

The findings of this study, discussed in chapter seven, generated important insights into life skills education in Uganda. Recommendations emanating from the study are presented in this chapter. These recommendations relate to life skills in the primary school curriculum in Uganda and overall national education policy. There are recommendations that relate to children, parents, teachers and education officials. It is important that the stake holders in primary education comprehend the interacting influences on the development of children. In the process of the discussion in this chapter, implications of the study for future research will also be discussed. Finally, a conclusion will be presented.

8.2: Recommendations

In Uganda each child in the primary school is struggling to be and become what s/he wants to be now and tomorrow in a challenging environment that requires children to have considerable life skills in order to survive and prosper. The child's development is the result of reciprocal interactions between the child and his/her ecological context (Bronfenbrenner, 1970). Family, teachers and peers are all part of this context. At home, the parents or guardians nurture children's development through their parenting styles, within the context of their culture and socio-economic status. The parenting styles were found to be, in most cases, either authoritative or authoritarian. At school, teachers and peers provide both the psychological and physical environment. Peer influence extends into the play arena in the school compound, on the way home and at home. The nurture of the child is embedded in the spectrum of the broader cultural context which includes customs, laws and media. Meanwhile the child has to make sense of his/her world and is active in his/her own capacities. The child has to reconcile his/her sense-making with relationships with others and in the process make informed, functional, constructive and feasible decisions. The stakeholders, who include the teachers and parents, need to intervene as role models and facilitators in order to create a positive and conducive child nurturing environment.

This study endeavoured to investigate the many layers of influence on children's life skill development by eliciting the views of children, their parents, teachers and the education officials who help to shape the child's educational environment.

8.2.1: The child

The study recommends the following:
The child's life skill development can be enhanced by making the primary school classroom conducive to learning those skills. Life skills education approaches have been, in the literature of this study and findings, referred to as participatory. This means facilitation of children's life skills development requires supportive environments that provide children with the opportunities to use all their senses and effectively interact with different instructional materials in order to learn. The classroom should therefore be an arena for the children to interact in active participatory learning situations conducive to learning and therefore life skills development. Participatory learning situations seem to provide divergent opportunities for children's learning and life skills development since they give children an opportunity to successfully and actively learn what they are able to learn in order to develop confidence, self-awareness and self-esteem.

Parents and teachers should encourage children to think positively about themselves, their abilities, friends, work, tasks in the class, peers, health, etc. This requires that teachers and parents focus on children's positive situations and undertakings. Children need supportive disciplinary environments. There should be positive reinforcement of positive behaviour and intelligent, caring, restraint of any emergence of behaviour that inhibits children's development of life skills at home and in school. Reinforcement should be based on participation rather than success.

The teacher should create divergent opportunities for learner participation in different activities at school that involve working together cooperatively. This should be extended to the home where parents can create situations that allow children to develop and practice life skills. Participatory learning situations facilitate and consolidate children's life skills development.

Peer relationships should be guided and intelligently monitored to prevent gangs from derailing youngsters in society. Constructive and enriching activities should be given to the children to enable development of desired and beneficial social competencies. Different avenues of children's friendship formation should be established to initiate, develop and ensure children are friendly as they socialise in different settings of the society. Friendship enables children to develop emotionally and morally (Ferrer and Fugate, 2013). In this case, children can communicate, cooperate and solve problems (ibid).

An infused life skills education programme presupposes children developing the life skills as they participate in different learning activities. Children cannot therefore say this is self-awareness, self-esteem, etc. Children's responses seemed to reflect that they (children) can cherish and jealously guard what they can identify and name. Life skills education should include enabling children to know which skills they are developing so that they can know and name the life skills and consequently establish whether they actually have the skills or not.

8.2.2: Teachers

The study recommends the following:
Teaching which enhances learning requires mastery of what is taught. Life skills education requires teachers to differentiate a life skill, a value and an indicator of a life skill. There is a need for teachers' refresher courses on life skills education as this will assist the teachers in developing the appropriate knowledge, attitudes and competencies in handling children's life skills development.

Training of teachers should integrate effective life skills' pedagogical content (life skills and how to teach them) to improve teachers' life skills teaching capacity. This should include identification, selection and use of appropriate methods in the instructional process that can enhance life skills development in children. Children develop and acquire life skills in an enabling learning atmosphere. This requires teachers' use of appropriate means of content delivery that should include effective communication and delivery of what children learn.

Life skills are lived not talked. The essence of teachers acting as role models is paramount in children's life skills development. Training and sensitisation of teachers in this area during initial training and refresher courses should take centre stage.

8.2.3: Parents

The study recommends the following:
In Uganda every local council deals with education matters under the leadership of the secretary for education. Primary schools have Parents Teachers' Associations that bring teachers and parents together to discuss the educational issues of their children. Life skills should be a topical issue in these two avenues to enable parents to become educated about life skills education and their role in championing their children's life skills development.

Every parent on this globe professes a culture. Culture as a way of life can be influenced through the way people think and modify their behaviour and ways of living. Parents as elders in communities, ethnic groups and societies should integrate and adapt life skills education as a culture to improve the nurture of their children and the living styles of the people in their societies. When life skills are integrated in culture, they can be adapted and tailored positively to the dictates and norms of the society in question.

8.2.4: Head teachers and other education managers

The study recommends the following:
Management is best done by working with and through people for the attainment of organisational goals. This presupposes or implies a competent manager being knowledgeable and utilising this knowledge in working with his subordinates as s/he supervises them, guides them and facilitates their work. The manager can do this when s/he has confidence and commitment. Education managers need to be integrated in the life skills education training and refresher courses to enable them be informed managers of the life skills education programme.

8.2.5: Children's rights and laws

The study recommends the following:
The rights and laws for the protection of children were not developed as a deterrent to the proper nurture of children. Instead, they were put in place to regulate behaviour that might threaten children's development and to ensure that children can be nurtured in a protected and safe environment. Sensitizing stake holders on the responsibilities and obligations of children that go with these rights and laws can go a long way towards balancing life skills development for children and addressing the perceived incompatibility between life skills education and some traditional values.

8.2.6: Media

The study recommends the following:
Media is a means of communication that reaches or influences people widely. Media is a fact of life in a changing contemporary world. In the sensitization seminars of parents, they should be educated on how to handle media issues for their children. Uganda should adopt a national policy on the regulation of children's media. A module on media in life skills could benefit the children and parents.

8.2.7: Teacher pupil ratio

The study recommends the following:
Enrolment of children in primary schools should consider realistic teacher pupil ratios. Life skills education cannot thrive in large classes where participation of the learners in different activities is limited. Life skills education requires manageable numbers in each class that will enable functional interaction processes.

8.3: Implications for future research

The current study was a first step in the evaluation of life skills education in Uganda at this level of intensity and analysis. As noted in Chapter 7, there were some methodological limitations to the study, given its scope and exploratory nature. The

study was necessarily limited to a primary two and primary five classes across each of the twelve schools that participated. While the study did sample schools across Uganda, a larger sample would have been preferable. A strength of the study was the inclusion of all stakeholders and the observation of lessons. With more time and resources a more extensive set of observations could have been conducted. Since the study broke new ground, the research instruments were constructed from scratch. While the observation guide worked well, the questionnaire did not yield clear results. There is a need therefore for the development of a more refined research instrument to measure the implementation of life skills.

Further evaluation and development of this area of education requires a programme of research. This programme should involve:

- A larger scale study which will include a larger number of primary school classes in the districts and schools used for this study.
- Given the range of life skills included in life skills education, it would be helpful to conduct comprehensive studies of each category of life skill. This would involve a study of life skills for knowing and living with oneself, a study of life skills for knowing and living with others and a study of life skills for decision-making.
- A study on cultural influences on children's life skills development needs to be conducted, particularly as there are potential incompatibilities between some of the life skills promoted by life skills education and the culture of parents.
- A study on media influences on children's life skills development is a necessity as the development and impact of media is constantly changing.
- A longitudinal study to measure the progressive development of pupils' life skills from primary one to primary seven may help to reveal the needs of children's life skills development at each class level.
- A study of how the three nursery (pre-school) years facilitate pupils' life skills development and prepare children for school life in the primary school.
- Given the wealth of insight that was gained in this study through the use of interviews and focus groups, any future research in this area should avail of qualitative as well as quantitative techniques.

8.4: Conclusion

Children's life skills cannot be documented by one study. Psychosocial skills are for ones' wellness in the context of his or her world. That seems to be the reason why children in different settings are predisposed to behave in a manner commensurate with the influences in their context. It is therefore the individual child who experiences, lives, or undergoes the life in his or her world who understands his or her world better. In this study, children, parents, teachers and CCTS described how children have been predisposed to behave in certain ways because of exposure to different life skills' facilitating situations. The study therefore provides important information for all stakeholders on the effective development of life skills education. In the final analysis, it is the children themselves who are the most valuable respondents and their experiences which are most important. The children live in a context determined by adults and their eventual influence determines what type of children, adolescents and adults Uganda will have. It is in this context that nurturing children's life skills development is a priceless venture for parents, teachers, educational officials and any other stake holders in the nurture of children. These stake holders should therefore undertake, cherish, support and sustain children's life skills' development.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ABC Curriculum Resources (2014) *General Concepts and Design Principles* [online], available: http://gototheexchange.ca/index.php/curriculum-overview/curriculum-models-and-design-principles [accessed 11/06/2014].

Abdelsalam, J. H. and Alhayek, S. K. (2012) 'Improving some life, movement, and performance skills for sixth grade students, the effect of using micro –games of volleyball in improving some life, movement, and performance skills for sixth grade students', *Journal of Educational and Psychological Sciences,* 13(4), 41-65.

Abidin, R. R. (1995) *Parenting stress index,* 3rd ed., Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Achenbach, T. M. (1991) Manual for the child behaviour checklist/4-18 and 1991 profile. Burlington, VT: University of Vermont, Department of Psychiatry.

Ackerman, B. J. (1997) *Effects of Divorce on Children, Traits of Resiliency and School Intervention,* Eric educational resources ED 412 465, CG 028 114.

Action Research Net (n.d.) *Chapter Four Life Skills,* [online], available: http://www.actionresearch.net/living/rawalpdf/Chapter4.pdf accessed 9/05/2014

Adam, N. J. (2001) *Self-disclosure in computer-mediated communication: The role of self-awareness and visual anonymity,* Institute of Educational Technology, the Open University, UK.

Adler, R. B., Rosenfeld, L. B. and Proctor, R. F. (2001) *Interplay the Process of Interpersonal Communication,* 8th ed., Fort worth, TX: Harcourt College.

Agbakwuru, C. and Ugwueze, S. (2012) 'Effect of assertiveness training on resilience among early-adolescents', European Scientific Journal, 8(10), 69-84.

Ainsworth, M.D.S., Bell, S.M., and Stayton, D.J. (1972) 'Individual differences in the development of some attachment behaviors', *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly,* 18, 123-143.

Aisae University (n.d.) *Learning Theories – Behaviourism,* [online], available: http://peoplelearn.homestead.com/BEduc/Chapter_4.pdf [accessed 07/02/2014].

Ajibola, M. A. (2008) *Innovations and Curriculum Development for Basic Education in Nigeria: Policy Priorities and Challenges of Practice and Implementation,* 8 Department of Primary Education studies Federal College of Education, Zaria, Nigeria.

Albert, M. (1980) *Silent Messages: Implicit Communication of Emotions and Attitudes,* 2nd ed., Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Alexander, R. D. (1987) *The Biology Of Moral Systems*, New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Ali. S. and Frederickson, N. (2010) *The Parenting Dimensions of British Pakistani and White Mothers of Primary School Children,* University College London, London, UK with the Merton Educational Psychology Service, UK and Buckinghamshire Educational Psychology Service, UK.

Alizadeh, S. A. T., Mansor, B. A. R. and Mansor, M. (2011) 'Relationship between parenting style and children's behavior problems', *Asian Social Science,* 7(12), 195-200.

All Things Conflict Resolution and ADR, (2012) *The Role of Emotions in Negotiation* [online], available: <http://www.all-things-conflict-resolution-and-adr.com/All-Things-Emotions-and-Negotiation.html" target="_blank">AllThingsEmotionsandNegotiation [accessed12/05/2013].

Allan, G. (1989) Friendship: Developing a Sociological perspective', in in Overton, S. S., (2006) The Forgotten Intervention: How to Design Environments that Foster Friendship, The International and Child and Youth Care Network, Cyc-OnLine

Allinsmith, W. and Greening, T. C. (1955) 'Guilt over anger as predicted from parental discipline: A study of superego development', *American Psychologist,* 10, 320.

Al-Sheedi, M. A. (n.d.) 'Teachers' Beliefs about Using Group Work in Basic Education', *Batinah North Region*, 14, 140-148.

Altinyelken, H. K. (2010) 'Pedagogical renewal in sub-Saharan Africa: the case of Uganda', Comparative Education, 46(2), 151-171.

Amarasinghe, U. (2014) Life Skill Development, Health Education Bureau, Ministry of Health – Sri Lanka.

American Academy of Pediatrics (2007) 'The importance of play in promoting healthy child development and maintaining strong parent-child bonds', *Official Journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics,* 119(1), 182-191.

American Academy of Pediatrics (2009) 'Media violence', *Official Journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics,* 124(5), 1495 -1503.

American Academy of Pediatrics (2010) 'Media education', *Official Journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics,* [online], available: http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/126/5/1012.full [accessed 06/08/2014.

American Institute for Research (AIR) (2014) Practical Guide to Designing Comprehensive Teacher Evaluation Systems: a tool to assist in the development of teacher evaluation systems.

Amirabadi, F. (2011) 'Investigating the relationships between parenting styles and the EI in children', *International Journal of Academic Research,* 3(3), 795-799.

Anderson-McNamee, J. K. and Bailey, S. J. (2010) *The Importance of Play in Early Childhood Development,* Montana State University, [online], available: http://msuextension.org/publications/HomeHealth andFamily/MT201003HR.pdf [accessed 09/06/2014].

Anfara, V. A. J. and Brown, K. M. (2001) *Qualitative Analysis on Stage: Making the Research Process More Public. ED* 454 243, TM 032 841, Eric Educational Resources.

Angelo, T. A. (1995) 'Beginning the dialogue: Thoughts on promoting critical thinking: Classroom assessment for critical thinking', *Teaching of psychology,* 22(1), 6-7.

Ansell, D., Morse, J., Nollan K. A., Hoskins, R. (2004) *Life Skills Guidebook,* Casey Family Programs.

Arcaro-McPhee, R., Doppler, E. E., Harkins, D. A. (2002) 'Conflict resolution in a preschool constructivist classroom: a case study in negotiation', *Journal of Research in Childhood Education,* 17, 19-25.

Aronson, J. (1994) *A Pragmatic View of Thematic Analysis* [online], available: http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/BackIssues/QR2-1/aronson.html [accessed 09/10/2010].

Asendorpf, J. B. and Pierre-Marie, B. (1993) 'Self-awareness and other awareness: mirror self-recognition and synchronic imitation among unfamiliar peers', *Developmental Psychology,* 29(1), 88-95.

Asher, S. R. and Williams, G. A.(1987) Helping children without friends in home and school, in Webster-Stratton,(1999), London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Ausall, D., Morse, J., Nollan, K. A., Hoskius, R., (2004) *Life Skills Guide Book,* Case family programmes.

Baginsky, B. (2004) *Peer mediation in the UK: a guide for schools, Daphne Project: ROI – Violence among children and young people: intervention programmes in schools,* [online], *How to promote Children's Social and Emotional Competence* available: http://www.nspcc.org.uk/inform/publications/downloads/peermediationintheuk_wdf48055.pdf [accessed 12/01/2014]

Bakhshi, P., Hoffmann, A, M., Ravens, J. V. (2004) *A life skills approach to quality education*, EFA Monitoring Team. UNESCO [online], available: http://cfs.unpv.it/ca2004/papers/bakshihoffmanravens.pdf [accessed 15/09/2012].

Bakhshi, P., Hoffmann, A. M. and Ravens, J. V. (n.d.) *Monitoring EFA from a Capabilities' perspective: A life skills approach to quality education* [online], available: http://cfs.unpv.it/ca2004/papers/bakshihoffmanravens.pdf [accessed 04/03/2014].

Baldwin, M. W. and Holmes, J. G. (1987) 'Salient private audiences and awareness of the self', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 1087–1098.

Baldwin, M. W. and Keelan, J. P. R. (1999) 'Interpersonal expectations as a function of self-esteem and sex', *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships,* 16(6), 822-833.

Baldwin, M. W. and Sinclair, L. (1996) 'Self-Esteem and " If . . . Then" contingencies of interpersonal acceptance', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 71(6), 1130-1141.

Barbara, B. K. (2004) Data Analysis Techniques in Qualitative Research, in Daria Twale (ed.), Journal of Research in Education, 14(1), 96 – 113.

Barbara, G. D. (1999) 'Cooperative Learning: Students Working in Small Groups', *Stanford University Newsletter on Teaching*, 10(2), 1-4.

Barbara, K. and Dafna, L. (2011) *Unite for Children*, UNICEF.

Barbara, S., (2009) 'Passive Data Collection, Observation and Recording', Esomar World Research Codes and Guidelines, [online], available: http://www.esomar.org/uploads/public/knowledge-and-standards/codes-and-guidelines/ESOMAR_Codes-and-Guidelines_Passive_Data_Collection-Observation-and-Recording.pdf [accessed 08/03/2014].

Barber, B. K. (1996) 'Parental psychological control: revisiting a neglected construct', *Child Development*, 67(6), 3296-3319.

Barber, D, and Hupp, S.C. (1993) 'A comparison of friendship patterns of individuals with developmental disabilities', *Education and Training in Mental Retardation,* 28(1), 13-22.

Barn, R. (2007) 'Race, ethnicity and parenting: Understanding the impact of context',

Barry, L. C. (1974) *Teaching Interpersonal Social Skills: A Prototype Manual of Activities 1974-1975*, Eric Educational Resources, ED 107 067.

Barry, M., Gabhainn, S. N., Kennedy, C., Galvin, M., O'Higgins, S. (2013) 'The Implementation Of SPHE At Post-Primary School Level: A Case Study Approach' Health Promotion Research Centre, Department Of Health Promotion, National University Of Ireland, Galway, National Development Plan.

Barry, R. A. (2010) *Teaching Effectiveness and Why it Matters,* [online], available: http://chalkboardproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/12/teacher-effectiveness-and-why-it-matters.pdf [accessed 04/02/2014].

Barthelme, S. (2009) 'Culture and perception', *International Cognition and Culture Institute,* Savage Minds.

Basu-Zharku, I. O. (2011) *Individualistic Cultures on Imagination Inflation in Eastern and Western Cultures* [online], available: http://www.studentpulse.com/articles/385/effects-of-collectivistic-and-individualistic-cultures-on-imagination-inflation-in-eastern-and-western-cultures [accessed 03/06/2014].

Batson, C. D. (2008) 'Empathy-Induced Altruistic', Draft of lecture/chapter for Inaugural Herzliya Symposium on "Prosocial Motives, Emotions, and Behavior," March 24-27, 2008.

Batson, C. D., Klein, T. R., Highberger, L., and Shaw, L. L. (1995) 'Immorality from empathy-induced altruism: when compassion and justice conflict', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 68, 1042-1054.

Baumeister, R. F., and Tice, T. M. (1990) 'Auxiety and social exclusion' *Journal of social and clinical Psychology,* 9, 165-195.

Baumrind, D. (1966). 'Effects of authoritative control on child behavior', *Child Development,* 37(4), 887–907.

Baumrind, D. (1967) 'Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior', *Genetic Psychology Monographs,* 75, 43–88.

Baumrind, D. (1971) 'Current patterns of parental authority' *Developmental Psychology Monographs,* 4(1).

Baumrind, D. (1978) 'Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children', *Youth and Society,* 9, 239-276.

Baumrind, D. (1980) New directions in socialization research, *Psychological Bulletin,* 35, 639-652.

Baumrind, D. (1991) 'The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use', *Journal of Early Adolescence,* 11(1), 56-95.

Baxter, S. (2007) Learning Through Senses, [online], available: http://aplaceofourown.org/question_detail.php?id=511 [accessed 09/09/2013].

Beardslee, W. (1996) 'Puppet therapy with pediatric bone marrow transplant patients', *Journal of Pediatric Psychology,* 11, 37-46.

Beatie, R. S., Ellinger, A. D., Hamlin, R. G. (2005) *Utilizing Methodological Pluralism to Develop Theory: Analytical Triangulation,* Enhancing Understanding of Managerial Effectiveness in Supporting Learning.

Beheshteh, N., Azadeh, F. and Nushafarin, S. (2012) 'Effects of assertiveness training on test anxiety of girl students in first grade of guidance school', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 46 (2012) 1385 – 1389.

Behrman, A. (2005) 'How About That Whole Child?', *Independent School,* 65(1), 84-90.

Bell B. and Osborne, R. (1981) *Interviewing Children – A Checklist for the I.A.I. interviewer, Learning in Science Project,* Working Paper, Eric Educational Resources ED230594.

Bellafiore, D. R. (2011) 'Interpersonal Conflict and Effective Communication' , *DRB Alternatives, Inc.* (561) 685-3933 (9-5 ET)

Benner, P. (1985) 'Quality of life: A phenomenological perspective on explanation, prediction, and understanding in nursing science', *Advances in Nursing Science,* 8(1), 1-14. .

Bennett, M., (2011) 'Infant and Child Development', University of Dundee, Dundee, Scotland, UK.

Bennie, K. and Newstead, K. (1999) *Obstacles to implementing a new curriculum,* in M.J. Smit and A.S. Jordaan (Eds.) *Proceedings of the National Subject Didactics Symposium* (pp. 150-157). Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

Bergen, D. (2002) *The Role of Pretend Play in Children's Cognitive Development,* Miami University, 4(1), [online], available: http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/v4n1/bergen.html[accessed 20/02/2014].

Berkowitz, M. and Bier, M. (2005) *What works in Character Education: A Research Driven Guide for Educators,* Education Partnership.

Berkowitz, M. W. (1982) 'Self-control development and relation to prosocial behaviour: A response to Peterson', *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly,* 28, 223-236.

Berkowitz, M. W. and Grych, J. H. (2014) 'Fostering Goodness: Teaching Parents to Facilitate Children's Moral Development', Marquette University, Milwaukee [online], available: http://parenthood.library.wisc.edu/Berkowitz/Berkowitz.html [accessed 11/05/2014].

Berkowitz, M. W. Gibbs, J. C. (1983) 'Measuring the developmental features of moral discussion', *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly,* 29, 399-410.

Berkowitz, M. W., Giese, J. K., Begun, A. L., Mulry, G., and Zweben, A. (1995) 'Family dynamics and adolescent moral development', Paper presented at the 2nd International Conference on Moral Education, Reitaku, Japan.

Berkowitz, M.W. (1997). The complete moral person: Anatomy and formation. In J.M. DuBois (Ed.), *Moral issues in psychology: Personalist contributions to selected problems* (pp. 11-42). Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Berkowitz, S. (1996) Analyzing Qualitative Data, Chapter 4: What Is Qualitative Analysis? [online], available: http://www.nsf.gov/pubs/1997/nsf97153/chap_4.htm [ACCESSED 28/07/2014].

Bernard, S. (1987) 'Chinese Kindergarten Education and Its Reform', *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 281 652, PS 016 518.

Bernheimer, L. P. and Keogh, B. K. (1988) 'Stability of cognitive performance of children with developmental delays' *American Journal on Mental Retardation*, 92, 539−542.

Bharath, S. K., Kishore, K. V. (2008) 'Health promotion using life skills education approach for adolescents in schools: development of a model', *Journal of Indian Association for Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, 4, 15-11.

Bhattacharjee, S. and Ghosh, S. (2013) Usefulness of Role-Playing Teaching in Construction Education: A Systematic Review, ASC Annual International Conference Proceedings, Associated Schools of Construction.

Bierhoff, H. W. (2002) *Prosocial Behavior* East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Bierman, K. L., Miller, C. M. and Stabb, S. (1987) 'Improving the social behavior and peer acceptance of rejected boys: effects of social skill training with instructions and prohibitions', *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55,* 194-200.

Bigras, M., LaFreniere, P. J., and Dumas, J. E. (1996) 'Discriminant validity of the parent and child scales of the Parenting Stress Index', *Early Education and Development* 7, 167−178.

Bland, J. (2011) *What Are the Factors That Cause Conflict?* [online], available: http://www.ehow.com/info_8172587_factors-cause-conflict.html#ixzz1poR4CkIi [accessed07/12/2013].

Blasi, A., and Milton, K. (1991) 'The development of the sense of self in adolescence', *Journal of Personality,* 59, 217-242.

Blatner, A. (2009) *Role Playing In Education* [online], available: http://www.blatner.com/adam/pdntbk/rlplayedu.htm [accessed 31/05/2014].

Block, J. H. (1971) *Lives through time,* Berkeley, CA: Bancroft Books.

Bodgan, R. C. and Biklen, S. K. (1982) *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods,* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Boehlke, J. (2010) *How Self-Esteem Is Threatened In Children* [online], available: http://www.livestrong.com/article/176435-how-self-esteem-is-threatened-in-children/ [accessed23/09/2013]

Boeree, C. G., (2005) *Qualitative Methods,* [online], available: http://webspace.ship.edu/cgboer/genpsyqualmeth.html [accessed 05/05/2014].

Booth, C. L. (1999) 'Beliefs about social skills among mothers of pre-scholars with special needs', *Early Education and Development,* 10, 455−474.

Borba, M. (n.d.) *Friendship Matters: Helping Kids Make and Keep Friends* [online] available: http://micheleborba.com/blog/teaching-kids-friendship-making-skills/ [accessed 05/06/2014].

Borden, M. E. (1997) *What are Children Learning When They Play: The Parents' Guide To Preschool Education*, Facts on File, Inc. Play, Creativity, and Lifelong Learning

Bornstein, L. and Bornstein, M. H. (2007) *Parenting Styles and Child Social Development,* USA: University of Pennsylvania, USA and National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.

Bosworth, K. (1995) 'Caring for others and being cared for; Students talk caring in school' *Phi Delta Kappa* 76(9), 675-679.

Botvin, G. J, Griffin, K.W, and Nichols, T. D. (2006) 'Presenting youth violence and delinquency through a universal school based prevention approach', *Society for Prevention Research*, 7, 403-408.

Botvin, G. J., Griffin, K.W./ Paul, E., and Macaulay, A.P. (2003) 'Preventing tobacco and alcohol use among elementary school students through life skills training', *Journal of Child and Adolescents Substance Abuse*, 12, 1-18.

Bouton, C and Gath R.Y. eds.(1983) *Learning in Groups, New Directions for Teaching and Learning,* NO14 San Fransico: Jossey Bass.

Bowlby, J. (1969) *Attachment*, New York: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1988) *A secure base: Parent-child attachment and healthy human development,* New York: Basic Books.

Boyd, D., and Arnold, M. L. (2000) 'Teachers' beliefs, antiracism and moral education', *Journal of Moral Education*, 29(1), 23-45

Boyes, M. C., and Allen, S.G. (1993) 'Styles of parent-child interaction and moral reasoning in adolescence', *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly,* 39, 551-570.

Bradley, C. (2010) *The Role of Brainstorming in Improving Student Writing Performance in the EFL Classroom* [online], available: http://sydney.edu.au/cet/docs/research/The%20Role%20of%20Brainstorming%20in%20Improving%20Students%20Writing.pdf [accessed 02/01/2014].

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006) 'Using thematic analysis in psychology', *Qualitative Research in Psychology,* 3 (2), 77-101.

Brenda S. (2011) *What is Cognitive Empathy?* [online], available: http://www.ehow.com/info_8712318_cognitive-empathy.html [accessed 03/03/2012]

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1970) *The Ecology of Human Development,* Cambridge: Harvard University Press

Brooks, R. (1999a) *Empathy: Turning Feelings and Beliefs into Action,* Resilience, Motivation, and Family Relationships, [0nline], available: http://www.drrobertbrooks.com/writings/articles/1108.html [accessed18/03/2012].

Brooks, R. (1999b) *The Importance of Empathy: A Significant Feature of the Mindset of Successful People Part II* [online], available: http://www.drrobertbrooks.com/writings/articles/9903.html [accessed10/03/2012].

Brooks, R. (n.d.) *Resilience, Motivation,and Family Relationships Empathy: Turning Feelings and Beliefs into Action* [online], available: http://www.drrobertbrooks.com/writings/articles/1108.html [accessed 12/01/2014].

Brown, K. M. (2001) 'Qualitative Analysis on Stage: Making Research Process more Public', Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Seattle, WA, April 10-14).

Brummelman, E. and Bushman, B. (2014) Tags: Child Development, Children, Developmental Psychology, Motivation, Psychological Science, Self-Esteem [online], available: http://www.psychologicalscience.org/index.php/news/releases/when-being-called-incredibly-good-is-bad-for-children.html [accessed 17/06/2014].

Bruner, J. S. (1975) 'The ontogenesis of speech acts', *Journal of Child Language,* 2, 1-19.

Bryman, A. (2008) *Social Research Methods,* 3rd ed., Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Buczkiewicz, M. and Carnegie R. (2001). The Uganda Life skills Initiative, [online], available: athttp://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/mcb/142/2001/00000101/00000001/art00002 [accessed 6/8/2009].

Bukowski, W. M., Newcomb, A. F. and Hartup, W.W. (Eds.) (n.d.) *The company they keep: Friendship in childhood and adolescence,* New York: Cambridge.

Bulger, S. M., Mohr, D. J. and Walls R. T. (2002) 'Stack deck in favour of your students by using the four aces of effective teaching', *Journal of Effective Teaching,* 5(2) [online], available: http://uncw.edu/cte/et/articles/bulger/ [accessed 12/02/2012].

Burcham, Y. K. (2010) Assertiveness - a life skill, [online], available: http://www.examiner.com/article/assertiveness-a-life-skill [accessed 02/09/2013].

Burnett, P. C. (2001) 'Elementary students' preference for teacher praise: teacher feedback and praise', *Journal of classroom Interaction,* 36(1), 16-23.

Burns, R. B. (1982) *Self Concept Development and Education,* London: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston.

Burton, S. and Wright, P, M. (2008) 'Implementation and Outcomes of a Responsibility-Based Physical Activity Program Integrated Into an Intact High School Physical Education Class', University of Memphis.

Buthelezi, T., Mitchell, C., Moletsane, R., De Lange, N., Taylor, M., Stuart, J. (2007) 'Youth voices about sex and AIDS: implications for life skills education through the 'Learning Together' project in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa', *International Journal of Inclusive Education,* 11(4), 445-459.

Butterwick, S., and Amanda, B. (2006) 'The road to employability through personal development: a critical analysis of the silences and ambiguities of the British Columbia (Canada) Life Skills Curriculum', *International Journal of Lifelong Education,* 25(1), 75-86.

Buysse, V. (1993) 'Friendship of preschoolers with disabilities in community-based child care settings', *Journal of Youth International,* 17, 4.

Buysse, V., Goldman, B. D., and Skinner, M. L. (2002) 'Setting effects on friendship formation among young children with and without disabilities', *Exceptional Children,* 68, 503−517.

Caciopo, J. T., Petty, R. E. and Crites, S. L. Jr. (1994) 'Attitude change', *Encyclopedia of Human Behaviour,* 1: 261-270.

Calderhead, J., Miller.E. (1986) 'The Integration of Subject Matter Knowledge in Monograph Series Paper 1', *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 277 677.

Calkins, C. (2010) *Self-Esteem and Bad Behavior in Children* [online], available: http://www.livestrong.com/article/180096-self-esteem-bad-behavior-in-children/ [accessed17/03/2014].

Campbell, J. D. and Fehr, B. (1990) 'Self- esteem and perceptions of conveyed impression: is negative affectivity associated with realism?', *Journal of personality and social psychology,* 58 (1), 122- 133.

Campbell, S. B. and Ewing, L. J. (1990) 'Follow up of hard-to-manage pre-scholars: adjustment at age 9 and predictors of continuing symptoms', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry,* 31(6), 871-889.

Carolyn, E. (2011) 'Communicating Qualitative Research Study Designs to Research Ethics Review Boards', *The Qualitative Report* 16(3), 881-891.

Carter, R. (1998) 'Promoting Positive and Healthy Behaviors in children', Fourteenth Annual Rosalynn Carter Symposium on Mental Health Policy November 18 and 19, 1998, The Cater Center.

Cary, R. (1988) *A General Survey of Qualitative Research Methodology, Educational Leadership,* Eric Educational Resources Information centre.

Center for Implementing Technology in Education (CITED) (n.d) *Technology Implementation in Schools: Key Factors to Consider* [online], available: http://www.cited.org/index.aspx?page_id=187 [accessed 05/06/2014].

Center for Critical Thinking (1996) Structures for student self-assessment [online], available: http://www.criticalthinking.org/University/uniuclass/trc.nclk [accessed 20/06/2014].

Center for Prevention Research and Development (2009) Background Research: Youth Prevention Education (YPE) ATOD Curricula - Standards-Based. Champaign, IL: Center for Prevention Research and Development, Institute of Government and Public Affairs, University of Illinois.

Centre for Global for Global Development through Education (CGDE) (2011) The Thematic Curriculum Teacher Effectiveness in Implementing a New Curriculum in Ugandan Primary Schools, (Unpublished research report)

Centre for Teaching Excellence (n.d.) Group decision-making, University of Waterloo social media directory [online], available: https://uwaterloo.ca/centre-for-teaching-excellence/teaching-resources/teaching-tips/developing-assignments/group-work/group-decision-making [accessed 03/06/2014].

Chan, R. M. C., Lau, p. S. and Yuen, M. (2011) 'Interrelationships among teacher care, students' life skills development and academic achievement: implications for school guidance work', *Asian Journal of Counselling,* 18(1and2), 63-94.

Chana, S. M. Bowesb, J. and S. (2009) 'WyverbChinese parenting in Hong Kong: links among goals, beliefs and styles', *Early Child Development and Care,* 179(7), 849–862.

Changing Minds (2012) *What Is the Role of Teachers in Education? Demand Media, Inc.* [online], available: http://www.ehow.com/about_6509642_role-teachers-education_.html [accessed on 16/02/2012].

Chao, R. K. (1994) 'Beyond parental control and authoritarian parenting style: Understanding Chinese parenting through the cultural notion of training', *Child Development,* 65(4), 1111-1119.

Charlotte, R. (2010) Should I take my own Life [online], available: http://www.theguardian.com/society/2010/jan/16/charlotte-raven-should-i-take-my-own-life [accessed 04/06/2012].

Chaskin.R.J., and Rauner, D.M.(1995) 'Youth and caring: An introduction', Phi Delta Kappan, 76(9), 667-674.

Chen, C., and Farruggia, S. (2002). *Culture and adolescent development,* In W. J. Lonner, D. L. Dinnel, S. A. Hayes, and D. N. Sattler (Eds.), *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture* (Unit

Cherry, K. (2014) What Are Individualistic Cultures?, A Brief Definition [online], available: http://psychology.about.com/od/iindex/fl/What-Are-Individualistic-Cultures.htm [accessed 3/06/2014].

Chesney, M., Neilands, T., Chambers, D., Taylor, J. and Folkman, S., (2006) *British Journal of Health Psychology,* 11(3), 421-437.

Chesterfield, R. (n.d.) *Classroom observation Tools,* U.S. Agency of International Development Bureau for Economic Growth, Agriculture and Trade Office for Education, [online], available: www.ieq.org/pdf/ClassObsTool.pdf [Accessed 11/05/2014].

Chi-hung LEUNG and Eudora CHOI (2010) 'A Qualitative Study of Self-Esteem, Peer Affiliation, and Academic Outcome among Low Achieving Students in Hong Kong', *New Horizons in Education,* 58(1)

Child Action, Inc. (2007) The Importance of play, Activities for children [online], available: https://www.childaction.org/families/publications/docs/guidance/PlayItstheWayYoungChildrenLearn_Eng.pdf [accessed 06/03/2011].

Clark, M. L. and Ayers, M. (1988) 'The role of reciprocity and proximity in junior high school friendships', *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 17, 403-4111.

Clenney, E. F. (2013) *Negotiators at Work: Three Essays on Employee Negotiation Skill Development and Exhibition,* A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy In the Robinson College of Business of Georgia State University.

Cognitive Development (n.d.) Asia e University Chapter 2, [online], available: http://peoplelearn.homestead.com/BEduc/Chapter_2.pdf [accessed 05/06/2014].

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Marison, K. (2000) *Research Methods in Education,* 5th ed., London: Routledge Falmer.

Colby, A., and Damon, W. (1992) *Some do care: Contemporary lives of moral commitment*, New York: The Free Press.

Colby, A., and Kohberg, L. (1987) *The measurement of moral judgment,* Volume 1, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Collins English Dictionary (2009) Complete and Unabridged 10th Edition, William Collins Sons and Co. Ltd.

Commonwealth of Australia (2013) 'Friendship skills: Suggestions for school staff', *Kids Matter, Australian Primary Schools Mental Health Initiative,* Component 2.

Conflict Research Consortium, (1998) *General Information about Communication Problems,* International Online Training Program on Intractable Conflict, University of Colorado, USA.

Constas, M. A. (1992) 'Qualitative analysis as a public event: The documentation of category development procedures', *American Educational Research Journal,* 29(2), 253-266.

Cook, T. D., andReichardt, C. S. (Eds.) (1979) *Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research,* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cooper, J. L. (1995) 'Cooperation learning and critical thinking', *Teaching of psychology,* 22(1), 7-8.

Coopersmith, S. (1967) *The antecedents of self-esteem,* Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press.

Craig, C. (2007) *The potential dangers of a systematic, explicit approach to teaching social and emotional skills (SEAL)* [online], available, www.centreforconfidence.co.uk [accessed 23/04/2014].

Craig, R., (2001) *Creative Thinking Skills for Life and Education (teaching creativity),* [online], available: http://www.asa3.org/ASA/education/think/creative/htm [accessed 22/01/2010].

Cress, S. W. and Holm, D. T. (1998) Developing Empathy through Children's literature, Eric Educational Resources, ED 427 316.

Creswell, J. W. (1995). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches,* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crockenberg, S.B. (1981) 'Infant irritability, mother responsiveness, and social support influences on the security of infant-mother attachment', *Child Development,* 52, 857-865.

Croswell, J. (2010) *How to Improve Self-esteem in Children,* [online], available: http://www.livestrong.com/article/184294-how-to-improve-self-esteem-in-hildren/#ixzz1mrqANl2l [accessed 22/03/2014].

Cryer, L. (200) Learning Theories, Northern College [online], available: http://www.northern.ac.uk/NCMaterials/psychology/lifespan%20folder/Learningtheories.htm [accessed 12/07/2014].

Curry, L. A. Maniar, S. D. (2003) 'Academic course combining psychological skills training and life skills education for university students and student-athletes', *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology,* 15(3), 270-277.

Curry, N.E and Johnson, C.N. (1990) Beyond Self-esteem: Developing a genuine sense of value. In Porter L. (2003) Young Children's Behaviour: Practical approaches for Caregivers and Teachers, Australia: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Dadds, M. R., Hunter, K., Hawes, D.J., Frost, A. D. J., Vassallo. S., Bunn, P., Merz, S., and Masry, Y. A. (2008) 'A measure of Cognitive and Affective Empathy in Children Using Parent Ratings', *Children Psychiatry Hilm dan,* 39, 111-122.

Dadds, M. R., Schwartz, S., and Sanders, M. R. (1987) 'Marital discord and treatment outcome in behavioral treatment of child conduct disorders', *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,* 55, 396-403.

Daemi, F. and Janbozorgi, M. (2011) 'The effect of parenting style and early maladaptive schemas on children's self-esteem', *Behavioral Science,* 5(2), 165-172.

Daft, R. L. (1983) 'Learning the craft of organizational research', *Academy of Management Review,* 8, 539–546.

Damon, W. (1988) *The moral child: Nurturing children's natural moral growth,* New York: Free Press.

Dana, N. F., Dana, T. M., Kelsay, K. L., Thomas, D. and Tippens, D. J., (1992) 'Qualitative Interviewing and the Art of Questioning: Promises, Possibilities, Problems and Pitfalls', Paper presented at the Qualitative Research in Education Conference (Athens, GA, January 1992), Eric Educational Resources.

Darling, N. (2011) Parenting Style and Its Correlates, Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education.

Darling, N. and Steinberg, L. (1993) 'Parenting style as context: An integrative model', *Psychological Bulletin,* 113(3), 487-496.

Darnton, A. (2008) ‘Practical Guide: An Overview of Behaviour Change Models and

Davis-kean, P. E. (1999) *Parenting and Child Outcomes*, University of Michigan.

De Vaus, D. (2002) *Surveys in Social Research,* 5th ed., Australia: Allen and Unwin, London: Routledge.

Deffenbacher, J., Lynch, R., Oetting, E. and Kemper, C. (1995) ‘Anger reduction in early adolescents’, *Journal of Counselling Psychology,* 41(2), 149-159.

Demetriou, A., and Kazi, S. (2001) *Unity and modularity in the mind and the self: Studies on the relationships between self-awareness, personality, and intellectual development from childhood to adolescence,* London: Routledge

Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, London: Sage.

Department for Transport (2014) Enabling Behaviour Change – Information Park.

Department of Psychology, Emory University, 532 North Kilgo Circle, Atlanta, Ga 30322, USA

Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning (2010) *Why Use Groups in College Classes?* [online], available: http://teaching.berkeley.edu/using-groups-classes-encouraging-study-groups [accessed 22/02/2014].

Deshpande, R. (1983) "Paradigms Lost": On Theory and Method in Research in Marketing, Journal of Marketing, 47(4), 101 – 110.

Deverbog, E., and Pramling, I. (1993) *To Understand Children’s Thinking: Methods for Interviewing Children, Reports from Department of Methodology,* [online], available: http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED434726.pdf [accessed 06/03/2013].

Devine, D. (2003) *Children Power and Schooling. How childhood is structured in the primary school*, U.K and Sterling, USA: Trentham Books.

Dey, I. (1998) *Qualitative Data Analysis: A User-Friendly Guide for Social Scientists,* London: Routledge.

Dowidou, M, and Grusec, J.E. (2006) Untangling the links of parental responsiveness to distress and warmth in child outcomes, *Child Development,* 77(1), 44-58.

Doyle, A., Connolly, J., and Rivest, L. (1980). ‘The effect of playmate familiarity on the social interactions of young children’, *Child Development*, 51, 217−223 [online], available: http://www.mentoring.org/downloads/mentoring_435.pdf [accessed 17/06/2014].

Dyer, W. (n.d.) ‘Concepts of Self-awareness’, Baylor University’s Community Mentoring for Adolescent Development, pp191-203.

Early Childhood Counts (1999) Programming Resources for Early Childhood Care and Development, CD-ROM. The Consultative Group on ECCD. Washington D.C.: World Bank [online], available: http://www.ecdgroup.com/download/bc1pssci.pdf [accessed 20/08/2013].

Early, D. M. and Eccles, J. S. (1995) 'Understanding the Links between Socio-Economic Status and Parenting Behaviour in African and European American Samples', Poster presented at the biannual Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Eder, R. A. (1990) 'Uncovering young children's psychological selves: Individual and developmental differences', *Child Development,* 61, 849-863.

Education Standards Agency (ESA) (2004) Report on Monitoring Leaning Achievement in Lower Primary, Kampala: ESA.

EFA Global Monitoring Report (2005) *The Impact of Education Quality on Development Goals, The Importance of Good Quality: What Research tells us* (Chapter 2: PP40-78).

Egeland, B., and Sroufe, L.A. (1981) 'Attachment and early maltreatment', *Child Development,* 52: 44-52.

Eisenberg, N. (2000) 'Emotion, regulation, and moral development', *Annual Review of Psychology,* 51, 665-697.

Eisenberg, N., and Miller, P.A. (1987) 'The relation of empathy to prosocial and related behaviours', *Psychological Bulletin,* 94, 100-131.

Eisenberg, N., and Mussen, P. H. (1989) *The roots of prosocial behaviour in Children,* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Elias, M. J., and Friedlander, B. S (1994) 'The Social Decision-making and Life Skills Development Program: A Framework for promoting Students' Social Competence and life Skills Preventing Violence, Substance Abuse and Related Problem Behaviour', Paper presented at the "Safe Schools, Safe Students: A Collaborative Approach to Achieving Safe, Disciplined and Drug Free Schools Conducive to Learning" Conference (Washington, DC, October 28-29, 1994), Eric Educational Resources ED 383 967.

Elias, M. J., and Weissberg, R. P. (1994) *The school based promotion of social competence: Theory, practice and policy,* in Haggerty, R. J. and Sherrod L. R., (Eds, Stress, risk and resiliency in children and adolescents (PP. 268-316), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Elizabeth, M. J., Hunter, C., DeMaio, T., Hill, J., Reiser, C., Gerber, E., Styles, K. and Dillman, D. (2007) Guidelines for Designing Questionnaires for Administration in Different Modes, U.S. Census Bureau, Washington, DC 20233.

Elwyn, T. (2000) *Culture and Schooling: Building bridges Between Research, Praxis and Professionalism,* England: John Willy and Sons Ltd.

Engle, M. J., McElwain, L. N. and Lasky, N. (2011) 'Presence and quality of kindergarten children's friendships: concurrent and longitudinal associations with child adjustment in the early school years', *University of Illinois,* 10, 145-154.

Epstein, I., Stevens, B., McKeever, P. and Baruchel, S. (2006) 'Photo elicitation interview (cpi): using photos to elicit children's perspectives', *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 5(3), 1-11.

Eragamreddy, N. (2013) 'Teaching creative thinking skills', *International Journal of English Language and Translation Studies,* 1(2), 124-145.

Erickson RJ. (1985) 'Play contributes to the full emotional development of the child', *Education,* 1985;105 :261– 263.

ERNWACA (n.d.) *Excerpts from guides on qualitative research,* [online], available: http://www.ernwaca.org/panaf/RQ/en/discussion.php [accessed 25/04/2014].

Etzioni, A. (1993). *The spirit of community: Rights, responsibilities, and the Communitarian agenda,* New York: Crown.

Fabian. H. (1996) 'Photo talk: Interviewing Young Children', Paper presented at the European Early Childhood Education Research conference (6th Lisbon, Portugal September 1-4 1996), Eric Educational Resources ED413107.

Facione, N. C., and Facione, P. A. (2001) Analyzing explanations for seemingly irrational choices, 'International Journal of Applied Philosophy, 15(2), 267-8

Facione, P. A. (1990) *Critical Thinking: A Statement of Expert Consensus for Purposes of Educational Assessment and Instruction,* Executive Summary, 'The Delphi Report', The California Academic Press.

Facione, P. A. Sanchez, C. A., Facione N. C. and Gainen, J. (1995) 'The disposition toward critical thinking', *The journal of General Education,* 44(1), 1-25.

Fennema, E. and Franke, M. L. (1992) *Teachers' knowledge and its impact,* in Grouws, D. A. (Ed.). Handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning (pp. 147-164), New York, United States: MacMillan.

Ferrer, M. and Fugate, A. (2014) 'The Importance of Friendship for School-Age Children', *Youth and Community Sciences, UF/IFAS Estension, Gainesville.*

Ferrer, M., and Fugate, A. (2010) *The Importance of Friendship for School-Age Children*, University of Florida IFAS Extension, Publication FCS2207/FY545, [online], available: http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdffiles/FY/FY54500.pdf [accessed 17/02/2014]

Ferrer, M., and Fugate, A. (2013) 'The Importance of Friendship for School-Age Children1', Family Youth and Community Sciences [online], available: http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/fy545 [accessed 05/06/2014].

Field, H. (1996) 'A Holistic Approach to Conflict Resolution', A paper presented at the Association for Childhood Education International Conference, Minneapolis, Minnesota, April 12, 1996.

Fleming J. (2012) *Self-Awareness*, in: Stone, J. H. Blouin, M. editors. International Encyclopedia of Rehabilitation, [online], available: http://cirrie.buffalo.edu/encyclopedia/en/article/109/ [accessed 23/05/2014]

Forehand, R., and Kotchik, B.A. (1996) 'Cultural diversity: A wake-up call for parent training', *Behavior Therapy*, 27, 187-206.

Foundation for Critical Thinking (2009) Our Concept of Critical Thinking [online], available: http://www.criticalthinking.org/aboutCT/ourConceptCT.cfm [accessed 10/11/2010].

Fox, K. M., McNair, S. and Timmerman, L. (2012) The Relationships Between Socioeconomic Status, Parenting Styles, and Motivation Orientation [online], available: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.211.2936andrep=rep1andtype=pdf accessed 28/05/2014].

Fox, L. C. and Boulton, J. M. (2006) 'Friendship as a Moderator of the Relationship between Social Skills Problems and Peer Victimisation', *Keele University*, (32), 110-121.

Francis, M. (2010) *Life Skills*, [online], available: changingminds.org/articles/articles/Life%20Skill%20Education.doc [accessed 24/01/2014].

Franklin, B. (1995) *The case for children's rights: a progress report,* in B. Franklin (Ed.), *The Handbook Of Children's Rights: Comparative, policy and practice* (pp. 3-22). London: Routledge.

Freeman, S. F. and Kasari, C. (2002) 'Characteristics and qualities of the play dates of children with Down syndrome: Emerging or true friendships?' *American Journal on Mental Retardation*, 107, 16−31.

Frick-Horbury, D. and Neal, J. (2001) *The Effects of Parenting Styles and Childhood Attachment Patterns on Intimate Relationships* [online], available: http://www.thefreelibrary.com/The+Effects+of+Parenting+Styles+and+Childhood+Attachment+Patterns+on...-a079370572 [accessed 16/02/2014].

Fries-Gaither, J. (2008) *Questioning Techniques: Research-Based Strategies for Teachers* [online], available: http://beyondpenguins.ehe.osu.edu/issue/energy-and-the-polar-environment/questioning-techniques-research-based-strategies-for-teachers [accessed 30/05/2014].

Gachuhi, D. (1999) The Impact Of HIV/AIDS On Education Systems in The Eastern And Southern Africa Region And The Response Of Education Systems To HIV/AIDS: Life Skills Programmes.

Garbarino, J., Stott, F. M., and The Faculty of Erikson Institute (1992) *What Children Can Tell Us; Eliciting, Interpreting and Evaluating Critical Information from Children,* San Francisco: Jossey - Bass Publishers.

Gastil, J. (1997) *Common problems in small group decision-making,* Department of Communications, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, USA.

Gawaya, T (2008) *Over haul Our Education system*, Part 5, Saturday Monitor 2nd August P.7.

GCN – Government Communication Network (2009) Communications and behaviour change, [online], available: http://www.cncs.org.mz/index.php/por/content/download/1636/14742/file/commongood-behaviourchange.pdf [accessed 06/05/2014].

Geisthardt, C. L., Brotherson, M. J. and Cook, C. C. (2002) 'Friendships of children with disabilities in the home environment', *Education and Training in Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities*, 37, 235−252.

Georges Tiendrebéogo, G., Meijer, S. and Engleberg, G. (2003) Life Skills and HIV Education Curricula in Africa: Methods and Evaluations, SD Publication Series Office of Sustainable Development Bureau for Africa.

Ghaffar, A. (2010) 'Conflict in schools: its causes and management strategies', *Journal of Managerial Sciences* 3(2), 212 – 227.

Gibbs, J.C. (1987) Social processes in delinquency: The need to facilitate empathy as well as socio-moral reasoning, in W.M. Kurtines and J.L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Moral Development Through Social Interaction*, New York: John Wiley.

Giesen, J. (2011) Experiential Learning, Faculty Development and Instructional Design Center, Northern Illinois University [online], available: http://facdevblog.niu.edu/experiential-learning [12/07/2014].

Gillibrand, G., Lam, V. and O'Donnell V. L. (2011) *Developmental Psychology,* London: Prentice Hall.

Givaudan, M. Mexico, D. F., Fons, J. R. Van de Vijver, Poortinga Y. H. Iwin L. and Pick S. (2007) 'Effects of a school-based life skills and hiv-prevention programme for adolescents in Mexican high schools', *Journal of Applied Social Psychology,* 37(6), 1141–1162.

Glaser, B. and Strauss, A. L. (1967) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,* Chicago: Aldine.

Gleeson, K. and Hannah, F. (2004) 'Clothing and embodiment: men managing body image and appearance', *Centre for Appearance Research, Schools of Psychology,* 5(1), 40-48.

Glidden, L. M. (Ed.) (n.d.) International review of research in mental retardation (Vol. 25, pp. 135– 181), San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Goertz, J. P. and LeCompte, M. (1984) *Ethnography and Qualitative Research*, NY: Academic Press

Gonzalez-Mena, J. (2010) *The Media as an Influence on Socialization*, Pearson Allyn Bacon Prentice Hall, [online], available: http://www.education.com/reference/article/media-as-influence-socialization/ [accessed 04/03/2014].

Gordon, M. (2006) *Research on Roots of Empathy*, Why should society be interested in a program that focuses on children's social/emotional competence?

Gordon, T. (1991) *Teaching Children Self Discipline at Home and at School*, Sydney: Random House.

Goudas, M. and Giannoudis, G. (2008) 'Life skills through physical education', A team-sports-based life-skills program in a physical education context, *Learning and Instruction*, 18, 528-536.

Goudas, M. Dermitzaki, I., Aggeliki, L. and Danish, S. (2006) 'The effectiveness of teaching a life skills programme in physical education context', *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 21(4), 429 -438. .

Grayson, J. (2010) More assertive More Effective [online], available: http://www.therapyandcounselling.co.uk/assertiveness.htm [accessed 04/02/2012].

Greasley, P. (2008) *Quantitative Data Analysis Using SPSS, An Introduction for Health and Social Science,* USA: Open University Press.

Green, A. and Preston, J. (2001) 'Education and social cohesion: recentering the debate', *Peabody Journal of Education,* 76(3,4), 247-284.

Greenberg, J., Pyszczynski, T. and Solomon, S. (1986) *The causes and consequences of the need for self-esteem: A terror management theory,* in R. F. Baumeister (Ed.), *Public self and private self (*pp. 189-207). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Greist, D. L., Forehand, R., Rogers, T., Beiner, J., Furey, W., and Williams, C.A. (1983) ‘Effects of parent enhancement therapy on the treatment outcome and generalization of a parent training program’, *Behaviour Therapy,* 14, 37-53.

Griffin, K. W., Botvin, G. J., Nicholas, T.R., andand Doyle, N. (2003) ‘Effectiveness of a universal drug abuse prevention approach for youth at high risk for subsistence use initiation’, *Preventive Medicine,* 36, 1-7.

Grossman, D. C., Neckerman, H. J., Koepsell, T. D., Liu, P., Asher, K. N., Beland, K. Frey, K. and Rivara, F. P. (1997) ‘Effectiveness of a violent prevention curriculum among children in elementary school’, *Journal of American Medical Association,* 277, 1605-11.

Grych, J. H. and Fincham, F. D. (1990) ‘Marital conflict and children's adjustment: A cognitive-contextual framework’, *Psychological Bulletin,* 108, 267-290.

Grych, J. H., and Fincham, F. D. (1993) ‘Children's appraisals of marital conflict: Initial investigations of the cognitive-contextual framework’, *Child Development,* 64, 215-230.

Guerra, N. G., Graham, S. and Tolan, P. H. (2011) ‘Raising Healthy Children: Translating Child Development Research into Practice’, *Child Development,* 82(1), 7–16.

Guralnick, M. J. (1997) ‘The peer social networks of young boys with developmental delays’, *American Journal on Mental Retardation,* 101, 595−612.

Guralnick, M. J. (1999) ‘Family and child influences on the peer-related social competence of young children with developmental delays’, *Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities Research Reviews,* 5, 21−29.

Guralnick, M. J. and Groom, J. M. (1987a) ‘Dyadic peer interactions of mildly delayed and non-handicapped preschool children’, *American Journal of Mental Deficiency,* 92, 178−193.

Guralnick, M. J. and Groom, J. M. (1988) ‘Friendships of preschool children in mainstreamed playgroups’, *Developmental Psychology,* 24, 595−604.

Guralnick, M. J., and Groom, J. M. (1987b) ‘The peer relations of mildly delayed and non-handicapped pre-school children in mainstreamed play groups’, *Child Development,* 58, 1556−1572.

Guralnick, M. J. and Groom, J. M. (1990) ‘The relationship between parent-rated behaviour problems and peer relations in pre-school children’, *Early Education and Development,* 1, 266−278.

Guralnick, M. J., Connor, R. T., and Hammond, M. (1995) ‘Parent perspectives of peer relationships and friendships in integrated and specialized programs’, *American Journal on Mental Retardation,* 99, 457−476.

Guralnick, M. J., Connor, R. T., Neville, B. and Hammond, M. A. (2006) 'Promoting the peer-related social development of young children with mild developmental delays: Effectiveness of a comprehensive intervention', *American Journal on Mental Retardation,* 111, 336−356.

Guralnick, M. J., Gottman, J. M., Hammond, M. A. (1996) 'Effects of social setting on the friendship formation of young children differing in developmental status', *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology,* 17, 625−651.

Guralnick, M. J., Hammond, M., Connor, R., and Neville, B. (2006) 'Stability, change, and correlates of the peer relationships of young children with mild developmental delays', *Child Development,* 77, 312−324.

Guralnick, M. J., Neville, B., Connor, R. T. and Hammond, M. A. (2003) 'Family factors associated with the peer social competence of young mildly delayed children', *American Journal on Mental Retardation,* 108, 272−287.

Guralnick, M. J., Neville, B., Hammond, M. A. and Connor, R. T. (2007) 'The friendships of young children with developmental delays: A longitudinal analysis', *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology,* 28 (2007), 64–79.

Gwen Dewar (2014) *Empathy and the brain* [online], available: http://www.parentingscience.com/empathy-and-the-brain.html [accessed 24/05/2014].

Hall, A. B. P. (2010) *How Children Develop Social Competence* [online], available: http://www.education.com/reference/article/children-develop-social-competence/ [accessed 03/06/2014].

Hampton, M. (2010) *Play is a child's work,* http://www.tppmansfield.com/play.html [accessed 14/02/2012].

Hamre-Nietupski, S., Herdrickson, J., Nietpski, J. and Sasso, G. (1993) 'Perceptions of teachers of students with moderate, severe or profound disabilities on facilitating friendship with non-disabled peers', *Education and Training in Mental Retardation,* 28, 111-127.

Harabagiu, S. M., Maiorano, S. J. and Pasca, M. A. (2003) 'Open-domain textual question answering, technique', *Journal of Natural Language Engineering,* 9(3), 1-38, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Harter, S. (1997) *The Development Of Self-Representations,* in N. Eisenberg (Ed.), *Handbook of Child Psychology,* 5th ed., Vol. III, New York: Wiley.

Hartup, W. W. (Eds.) (1983) *The Company they keep: Friendship in childhood and adolescence* (pp. 289−321). San Diego, CA: Cambridge.

Hartup, W. W. and Stevens, N. (1997) ‘Friendships and adaptation in the life course’, *Psychological Bulletin*, 121, 355−370.

Hartup, W. W. and Stevens, N. (1999) ‘Friendships and adaptation across the Life Span’, American Psychological Society, 8(3), 76-79.

Hartup, W. W., Laursen, B., Stewart, M. I., and Eastenson, A. (1988) ‘Conflict and the friendship relations of young children’, *Child Development,* 59, 1590−1600.

Hartwell, A., Ong’uti. S., Aanyu. D., O’Sullivan, M. and Ojoo, Z. (2003) *Strategies for Enhancing Basic Education System Performance: The Role, Performance, and Contribution of Coordinating Centre Tutors to Education Quality,* The Government of Uganda: Ministry of Education and Sports.

Hatch, J. A. (1985) ‘The quantoids versus the smooshes: Struggling with methodological rapprochement’, *Issues in Education,* 3 (2), 158-168.

Hattie, J. (2012) The effects of class size on teaching and learning (Questions for oral answer, question 12, 8 February 2012), The effects of class size on teaching and learning (Questions for oral answer, question 12, 8 February 2012), Massey University College of Education.

Hattie, J. and Timperley, H. (2007) ‘The power of feedback’, *Review of Educational Research*, 77, 81-112.

Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., and Arthur, M. (2002) ‘Promoting science-based prevention in communities’, *Addictive Behaviors,* 90(5), 1-26.

Heather L. K., Ellen A. Wartella, E. A. and Anderson, D. R. (2008) ‘Media and Young Children’s Learning’, 18(1), [online], available: http://www.princeton.edu/futureofchildren/publications/docs/18_01_03.pdf [accessed 04/03/2014].

Heller, L. M., (n.d.) Create a Life worth Living! LEARN to LEAVE [online], Available: www.biologicalunhappiness.com [accessed 24/01/2010].

Henderson, A. and Berla, N. (1994) A New Generation of Evidence: The Family is Critical to Student Achievement, Columbia, MD: National Committee for Citizens in Education.

Hendricks, P. (1998) *Developing Youth Curriculum Using the Targeting Life Skills Model,* [online], available: http://www.extension.iastate.edu/4H/skls.eval.htm [accessed 15/03/2014]

Hendrickson, J. M., Shokoohi-Yekta, M. Hamre-Nietupski, S. Gable, R. A., (1996) ‘Middle and high school students' perceptions on being friends with peers with severe disabilities’, *Education and Training in Mental Retardation,* 63(1).

Heneveld, W., Ndidde, A., Rajonhson, L. and Swai, F. (2006) 'Synthesis report: local studies on the quality of primary education in four countries', accepted for Biennale on Education in Africa, Libreville, Gabon, March 27-31.

Hill, H. C., Charalambos, Y. C., Blazar, D., McGinn, D. Kraft, M. A., Beisiegel, M., Humez, A., Litke, E., and Lynch, K., (2012) 'Validating arguments for observational instruments: attending to multiple sources of variation', *Educational Assessment, Taylor and Francis Group,* LLC, 17, 1–19.

Hinde, R. A., Titmus, G., Easton, D. and Tamplin, A. (1985) 'Incidence of "friendship" and behaviour toward strong associates versus non-associates in pre-scholars', *Child Development,* 56, 234−245.

Hitz, R. and Amy, D. (1989) Praise in the Classroom, ED313108 [oline], available: http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-9213/praise.htm [accessed 09/12/2011].

Hitz, R., Dtiscoll, A. (n.d.) *Praise in the Classroom* [online], available: http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_pric/is_198900/ai_822327061/ [accessed 19/03/2014].

Hoff, E., Laursen, B., Tardif, T. (2002) *Socioeconomic Status and Parenting, Hand book of Parenting,* 2nd ed. 8, 231-252, [online], available: http://psy2.fau.edu/~hoff/2002%20Hoff,%20Laursen,%20Tardif.pdf [accessed 28/05/2014].

Hoffman, D. M., (2009) 'Reflecting on social emotional learning: a critical perspective on trends in the United States', Review of Educational Research, 79(2), 533-536.

Hoffman, M. (2000) *Empathy and Moral Development,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hoffman, M. L (1981) 'Is altruism part of human nature?', *Journal of Personality Social Psychology,* 40, 121-137.

Hoffman, M. L. (1983) Affective and cognitive processes in moral internalization, in Higgins, E. T., D. N. Ruble, D. N. and Hartup, W. W. (Eds.), Social cognition and social development: A sociocultural perspective (pp. 236-274). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hoffman, M. L. (1990) 'Empathy and justice motivation', *Motive Emotion,* 14:151-172.

Hoffman, M. L. (1991) Empathy, social cognition, and moral action, in Kurtines, W. M. and J.L. Gewirtz, J. L. (Eds.), Handbook of moral behavior and development, Volume 1: Theory (pp. 275-302). Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum.

Hoffman, M. L., and Saltzstein, H. D. (1967) 'Parent discipline and the child's moral development', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 5, 45-57.

Hoffmann, A. M. (2012) *The Capability Approach and educational policies and strategies: Effective life skills education for sustainable development* [online] available: http://ethique.perso.sfr.fr/AFDLife%20skills.htm [accessed 13/02/2012].

Hogan,R.,Jones W. H. and Cheek, J. M. (1985) Socioanalytic theory: *An alternative to armadillo psychology,* In B. R. Schlenker (Ed.), *The self and social life* (pp. 175-198), New York: McGraw-Hill.

Holger, D. (2010) 'Childhood learning, life skills and well-being in adult life: a Senegalese case', *Comparative Education,* 46(4), 409-428.

Holstein, C. B. (1976) 'Development of moral judgment: A longitudinal study of males and females', *Child Development,* 47, 51-61.

Hora M. T. and Ferrare J. J. (2013) 'A Review of Classroom Observation Techniques in Post-Secondary Settings', *Wiscincosin Center for Education Research,* [online], available: http://www.wcer.wisc.edu/publications/workingpapers/Working_Paper_No_2013_01.pdf[accessed 12/05/2014].

Howell, A., Hauser-Cram, P., and Warfield, M. E. (2001, April) 'Preschool predictors of later peer acceptance and loneliness in children with disabilities', Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Howes, C. (1988) 'Peer interaction of young children', *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development* 53 (1, Serial No. 217).

Howes, C. (1990) 'Social status and friendship from kindergarten to third grade', *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology* 11, 321−330.

Hull, D. and Stern, T. (2002) 'Life skills and street life', *Education Links,* 64, 34-37.

Hundley, V. and Teijlingen, E. R. V. (2001) *The importance of pilot studies* [online], available: http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU35.html (accessed 21/11/2011).

Hunt, C. A., (n.d.) *Concepts in Proposal Writing: Qualitative and Quantitative Concepts in Proposal Writing: Similarities, Differences, and Controversy,* University of North Dakota, [online], available: http://www.und.nodak.edu/instruct/wstevens/PROPOSALCLASS/Huntpaper.htm [accessed 4/05/2014].

Hunt, J. (n.d.) *The Natural Child Project Nurturing Children's Natural Love of Learning* [online], available: http://www.naturalchild.org/jan_hunt/unschooling.html [accessed19/05/2014].

Hunter, K. (n.d.) *Empathy in Education* [online], available: http://www.empathyed.org/index.php?option=com_contentandview=sectionandid=7andItemid=55 [accessed 08/04/2014].

Hyde, K. F. (2000) 'Recognising Deductive Process in Qualitative Research', *Qualitative Market Research: an International Journal*, 3(2), 82-90.

Ilan Katz, I., Corlyon, J., La Placa, V. and Hunter, S. (2007) 'The relationship between parenting and poverty', Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

Illinois Early Learning (2014) Illinois Early Learning and Development Standards [online], available: http://illinoisearlylearning.org/faqs/socialcomp.htm [accessed 02/06/2014].

Increasing Retention through Improved Literacy and Learner-Friendly Primary Schools In Uganda Project 92005) *Growing up and Sexual Maturation Acts and Tips for Teachers,* Kampala: Earnest Publishers.

Indiana University (2012) *Questioning in the Classroom: How to Ask Questions, Teaching and Learning,* [online], available: http://www.teaching.iub.edu/finder/wrapper.php?inc_id=s2_1_lect_04_quest.shtml [accessed 30/05/2014].

International Centre for Alcohol Policies (2000) 'Life Skills Education in South Africa and Botswana', Executive summary of the report on the Growing Up Life Skills Education programme sponsored by the International Center for Alcohol Policies from 1996-1999.

International Centre for Alcohol Policies (2014) Life Skills, ICAP Chapter 2 [online], available at: http://icap.org/PolicyTools/ICAPBlueBook/BlueBookModules/2LifeSkills/tabid/163/Default.aspx [accessed 02/06/2014].

International HIV/AIDS Alliance (2008). Our future: Teaching sexuality and life skills. A guide for teachers using our future pupils' books. [online] available at: http://www.aidsalliance.org/resources/258-211-our-future-sexuality-and-life-skills-education-for-young-people [accessed 02/06/2014]

International Water and Sanitation Centre (IRC) (2004) Life skills-based hygiene education, A guidance document on concepts, development and experiences with life skills-based hygiene education in school sanitation and hygiene education programmes [online] available at: www.unicef.org/eapro/Life_skills_based_hygiene_education.pdf, [accessed 20/08/2014]

IOWA State University (2014) Targeting Life Skills Model, 4-H Youth Development [online] available at: http://www.extension.iastate.edu/4h/explore/lifeskills [accessed 09/06/20114]

Islamic Medical Association of Uganda (IMAU) (2003) *Integration of Life Skills in Madarasa (ILIM) Project*, Madarasa Aids Education and Prevention.

Ives, R. (2005) Life skills training in schools Manual, P-PG/Prev-LS(2005)1.

Jack, C. (n.d.) Curriculum Definitions, [online], available: http://www.stcoll.edu.jm/Education/PDF%5CTTSS%5Ccurriculum.pdf [accessed 30/03/2014].

Jacob, E. (1998) Clarifying qualitative research: a focus on traditions', *Educational Researcher,* 17(1) 16-24.

James, A., Jenks, C. and Prout, A. (1998) *Theorizing childhood*, Cambridge: Polity.

Janice, A. Dole, J. A. and Lacy, L. (2002) 'An Observation Instrument for Measuring Classroom Implementation Of K-3 Reading Reform', Paper presented at the American Educational Research

Jarvis, L., Odell, K. and Troiano, M. (2002) 'Role-Playing as a Teaching Strategy', Strategies for Application and Presentation, Staff Development and Presentation.

Jensen. J. and Kohlberg, L. (1966) 'Report of a Research and Demonstration Project For Culturally Disadvantaged Children in the Angola Montessori School', *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 015 014.

Jilliam, N. J. Cynthia, M. T., Holtzman, S. L. and Jean, C. W., (2013) *Foundations of Observation: Considerations for Developing a Classroom Observation System that Helps Districts Achieve Consistent and Accurate Scores*, New Jersey: ETS, Princeton.

Joe, J. N., Tocci, C. M., Holtzman S. L. and Williams, J. C. (2009) 'Learning about Teaching: Initial Findings from the Measures of Effective Teaching Project', *Bill and Melinda Gates foundation, MET Project*: Research paper.

Joe, J. N., Tocci, C. M., Holtzman, S. L. and Williams, J. C. (2013) *Foundations of Observation: Considerations for Developing a Classroom Observation System That Helps Districts Achieve Consistent and Accurate Scores,* New Jersey: Princeton.

Johnson , D, W., and Roger, T. (1994) *An Overview of Cooperative Learning* [online], available: http://teachers.henrico.k12.va.us/staffdev/mcdonald_j/downloads/21st/comm/BenefitsOfCL/OverviewOfCoopLrng_Benefits.html [accessed 31/05/2014].

Jones, E.A. and Ratcliff, G. (1993) Critical thinking skills for college students, National Centre on Postsecondary teaching, Learning, and Assessment, University Park, P.A. (Eric Document Reproduction Services NO ED 358772).

Jones, V.F.,and Jones, L.S.(2001) Comprehensive Schools Management: Creating communities of support and solving problems, (6th ed) Boston MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Kagan, J. (1984) *The nature of the child,* New York: Basic Books.

Kagan, J. (2007) 'The role of parents in children's psychological development', *Official Journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics,* 104(1), 164-167.

Kashani, P. A. and Bayat, M. (2010) 'The effect of social skills training (assertiveness) on assertiveness and self-esteem increase of 9 to 11 Year-old semale Students in Tehran, Iran', *World Applied Sciences Journal,* 9 (9), 1028-1032.

Kathleen, F., Richter, J., Lesser, L., Schnelker, D., Omdal, S. (2000) 'Transitions in Qualitative Inquiry-Preparing for a New Century of Research, Proceedings of the Qualitative Research Seminar Series, *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 445 086.

Katz, L. (2009) *How Can We Strengthen Children's Self-Esteem?* [online], available: http://ericps.ed.uiuc.edu/ericeece.html [accessed 28/03/2014].

Katz, L. G. and McClellan, D. E. (2001) Assessing Young Children's Social Competence', [online], available: http://ecap.crc.illinois.edu/eecearchive/digests/2001/mcclel01.html [accessed 03/06/2014].

Kawabata, Y., A., L. R. A., Tseng, W, van IJzendoorn, M. H. and Crick, N. R. (n.d.) 'Maternal and paternal parenting styles associated with relational aggression in children and adolescents: A conceptual analysis and meta-analytic review', *Developmental Review,* 31(4), 240-278.

Kemp, M. A., Melinda, S., DeKoven, B. and Segal, J. (2009) Play, Creativity, and Lifelong Learning Why Play Patters for both Kids and Adults [online], available: http://www.helpguide.org/life/creative_play_fun_games.htm [accessed 16/03/2014].

Kemple, K. M., and Hartle, L. (1997) 'Getting along: How teachers can support children's peer relationships', *Early childhood Education Journal,* 24(3), 139-146.

Kendra, C. (n.d.) Parenting Styles: The Four Styles of parenting, [online], available: http://psychology.about.com/od/developmentalpsychology/a/parenting-style.htm [accessed 3/9/2012].

Kennedy-Moore, E. (2012) Children's Growing Friendships, Sussex Directories, Inc.[online], available: http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/growing-friendships/201202/childrens-growing-friendships [accessed 05/06/2014]

Keogh, B. K., Bernheimer, L. P., and Guthrie, D. (1997) 'Stability and change over time in cognitive level of children with delays', *American Journal on Mental Retardation,* 10, 365−373.

Key, J. P. (1997) *Qualitative Research* – Module R14, [online], available: http://www.okstate.edu/ag/agedcm4h/academic/aged5980a/5980/newpage21.htm [accessed on 22/04/2014].

Khemman, T., Tantiwong, B. and Vidhayasinnum, S. (1995) 'Principles and Models of Early Childhood Development in Thai Cultural Ways, Selected Research Findings Relating to Social Context and Child Transition FROM home to School', Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Fransisco CA, April 19-22, 1995), Eric Educational Resources.

Kielhofner, G. (1982) 'Qualitative research: Part one. Paradigmatic grounds and issues of reliability and validity, *Occupational Therapy journal of Research,* 2, 67-79.

Kiesling, L. L. (2012) 'Mirror Neuron Research and Adam Smith's Concept of Sympathy: Three Points of Correspondence', *Social Science Research Network,* [online], available: http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1687343 [accessed 17/05/2014].

Kilpatrick, K. L. (2005) 'The parental empathy measure: A new approach to assessing child maltreatment risk, American Journal of Orthopzychiatry, 75(4): 608-620

Kilpatrick, K. L. (2005) Parental empathy, personality disorders and child maltreatment, Final Report for Industry partner: New South wales Department of community services.

Kirby, D. (n.d.) *Tips for content and methods,* [online], available: http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/index_10486.html [accessed 17/03/2014].

Kirkorian, H. L., Ellen A. Wartella, E. A. and Anderson, D. R. (2008) 'Media and Young Children's Learning', *The Future of Children,* 18(4), 39-62.

Kirton, M. J. (1976) 'Adapters and innovators: A description and measure', *Journal of Applied Psychology, 61,* 622-629.

Kobak, R. R., and Sceery, A. (1988) 'Attachment in late adolescence: Working models, affect regulation and representations of self and others', *Child Development,* 59, 135-146.

Kochanska, G. (1991). Socialization and temperament in the development of guilt and conscience, *Child Development,* 62, 1379-1392.

Kochanska, G. (1997) 'Mutually responsive orientation between mothers and their young children: Implications for early socialization', *Child Development,* 68, 94-112.

Kochanska, G. and Aksan, N. (1995) 'Mother-child mutually positive affect, the quality of child compliance to requests and prohibitions, and maternal control as correlates of early internalization', *Child Development,* 66, 236-254.

Kochanska, G., DeVet, K., Goldman, M., Murray, K., and Putnam, S. (1994) 'Maternal reports of conscience development and temperament in young children', *Child Development,* 65, 852-868.

Kochanska, G., Kuczynski, L., and Radke-Yarrow, M. (1989) 'Correspondence between mothers self-reported and observed child-rearing practices', *Child Development,* 60, 56-63.

Kochanska, G., Murray, K., and Coy, K. C. (1997) 'Inhibitory control as a contributor to conscience in childhood: From toddler to school age', *Child Development,* 68, 263-277.

Kohn, A. (1993) *Choices for Children: Why and How to Let Students Decide,* [online], available: http://www.alfiekohn.org/teaching/cfc.htm [accessed 24/05/2014].

Kolucki, B., Lemish, D. (2011) 'Communicating with Children: Principles and Practices to Nurture, Inspire, Excite, Educate and Heal', UNICEF.

Koons, D. L. (n.d.) *The Forensic Interview of Children* [online], available: http://members.iquest.net/~dkoons/technique.html [accessed 12/12/2-13].

Krefting, L., (1990) 'Rigor in Qualitative Research: The Assessment of Trustworthiness', *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy,* 45(3), 214-222.

Kruger, A. C. (1992). 'The effect of peer and adult-child transactive discussions on moral reasoning', *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly,* 38, 191-211.

Kruger, A. C., and Tomasello, M. (1986) Transactive discussions with peers and adults', *Developmental Psychology,* 22, 681-685.

Kuczynski, L., Kochanska, G., Radke-Yarrow, M., and Girnius-Brown, O. (1987) 'A developmental interpretation of young children's non-compliance', *Developmental Psychology,* 23, 799-806.

Kuehl, B. P., and Newfield, N. A. (1991) 'Family listeners among the Nacirema: Their curative ceremonies and how the natives view them', *Family Therapy Case Studies,* 6(1), 55-66.

Kulkarni, A. (n.d.) *Building Self-esteem in Children* [online], available: http://www.buzzle.com/articles/building-self-esteem-in-children.html [accessed 19/02/2014].

Kunc, N. (1992) The need to belong: Rediscovering Maslow's hierarchy of needs, in Villa, R. A. J. S. Thousand, J. S., Stainback, W. and Stainback, S. (Eds.), Restructuring for caring and effective education: An administrative guide to creating heterogeneous schools, Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Kyronlampi-Kylmanen, T. and Maatta, K., (2010) 'Using children as research subjects: How to interview a child aged 5 to 7 years', *Educational Research and Reviews,* 6(1), 87-93.

Lacey, A. and Luff, D. (2001) Qualitative Data Analysis, Trent Focus for Research and Development in Primary Health Care.

Ladd, G. W. (1990) 'Having friends, keeping friends, making friends, and being liked by peers in the classroom: Predictors of children's early school adjustment', Child Development, 61, 1081 – 1100.

Ladd, G. W. and Price, J. P. (1987) 'Predicting children's social and school adjustment following the transition from preschool to kindergarten', *Child Development,* 58, 16-25.

Ladd, G. W., Kochenderfer, B. J., and Coleman, C. C. (1996) Friendship quality as a predictor of young children's early school adjustment', *Child Development,* 67, 1103−1118.

Laugeson, E. A., Paley, B., Schonfeld, A. M., Erika M. Carpenter, E. M., Frankel, F.M. and O'Connor, M. J. (2007) 'Adaptation of the children's friendship training program for children with fetal alcohol spectrum disorders', *Child and Family Behavior Therapy,* 29(3), 57-69.

Laura E. K. (2012) Infants, Children and adolescents, 7th ed. USA: PEARSON.

Laura, E. B. (2009) Child Development, International Edition, USA: PEARSON.

Lavoie, R. D. (2002) Self-esteem: Cause and Effect of Success for the Child with Learning Differences [online], available: http://www.ricklavoie.com/selfesteemart.html [accessed 17/06/2014].

Learning Theories – Behaviourism (n.d.) Asia e University Chapter 4, [online], available: http://peoplelearn.homestead.com/BEduc/Chapter_4.pdf [accessed05/06/2014].

Leary, M. R., Tambor, E. S., Terdal, S. K. and downs, D. L. (1995) Self-esteem as an interpersonal monitor: The sociometer hypothesis, *Journal of Personality and social Psychology,* 68, 518-530.

LeCompte, M. and Goetz, J. (1982) 'Problems of Reliability and Validity in Ethnographic Research' *Review of Educational Research,* 52, 31-60

LeCompte, M., Millroy, W. and Preissle, J. (1992) *The Hand book of Qualitative Research in Education,* San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Leeman, Y. and Leodoux, G. (2003) 'International education in Dutch schools', *Curriculum Inquiry,* 3394, 385-400.

Leininger, M. M. (1985) 'Ethnography and ethnonursing: Models and modes of qualitative data analysis. In M. M. Leininger (Ed.), *Qualitative research methods in nursing* (pp. 33-72).

Leininger, M.M. (1998) Nature, Rationale and Importance of Qualitative Research Methods in Nursing, in Leininger, M.M. ed. *Qualitative Methods in Nursing,* USA: Greyden Press.

Leitz, P. (2010) ‘Research into questionnaire design: A summary of the Literature’, *International Journal of Market Research,* 52(2), 249-272.

Lester, S (1999) *An introduction to phenomenological research,* Taunton UK, Stan Lester Developments, [online], available: (www.sld.demon.co.uk/resmethy.pdf, [accessed 09/04/2014].

Lichi, D. A. (n.d.) *Character Formation in Children: Reversing the Effects of the "Sin of the Fathers"* [online], available: http://ag.org/top/church_workers/spcl_mfl_reverse [ACCESSED 27/02/2014].

Lickona, T. (1983) *Raising good children*, New York: Bantam Books.

Lickona, T. (1992) *Education for character: How our schools can teach respect and responsibility*, New York: Bantam.

Limacher-Riebold, U. (2013) *The importance of role plays for children (and us…)* [online], available: http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:http://expatsincebirth.com/2013/02/03/the-importance-of-role-plays-for-children-and-us/ [accessed 31/05/2014].

Lincoln Y. S., (1995) ‘Emerging criteria for qualitative and interpretive research’, *Qualitative Inquiry* 3, 275–289.

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry,* Beverly Hills: Sage.

Lindsey, E. W. (2002) ‘Preschool children's friendships and peer acceptance: Links to social competence’, *Child Study Journal,* 32, 145−156.

Lipman, M. (1988) ‘Critical Thinking-what can it be?’, *Educational Leadership,* 44(1), 38-43.

Lipsitz, J. (1995) ‘Prologue: Why we should care about caring’, *Phi Delta Kappan,* 76(9), 665-666

Little, D. (2009) *Kuhn’s Paradigm shift,* London: Sage. [online], available: http://understandingsociety.blogspot.com/2009/10/kuhns-paradigm-shift.html [accessed 24/04/2012].

Lopper, J. (2008) Self-awareness for Life Balance [online], available: https://suite.io/jerry-lopper/r3b259 [accessed 12/09/2011].

Luftig, R. L. (1988) ‘Assessment of the perceived school loneliness and isolation of mentally retarded and nonretarded students’, *American Journal on Mental Retardation*, 92, 472−475.

Lunenburg, F. C. (2011) ‘Theorizing about Curriculum: Conceptions and Definitions’, *Sam Houston State Univer sity,* 13(1).

Lutfiyya, Z. M. (1991) Personal relationships and social networks: Facilitating the participation of individuals with disabilities in community life, Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Center on Human Policy.

M.V. Fields, M. V. and D.M. Fields, D. M. (2010) How Children Develop Social Competence[online], available: http://www.education.com/reference/article/children-develop-social-competence/ [accessed 03/06/2014].

Maccoby, E. E. (1980) *Social development: Psychological growth and the parent-child relationship,* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Maclang-Vicencio, E. (2010) 'Life Skills in the Badge System of the Boy Scouts of the Philippines: A Conceptual Analysis', World Scientific Conference.

Mader, L. and Quevillon, R. (1982) 'Effects of Interviewing Style and Interviewer Appearance on a Child Behavioral Interview', Paper presented at the Annual Convention' of the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association(Albuquerque, April-28-May 1, 1982).

Magid, K. and McKelvey, C. A. (1987) *High risk: Children without a conscience,* New York: Basic Books.

Mahlamaki –Kultanen, S. (2003) 'Learning and Teaching Qualitative Research with Qualitative Data Analysis Software', Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Research Association (Chicago, IL, April 21-25, 2003), *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 476 145.

Main, M., Tomasini, L. and Tolan, W. (1979) 'Differences among mothers of infants judged to differ in security', *Developmental Psychology,* 15, 472-473.

Manali, O. (2011) *Tips on Improving Peer Relationships* [online], available: http://www.buzzle.com/articles/tips-on-improving-peer-relationships.html (accessed 18/03/2012]

Mangrulkar, L., Whitman, C. V. and Posner, M. (2001) 'Life Skills Approach to Child and Adolescent Healthy Human Development', *Health and Human Development Programs (HHD),* a division of Education Development Center, Inc. (EDC)

Manjunatha, N. and Saddichha, S. (2011) 'Universal mental health program: An extension of life skills education to promote child mental health', *Indian Journal of Psychiatry,* 53(1), 77-78.

Marc H. Bornstein, M. H. ed. (2002) *Handbook of Parenting* Volume 2, Biology and Ecology of Parenting, 2ndEd.London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Mari, M. (2003) ‘University Students Orientation to Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods’, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Chicago, IL, April 21-25,2003).

Mark R. Dadds, M. R. Hunter, K. Ha wes, D. J. Frost, A. D. J. Vassallo, S. Bunn, P. Sabine Merz, S. and Masry, Y. E. (2007) ‘A Measure of Cognitive and Affective Empathy in Children Using Parent Ratings’, *Child Psychiatry Human Development*, 39, 111–122.

Marsh, C. J. and Willis, G. (2003) *Curriculum: Alternative approaches, ongoing issues* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (1985) *Designing Qualitative Research* (2nd ed),Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publication.

Marulanda, Z. K. (2010) *Social and Emotional Learning Strategies to Support Students in Challenging Schools*, School of Education and Counseling Psychology Dominican University of California.

Mashhad, A. (1996) ‘Complementary Not Contradictory: The Spurious Conflict between Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methodologies’, Australian Association for Research in Education, [online], available: http://www.aare.edu.au/publications-database.php/1748/complementary-not-contradictory-the-spurious-conflict-between-qualitative-and-quantitative-research- [accessed 02/04/2014].

Matas, L., Arend, R. A. and Sroufe, L. A. (1978) ‘Continuity of adaptation in the second year: The relationship between quality of attachment and later competence’, *Child Development*, 49, 547-556.

McClellan, D. E. and Katz, L. G. (2001) *Assessing Young Children's Social Competence. Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education*, [online], available: http://www.ericdigests.org/2001-4/assessing.html [accessed23/02/2014]

McClelland, M. (2006) ‘The impact of kindergarten learning-related skills on academic trajectories at the end of elementary school’, Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 21, 471–490.

McDade, S. A. (1995) ‘Case Study Pedagogy to Advance Critical Thinking’, *Teaching Psychology*, 22(1), 9-10.

McDonald, N. M. and Messinger, D. S. (n.d.) *The Development of Empathy: How, When, and Why*, [online], available: http://www.psy.miami.edu/faculty/dmessinger/c_c/rsrcs/rdgs/emot/McDonald-Messinger_Empathy%20Development.pdf [accessed 23/01/2014]

McElwain, E. L. and Volling, B. L. (2005) ‘Preschool children’s interactions with friends and older siblings: relationship specificity and joint contributions to problem behaviors’, J Fam Psychol, 2005;19 :486– 496.

McGovern, S. (2000) ‘Reclaiming education: Knowledge practices and indigenous communities’, *Comparative Education Review,* 44(40), 523- 529.

McLaughlin, M. W., Irby, M. A. and Langman, J. (1994) *Urban sanctuaries: Neighborhood organizations in the lives and future of inner city youth,* San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

McLennan, D. M. P. (2008) ‘The benefits of using sociodrama in the elementary classroom: promoting caring relationships among educators and students’, *Early Childhood Education Journal,* 35(5), 451-456

McLeod, S. A. (2012) Low Self-esteem, [online], available: http://www.simplypsychology.org/self-esteem.html [accessed 17/06/2014].

McNamara, (2010) Basic Guidelines for Problem-solving [online] available: http://managementhelp.org/prsn_prd/prb_bsc.htm [accessed 22/01/2010].

McRoy, R. G. (n.d.) *Qualitative Research* [online], available:http://www2.uncp.edu/home/marson/qualitative_research.html [accessed 17/04/2014].

Media, D. and Stambler, D. (2014) *Drink Health and Wellness Parenting, Real Estate Relationships and Family Style Technology Parenting Styles and Socio-Economics* [online], available: http://everydaylife.globalpost.com/parenting-styles-socioeconomics-6515.html [accessed 28/05/2014].

Megan W. S., Bridget K. H., Jason T. D. and Robert C. P. (n.d.) ‘How to Select the Right Classroom Observation Tool’, *Center for Advanced Study of Teaching and Learning, University of Virginia* [online], available: http://curry.virginia.edu/uploads/resourceLibrary/CASTL_practioner_Part3_single.pdf [accessed 3/05/2-14].

Mehmet Mehmetoglu (2004) ‘Quantitative or qualitative? a content analysis of nordic research in tourism and hospitality’, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism,* 4(3), 176-190.

Mehrabizade, M. H., Taghavi, S. F. and Attari, Y. A. (2009) ‘Effect of group assertive training on social anxity , social skills and academic performance of female students’, *Journal of Behavioral Science,* 3 , 59-64.

Meurer, W. J. Frederiksen, M. S., Majersik, J. J., Lingling Zhang, Sandretto, A. Scott, P. A. (2007) 'Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis', Academic Emergency Medicine, 14:1064–1071

Miles, M. Huberman, M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook,* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Miller, N. B., Cowan, P. A., Cowan, C. P. and Hetherington, E. M. (1993) 'Externalizing in pre-scholars and early adolescents: A cross-study replication of a family model', *Developmental Psychology,* 29(1), 3-18.

Miller, S. I., and Fredericks, M. (1991). 'Uses of metaphor: A qualitative case study', *Qualitative Studies in Education,* 1(3), 263–272.

Mincemoyer, C. C. and Perkins, D. P.(2003)'Assessing decision-making skills of youth', *The Forum for Family and Consumer Issues* 8(1), [online], available: http://ncsu.edu/ffci/publications/2003/v8-n1-2003-january/ar-1-accessing.php [accessed 24/05/2014].

Ministry of Education and Sports (2001) 'The Development of Education in Uganda in the Last Ten Years', Report on the Development of Education for the 46th Session of (ice) 5th – 7th September 2001, Geneva.

Ministry of Education and Sports (2011) Life Skills Curriculum for Primary School Teachers in Uganda.

Ministry of Tertiary Education and Skills Training (2013) Path Ways to Living Well, Curriculum for National Life Skills Education Programme, Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago [online], available: http://www.stte.gov.tt/MediaCentre/News/tabid/255/articleType/ArticleView/articleId/93/The_New_Life_Skills_Curriculum_Providing_Pathways_to_Living_Well.aspx [accessed 11/07/2014].

Mitchell, S. (2009) *Coping with Depression,* New York: The University of Buffalo.

Mohamed, S. (2011) Addressing Gender Inequality in Adolescent Life Skills Education: Aahung's Experience in Pakistan, International Women's Health Coalition.

Mohebi, S., Sharifirad, G. H. R., Shahsiah, M., Botlani, S., M. Matlabi, M. and Rezaeian, M. (2012) 'The effect of assertiveness training on student's academic anxiety', *J Pak Med Assoc (Suppl. 1),* 62(3), 37-41.

Moreland, J. R., Schwebel, A. I., Beck., S., and Wells, R. (1982). 'Parents as therapists: A review of the behaviour therapy parent training literature-1975-1981', *Behaviour Modification,* 6, 250-276.

Morgan, K. (2014) Too many chefs: Smaller groups exhibit more accurate decision-making, Princeton Journal Watch, The Trustees of Princeton University

Morse, J. M., (1999) 'Myth 93: Reliability and validity are not relevant to qualitative inquiry', *Qualitative Inquiry,* 9, 717-718.

Moya, C. (2002) 'Life skills approaches to improving youth's sexual and reproductive health', *Advocates for Youth,* [online], available: http://www.advocatesforyouth.org/storage/advfy/documents/lifeskills.pdf [accessed 15/01/2014].

Moya, C. (2002) *Life Skills Education with a Focus on HIV/AIDS UNICEF,* Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office.

Mruk, C. (1999) *Self-Esteem: Research, theory, and practice,* 2nd ed., New York: Springer.

Mugambi, M. M. and Muthui, M. R. (2013) 'Influence of structural context on implementation of secondary school life skills curriculum in kajiado county, Kenya', International Journal of Education and Research, 1(3), 1-22.

Muijs, D. and Reynolds, D. (2005) *Effective Teaching: Evidence and Practice*, London: SAGE Publications.

Murray, R. (2002) *How to Write a Thesis*, Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Namubiru, L. (2008) HIV Crippling Education Sector, Saturday Vision 2nd August P1 and 3.

Nancy, D. (1999) *Parenting Style and Its Correlates,* in Naughton, F. O., (1997) *Stress and Coping,* California State University: Northridge.

Nash, L. (2011) *Teachers as Role Models* [online], available: http://www.examiner.com/article/teachers-as-role-models [accessed 02/03/2014]

National Centre for Education Research (2010) 'Efficacy of Schoolwide Programs to Promote Social and Character Development and Reduce Problem Behavior in Elementary School

National Curriculum Development Centre (2006) The National Primary School Curriculum for Uganda (Pilot) Teachers' Guide P3, Term: 1, 2, and 3, Kampala: National Curriculum Development Centre Kyambogo.

National Curriculum Development Centre (2007) Primary School Curriculum for Uganda, Primary two, Kampala: National Curriculum Development Centre Kyambogo.

National Curriculum Development Centre (2008) The National Primary School Curriculum for Uganda, Teachers' Guide P3, Term: 1, 2, and 3, Kampala: National Curriculum Development Centre Kyambogo.

National Curriculum Development Centre (2011) Primary School Curriculum for Uganda, Primary Five, Kampala: National Curriculum Development Centre Kyambogo.

NC3Rs (2006) *Conducting a Pilot Study* [online], available: http://www.nc3rs.org.uk/conducting-pilot-study [accessed 21/11/2011].

Ndonga, K. F. (2010) 'Constraints Facing Acquisition of Life-skills to Curb Risky Behavior among Public Secondary School Students in Thika Municipality Kenya', A Research Project Submitted To the School of Education in Fulfillment for the Award of Master of Education Degree of Kenyatta University.

Neal, J. and Frick-Horbury, D. (2001) The Effects of Parenting Styles and Childhood Attachment Patterns on Intimate Relationships, FARLEX, Inc. [online], available: www.eric.ed.gov [accessed 13/02/2014].

Newcomb, A. F. and Bagwell, C. L. (1995) 'Children's friendship relations: A meta-analytic review', *Psychological Bulletin,* 117, 306−347.

Newman, I., and Benz, C. R. (1998) *Qualitative–quantitative research methodology: Exploring the interactive continuum*, Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

NICHD Early Child Care Research Network (2006) A typology of friendship experience in middle childhood with antecedents in dyadic and social functioning, Unpublished manuscript.

Nisbett, R. E. and Miyamoto, Y. (2005) 'The influence of culture: Holistic vs. analytic perception', *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 9, 467-473.

Niusha, B. Azadeh, F. B. and Nushafarin, S. C. (2012) 'Effects of assertiveness training on test anxiety of girl students in first grade of guidance school', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 46 (2012) 1385 – 1389.

Noddings, N. (1992) *The challenge to care in schools: An alternative approach to education*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Noddings. N. (1995) 'Teaching themes of care', Phi Delta Kappan, 76 (9), 675 – 679.

O' Connor, L. E, Berry, J.W, Weiss, J., Bush, M, and Sampson, H. (1997) 'International guilt: development of a new measure', *Journal of Clinical Psychology,* 53 (1), 73-89.

O' Sullivan, M. (2006) 'Educating the teacher educator: a Ugandan case study', International Journal of Educational Development, 30(4), 377-387.

O'Conner, L. E., Berry, J. W. and Weiss, J. (1999) 'International guilt shame and psychological problems', *Journal of Social Clinical Psychology,* 18, 181-203.

O'Connor, L. E (2000) Pathogenic beliefs and guilt in human evolution, in Gilbert, P., Bailey, K. (Eds), *Genes on the couch: Explorations in Evolutionary psychotherapy*, New York: Guilford Press.

Ohio State University (2008) *Questioning Techniques: Research-Based Strategies for Teachers*, [online], available: http://beyondpenguins.ehe.osu.edu/issue/energy-and-the-polar-environment/questioning-techniques-research-based-strategies-for-teachers [accessed 30/05/2014].

Olen, D. (1994) Parenting for the first time (Getting off to a healthy start), Milwankee, WI: Joda.

Oliner, S. P. and Oliner, P. M. (1988) *The altruistic personality: Rescuers of Jews in Nazi Europe*, New York: Free Press.

Oliver, H. and Utermohlen, R. (1995) 'An Innovative Teaching Strategy: Using Critical Thinking to give students a guide to the future', *Eric Document Reproduction Services,* No. 389 702.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2000) 'On Becoming a Bi-Researcher: The Importance of Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methodologies', Paper presented at the American Meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Educational Research (Ponte Vendra, FL, November, 2000)

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. and Collins K. M. T. (2007) 'A typology of mixed methods sampling designs in social science research', *The Qualitative Report*, 12(2), 281-316

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. and Leech, N. L. (2003) 'On becoming a pragmatic Researcher: The importance of combining quantitative and qualitative research methodologies', Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association (Biloxi, MS, November 5-7 2003).

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. and Leech, N. L. (2007) 'Sampling designs in qualitative research: making the sampling process more public', *The Qualitative Report* 12(2), 238-254.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., and Collins, K. M. T. (2007) 'A typology of mixed methods sampling designs in social science research', *The Qualitative Report,* 12(2), 281-316.

Orafi, S. M. S. (2013) 'Effective factors in the implementation of elt curriculum innovations', *Scientific Research Journal,* 1(v).

O'Reilly, P. H. (2011) A quantitative and qualitative inquiry into the relationship between self-esteem and coping processes of university students, Mary Immaculate College University of Limerick.

Ormonodroyd, (2004) *Assertiveness and Assertiveness Training* [online], available: http://www.bbc.co.uk/dna/ptop/A2998551 [accessed 07/05/2010].

Osege, A. (2012) Parents fuelling sex abuse, Red Pepper newspaper Wednesday, 25 July.

Ottawa Charter (1986) Ottawa Charter for the Health Promotion, Charter adopted at an international conference on health promotion, The move towards a new public Health, Ottawa, November 1986 WHO/HPR/HEP/95.1.

Overton, S. S., (1997) 'The forgotten Intervention: how to design environments that faster friendship', *Reaching Todays' youth,* 2(1), 6-10.

Owens, R. G., Steinhoff, C. R. and Rosenbaum, S. M. (1989) 'A Triangulation Methodology in Research on Social Cultures', Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Fransisco, CA, March 27-31, 1989), *Eric Educational Resources*.

Pablo, J. M. and Nora, F. (2009) *Emotions, Conflict Resolution and Peacemaking* [online], available: http://knol.google.com/k/nora-femenia/emotions-conflict-resolution-and/3pbxoslyphya5/2 [accessed 11/02/2014].

Paediatr Child Health (2003) 'Impact of media use on children and youth', *Paediatrics and Child Health,* 8(5), 301–306.

Pamela, E. and Davis-Kean (1999) 'The Effect of Socio-Economic Characteristics on Parenting and Child Outcomes', Paper presented at the biannual meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Albuquerque, New Mexico, April 1999.

Parcher, J. (1998) *The Value of Debate: Adapted from the Report of the Philodemic Debate Society Georgetown University,* [online], available: http://www.debateleaders.org/The%20Value%20of%20Debate.htm [accessed 17/03/2014].

Parikh, B. (1980) 'Development of moral judgment and its relation to family environmental factors in Indian and American families', *Child Development,* 51, 1030-1039.

Park, K. A., and Waters, E. (1989) 'Security of Attachment and Preschool Friendships', *Child Development,* 60, 1076-1081.

Parke, R. D. and Bhavnagic, N. P. (1989) in D. Bell (Eds.), *Children's: social networks, and social supports*, New York: Wiley and Sons.

Patton, M. Q., (1978) *Utilization Focused Evaluation,* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publication.

Pelaez-Nogueras, M. and Gewirtz, J. L. (1995) *The learning of moral behaviour: A behaviour-analytic approach*, in W. M. Kurtines and J. L Gewirtz (eds.), *Moral development: An introduction* (pp.173-200), Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Penny, A., Ward, M., Read, T. and Bines, H. (2008) 'Education sector reform: the Ugandan experience', International Journal of Educational Development, 28, 268-285.

Perry and Kelder (1992) Chapter Four: Life Skills [online], available: http://www.actionresearch.net/living/rawalpdf/Chapter4.pdf [accessed 10/03/2014].

Perry, B. D. (2001) *Curiosity: The Fuel of Development* [online], available: http://teacher.scholastic.com/professional/bruceperry/curiosity.htm [accessed 14/02/2012].

Peterson, J. (2008) *Teaching Students Life skills through character Education* [online], available: http://www.buzzle.com/articles/teaching-students-life-skills-through-character-education.htm/ [accessed 6/08/ 2008].

Phan, T. L. M and Trinh, T. N. (n.d.) *Life skills Teaching Experience in Vietnam available,* http://www.unicef.org/teachers/forum/o499.htm/ [accessed 6/8/2008].

Pick, S., Givaudan, M. and Poortinga, Y. H. (2003) 'Sexuality and Life Skills Education', *American Psychologist,* 58(3), 230-235.

Piscolish, M. A. (n.d.) *Reflecting on Conflict and Its Resolution in Our School Community: The Place of Conflict Resolution in Schools* [online], available: www.mediate.com/acreducation/pg3.cfm [accessed on 19/06/2011].

Polit, D. F. and Beck, C. T. (2006) *Essentials of Nursing Research: Appraisal, and Utilization,* Philadephia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.

Polit, D. F. and Beck, C.T (2009) *Essentials of Nursing Research: Appraising Evidence for Nursing Practice,* 7th ed., Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.

Ponterotto, J. G. (2006) 'Brief note on the origins, evolution, and meaning of the qualitative research concept: thick description', *The Qualitative Report,* 11(3), 538-549.

Poorman, P. B. (2002) 'Biography and role-playing: fostering empathy in abnormal psychology', *Teaching of Psychology,* 29(1), 32-36.

Pope, A. W., Bierman, K. L. and Mumma, G. H. (1989) 'Relations between hyperactive and aggressive behavior and peer relations at three elementary grade levels', *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology,* 17(3), 253-67.

Porter, L. (2003) *Younger Children's Behaviour: Practical Approaches for Caregivers and Teachers,* Australia: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Postma, L., Getkate, R. and van Wijk, C. (2004) Life Skills-Based Hygiene Education: A guidance document on concepts, development and experiences with life skills-based hygiene education in school sanitation and hygiene education programmes Delft: The Netherlands, IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre, Technical Paper Series; no. 42, pp.144.

Powell, S. (n.d.) *The Perception and Misconception of Conflict* [online], available: http://www.ehow.com/facts_7673598_perception-misconception-conflict.html [accessed 09/01/2014].

Power, F. C., Higgins, A. and Kohlberg, L. (1989) *Lawrence Kohlberg's approach to moral education,* New York: Columbia University Press.

Powers, S. and Millar, C. E. (1984) 'Evaluation of a Drug Education Program in the Third and Fourth Grades', *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 253 804.

Powers, S. I. (1982) 'Family interaction and parental moral development as a context for adolescent moral development', Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University.

Pratt, M. and Diessner, R. (1994) 'Parenting style, scaffolding, and moral stage in parent-adolescent discussions of real-life and hypothetical dilemmas', Poster presented at the annual conference of the Association for Moral Education, Banff, Canada.

Provost, M. A. and LaFreniere, P. J. (1991) 'Social participation and peer competence in preschool children: evidence for discriminate and convergent validity', *Child Study Journal* 21, 57−72.

Puccio, G. J. (1999) *Two Dimensions of Creativity: Level and Style,* New York: Buffalo State University.

Pucio, G. (2010) *Creative Thinking in Education and life* [online], available: http://www.asa3.org/ASA/education/teach/activities.htm [accessed 04/02/2014].

Punch, K. F. (1998) *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches,* [online], available: http://www.amazon.co.uk/Introduction-Social-Research-Quantitative-Qualitative/dp/0761944176 [accessed 12/03/2013]

Qurratulain, A. (2007) *Non Verbal Communication - Managing the Routine Environments* [online], available: http://ezinearticles.com/?Non-Verbal-Communication---Managing-The-Routine-Environmentsandid=617593 [accessed 27/03/2012].

Rabin, R. C. (2010) *Reading, Writing, 'Rithmetic and Relationships* [online], available: http://well.blogs.nytimes.com/2010/12/20/reading-writing-rithmetic-and-relationships/ [accessed 05/06/2014].

Radice-Yarrow, M, Zalin-Waxler, C., Richardson on, D.T. Susman, A. and Martinaz, P. (1994) 'Caring behaviour in children of clinically depressed and well mothers', *Child Development,* 65, 1405-1414.

Ramani, G. B. (2005) *Cooperative Play and Problem-solving in Preschool Children,* Thesis (PhD), University of Pittsburgh, [online], available: http://d-scholarship.pitt.edu/9721/1/gramani_etddissertation_Aug2005.pdf [accessed 19/03/2014].

Rameson, L. T., Lieberman, M. D., (2009) Empathy: A Social Cognitive Neuroscience Approach: Social and Personality Psychology Compass, Department of Psychology, University of California.

Randy, H. and Amy, D. (1989) *Praise in the Classroom* [online], available: http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_pric/is_198900/ai_822327061/ [accessed 21/02/2012].

Rattray, J. Jones, M. C., (2005) 'Essential elements of questionnaire design and development', Journal of Clinical Nursing, 16, 234-243.

Raver, C. C. and Zigler, E. F. (1997) 'Social competence: An untapped dimension in evaluating head start's success', *Early Childhood Research Quarterly,* 12, 363-385.

Reasoner, R. W. (2010) Review of Self-Esteem Research [online], available: http://www.self-esteem-nase.org/research.php [accessed 17/06/2010].

Received 27 February 2003

Reebye, P. N., Ross, S. E., Jamieson, K. and Clark, M. (n.d.) *A Literature Review Of Child - Parent/Caregiver Attachment Theory And Cross-Cultural Practices Influencing Attachment* [online], available: http://www.attachmentacrosscultures.org/research/index.html [accessed 12/01/2014].

Reeve, J. (2009) *Reinforcers and rewards assumptions that relate reinforcement to learning assumptions that relate reinforcement to motivation classroom management to promote educational outcomes,* [online], available: http://www.education.com/reference/article/reinforcement/ [accessed 01/03/2014].

Rennie, L. J. and Treagust, D. F. (1993) 'Factors Affecting the Successful Implementation of Whole-School Curriculum Innovations', *Eric Educational Resources Centre,* ED 361 853.

Republic of Uganda/UNICEF (1997) *Life Skills for Young Ugandans: Primary Teachers' Manual,* Uganda: Uganda Printing and Publishing House.

Research, R. W. (n.d.) *Review of Self- Esteem Research* [online], available: http://www.self-esteem-international.org/content/5-research.html [accessed 13-12-2010].

Rest, J. R. (1985) *An interdisciplinary approach to moral education*, in M. W. Berkowitz and Oser, F. (eds.), *Moral education: Theory and application* (pp. 9-27), Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum.

Revell, L. and Arthur, J. (n.d.) Character Formation in Schools and the Education of Teachers, Canterbury Christ Church University College in partnership with The Esmée Fairbairn Foundation.

Reynolds, P. R. (2007) *The "Pedagogy of the Oppressed": The Necessity of Dealing with Problems in Students' Lives* [online], available: http://www.pilambda.org/ [accessed02/03/2010].

Richards, P. (1990) 'Critical Thinking: Basic Question and Answers', Foundation for Critical Thinking [online], available: www.criticalthinking.org/aboutCT/CTquestionsandAnswers.cfun [accessed 12/09/2011].

Richardson L. (2000) 'New writing practices in qualitative research', *Sociology of Sports Journal* 17, 5–20.

Richardson, G. E., Neiger, B. L., Jensen, S. and Kumpfer, K. L. (1990) 'The resiliency model', *Health Education,* 21, 33-39.

Rigby, M. and Sanchis, E. (2006) 'The concept of skill and its social construction', European journal of vocational training, 37(1), 22-33.

Rivkin, M. S. (2012) *Natural Learning: Guide your child's curiosity outdoors and open up a love of science* [online], available: http://www.scholastic.com/resources/article/natural-learning [accessed20/12/2013].

Robbins, A. (1992) *Awaken the Giant Within,* London: Simon and Schuster Inc.

Rochat, P. (2003) Five levels of self-awareness as they unfold early in life, Consciousness and Cognition, 12 (2003) 717–731.

Rockefeller Foundation (2006) *Making Your School Learner Friendly: A Manual for Primary School Teachers,* Kampala: Bethel Suppliers.

Rodríguez, M. M. D., Donovick, M. R., crowley, S. L. (2009) Parenting Styles in a Cultural Context: Observations of "Protective Parenting" in First-Generation Latinos *Family Process,* 48(2), 195-210.

Roelofsen, C. (2013) *A Qualitative Study on the Impact of Peer Influence on Changes in Sexual Behaviour in Limpopo Province,* Ndlovu CHAMP behavior change programme.

Roger, T. and David, W. J.(1994) An Overview of Cooperative Learning, [online], available: http://teachers.henrico.k12.va.us/staffdev/mcdonald_j/downloads/21st/comm/BenefitsOfCL/OverviewOfCoopLrng_Benefits.html [accessed 31/05/2014].

Rogers, N. (1994) *Fore word,* In Rogers C. R. and Freiberg H. F (eds.) *Freedom to Learn,* 3rd ed. (ppiii-vii), New York: Merrill.

Rolheiser, C. and Ross, J. A. (2013) *Student Self-Evaluation: What Research Says and What Practice Shows* [online], available: http://www.cdl.org/resource-library/articles/self_eval.php [accessed on 21/02/2012].

Rose-Krasnor, L. (1997) ‘The nature of social competence: A theoretical review’, *Social Development,* 6, 111-135.

Ross, J. A. and Rolheiser, C. (n.d.) *Student Self-Evaluation: What Research Says And What Practice Shows* [online], available: http://www.cdl.org/resource-library/articles/self_eval.php [accessed 12/03/2014].

Roxana, A., Hicks, J. and Amas, D. (2010) Self-Awareness and Personal Development in Social Work Education – A Pilot Programme of Experiential Workshops, Networks Issue 13.

Roy, M. (2011) What is Counselling? Meaning ,Need and Significance [online], available: http://teachereducationguidanceandcounsellin.blogspot.com/2011/03/what-is-counselling-meaning-need-and.html [accessed].

Rubin, K. H. (2001) *The play observation scale The Centre for Children, Relationships and Culture,* University of Maryland, College Park.

Rubin, K. H., Bukowski, W. M. and Parker, J. G. (2006) *Peer interactions, relationships, and groups,* in Damon, W. Richard, M. Lerner (Series eds.) and Eisenberg, N. (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of Child Psychology: Social, emotional, and personality development* (Vol. 3, pp. 571– 645), 6th ed., New York: Wiley.

Rubin, K. H., Coplan, R. J., Chen, X., Buskirk, A. and Wojslawowicz, J. (2005) *Peer relationships in childhood,* in Bornstein, M. and Lamb, M. (eds.).

Rummel, R. J. (1975) *Understanding Conflict and War,* Volume 1, The Dynamic Psychological Field, Chapter 7: Perception and Reality, Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Rummel, R. J. (1976) *Understanding Conflict and War,* Volume 2: The Conflict Helix Field, Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Russell, A., Pettit, G. S. and Mize, J. (1998) ‘Horizontal qualities in parent–child relationships: Parallels with and possible consequences for children's peer relationships’, *Developmental Review,* 18, 313−352.

Russell, R. (2012) *How to Explain the Role of Perception in Conflict* [online], available: http://www.ehow.com/how_6635626_explain-role-perception-conflict.html [accesed 20/12/2013].

Rustique, F. E. and Kathryn, R. (2001) ‘Bringing Disenfranchised Young People Back into the Frame: A UK Perspective on Disaffection from School and the Curriculum’, *Eric Educational Resources,* ED 454 61 EA 031 121.

Ruszult Craig (2001) *Critical Thinking Skills in Education and Life* [online] available: http://www.asa3.org/ASA/education/think/critical.htm [accessed 17/02/2010].

S. Mohebi, S., Sharifirad, G. H., R., Shahsiah, M., Botlani, S. and Matlabi, M. and Rezaeian, (2012) ‘The effect of assertiveness training on student's academic anxiety ‘, *Journal of the Pakastani Medical Association* (Suppl. 1), 6(62), 37-41.

Safram, J. D. (1990) ‘Towards a refinement of cognitive therapy in light of interpersonal theory: 1 theory’, *Clinical psychology Review,* 10, 87-103.

Sagan, E. (1988) *Freud, women, and morality: The psychology of good and evil,* New York: Basic Books.

Sagoe, D. (2012) ‘Precincts and prospects in the use of focus groups in social and behavioral science research’, *The Qualitative Report,* 17(29), 1-16.

Saldana, J. (2008) *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers,* [online], available: http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/24614_01_Saldana_Ch_01.pdf accessed 07/05/2014.

Sanders, M. R. (1992) ‘New directions in behavioural family intervention with children: From clinical management to prevention’, *New Zealand Journal of Psychology,* 21, 25-36.

Sattes, B. D. and Walsh, J. A. (2012) Thinking Through Quality Questioning Activity Packet, Professional Learning Sponsored by Salesmanship Club Youth and Family Centers.

Schaffer, H. R. (1996) *Social development,* Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Schofield, J. A. and Anderson, K. K.(1984) ‘Integrating a Quantitative Components into Qualitative Studies: Problems and Possibilities for Research on Intergroup Relations in Educational Settings’, Paper presented at a meeting of the Society for Research on Child Development Study Group on Ethnic Socialization (Los Angeles, CA, January 1984).

Schulman, M., and Mekler, E. (1985) *Bringing up a moral child: A new approach for teaching your child to be kind, just, and responsible,* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Schultz, B. L., Richardson, R. C., Barber, C. R. and Wilcox, D. (2011) ‘Preschool pilot study of "connecting with others: lessons for teaching social and emotional competence’’, Early Childhood Education Journal, 39(2), 143-148.

Schunk, D.H. (1995) ‘Goal and self-evaluative influences during children's mathematical skill acquisition’, Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Schwartz, M. (n.d.) Teaching Methods for Case Studies, The Learning and Teaching Office [online], available: http://www.ryerson.ca/content/dam/lt/resources/handouts/CaseMethodBestPractices.pdf [accessed 31/5/2014].

Schwarz, J. C., Barton-Henry, M. L. and Pruzinsky, T. (1985) 'Assessing child-rearing behaviours: A comparison of ratings made by mother, father, child, and sibling on the CRPBI, *Child Development,* 56(2), 462-479.

Scottsdale, B. (2011) *What Is Cognitive Empathy* [online], available: http://www.ehow.com/info_8712318_cognitive-empathy.html [accessed19/05/2013].

Scripture Union of Uganda (n.d.) *Life Skills Training* [online], available: http://suuganda.org/life-skills-training/ [accessed 09/06/2014].

Searcy, S, and Meadows, N. B. (1994) The impact of social structures on friendship development for children with behaviour disorders, in Overton, S. S., (2006) *The Forgotten Intervention: How to Design Environments that Foster Friendship,* The International and Child and Youth Care Network, Cyc-OnLine.

Semali, L. M, and Kincheloe, J. L., (ed.) (1999) *What is Indigenous Knowledge? Voices from the Academy.*,New York: Falmer Press, pp.381.

Shaffer, D. R. (1999) *Developmental Psychology: Childhood and Adolescence*, Adolescent Psychology, Boston: Brooks/Cole Pub.

Shama, A. B. and Norah Fredericksona, N. C. (2011) 'The parenting dimensions of british pakistani and white mothers of primary school children', *Infant and Child Development, Inf. Child. Dev.* 20, 313–329

Shaun, M. (n.d.) *How to Praise Students in Middle School* [online], available: http://shaun-martin.suite101.com/how-to-praise-students-in-middle-school-a107418 [accessed 11/02/2012].

Shazia, M. (2011) 'Addressing Gender Inequality in Adolescent Life Skills Education: Auhang's Experience in Pakistan', *International Women's Health Coalition* [online], available:http://www.iwhc.org/index.php?option=com_contentandtask=viewandid=2620andItemid=655 [accessed 19/02/2012].

Shepherd, J. (2008) 'Teaching sexuality and life-skills: A guide for teachers using Our Future pupils' books', *International HIV/AIDS Alliance.*

Shoffeit, P. G. (1971) 'The moral development of children as a function of parental moral judgments and childrearing', Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville.

Shonkoff, J. and Phillips, D., (eds.) (2000) *From neurons to neighbouring hoods: the science of early childhood* , Washington, DC: National Academy Press [online], available: www.books.edu/books/0309069882html/index.html [accessed 15/02/2010].

Sieber, S. D. (1973) 'The integration of fieldwork and survey methods', *American Journal of Sociology,* 73, 1335–1359.

Silverman, D. (2005) *Doing Qualitative Research,* 2nd ed. London: Sage.

Skills You NEED (2014) Assertiveness – Introduction [online], available: http://www.skillsyouneed.com/ps/assertiveness.html#ixzz33UEI0800 [accessed 02/06/2014].

SkillsYouNeed (2013) *What is Communication?* [online] available: http://www.skillsyouneed.com/general/what-is-communication.html [accessed 01/08 2013].

SkillsYouNeed (2014) *Life Skills,* [online], available: http://www.skillsyouneed.com/general/life-skills.html (accessed 01/04/2014).

Smith (2009) Learning Through Senses, [online], available: books.google.co.ug/books [accessed] 05/03/2013].

Snider, A. C. (n.d.) *Debate as a method for improving critical thinking and creativity,* World Debate Institute, University of Vermont [online], available: Asnider@zoo.uvm.edu;http://debate.uvm.edu [accessed 07/03/2014].

Soar, R. S. and Soar, R. M. (1970) 'Negative Home Influence and Pupil School Success', Paper presented at American Educational Research Association Convention, Minneapolis, Minnesota, March 2-6, 1970.

Souter, D. H. (2009) 'The nature of feedback provided to elementary students in classrooms where grading and reporting are standards-based', *Educational Policy Studies Dissertations,* Paper 62, Georgia State University.

South, A., Edge, L. and Wilson, A. (1999) *Strategies for Enhancing Students' Social Development,* Department of Education and Children's Services, Government of South Australia.

Sparrow, S. S., Balla, D. A. and Cicchetti, D. V. (1984) Vineland adaptive Behaviour scales, Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Speicher, B. (1994) 'Family patterns of moral judgment during adolescence and early adulthood', *Developmental Psychology,* 30, 624-632.

Speicher-Dubin, B. (1982) 'Relationships between parent moral Judgment, Child moral Judgment and Family Interaction: A correlational study', Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University.

Spiller, D. (2009) Assessment-Feedback to Promote Learning, Teaching Development, The University of Waikato.

Srikala, B. and Kishore K. K. V. (2010) 'Empowering adolescents with life skills education in schools – School mental health program: Does it work?' *Indian Journal of Psychiatry,* 52, 344-9.

Srivastava, P. and Hopwood, N. (2009) 'A practical iterative framework for qualitative data analysis', International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 8(1), 76 – 84.

Sroufe, A. (1995) *Emotional development: The organization of emotional life in the early years,* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Sroufe, A. and Fleeson, J. (1986) *Attachment and the Construction of Relationships,* in W. Hartup and Z. Rubin (eds.), *Relationships and development,* Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum.

Stambler, D. (n.d.) Parenting Styles and Socio-Economics [online], available: http://everydaylife.globalpost.com/parenting-styles-socioeconomics-6515.html [accessed 28/05/2014].

Stanley, S. (1980) *The family and moral education,* in R. L. Mosher (ed.), *Moral education: A first generation of research and development* (pp. 341-355), New York: Praeger.

Statistical Services Centre (2001) 'Approaches to the Analysis of Survey Data', The University of Reading available www.ilri.org/.../Guides/Guides%20on%20Analysis/ApprochAnalysis.pdf [accessed 23/08/2014].

Statistics Canada, (2014) *Questionnaire Design,* [online], available: http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/12-539-x/2009001/design-conception-eng.htm [accessed 24/06/2014].

Staub, E. (1979) *Positive Social Behaviour and Morality Volume 2: Socialization and development,* New York: Academic Press.

Steinberg, L., Darling, N. and Fletcher, A. C. (1995) Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment: An ecological journey, in Moen, P., Elder, G. H. J. and Luscher, K. (eds.), *Examining lives in context: Perspectives on the ecology of human development* (pp. 423-466), Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Steinberg, L., Dornbusch, S. M. and Brown, B. B. (1992) 'Ethnic differences in adolescent achievement: An ecological perspective', *American Psychologist,* 47(6), 723-729.

Steindorf, S. (2001) 'A student researched website simulates escape from slavery', *Christian Science Monitor,* 94(13), p12.

Stiegelbauer, S. (1982) Through the Eye of the Beholder: On the Use of Qualitative Methods in Data Analysis, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (66th ,New York, NY, March 19-23, 1982).

Strayer, and Roberts, W. (2004) 'Children's anger, emotional expressiveness, and empathy: Relations with parents' empathy, expressiveness and parenting practices', *Social Development,* 13(2), 229-254.

Streubert-Speziale, H. and Carpenter, D. R. (2007) *Qualitative Research in Nursing – Advancing the Humanistic Imperative*, 4th, ed., Philadephia: Lippincott Williams and Wikins.

Strutzenberger, M. (2003) *Assertiveness and Communication Skills, Channel Island Training and Development Ltd* [online], available: www.citd.co.uk/courses/course_details.cfm?id=E600FC83-4F8A-4535 [accessed: 28/02/2010].

Stueber, K. (2008) *The Study of Cognitive Empathy and Empathic Accuracy* [online], available: http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/empathy/cognitive.html [accessed 2/03/2012].

Stuhlman, M. W., Hamre, B. K., Downer, J. T. and Pianta, R. C. (n.d.) Why Should we Use Classroom Observation, Centre for Advanced of Teaching and Learning, University of Virginia, available at: curry.virginia.edu/uploads/.../CASTL_practioner_Part1_single.pdf [accessed 23/08/2014].

Sulvan, T. J. (2001) *Methods of Social Research,* United States of America: Earl McPeek.

Swartz, J. D. (1993) 'A study combining criticism and qualitative research techniques for appraising classroom media', *Eric Educational Resources Centre,* ED 359 212, TM 019 838.

Taber, N. (2010) *Institutional Ethnography, and Narrative: an argument for incorporating multiple methodologies, Qualitative Research,[*Downloaded from qrj.sagepub.com at University of Limerick on November 7, 2012].

Taina, K. and Maatta, K. (2011) 'Using children as research subjects: How to interview a child aged 5 to 7 years', *Educational Research and Reviews* 6(1)87-93.

Tam, M. C. (1986) Thinking skills: A return to the content area classroom. "Paper presented at the annual meeting of the international Reading Association, 19pp. *Eric Educational Resources Centre,* ED 271 737.

Tama, M. C. (1989) 'Critical thinking has a place in every classroom', *Journal of Reading,* 33(1), 64-65.

Tammivaara, J. and Enright, D. (1986) 'On eliciting information: dialogue with children informants', *Anthropology and Education Quarterly,* 17, 218-238.

Taylor, D., Bury, M., Campling, N., Carter, S., Garfied, S., Newbould, J. and Rennie, T. (2006) A Review of the use of the Health Belief Model (HBM), the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and the Trans-Theoretical Model (TTM) to study and predict health related behaviour change, University of London.

Taylor, S. J. and Bogdan, R. (1984) *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings,* New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Taylor-Powell, E. and Renner, M. (2003) Analyzing Qualitative Data, University of Wisconsin.

Teaching Values.com (2009) Why is story telling an Effective Technique to use? [online], available: http://www.teachingvalues.com/whystorytelling.html [accessed 20/02/2014].

Ten Dam, G. and Volman, M. (2003) 'Life jacket and art of living: social competency and the reproduction of inequality in education, *Curriculum Inquiry,* 33(2), 117-137.

Ten Dam, G. and Volman, M. (2007) 'Educating for adulthood or for citizenship: Social competence as an educational goal, *European Journal of Education,* 42 (2), 281-298.

Terrace, G. (2011) *Building Positive Relationships with Empathy* [online] available: http://www.bggs.qld.edu.au/building-positive-relationships-with-empathy/ [accessed 10/12/2012].

Thabane, L., Jinhui, M., Rong Chu, Ji Cheng, Afisi, I., Lorena, P. R., Robson, R., Thabane, M., Lora Giangregorio, L. and Goldsmith, C. H. (2010) *A tutorial on pilot studies: the what, why and how,* [online], available: http://www.biomedcentral.com/content/pdf/1471-2288-10-1.pdf [accessed 21/11/2011].

The African Child Policy Forum (2009) *Child-Friendly Laws in Africa,* Adis Ababa, Ethiopia.

The Alberta Teachers' Association (2014) What is the effect of class size on student learning? [online], available: https://www.teachers.ab.ca/Publications/The%20Learning%20Team/Volume%203/Number%201/Pages/What%20is%20the%20effect%20of%20class%20size%20on%20student%20learning.aspx [accessed 05/06/2014].

The Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) (2008) Teachers Manual for HIV/AIDS Kits for Primary 5 – 7 – Say No to HIV/AIDS, Kampala: Barouque Publishers.

The Pennsylvania State University (2007) 'Innovation insights,' *Innovation Insight Series Number 8* [0nline], available: http://www.psu.edu/president/pia/innovation/ [accessed 24/04/2014].

The Teaching Center (2013) *Asking Questions to Improve Learning,* Washington University in St. Louis [online], available: http://teachingcenter.wustl.edu/strategies/Pages/asking-questions.aspx [accessed 03/06/2014].

The University of Texas at Austin (2007) 'Analyzing observation data', *Conduct Research* [online], available:

https://www.utexas.edu/academic/ctl/assessment/iar/research/report/observ-analyze.php [accessed 25/04/2014].

Theresa, M. F., Carrie, A. H. and Scott D. S. (2004) *Parents' Perceptions of Life Skills Development in the 4 – H Cloverbud Program* [online], available: http://www.joe.org/joe/2004june/rh6.shtm/ (accessed 6/08/2008].

Thorne, S. (2000) *Data analysis in qualitative research* [online], available: http://ebn.bmj.com/content/3/3/68.full [accessed 19/12/2013].

Tiainen, T. and Koivunen E. R. (2006) 'Exploring forms of triangulation to facilitate collaborative research practice: reflections from a multidisciplinary research group', *Journal of Research Practice,* 2(2), 1-16.

Tisana, k., boosbong, T. and Sarinthom, V. (1995) 'Principles and Models OF Early Childhood Development in Thai Cultural Ways: Selected Research Findings Relating to Social Context and Child's Transition from Home to School', Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the (San Fransisco, CA, Apeil 18 – 22, 1995).

Tobin, G. A. andBegley, C. M. (2004) 'Methodological rigour within a qualitative framework', *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 48(4), 388–396.

Triandis, H.C. (1993) 'Collectivism and individualism as cultural syndromes', *Cross-Cultural Research,* 27, 155-180.

Tribe, J. (2001) 'Research paradigms and the tourism curriculum', Journal of Travel Research,39 (May), 442–448.

Turnbull, A. P., Turnbull R. H. III, Shank, M. and Leal, D. (1995) *Exceptional Lives: Special Education In Today's' Schools*, Englewood, NJ: Merrill.

Tyrer, M. (2010) *Teaching Life Skills In The Elementary School Classroom,* Andover, MA: Helium, Inc.

Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB) (2003) The Achievements of primary School Pupils in Uganda in English and Numeracy, Kampala: UNEB

Underwood, M. K. (2004) Gender and peer relations: Are the two gender cultures really all that different? in J. B. Kupersmidt and K.A. Dodge (eds.), *Children's peer relations: From development to intervention* (pp. 21−36), Washington, DC: APA Publications.

UNESCO (2005) *Contributing to a more Sustainable future: Quality Education, Life Skills and Education for Sustainable development* [online], available: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001410/141019e.pdf [accessed 13/09/2009].

UNESCO (2007) 'Changing perspectives on early childhood: theory', research and policy, Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007 Strong foundations: early childhood care and education, 2007/ED/EFA/MRT/PI/33/REV.

UNESCO (2008a) Education For All (EFA) *International Coordination* [online], available: http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php [accessed 29/07/2008].

UNESCO (2008b) *Focusing Resources on Effective School Health (FRESH), More About Skills – based Health Education* [online], available: www.unesco.org/education/fresh [accessed 29/07/2008].

UNESCO (2008c) *Gender-Responsive Life Skills-Based Education - Advocacy Brief,* Bangkok: UNESCO Bangkok, Life Skills Education.

UNESCO (2008d) *Gender-Responsive Life Skills-Based Education,* Thailand: UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education, APL/08/OP/059-1000.

UNESCO (2012) *Youth and Skills: Putting Education to Work,* EFA Global Monitoring Report.

UNICEF (2002) HIV/AIDS Education: A Gender Perspective, Tips and Tools.

UNICEF (2003) *Definition of Terms* [online], available: http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/index_7308.html [accessed 17/03/2014].

UNICEF (2004) Which Life Skills are Life Skills?, UNICEF/ HQ00-0305/ Pirozzi [online], available: http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/index_which lifeskills.html [accessed 10/10/2010].

UNICEF (2008) *Life Skills* [online], available: htt://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/index7308.htm/ [accessed 6/08/2008].

UNICEF (2010) UNICEF'S Child-Friendly Schools: Uganda Case Study, Education Section Programme Division, available at: www.unicef.org/uganda/CFS_Uganda_Case_Study_January_2010.pdf, [accessed: 23/08/2014]

UNICEF (2011) An Assessment of the Life-Skills Based Curriculum Project in Lao PDR, Scaling Up the Response for Children, available at: www.unicef.org/eapro/Assessment_of_the_lifeskills.pdf, [accessed: 23/08/2014]

UNICEF (2012) Global Evaluation of Life Skills Programmes, Evaluation Report, available at: www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/index_66242.html [accessed: 23/08/2014]

UNICEF (2012) *Life Skills-Based Education for HIV/AIDS Prevention, Health/Sanitation, Peace Education and the Environment in Southern Sudan* (Operation Lifeline Sudan)

Southern Sudan (OLS), [online], available: http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/index_8400.html [accessed 17/03/2014]

UNICEF (Advocates for Youth) (n.d.) Life Skills Approaches to Improving Youth's Sexual and Reproductive Health [online], available: http://www.advocatesforyouth.org/publications/publications-a-z/536-life-skills-approaches-to-improving-youths-sexual-and-reproductive-health [accessed 12/96/2014]

UNICEF (n.d.) Definition of terms: Life Skills Education [online], available: http://www.unicef.org/lifeskills/index_7308.html [accessed 09/07/2011].

UNICEF ESARO, (2001) Gender, Sexuality and HIV and AIDS in Education, Glossary-some key terms and concepts, definitions from a workshop held in Blantyre, Malawi (16th-20th July 2001).

UNICEF-ESARO (2002) *Life Skills Education with a Focus on HIV/AIDS,* Eastern and Southern Africa Region.

UNICEF ESARO (2005) *Life Skills Based Education in South East Asia,* A Regional Overview prepared for: The South Asia Life Skills Based Education Forum 2005, Kathmandu, Nepal: Format Printing Press.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNDOC) (n.d.) *Life Skills:* Module 7 [online], available: https://www.unodc.org/pdf/youthnet/action/message/escap_peers_07.pdf [accessed 02/01/2014]

University of South Alabama (n.d.) Qualitative Data Analysis, Chapter 17.

Vargo, S. P. (2012) 'Teaching by Debate', unpublished Master's paper, The Center for Faculty Excellence, United States Military Academy, West Point, NY, 2012.

Vaughn, B. E., Azria, M. R., Krzysik, L., Caya, L. R., Bost, K. K. and Newell, W. (2000) 'Friendship and social competence in a sample of preschool children attending Head Start', *Developmental Psychology,* 36, 326−338.

Vaughn, B. E., Colvin, T. N., Azria, M. R., Caya, L. and Krzysik, L. (2001) 'Dyadic analyses of friendship in a sample of preschool-age children attending Head Start: Correspondence between measures and implications for social competence', *Child Development,* 72, 862−878.

Veugelers, W. and Vedder, P. (2003) 'Values in teaching', *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice,* 9(4), 89-101.

Vidich, A. J. and Shapiro, G. (1955) 'A comparison of participant observation and survey data', *American Sociological Review,* 20, 28–33.

Vig, S., Kaminer, R. K. and Jedrysek, E. (1987) A later look at borderline and mildly retarded preschoolers', *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics* 8, 12−17.

Villumsen, A., Abuzayed, S. and Ghizawat, A. (2012) 'Life Skills for Youth', A report on the findings of a needs assessment on life skills amongst youth in selected areas in Jordan and Palestine.

Wade, C. (1995) 'Using writing to develop and assess critical thinking', *Teaching of Psychology,* 22(1), 24-28.

Walker, L. J. and Taylor, J. H. (1991) 'Family interactions and the development of moral reasoning', *Child Development,* 62, 264-283.

Walker-Barnes, C. J. and Mason, C. A. (2001) 'Ethnic differences in the effect of parenting on gang involvement and gang delinquency: A longitudinal, hierarchical linear modelling perspective', *Child Development,* 72, 1814–1831.

Walsh, J. A. and Sattes, B. D. (2012) Thinking Through Quality Questioning, Professional Learning: Salesmanship Club Youth and Family Centers.

Walsh, J. A. and Sattes, B. D. (2005) *How Can Quality Questioning Transform Classrooms? Questioning to Advance Thinking, Learning, and Achievement,* [online], available: http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/6605_walsh_ch_1.pdf [accessed 20/02/2014].

Walter, L. (2010) *'China's unassertive rise: what is assertiveness and how we have misunderstood it'*?, International Journal of China Studies, 4(3), 503-508.

Wamahiu, S. (ed.) (2000) A Report of a Workshop on Education, Life Skills and HIV/AIDS, Nairobi.

Wardekker, W. L. (2001) 'Schools and moral education: Conformism or autonomy?', *Journal of Philosophy of Education,* 35(1), 101-114.

Watson, S. (2012) *The Inclusional Classroom Promoting Learning* [online], available: http://specialed.about.com/od/integration/a/inclusional.htm [accessed 12/02/2012].

Watson, S. (n.d.) *Improving Self-Esteem* [online], available: http://specialed.about.com/od/characterbuilding/a/esteem.htm [accessed 20/02/2012].

Weaver, K. and Olson, J. k. (2006) 'Understanding paradigms used for nursing research', *Journal of Advanced Nursing,* 53(4), 459-469.

Webster- Stratton, C. and Lindsy, D. W. (1999) 'Social competence and early onset conduct problems: Issues in assessment', Journal of Child Clinical Psychology, 28, 25-93.

Webster-Stratton, (1999) *How to promote Children's Social and Emotional Competence,* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Weiner, I. B. (1980) *Psychopathology in adolescence*, in J. Adelson (ed.), *Handbook of adolescent psychology* (pp. 447-471) and New York: Wiley.

Weiss, L. H. and Schwarz, J. C. (1996) 'The relationship between parenting types and older adolescents' personality, academic achievement, adjustment, and substance use', *Child Development,* 67(5), 2101-2114.

Weisz, J. R., Weiss, B., Han, S. S., Granger, D. A. and Morton, T. (1995) 'Effects of psychotherapy with children and adolescents revisited: A meta-analysis of treatment outcome studies', *Psychological Bulletin,* 117, 450-468.

Welty, E. and Sharp, R. A. (1991) *The Norton Book of friendship,* New York: W. Norton and Co.

Westerman, M. (1990) 'Coordination of maternal directives with preschoolers' behavior in compliance-problem and health dyads', *Developmental Psychology,* 26, 621-630 [online], available: http://www.who.int/school_youth_health/media/en/sch_skills4health_03.pdf [accessed 14/02/2012].

Whisky Creek Document Design (2003) *Why is Story Telling an Effective Technique to Use?* [online], available: http://www.teachingvalues.com/whystorytelling.html [accessed 20/02/2014].

Whitebread, D., Marisol, B., Kuvalja, M. and Mohini, V. (2012) *The Importance of Play: A report on the value of children's play with a series of policy recommendations, Toy Industries Of Europe (TIE),* [online], available: http://www.importanceofplay.eu/IMG/pdf/dr_david_whitebread_-_the_importance_of_play.pdf [accessed 26/01/2014]

Whittemore, R., Chase, S. K. and Mandle, C. L. (2001) 'Validity in qualitative research', *Qualitative Health Research* 11(4), 522-537.

WHO (1997) *Life skills education for Children and Adolescents in Schools: Introduction and Guidelines to Facilitate the Development and Implementation of Life Skills Programmes,* Programme on Mental Health, WHO/MNH/PSF/93.7A.Rev.2.

WHO (1999) *Conclusions from a United Nations Inter-Agency Meeting, Partners in Life Skills Education, Mental Health Promotion,* available at: www.who.int/mental_health/media/en/30.pdf [accessed: 23/08/2014]

WHO (1999) Partners in Life Skills Education - Conclusions from a United Nations Inter-agency Meeting (April, 1998), Conclusions from a United Nations Inter-Agency Meeting, Partners in Life Skills Education, Mental Health Promotion, WHO/MNH/MHP/99.2 [online], available: http://www.who.int/mental_health/media/en/30.pdf [accessed 12/06/2014].

WHO (2003) Skills for health: Skills-based health education including life skills: An important element of a child friendly health-promoting school. The World Health Organization's Information Series on School Health Document 9.

WHO (2009) Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Standards for Schools in Low-cost Settings

Wilkerson, L., (1986) *Professional and Organizational Development in Higher Education: A Hand book for Practitioners*, Chapter 15: Classroom Observation: Observer as a collaborator, [0nline], available: https://www.lmu.edu/Assets/Centers+$!2b+Institutes/Center+for+Teaching+Excellence/CO+Wilkerson.pdf [accessed 23/08/2014].

Wilkins, S. (2012) *Youth and skills: Putting education to work*, UNESCO, available at: unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002180/218003e.pdf [accessed 23/08/2014].

Williams, G. A., and Asher, S. R. (1992) 'Assessment of loneliness at school among children with mild mental retardation', *American Journal on Mental Retardation*, 96, 373−385.

Wilson. V. A. (1998) Qualitative Research: An Introduction. Purposes, Methodology, Criteria for Judgment, and a Rationale for Mixed Methodology, *Eric Educational Resources Centre*, ED 423 285, TM 029 090.

Win, W. (n.d.) *Gender-based abuse and violence, The International Guide to Addressing Gender-Based Violence Through Sport* [online], available: http://guide.womenwin.org/life-skills/gender-based-abuse-and-violence [accessed 25/09/2014].

Women Win (2011) Gender-based abuse and violence: The International Guide to Addressing Gender-Based Violence Through Sport [online], available: http://guide.womenwin.org/life-skills/gender-based-abuse-and-violence [accessed 18/02/2012].

World Affairs Council of Houston (n.d.) *The Oral Traditions of Africa*, Teach Africa.

World Bank (2005) Tool Kit on Hygiene, Water and Sanitation in Schools [online] available: www.wsp.org/Hygiene-Sanitation-Water-Toolkit/index.html [accessed 27/03/2014]

World Health Organization, Programme on Mental Health (1997) Life Skills in Schools. WHO/MNH/PSF/93.7A Rev.2. Geneva: WHO, Division of Mental Health and Prevention of Substance Abuse.

World Population Foundation (2010) Life Skills Based Education Programme in Pakistan, An Evaluation – 2006-2010.

Wright.C. (1995) Winds of Change: Reflections on Community Based Child Development in Nepal, Lessons Learnt No.6. *Eric Educational Resources* ED 414 999, PS 025 706.

Writer, C. (2010) *Early Childhood Self-Esteem Development* [online], availabe: http://www.livestrong.com/article/52566-early-childhood-selfesteem-development/ [accessed 27/01/2013].

Yankah, E. and Aggleton, P. (2008) 'Effects and Effectiveness of Life Skills Education for HIV prevention in Young People', *AIDS Education and Prevention*, 20(6), 465–485.

Young, E. L. and Hoffmann, L. L. (2004) 'Self-esteem in Children: Strategies for Parents and Educators', National Association of School Psychologists.

Yugar, J. M. and Shapiro, E. S. (2001) 'Elementary children's school friendship: A comparison of peer assessment methodologies', *School Psychology Review*, 30, 568−585.

Zahn-Waxler, C., Radke-Yarrow, M. and King, R. A. (1979) 'Child rearing and children's prosocial initiations towards victims of distress', *Child Development*, 50, 319-330.

Zamanou, S. Glaser, S.R. (1989) 'Communication Intervention in an Organization: Measuring the Results through a Triangulation Approach', Paper presented at Annual Meeting of Speech Communication Association (75th, San Francisco, CA, November 18-21, 1989).

Zeitlin, A., Bategeka, L., Guloba, M., Kasirye, I. and Mugisha, F. (2011) Management and motivation in Ugandan primary schools: Impact evaluation final report, Centre for the Study of African Economies, University of Oxford and Economic Policy Research Centre.

Zodikoff, D. H. (1967) 'A Study of Social Attitudes of Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grade Pupils', *Eric Educational Resources Centre*, ED 042 184, CG 005 673.

Zullinger, C. and Mentavlos, M. (1990) 'Support Programs for At-Risk Youth', *Eric Educational Resources Centre*, ED 422 449, UD 032 509.

Zwaan, A., ten Dam, G. and Volman, M. (2006) Teachers' goals regarding social competence', *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 29(2), 181-202.

Zwaans, A, van der Veen, I., Volman M., and ten Dam, G. (2008) *Social Competence As An Educational Goal: The Role Of The Ethnic Composition And The Urban Environment Of The School*, Netherlands: Elsevier Ltd.

APPENDICES

1. Life skills and life skills indicators
   1.1. Life skills and their indicators for life skills in primary two
   1.2. Life skills and their indicators for life skills in primary five
2. Information sheets and consent forms
   2.1. Participant information sheet (adults)
   2.2. Participant information sheet (children)
   2.3. Informed consent form (adults)
   2.4. Informed consent form (children)
3. Instruments
   3.1. Interview guide for district education officials
   3.2. Interview guide for Coordinating Centre Tutors
   3.3. Interview guide for head teachers
   3.4. Interview guide for parents
   3.5. Interview guide for teachers
   3.6. Interview guide for pupils
   3.7. Questionnaires to teachers
   3.8. Observation instrument or guide for live lessons
4. Letter seeking for permission from the head teacher
5. Data Analysis Chapter 5
   5.1. Initial codes
   5.2. Initial themes and codes
6. Chapter six appendices
   6.1. Lesson plan details for each of the 24 lessons observed
   6.2. Tables of cross-tabulations and chi-squares of methods used to teach life skills and the indicators of those life skills witnessed by teachers.

Appendix 1: LIFE SKILLS AND LIFE SKILLS INDICATORS

1.1 Life skills and their Indicators for life skills in primary two

SELF-ESTEEM Indicators Expressing likes and dislikes Self-appreciation Talking about oneself	ASSERTIVENESS Indicators Being open Listening to and valuing what others say Expressing one's point of view Volunteering Giving reasons for actions taken Standing up for ones' rights Responding to questions
SELF-AWARENESS Indicators Self –identification Self-evaluation Talking about one's potential, feelings and emotions Talking about one's culture, e.g. tribe, home, religion Knowing one's position and responsibility Making choices Caring for oneself	COPING WITH STRESS Indicators Being patient Forgiving others Accepting positive advice Talking about personal experiences Narrating past experiences
COPING WITH EMOTION Indicators Recognising emotions Identifying other people's emotions Being sensitive to other people's feelings Recognizing causes of different emotions Making right critical reasons	CREATIVE THINKING Indicators Logical reasoning Initiating new ideas Finding different ways of doing things
EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION Indicators Fluency Audibility Confidence Articulation Accuracy Logical thinking Non-verbal expression	FRIENDSHIP FORMATION Indicators Sharing Playing with others Working in groups Using polite language
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS Indicators Forgiving others Interacting freely with others Caring for others Sharing with others Knowing how to behave with different people, under different circumstances.	EMPATHY Indicators Supporting others Caring for others Using appropriate language (etiquette) Listening to others Comforting Guiding others
NEGOTIATION Indicators Using persuasive language Use of appropriate body language Temper control Responding appropriately Apologizing Requesting Appreciation	NON-VIOLENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION Indicators Resolving issues without fighting Negotiating Using appropriate language Assisting others to come to an understanding Coping with stress Accepting defeat Knowing when to give in
PEER RESISTANCE Indicators Standing up for one's values and beliefs Defending one's decisions Standing by one's principles	PROBLEM-SOLVING Indicators Taking decisions Making choices Evaluating facts Finding different strategies of solving problems
DECISION-MAKING Indicators Acceptance Refusal Making choices Asking questions Giving instructions Knowing the consequences of one's decisions	CRITICAL THINKING Indicators Responding to questions Selecting, evaluating and using information Analysing statements Giving reasons for actions taken Taking decisions

1.2: Life skills and their Indicators for life skills in primary five

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION Fluency Audibility Meaningfulness Confidence Articulation Accuracy Logical flow of ideas Verbal Non-verbal	FRIENDSHIP FORMATION Sharing Playing with others Working in groups Using polite language Love Concern Care Trustworthiness Faithfulness Responsibility	DECISION-MAKING Acceptance Refusal Making choices Asking questions Giving instructions Telling consequences of decisions made
SELF-ESTEEM Expressing likes and dislike Self-appreciation Talking about self	ASSERTIVENESS Being open Listening and valuing what others say. Expressing one's point of view Volunteering Giving reasons for one's rights Responding to Questions	CRITICAL THINKING Responding to questions appropriately Selecting and evaluating information Analysing statements Giving reasons for action taken Taking a decision Making the best use of the information you have
CREATIVE THINKING Logical reasoning Initiating new ideas Innovativeness Finding different ways of doing things	PROBLEM-SOLVING Taking a decision Making choice Evaluating facts Finding different ways of doing things	INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP Forgiving others Interacting freely with others Caring for others Sharing with others Knowing how to be with different people under different circumstances Working together Respecting others' opinions Reacting appropriately Respecting other people's property, cultures Appreciating individual differences
EMPATHY Supporting others Caring Guiding others Using appropriate language (etiquette) Listening to others Comforting	SELF-AWARENESS Self-identification Self-evaluation Talking about one's culture, that is tribe, home, religion Knowing one's position and responsibility Making choice Caring	COPING WITH STRESS Being patient Forgiving others Accepting advice Talking about personal problems Narrating past experiences
NEGOTIATION Using persuasive language Using appropriate body language Temper control Responding appropriately Apologising Requesting Thinking	NON-VIOLENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION Resolving issues without fighting Negotiating Using appropriate language Assisting others to come to an understanding Coping with stress Accepting defeat Knowing when to give in	COPING WITH EMOTION Recognising emotions Identifying other people's emotions and feelings Being sensitive about other people's feelings Recognising causes for different emotions Making critical decisions for different emotions Not letting your emotions affect your decisions
PEER RESISTANCE Standing for one's values and benefits Defending one's decision Standing by one's principles		

Both tables represent all the life skills as designed and planned for all pupils in the primary schools. The difference

Appendix 2: INFORMATION SHEETS AND CONSENT FORMS

2.1: Participant information sheet (Adult)

Life skills' education project

Participant information sheet

What is the project about?
When our children are growing up, they need to develop skills of keeping themselves safe, living with others comfortably, and making good decisions. The current study will focus on how what children learn at school enables them to cope with everyday challenges and live comfortably in society. For example how do the subjects' children learn at school, the methods used to teach these subjects, children's relationships with their peers and the teacher, and children's relationships with their parents help them to develop life skills for comfortable living in society. The study will look at what affect all these and how they enable our children to adapt to different situations.
Who is undertaking the study?
My name is Bwayo John and I am a post graduate student attending Mary Immaculate College. I am presently doing a PhD. by research under the supervision of Prof. Claire Lyons. The current study will form part of my thesis.
What is being undertaken?
The objective of the study is to find out how the life skills education programme in primary schools enables our children to acquire skills that can enable them to effectively face their day to day challenges and make appropriate recommendations that will help in providing quality primary school education.
What are the benefits of this research?
It is hoped that the data collected from the participants will (a) Enhance our understanding of the quality of education being provided in our primary schools. (b) Enable us understand how to support our children by enabling them to develop the required life skills, (c) may enable us acquire safe personal living skills, comfortable relationships with others, and good decision-making skills.
Exactly what is involved for the participant (time, location, task etc.)?
You the different participants will be involved:

In the teaching learning process when you are a teacher or a pupil. Classes will be observed.
In interviews when you are a teacher, parent or administrator.
In answering a questionnaire when you are a teacher.
In group interviews when you are a pupil.

These activities will take place in school or at home if it is more convenient for you.

Right to withdraw
Your anonymity is assured and you are free to withdraw from any of the activities listed above at any time without giving a reason.
How will the information be used / disseminated?

All the data collected from interviews, focus group discussions, looking at documents, observation of lessons, etc., will be combined with that of the other participants in this study and used to form the results section of my thesis. Individual participant data will not be shown because only summary data will appear in the thesis.

How will confidentiality be kept?

All information collected will remain confidential and will not be released to any third party. A random ID number will be generated for each participant and it is this number rather than the participant's name which will be held with their data to maintain the anonymity.

What will happen to the data after research has been completed?

In accordance with the data protection act (2003) all participant data will be stored for the length of time that it is required to produce this thesis at which time it will be destroyed.

Contact details

If at any time you have queries/issues with regard to this study, my contact details are as follows:

Name: Bwayo John Kissiibo Wilson
E-mail: johnbwayo@gmail.com
Mobile phone number: +256772624048

If you have concerns about this study and wish to contact someone independent, you may contact:

MIREC Administrator
Mary Immaculate College
South Circular Road
Limerick
061-204515mirec@mic.ul.ie

2.2: Children's information sheet

Life skills education project

Children's information sheet

I am doing a project at my University. It's like a project you might do in school. In this project I want to find out what children think about some of the things they learn at school. The kinds of things I want to find out about are how children learn about things like looking after themselves and looking after others.
I'd like to find out by asking you some questions in a small group with other children. It's not like a test - there are no right or wrong answers.
I will use a small recorder so that I can remember what we are talking about. If, when we are talking, you want to stop talking or go back to your classroom that's okay. If you do you won't get in trouble.
The recording will only be listened to by me and someone at the university who is helping me to do my project.
When I write my project I will put in some examples of what we've talked about. But we won't use your name so people won't know who you are. I will be talking to other children in other districts too.
If you have any worries after we talk you can tell your teacher or parents and they will tell me.
If also at any time you have queries/issues with regard to this study, my contact details are as follows: (Your parents or teacher can contact me)
Name: Bwayo John Kissiibo Wilson
E-mail: johnbwayo@gmail.com
Mobile phone number: +256772624048

If you have concerns about this study and wish to contact someone independent, you may contact: (Your parents or teacher can do this for you)
MIREC Administrator
Mary Immaculate College
South Circular Road
Limerick
061-204515mirec@mic.ul.ie

2.3: Participant informed consent form (adult)

Life skills education project

Participant informed consent form

Dear Participant,
As outlined in the participant information sheet the current study will investigate life skills education in primary school.
Details of the nature of the study are provided in the participant information sheet.
The participant information sheet should be read fully and carefully before consenting to take part in the study.
Your anonymity is assured and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time.
All information gathered will remain confidential and will not be released to any third party. In accordance with the Data Protection Act (2003) all participant data will be stored for the length of time that it is required to produce this thesis at which time it will be destroyed.
Please read the following statements before signing the consent form.
• I have read and understood the participant information sheet.
• I understand what the project is about, and what the results will be used for.
• I am fully aware of all of the procedures involved in the study, and of any risks and benefits associated with the study.
• I know that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the project at any stage without giving any reason.
• I am aware that my results will be kept confidential.
Name (PRINTED):----------
Name (Signature):----------
Date: ----------

2.4: Participant informed consent form (children)

Life skills education project

Participant informed consent form

Dear Participant,
As outlined in the participant information sheet the current study will investigate life skills education in primary school.
Details of the nature of the study are provided in the participant information sheet. The participant information sheet should be read fully and carefully before consenting to take part in the study.
Your child's anonymity is assured and he/she is free to withdraw from the study at any time. All information gathered will remain confidential and will not be released to any third party. In accordance with the Data Protection Act (2003) all participant data will be stored for the length of time that it is required to produce this thesis at which time it will be destroyed.
Please read the following statements before signing the consent form.
• I have read and understood the participant information sheet.
• I understand what the project is about, and what the results will be used for.
• I am fully aware of all of the procedures involving my child, and of any risks and benefits associated with the study.
• I know that my child's participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the project at any stage without giving any reason.
• I am aware that my child's results will be kept confidential.
Childs Name: ----------
Parent's Name (PRINTED):----------
Parent's Name (Signature):----------
Date: ----------

Appendix 3: INSTRUMENTS

3.1: Interview guide for district education officials

As a district education officer, what is the value of life skills for your primary school pupils?
What life skills are often developed among your pupils?
What role does the district play in the development of life skills among your primary school pupils?
What challenges do you experience in the development of life skills among pupils in your district?
With your experience, what is the best way to develop life skills among your pupils?
What strategies for improving life skills education in Uganda would you suggest?

3.2: Interview guide for coordinating centre tutors

As a CCT, what is the value of life skills education for your primary school pupils?
What is your role in the development of life skills among your primary school pupils?
Have you undergone sufficient orientation or training in life skills education to enable you to be an efficient performer of your role?
What life skills are often developed among pupils in your catchment area?
With your experience as a CCT, what is the best way to develop life skills among your pupils?
What challenges do you or the teachers experience in the development of life skills among the pupils in your catchment area?
What would you recommend as a way of improving the development of life skills among pupils in primary schools?

3.3: Interview guide for primary school head teachers

As a head teacher, what do you consider to be the value of life skills education for your primary school pupils?
What is your role in the development of life skills among your pupils?
Have you undergone sufficient orientation or training in life skills education to enable you to be an efficient performer of your role?
What life skills are often developed among pupils in your school?
With your experience as a head teacher, what is the best way to develop life skills among your pupils?
What challenges do you experience in the development of life skills among the pupils in your school?
What would you recommend as a way of improving the development of life skills among pupils in your school?

3.4: Interview guide for parents

Other than your child getting employment after school, what else makes you send your children to school?

What sort of children do you therefore want to have after primary education?
What do you do in your family to get the type of child you want to have after primary education?
What do you think the school does to help your child become confident, have self-esteem, make desirable friends, etc.?
Do you think the school is doing enough to help your child achieve the life skills you want?
What do you think the school should do to help you get the child you want?

3.5: Interview guide for teachers

In your opinion, what are life skills?
What comment do you have about the inclusion of life skills education in the primary school curriculum?
What is the value of life skills?
Do you feel sufficiently trained and competent to teach life skills?
What life skills do you teach?
How do you teach these life skills?
What support do you receive from the school to facilitate your teaching of life skills?
Most of our pupils come from home, what influence does the home background of your pupils have on their life skills development?
What challenges do you experience when making effort to develop pupils' life skills?
What do you think should be done to improve life skills education in our primary schools?

3.6: Interview guide for pupils

What do you like about being at school? Why?
(Story one, first picture) What do you like in this picture? Why? Do you have any teacher who makes sure that you are safe during break and lunch time? How can you keep yourself secure without a teacher?
What don't you like in the picture? Why?

(Picture two of story one) What is the boy in red doing? What is good in what he is doing?
(Story 1 picture 4)What do you like in this picture now? Why? If you were the boy who was knocked down, what would you do? If you were the boy who knocked down your friend, what would you do next time when playing with others?
(Story one picture five)What do you now like in this picture? What is the main work of the person in pink?

(Story two, picture one) What is happening in the picture?
(Story two picture two) What is happening in the picture? Why are the children and parents very happy? What other things make your parents to be happy with you?
(Story three picture one) What is happening in the picture? How do you feel when you give a correct answer to a teacher's question? What do you like the teacher to do when you have given a correct answer?

NOTE: For pupils' interview guide I have added story three which is a classroom situation because I found out that it has very strong indicators of self-esteem and self-awareness. The interview will also focus more on self-esteem, self-awareness, friendship formation, negotiation and non-violent conflict resolution.

3.7: Questionnaire to teachers

Class……
…….
Number of children boys……girls……total……
Subjects taught……..
Number of periods taught per day…….
For each of the following life skills, indicate the activities you mostly use to develop them and the indicators that show you have developed them:
NOTE: Actions are what the teacher does or makes the children do to develop life skills in pupils and indicators are the things you see or witness children do that help to show the life skills developed. In each case tick your response.

Self-esteem

Activities that facilitate learning the skill:

Chance to answer questions
Methods used in teaching: group work, debate, brainstorming, question and answer.
Teacher's positive feedback on children's performance: encouragement, acknowledgment, nodding in appreciation, positive verbal support
Individual tasks performed on the chalk board.
Others……
……
……
……

Indicators of achievement of the life skill:

Putting up hands
Volunteering to perform tasks on the chalk board
Acknowledging confidently that one can perform a certain task
Fully contributing while in group discussion
Accepting responsibility
Others……
……
……
……

Self-awareness

Activities that facilitate learning the life skill:

Chance to answer questions

Methods used in teaching: group work, debate, brainstorming, question and answer
Teacher's positive feedback on children's performance: encouragement, acknowledgement, nodding in appreciation, positive verbal, support
Individual tasks performed on the chalk board.
Other……
……..
……
……
……....

Indicators of achievement of the life skill:

Putting up hands
Volunteering to perform tasks on the chalk board
Acknowledging confidently that one can perform a certain task
Fully contributing while in group discussion
Accepting responsibility
Others……
……
……
…….

Assertiveness

Activities that facilitate learning the life skill:

Answering questions
Chance to participate in group work
Effective communication exercises
Debate
Open class discussions and arguments
Others……
……
……
……

Indicators of achievement of the life skill:

Giving own points of view
Communicating clearly and precisely
Others……
……
……
……

Friendship formation

Activities that facilitate learning of the life skill:

Working together in groups

Sharing instructional materials and other things
Teacher showing friendship to the learners
Others……
……
……
……....

Indicators of achievement of the life skill:

Sharing things and ideas
Affection for each other
Working together on tasks
Good relations among pupils in the class
Others……
……
……
……

Empathy

Activities that facilitate learning of the skill:

Stories of people in need
Roles of people who are in situations that require empathy
Others……
……
……
……

Indicators of achievement of the skills:

Sharing
Care
Affection
Sympathy
Others……
……
……
…….

Negotiation skills

Activities that facilitate learning of the skill:

Group work
Taking turns when doing activity
Setting disputes
Organizing colleagues for an activity
Others……
……

……
……

Indicators of achievement of the life skill:

Patiently taking turns while working in groups
Controlled free play during break
Minimized or no fights among pupils in the class or compound
Others……
……
……
…….

Decision-making skills

Activities that facilitate learning of the skill:

Group work activities
Debating
Games
Field trips
Others……
……
……
……

Indicators of achievement of the life skill:

Generating alternative solutions to problems
Taking feasible courses of action
Guiding others on generating feasible courses of action
Others……
……
……
……

Critical thinking skills

Activities that facilitate learning of the skill:
Quizzes
Assignments
Asking and answering questions
Brainstorming
Think-pair-share activities
Group discussions
Debates
Others……
……
……
……

Indicators of achievement of the life skills:

Children giving their points view when discussing
Giving properly reasonable out answers
Children developing arguments and presenting them systematically
Others……
……
……
……....

Creative thinking skills

Activities that facilitate learning of the skill:
Crafts work
Jigsaw puzzles
Story telling
Essay writing
Conflict resolution case studies
Others……
……
……
…….

Indicators of achievement of the skill:

Telling interesting stories
Giving alternative ways of solving problems
Writing interesting essays
Identifying consequences to different courses of action
Others……
……
……
…….....

Problem-solving skills

Activities that facilitate learning of the life skill:

Case studies of problem situations
Case studies of conflicts
Involving children in resolving conflicts in the class
Discussing problem situation in children's lives
Others……
……
……
…….

Indicators of achievement of the skill:

Presenting alternative solutions to problems
Avoiding problem situations
Helping others to avoid problem situations
Negotiating consensus on conflicts
Others……
……
……
……

3.8: Observation instrument or guide for live lessons

Class.....
Number of pupils..... boys..... girls.....total.....
Subject.....
.....
Competencies.....
.....
.....
.....
Methods
.....
.....
.....
.....
Instructional materials
.....
.....
.....
.....
Life skills to be developed
.....
.....
.....
.....
How development of the indicated life skills is planned for in the lesson plan
.....
.....
.....
.....
Teacher/pupil interactions
.....
.....
.....
.....
Teacher/pupil relationship
.....
.....

.....
.....
Teacher/pupil distance
.....
.....
.....
.....
Classroom tasks and how these relate to life skills development indicated
.....
.....
.....
.....
Nature of methods and how these are used to develop children's life skills indicated
.....
.....
.....
.....
Nature of content and how the way it was taught helped to develop the indicated life skills
.....
.....
.....
.....
Pupil/pupil interactions and how these are suited for developing the indicated life skills
.....
.....
.....
.....
Classroom routines and their suitability in developing children's life skills
.....
.....
.....
.....
Evaluation activities and their relevance to ascertaining life skills education development indicators
.....
.....
.....
.....
Evidence of already developed life skills exhibited by pupils
.....
.....
.....
.....
Additional Notes
……

Appendix 4: LETTER TO GAIN ACCESS TO SCHOOLS

4.1: Letter seeking permission from the head teacher

MARY IMMACULATE COLLEGE UNIVERSITY OF LIMERICK

The Head Teacher:
.....
Dear Sir/Madam
RE: PROJECT ON LIFE SKILLS EDUCATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS
I am conducting a study on life skills education. Your school has been selected as one of those going to participate in the study or project. The purpose of this letter is to seek for permission from you to use your school in this study.
In your school I would like to:
Observe lessons in primary two and five which I will prepare together with the teachers, observe, and then hold a feedback or post observation conferences with the teachers who will have taught.
Hold interviews and focus group discussions with selected pupils, two or one primary two and five teacher(s), yourself, and with your support, using a prescribed procedure, also hold some interviews with selected parents of your school. Interviews or focus group discussions with children will be held in an open place or classroom.
Select some children who will help in answering a few questions on a simple questionnaire.
Ask the teachers who will be involved in the study to help answer some questions on a simple questionnaire.
Look at teachers' schemes of work and lesson plans in the selected classes to find out how they normally plan to develop life skills in pupils during their lessons.
In all these activities, the participants are free to withdraw when they feel they cannot continue without giving any notice.
Best Regards
Bwayo John
E-mail: johnbwayo@gmail.com
Mobile Phone number: +256772624048 or +256756624048
Lecturer Kyambogo University
PhD student Mary Immaculate College
South Circular Road
Limerick
061-204515
mirec@mic.ul.ie

Appendix 5: DATA ANALYSIS CHAPTER FIVE

5.1: Initial codes

LS is protection
Resources
Numeracy and literacy
Life skills indicators
Teachers – parents oppress
Constraints
Good life
Many perceptions of life skills
Morality
Obedience
Methods
Importance of academics
Different methods used – story telling, role play, question and answer
Parents – teachers should discipline children
Media resources are bad
Training
Teachers' competence
Children no respect – teachers, parents
Conflict resolution
Meaning of life skills – self-reliance, sisiyeta umwana umwene
Educational officials not trained
Promoting respect
Security
Rights
Informed decisions
HIV/AIDS
Informed decisions
Self-awareness
Laws
Morality, right and wrong
Pupils' participation
Coping skills
Cooperation in and out of class
Apologising and forgiving
Respect
Tradition
Media
Problem-solving
No to advances
Peer pressure
Culture (Western)
Drug abuse education
Assertiveness
Parents' competence
Some boys - kings
Playing in the field

Honesty
Roles of parents
No lunch
Peer pressure – parents, children
Home activities, family, watching TV, playing
Contradiction – home, family, parents, school, teachers
Tradition, culture, oppressive, girls, boys
Parents oppressive not supportive (Manafwa)
Showing, care for the sick taking to health unit
Vocational skills, self-reliance
Parents' attitudes
Future jobs
Passing exams
Children cannot write

Note: Reflecting on the above codes gave rise to the initial themes and codes below (Appendix 5.2).

5.2: Initial themes and codes (draft)

Initial themes	Codes
1.Stake holders perception of children's life skills	(1) Future jobs (2)Life skills indicators,(3) LSE curriculum, (4) importance of academics, (5) Passing exams (6) promoting respect (7) curriculum materials (8) Obedience (9) Vocational (10) Morality (11) Socialization (12) Good jobs (13) Good life (14) Honesty (15) Literacy/numeracy (16) Good life (17) Self reliance
2.Value of life skills curriculum	(1)Security, (2) Informed decisions, (3) HIV/AIDS (4) Friendship formation (5) cooperation in and out of class, (6) coping skills, (7) peer pressure resistance (8) Apologising/forgiving (9) Drug abuse education (10) Honesty (11) Care for others (12) Passing exams (12) Problem-solving
3. Evidence of the impact of life skills	(1) Coping skills, (2) participation in class (3) Resistance to peer pressure, (4) No to advances (5) Respect (6) decision-making, (7) conflict resolution, (8) Problem-solving (9) Assertiveness (10) Self-awareness
4). Home experiences and life skills development	1) Respect (2) Parents role, (3)Honesty (4) Parents' competence, (5) Parents' attitude (6) Respect
5. School experiences and life skills development	(1) Resources, (2) Peer pressure (3) Constraints, (4) Passing exams (5) Methods (6) Training and teachers' competence (7) Playing in the field
6. Culture, laws, children's rights	(1)Respect (2)Rights and laws, (3) Media, (4) Western culture, (5) Tradition (6) Exalting boys

Appendix 6: CHAPTER 6 APPENDICES

6.1: Lesson plan details for each of the 24 lessons observed

OSERVATION	CLASS	SUBJECT	OBJECTIVES OR COMPETENCIES	METHODS	INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS	LIFE SKILL TO BE DEVELOPED	PLANNED STRATEGIES FOR LS DEVELOPMENT
1	P5	Science	5 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Brain storming and question and answer	None indicated	None indicated	None in the whole lesson plan
2	P2	Reading and writing	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, demonstration and question and answer	Blackboard illustration	Interpersonal relationship (cooperation), sharing and decision-making	Through describing the values of skills to pupils
3	P2	Mathematics	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Demonstration, observation and explanation	Beans, groundnuts, oranges, onions, flash cards	Problem-solving, critical thinking, accuracy, orderliness and confidence	Pupils reading correctly words displayed on flash cards
4	P5	Social studies	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation and question and answer	Chart	Empathy, creative and critical thinking, caring, logical reasoning, taking a decision	Through oral questioning
5	P2	Religious education	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation and question and answer	Chart	Love, critical thinking	Not indicated
6	P5	Social studies	2 stated, none	Explanation, discussion, question	None	Effective communication,	Through question and

			implying any life skills developed	and answer		appreciation, communication	answer
7	P5	Social studies	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Discussion, brain storming, question and answer	A map showing chwezi kingdom	Team work, effective communication, critical thinking, appreciation, cooperation and confidence	Through group work, giving reasons for pastoralism, and reading
8	P2	English	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Look and say, question and answer	Chart showing animals and their young ones	Fluency, articulation, and confidence	Not indicated
9	P2	Luganda	4 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation anddiscussion	Charts, chalkboard	Sharing	Not indicated
10	P5	English	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Question andanswer, discovery and explanation	Chalkboard	Effective communication (pronunciation, fluency)	Not indicated
11	P5	English	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, look and say and discussion	A friendly letter on a chart	Communication, fluency, friendliness, love	Not indicated

12	P5	Social studies	4 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, discussion	Map of Uganda: rivers and lakes	Self-esteem, effective communication	Through question and answer, drawing and raising up hands
13	P5	English	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, brain storming, discussion andquestion and answer	Real objects e.g. pens, books, chalkboard, textbooks	Effective communication and critical thinking	Not indicated
14	P5	Physical education	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Demonstration, participation, explanation	Play field, cones, balls, ropes, whistle	Team work, critical thinking, leadership and negotiation	Group activity for team work
15	P2	English	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Discussion, explanation, question and answer, look and say	Pictures of insects, real insects	Effective communication, fluency, confidence	Not indicated
16	P2	Literacy	4 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Discussion, demonstration	Real objects	Accuracy, love, confidence, fluency, care	Not indicated
17	P5	English	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Discussion	Reference	Effective communication, creativeand critical thinking	Not indicated
18	P2	English	5 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Discussion, question and answer, whole word, whole sentence	Word and strip cards, real objects, charts and real objects	Fluency, audibility, confidence, intonation	Through activities; mentioning things we make at home, question andanswer,

							reading
19	P2	News	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation	Not indicated	Effective communication, confidence, self-esteem	Not indicated
20	P5	Science	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Discussion, question and answer	Charts	Effective communication	Not indicated
21	P2	Mathematics	3 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, demonstration	Counters	Sharing, critical thinking	Not indicated
22	P5	Social studies	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, discussion	Map	Effective communication	Not indicated
23	P2	Literacy 2	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Explanation, look and say	Flash and strip cards, chalkboard	Critical thinking, confidence	Through reading
24	P2	Literacy 1	2 stated, none implying any life skills developed	Demonstration, explanation	Chalkboard	Creativity	Not indicated

6.2: Tables of cross-tabulations and chi-squares of methods used to teach life skills and the indicators of those life skills witnessed by teachers.

Note for Tables 6.3.1.3, 6.3.2.3, 6.3.3.3, 6.3.4.3, 6.3.5.3, 6.3.6.3, 6.3.7.3, 6.3.8.3, 6.3.9.3 and 6.3.10.3:

In the cross-tabulations of methods used and indicators witnessed, four outcomes were possible:

e) Used the method and witnessed the indicator;
f) Used the method and did not witness the indicator;
g) Did not use the method and witnessed the indicator;
h) Did not use the method and did not witness the indicator.

The most relevant of these data are presented in the tables in order to make the tables more readable, i.e.,

The number and percentage of teachers who used the method;

The number and percentage of those teachers who used the method and witnessed the indicator;

The number and percentage of those teachers who did not use the method and who nonetheless witnessed the indicator.

Consequently, the n for each table varies. The total number of responses that were cross-tabulated was 24.

Table 6.3.1.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate assertiveness and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicators				
Activity	Point of view	Communication	Critical and creative thinking	Listening to others	Problem-solving
Chance to answer questions	U =15(62.5%) UW= 8(53.3%) NW = 1(11.1%)	U = 15(62.5%) UW=9(60%) NW = 3(33.3%)	U= 15(62.5%) UW= 5(33%) NW= 1(11.1%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=3(20%) NW=1(11.1%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=1(6.7%) NW=3(33.3%)
Group	U=14(58.3%) UW=6(42.9%) NW=3(30%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=5(35.7%) NW=7(70%)	U=14(58.3) UW=5(35.7%) NW=1(10%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=3(21.4%) NW=1(10%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=3(21.4%) NW=1(10%)
Communication	U=18(75%) UW=5(27.8%) NW=4(66.4%)	U=18(75%) UW=11(61.1%) NW=1(16.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=2(11.1%) NW=4(66.7)	U=18(75%) UW=3(16.7%) NW=1(16.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=2(11.1%) NW=2(33.3%)
Debate	U=19(79.2%) UW=7(36.8%) NW=2(40%)	U=19(79.2%) UW=9(47.4%) NW=3(60%)	U=19(79.2%) UW=6(31.6%) NW=0(00%)	U=19(79.2%) UW=3(15.8%) NW=1(20%)	U=19(79.2%) UW=3(15.8%) NW=1(20%)
Open	U=18(75%) UW=7(38.9%) NW=2(33.3%)	U=18(75%) UW=7(38.9%) NW=5(83.5%)	U=18(75%) UW=5(27.8%) NW=1(16.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=4(22.2%) NW=0(00%)	U=18(75%) UW=3(16.7%) NW=1(16.7%)
Chance to act in group activities	U=4(16.7%) UW=0(00%) NW=9(45%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=2(50%) NW=10(50%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=1(25%) NW=5(25%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=1(25%) NW=3(15%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=1(25%) NW=3(15%)
Quiz	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(00%) NW=9(40%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=11(50%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(00%) NW=6(27.3%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(00%) NW=4(18.2%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(00%) NW= 4(18.2%)
Being open	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=8(36.4%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=11(50%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=5(22.7%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(00%) NW=4(18.2%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=3(13.6%)

Table 6.3.1.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate assertiveness and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill

	Indicators				
Activity	Point of view	Communication	Critical and creative thinking	Listening to others	Problem-solving
Chance to answer questions	χ^2=4.28 *Exact p = .08*	χ^2 =1.60 *Exact p = .40*	χ^2 =1.48 *Exact p = .35*	χ^2 =0.32 *Exact p= 1*	χ^2 = 2.88 *Exact p=.13*
Group	χ^2= 0.41 *Exact p* = .68	χ^2 =2.74 *p* = .10	χ^2 =2.06 *Exact p* = .34	χ^2= 0 .55 *Exact p* = .62	χ^2 = 0.55 *Exact p* = .62
Communication	χ^2 = 2.90 *Exact p* = .15	χ^2 = 3.56 *Exact p* = .16	χ^2 = 7.41 *Exact p* = .018*	χ^2 =00 *Exact p* = 1.00	χ^2 =1.60 *Exact p* =.25
Debate	χ^2 = 02 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 = .25 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =χ^2 2.11 *Exact p* =.28	χ^2 =0.05 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 = 0.05 *Exact p* = 1
Open	χ^2= 0.06 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 = 3.56 *Exact p* =.16	χ^2 = 0.30 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 = 1.60 *Exact p* =.54	χ^2 = .00 *Exact p* = 1
Chance to act in group activities	χ^2 = 2.88 *Exact p* = .26	χ^2 = 0.00 *p* = 1.00	χ^2 = 0.00 *Exact p* = 1	χ^2 = 0.24 *Exact p* =.54	χ^2 = 0.24 *Exact p* =.54
Quiz	χ^2 = 1.31 *Exact p* =.51	χ^2 =0.00 *Exact p* = 1	χ^2 = 0.73 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 = 0.44 *Exact p* = 1	χ^2 = 0.44 *Exact p* = 1
Being open	χ^2 = 0.15 *Exact p* = 1	χ^2 0.00 *Exact p* = 1	χ^2 = 0.73 *Exact p* =.45	χ^2 = 0.44 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 = 1.75 *Exact p* =.31

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.2.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-esteem and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicator							
Activity	Putting up hands	Volunteering to perform tasks on chalkboard	Confidence in task performance	Accepting responsibility	Contributing while in groups	Expression	Responding to tasks without fear	Freely associating with others
Question and answer	U=21(87.5%) UW=15(71.4%) NW=2(66.7%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=16(76.2%) NW=2(66.7%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=13(61.9%) NW=3(100%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=15(71.4%) NW=2(66.7%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=17(81%) NW=1(33.3%)	21(87.5%) UW=2(9.5%) NW=0(0%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=2(9.5%) NW=0(0%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=1(1(4.8%) NW=0(0%)
Positive feedback	U=17(70.8%) UW=12(70.6%) NW=5(71.4%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=13(76.5%) NW=5(71.4%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=10(58.8%) NW=6(85.7%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=12(70.6%) NW=5(71.4%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=13(76.5%) NW=5(71.4%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=2(11.8%) NW=0(0%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=2(11.8%) NW=0(0%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=1(5.9%) NW=0(0%)
Individual tasks	U=14(58.3%) UW=9(64.3%) NW=8(80%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=11(78.6%) NW=7(70%)	UW=14(58.3%) UW= 8(57.1%) NW=8(80%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=11(78.6%) NW=6(60%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=10(71.4%) NW=8(80%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=2(14.3) NW=0(0%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=1(7.1%) NW=1(10%)	U=14(58.3%) UW= 0(0%) NW=1(10%)
Open class discussion	U=3(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=16(76.2%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=1(33.3%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=3(100%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=1(33.3%) NW=1(4.8%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(9.5%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=1(4.8%)
Physical Education	U=1(4.2%) UW=1(100%) NW=16(69.6%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=1(100%) NW=15(65.2%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=0(0%) NW=17(73.9%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=1(100%) NW=17(73.9%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(8.7%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(8.7%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(8.7%)	U=1(4.2%) UW=0(0%) NW=1(4.3%)
Sharing counters	U=2(8.3%) UW=2(100%) NW=15(68.2%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=2(100%) NW=16(72.7%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=2(100%) NW=14(63.6%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=17(77.3%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=17(77.3%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(9.1%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(9.1%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=1(4.5%)

Table 6.3.2.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-esteem and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

	Indicator							
Activity	Putting up hands	Volunteering to perform tasks on chalkboard	Confidence in task performance	Accepting responsibility	Contributing while in groups	Expression	Responding to tasks without fear	Freely associating with others
Question and answer	χ^2 = 0.029 *Exact P* = 1	χ^2 =0.13 *Exact P* =1	χ^2 =1.71 *Exact P* =.53	χ^2 = 0.03 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 =3.18 *Exact P*=.14	χ^2 =0.31 *Exact P* =1	χ^2 =0.31 *Exact P*=1	χ^2 =0.15 *Exact P*= 1
Positive feedback	χ^2 =0.002 *Exact P*=1	χ^2=0.07 *Exact P*=1	χ^2 =1.61 *Exact P*= .35	χ^2 =0.002 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =0.07 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 0.90 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 0.9 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = .90 *Exact p = 1*
Individual tasks	χ^2 =0.70 *Exact P* = .65	χ^2 =0.23 *Exact P* = .67	χ^2 =1.37 *Exact P* = .39	χ^2 =0.97 *Exact P* = .39	χ^2 = 0.23 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =1.56 *Exact P*= .49	χ^2 =0.06 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 1.46 Exact *p*= .41
Open class discussion	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact P* = 1	χ^2 = 0.13 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =1.71 *Exact P*= .25	χ^2 = 0.03 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 1.14 *Exact P*= .55	χ^2=2.81 *Exact P*= .24	χ^2 = 0.31 *Exact P* = 1	χ^2 = 0.15 *Exact p*= 1
Physical Education	χ^2 = 0.43 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 0.35 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 0.52 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 2.53 *Exact P*=.29	χ^2 =0.35 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =0.10 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 0.10 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =0.05 *Exact P*= 1
Giving them materials to share like counters	χ^2 =0.90 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =0.73 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =1.09 *Exact P*= .54	χ^2 =5.30 *Exact P*=.08	χ^2 =0.73 *Exact P*= .45	χ^2 =0.20 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2= 0.20 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =0.10 *Exact P*= 1

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.3.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-awareness and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicators							
Activity	Hands	Volunteer	Acknowledge	Accept	Contribute	Self management	Talking about one's self	Ability to give his/her views
A chance to answer questions	U=15(62.5%) UW=9(60%) NW=8(88.9%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=11(73.3%) NW=4(44.4%)	U=15(62.5%) UW= 12(80%) NW=6(66.7%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=12(80%) NW=5(55.6%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=8(53.4%) NW=9(100%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=2(13.3%) NW=1(11.1%)	U=15(62.5%) UW=1(6.7%) NW=1(11.1%)	U=14(100%) UW= 1(7.7%) NW=2(22.2%)
Positive feedback	U=18(75%) UW=15(83.3%) NW=2(33.3%)	U=18(75%) UW=9(50%) NW=6(100%)	U=18(75%) UW=14(77.8%) NW=4(66.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=14(77.8%) NW=3(50%)	U=18(75%) UW=11(61.1%) NW=6(100%)	U=18(75%) UW=2(11.1%) NW=1(16.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=1(5.6%) NW=1(16.7%)	U=17(100%) UW=2(11.1%) NW=1(20%)
Individual tasks	U=12(50%) UW=9(75%) NW=8(66.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=8(66.7%) NW=7(53.8%)	U=12(50%) UW=8(66.7%) NW=10(83.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=7(58.3%) NW=10(83.3%)	U=12(50%) UW= 9(75%) NW=8(66.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=1(8.3%) NW=2(16.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=1(8.3%) NW=1(8.3%)	U=10(100%) UW=3(27.3%) NW=0(0%)
Guidance and Counselling	U=3(12.5%) UW=3(100%) NW=14(66.7%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=3(100%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=3(100%) NW=14(66.7%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=3(14.3%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(9.5%)	U=3(100%) UW=0(0%) NW=3(15%)
Thanking and giving rewards	U=2(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=3(100%) NW=12(57.1%)	U=2(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=16(76.2%)	U=2(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=15(71.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=1(33.3%) NW=16(76.2%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=3(14.3%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(9.5%)	U=3(100.0%) UW=1(33.3%) NW=2(10%)
Making a follo**w up**	U=4(16.7%) UW=2(50%) NW=15(75%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=3(75%) NW=12(60%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=3(75%) NW=15(75%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=3(75%) NW=14(70%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=3(75%) NW=15(75%)	U=4(16.7%) UW=1(25%) NW=2(10%)	U=4 (16.7%) UW=1(25%) NW=1(5%)	U=4(100.0%) UW=0(00%) NW=3(15.8%)

Table 6.3.3.4.: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate self-awareness and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Indicators	Hands	Volunteer	Acknowledge	Accept	Contribute	self management	Talking about one's self	Ability to give his/her views
A chance to answer questions	χ^2 =2.27 *Exact p = .20*	χ^2 =2.00 *Exact p = .21*	χ^2 =0.53 *Exact p = .64*	χ^2 =1.63 *Exact p = .36*	χ^2 =5.93 *Exact p = .02**	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =0.15 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =2.62 *Exact p = .026**
Positive feedback	χ^2=5.45 *Exact p =.04**	χ^2 =4.80 *Exact P =.05*	χ^2=0.29 *Exact p =*.62	χ^2 =1.68 *Exact p =*.31	χ^2 =3.29 *Exact p =*.13	χ^2 =0.13 *Exact p =1*	χ^2=0.73 *Exact p =*.45	χ^2 =0.3 *Exact p = 1*
Individual tasks	χ^2 =0.20 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2 =0.18 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2 =0.89 *Exact p =*.64	χ^2 =1.82 *Exact p =*.37	χ^2=0.20 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =0.38 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =0.00 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2 =5.28 *Exact p =*.037*
Guidance and Counselling	χ^2 =1.41 *Exact p =*.53	χ^2 =5.71 *Exact p =*.04*	χ^2 =1.14 *Exact p =*.55	χ^2 =1.41 *Exact p =*.53	χ^2=.03 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2=0.49 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2 =0.31 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2=0.73 *Exact p =* 1
Thanking and giving rewards	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =2.06 *Exact p =*.27	χ^2 = 0.13 *Exact p* = 1	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 =2.33 *Exact p =*.19	χ^2 =0.49 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =0.31 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =.61 *Exact p =*.45
Making a follow up	χ^2 =1.01 *p =*.55	χ^2=0.32 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 =0.00 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2=0.04 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 = 1.01 *Exact p = .55*	χ^2 =0.69 *Exact p =*.44	χ^2= 1.75 *Exact p =*.31	χ^2= 1.02 *Exact p =*.1

(N = 24 for all except the last column "views" where N = 23, * = significant at .05 level)

Table 6.3.4.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate friendship and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicators						
Activity	Share	Affection	Together	Relations	Love	Solving problems for others	Leadership skills
Groups	U=21(87.5%) UW=21(100%) NW=3(100%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=15(71.4%) NW=3(100%)	U=21(87.5) UW=15(71.4) NW=1(33%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=21 (100%) NW=3(100%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=7(33.3%) NW=0(00%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=2(9.5%) NW=2(66.7%)	U=21(87.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=1(33.3%)
Share	U=20(83.3%) UW=20(100%) NW=4(100%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=17(85%) NW=1(25%)	U=20 (83.3%) UW=12(60%) NW=4(100%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=20 (100%) NW=4(100%)	U=20 (83.3%) UW=6(30%) NW=1(25%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=4(20%) NW=0(0%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=1(5%) NW=0(0%)
Showing friendship	U=20(83.3%) UW=20 (100%) NW=4(100%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=14(70%) NW=4(100%)	20 (83.3%) UW=14(70%) NW=2(50%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=20 (100%) NW=4(100%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=5(25%) NW=2(50%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=3(15%) NW=1(25%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=1(5%) NW=0(0%)
Playing with others	U=9(37.5%) UW=9(100%) NW=15(100%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=9 (100%) NW=9(60%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=4(44.4%) NW=12(80%)	9(37.5%) UW=9(100%) NW=15(100%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=4(44.4%) NW=3(42.9%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=4(44.4%) NW=0(0%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=1(4.2%) NW=0(0%)
Use of polite language	U=5(21.7%) UW=5 (100%) NW=18(100%)	U=5(21.7%) UW=3(60%) NW=14(77.8%)	U=5(21.7%) UW=4(80%) NW=11(61.1%)	U=5(21.7%) UW=5 (100%) NW=18(100%)	U=5(21.7%) UW=0(00%) NW=6(33.3%)	U=5(21.7%) UW=1(20%) NW=3(16.7%)	U=5(21.7%) UW=0(0%) NW=1(5.6%)
Helping others in need	U=8(38.1%) UW=8 (100%) NW=13(100%)	U=8(38.1%) UW=7(87.5%) NW=8(61.5%)	U=8(38.1%) UW=3(37.5%) NW=11(84.6)	U=8(38.1%) UW=8 (100%) NW=13(100%)	U=8(38.1%) UW=3(37.5%) NW=1(7.7%)	U=8(38.1%) UW=3(37.5%) NW=0(0%)	U=8(38.1%) UW=1(12.5%) NW=0(0%)

Table 6.3.4.4: Chi-square test of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate friendship and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

	Indicators						
Activity	Share	Affection	Together	Relations	Love	Solving problems for others	Leadership skills
Groups	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =1.14 *Exact p=.55*	χ^2 =1.71 *Exact p=.25*	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =1.41 *Exact p=*.53	χ^2=6.17 *Exact p=*.06	χ^2 =7.30 *Exact p=*.13
Share	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =6.40 *p=* .04*	χ^2 =2.40 *Exact p=* .26	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =0.04 *Exact p=* 1	χ^2 =0.96 *Exact p=*.33	χ^2 =0.21 *Exact p=* 1
Showing friendship	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =1.60 *Exact p=*.54	χ^2 =0.60 *Exact p=*.58	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =1.01 *Exact p=*.55	χ^2 =0.24 *Exact p=*.54	χ^2 =0.21 *Exact p= 1*
Playing with others	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =4.80 *Exact p=* .05	χ^2 =3.20 *Exact p=*.10	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =1.63 *Exact p=*.36	χ^2=8.00 *Exact p=*.01*	χ^2 =1.74 *Exact p=*.38
Use of polite language	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =0.64 *Exactp=*.58	χ^2 =0.62 *Exact p=*.62	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 = 2.26 *Exact p=*.27	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact p=* 1	χ^2 =0.29 *Exact p=* 1
Helping others in need	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =1.64 *Exact p=*.34	χ^2 =4.95 *Exact p=*.06	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	χ^2 =2.85 *Exact p=*.25	χ^2 =5.69 *Exact p=*.04*	χ^2 =1.71 *Exact p=*.38

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.5.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate empathy and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicators						
Activity	Share	Care	Affection	Sympathy	Co-operation	Making friends	Responsibility
Stories	U=9(37.5%) UW=9(100%) NW=15(100%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=9(100%) NW=14(93.3%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=4(44.4%) NW=13(86.7%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=6(66.7%) NW=12(80%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=1(11.1%) NW=3(20%)	U=9(39.1%) UW=2(22.2%) NW=5(35.7%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=2(22.2%) NW=3(20%)
Role play	U=16(66.7%) UW=16(100%) NW=8(100%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=15(93.8%) NW=8(100%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=11(68.8%) NW=6(75%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=14(87.5%) NW=4(50%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=3(18.8%) NW=1(12.5%)	U=15(65.2%) UW=6(40%) NW=1(12.5)	U=16(66.7%) UW=3(18.8%) NW=2(25%)
Group	U=12(50%) UW=12(100%) NW=12(100%)	U=12(50%) UW=11(91.7%) NW=12(100%)	U=12(50%) UW=9(75%) NW=8(66.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=9(75%) NW=9(75%)	U=12(50%) UW=3(25%) NW=1(8.3%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=3(25%) NW=4(36.4%)	U=12(50%) UW=2(16.7%) NW=3(25%)
Caring for others	U=12(50%) UW=12(100%) NW=(12(100%)	U=12(50%) UW=11(91.7%) NW=12(100%)	U=12(50%) UW=8(66.7%) NW=9(75%)	U=12(50%) UW=10(83.3%) NW=8(66.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=2(16.7%) NW=2(16.7%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=4(33.3%) NW=3(27.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=2(16.7%) NW=3(25%)
Playing in the field	U=8 (33.3%) UW=8(100%) NW=16(100%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=8(100%) NW=15(93.8%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=6(75%) NW=11(68.8%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=4(50%) NW=14(87.5%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=1(12.5%) NW=3(18.8%)	U=8(34.8%) UW=4(50%) NW=3(20%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=4(50%) NW=1(6.2%)
Being selected to take others home	U=9(37.5%) UW=9(100%) NW=15(100%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=9(100%) NW=14(93.3%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=6(66.7%) NW=11(73.3%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=8(88.9%) NW=10(66.7%)	U=9(37.5%) UW=3(33.3%) NW=1(6.7%)	9(39.1%) UW=1(11.1%) NW=6(42.9%)	U=9(39.1%) UW=2(22.2%) NW=3(20%)

Table 6.3.5.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate empathy and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

	Indicators						
Activity	Share	Care	Affection	Sympathy	Co-operation	Making friends	Responsibility
Stories	100% teachers used the method	χ^2=0.63 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =4.85 *Exact p = .06*	χ^2=0.53 *Exact p = .64*	χ^2 =0.32 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 =0.47 *Exact p =.66*	χ^2 = 0.02 *Exact P=1*
Role play	100% teachers used the method	χ^2 =0 .52 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 =0.10 *Exact p = 1*	χ^2 =4.00 *Exact p =*.13	χ^2=0.15 *Exact p =*1	χ^2 = 1.86 *Exact p =*.35	χ^2=0.13 *p =1*
Group	100% teachers used the method	=χ^2 =1.04 *Exact p =*1	χ^2=0.20 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 = 0.00 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2 =1.20 *Exact p =*.59	χ^2 = 0.35 *Exact p =*.68	χ^2 =0.25 *Exact p =1*
Caring for others	100% teachers used the method	χ^2 =1.04 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2=0.20 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2 =0.89 *Exact p =.64*	χ^2=0.00 *Exact p =* 1	χ^2=1.00 *Exact p =*1	χ^2 = 0.25 *Exact p =1*
Playing in the field	100% teachers used the method	χ^2=0.52 *Exact p =1*	χ^2=0.10 *Exact p =1*	χ^2=4.00 *Exact p =*.13	χ^2=0.15 *Exact p =1*	χ^2 = 2.22 *Exact p =*.18	χ^2 = 6.19 *Exact p =*.03*
Being selected to take others home	100% teachers used the method	χ^2 = 0.63 *Exact p =*1	χ^2=0.12 *Exact p =*1	χ^2= 1.48 *Exact p =.35*	χ^2 = 2.88 *Exact p =*.13	2χ^2=0.61 *Exact p =*.18	χ^2=.02 Exact p = 1

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.6.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate negotiation and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicator					
Activity	Taking turns	Playing together	Fights	Apologising	Encouraging friendship	Working together
Group	U=13(54.2%) UW= 10(76.9%) NW=8(72.7%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=9(69.2%) NW=7(63.6%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=10(76.9%) NW=11(100%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=3(23.1%) NW=1(9.1%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=1(7.7%) NW=2(18.2%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=2(15.4%) NW=2(18.2%)
Turns	U=17(70.8%) UW=11(64.7%) NW=7(100%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=3(42.9%) NW=13(76.5%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=16(94.1%) NW=5(71.4%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=4(23.5%) NW=0(00%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=3(17.6%) NW=0(0%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=2(11.8%) NW=2(28.6%)
Dispute	U=20(83.3%) UW=16(80%) NW=2(50%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=13(65%) NW=3(75%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=18(90%) NW=3(75%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=2(10%) NW=2(50%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=3(15%) NW=0(0%)	U=20(83.3%) UW=4(20%) NW=0(0%)
Organise	U=16(66.7%) UW=12(75%) NW=6(75%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=8(50%) NW=8(100%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=13(81.2%) NW=8(100%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=2(12.5%) NW=2(25%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=2(12.5%) NW=1(12.5%)	U=16(66.7%) UW=3(18.8%) NW=1(12.5%)
Requesting	U=2(8.3%) UW=2(100) NW=16(72.7%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=15(68.2%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=20(90.9%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=3(13.6%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=3(13.6%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=3(13.6%)
Role playing	U=5(20.8%) UW=3(60%) NW=15(78.9%)	U=5(20.8%) UW=4(80%) NW=12(63.2%)	U=5(20.8%) UW=5(100%) NW=16(84.2%)	U=5(20.8%) UW=1(20%) NW=3(15.8%)	U=5(20.8%) UW=2(40%) NW=1(5.3%)	U=5(20.8%) UW= 0(0%) NW=4(21.1%)
Selection of leaders	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=17(77.3%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=15(68.2%) NW=15(68.2%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=2(100%) NW=19(86.4%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=3(13.6%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=3(13.6%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=3(13.6%)

Table 6.3.6.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate negotiation and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

	Indicator					
Activity	Taking turns	Play	Fights	Apologising	Encouraging friendship	Working together
Group	χ^2 =0.06 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 =0.08 *Exact P=. 1*	χ^2 =2.90 *Exact P= .22*	χ^2 =0.84 *Exact P= .60*	χ^2 =0.60 *Exact P=.58*	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact P=1*
Turns	χ^2 = 3.29 *Exact P=.13*	χ^2 = 2.52 *Exact P=.17*	χ^2 =2.33 *Exact P=.19*	χ^2 =1.98 *Exact P=.28*	χ^2 =1.41 *Exact P=.53*	χ^2 =1.01 *Exact P=.55*
Dispute	χ^2 =1.60 Exact *P=.25*	χ^2 =0.15 Exact *P=1*	χ^2 =0.69 *Exact P=.44*	χ^2 =3.84 Exact *P=.12*	χ^2 =0.69 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 =0.96 *Exact P=1*
Organise	χ^2 =0.00 *Exact P*=1	χ^2 =6.00 *Exact P*=.02*	χ^2 =1.71 *Exact P=.53*	χ^2 =0.60 *Exact P=.58*	χ^2 = 0.00 *Exact P*=1	χ^2 = 0.15 *Exact P*=1
Requesting	χ^2 =0.73 *.Exact P=1*	χ^2 = 0.27 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 = 2.81 *Exact P=.24*	χ^2 =1.75 *Exact P=.31*	χ^2 = 0.31 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 =1.75 *Exact P=.31*
Role playing	χ^2 = 0.76 *Exact P=.57*	χ^2 = 0.51 *Exact P=.63*	χ^2 = 0.90 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 =0.05 Exact *P=1*	χ^2 =4.37 Exact *P*=.09	χ^2 =1.26 *Exact P=.54*
Selection of leaders	χ^2 =0.73 Exact *P=.45*	χ^2 =0.27 Exact *P=1*	χ^2 =0.31 *Exact P=1*	χ^2 =1.75 *Exact P=.31*	χ^2 = 0.31 Exact *P=1*	χ^2 =1.75 Exact *P=.31*

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.7.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate decision-making and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of the skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicator			
Activity	Solutions	Actions	Giving their own views	Leading others
Group	U=14(58.3%) UW=8(57.1%) NW=6(60%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=7(50%) NW=4(40%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=4(28.6%) NW=1(10%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=3(21.4%) NW=1(10%)
Debating	U=13(54.2%) UW=9(69.2%) NW=5(45.5%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=6(46.2%) NW=5(45.5%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=3(23.1%) NW=2(18.2%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=2(15.4%) NW=2(18.2%)
Games	U=18(75%) UW=9(50%) NW=5(83.3%)	U=18(75%) UW=7(38.9%) NW=4(66.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=3(16.7%) NW=2(33.3%)	U=18(75%) UW=2(11.1%) NW=2(33.3%)
Trip	U=12(50%) UW=7(58.3%) NW=7(58.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=5(41.7%) NW=6(50%)	U=12(50%) UW=3(25%) NW=2(16.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=1(8.3%) NW=3(25%)
Giving instructions	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=14(63.6%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=11(50%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=1(50%) NW=4(18.2%)	U=2(8.3%) UW=0(0%) NW=4(18.2%)
Role plays	U=3(12.5%) UW=3(100%) NW=11(52.4%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=2(66.7%) NW=9(42.9%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=4(19%) NW=4(19%)	U=3(12.5%) UW=1(33.3%) NW=3(14.3%)

Table 6.3.7.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate decision-making and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

(N = 24)

	Indicator			
Activity	Solutions	Actions	Giving their own views	Leading others
Group	$\chi^2 = 0.02$ *Exact P* = 1	$\chi^2 = 0.24$ *Exact P* = .70	$\chi^2 = 1.22$ *Exact P* = .36	$\chi^2 = 0.55$ *Exact P* = .62
Debating	$\chi^2 = 1.39$ *Exact P* = .41	$\chi^2 = 0.001$ *Exact P* =1	$\chi^2 = 0.09$ *Exact P* = 1	$\chi^2 = 0.03$ *Exact P* = 1
Games	$\chi^2 = 2.06$ *Exact p*=.34	$\chi^2 = 1.40$ *Exact P* = .36	$\chi^2 = 0.76$ *Exact P* = .57	$\chi^2 = 1.60$ *Exact P* = .25
Trip	$\chi^2 = .00$ *Exact P* = 1	$\chi^2 = 0.17$ *Exact P* = 1	$\chi^2 = 0.25$ *Exact P* = 1	$\chi^2 = 1.20$ *Exact P* = .59
Giving instructions	$\chi^2 = 3.06$ *Exact P* = .16	$\chi^2 = 1.85$ *Exact P* = .48	$\chi^2 = 1.125$ *Exact P* = .38	$\chi^2 = 0.44$ *Exact P* = 1
Role plays	$\chi^2 = 2.45$ *Exact P* = .24	$\chi^2 = 0.60$ *Exact P* = .58	$\chi^2 = 0.33$ *Exact P* = .52	$\chi^2 = 0.69$ *Exact P* = .44

Table 6.3.8.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate critical thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicators				
Activity	Giving own views	Giving reasoned answers	Developing arguments	Giving correct answers	Appreciating and accepting defeat
Quiz	U=17(70.8%) UW=12(70.6%) NW=4(57.1%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=11(64.7%) NW=2(28.6%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=12(70.6%) NW=6(85.7%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=1(5.9%) NW=1(14.3%)	U=17(70.8%) UW=1(5.9%) NW=1(14.3%)
Assign	U=6(25%) UW=4(66.7%) NW=12(66.7%)	U=6(25%) UW=3(50%) NW=10(55.6%)	U=6(25%) UW=4(66.7%) NW=14(77.8%)	U=6(25%) UW=1(16.7%) NW=1(5.6%)	U=6(25%) UW=1(16.7%) NW=1(5.6%)
Questions	U=6(25%) UW=9(56.2%) NW=6(85.7%)	U=6(25%) UW=8(50%) NW=4(57.1%)	U=6(25%) UW=12(75%) NW=5(71.4%)	U=6(25%) UW=2(12.5%) NW=0(0%)	U=6(25%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(28.6%)
Brain storm	U=24(100%) UW=16(66.7%)	U=24(100%) UW=13(54.2%)	U=24(100%) UW=18(75%)	U=24(100%) UW=2(8.3%)	U=24(100%) UW=2(8.3%)
Think pair share	U=10(41.7%) UW=7(70%) NW=9(64.3%)	U=10(41.7%) UW=5(50%) NW=8(57.1%)	U=10(41.7%) UW=9(90%) NW=9(64.3%)	U=10(41.7%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(14.3%)	U=10(41.7%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(14.3%)
Group	U=14(58.3%) UW=10(71.4%) NW=6(60%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=7(50%) NW=6(60%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=11(78.6%) NW=7(70%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=1(7.1%) NW=1(10%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=1(7.1%) NW=1(10%)
Debate	U=18(75%) UW=12(66.7%) NW=4(66.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=9(50%) NW=4(66.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=13(72.2%) NW=5(83.3%)	U=18(75%) UW=1(5.6%) NW=1(16.7%)	U=18(75%) UW=2(11.1%) NW=0(0%)
Selecting and Evaluating	U=4(17.4%) UW=3(75%) NW=12(63.2%)	U=4(17.4%) UW=3(75%) NW=10(52.6%)	U=4(17.4%) UW=4(100%) NW=13(68.4%)	U=4(17.4%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(10.5%)	U=4(17.4%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(10.5%)

Table 6.3.8.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate critical thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

	Indicators				
Activity	View	Answers	Argument	Giving correct answers	Appreciating and accepting defeat
Quiz	χ^2 =0.40 *Exact p*=.65	χ^2 = 2.61 *Exact p*=.18	χ^2 = 0.61 *Exact p*= .63	χ^2 = 0.46 *Exact p*= .51	χ^2 = 0.46 *Exact p*= .51
Assign	χ^2 = 0.00 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 = 0.06 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 = 0.30 *Exact p*=.62	χ^2 = 0.73 *Exact p*=.45	χ^2 = 0.73 *Exact p*=.45
Questions	χ^2 =1.86 *Exact p*=.35	χ^2 =0.10 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 = 0.03 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 =0.96 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 =5.01 *Exact p*=.08
Brain storm	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator	100% teachers used the method and observed the indicator
Think pair share	χ^2 = 0.09 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 =0.12 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 =2.06 *Exact p*=.34	χ^2 =1.56 *Exact p*=.49	χ^2 =1.56 *Exact p*=.49
Group	χ^2 =0.34 *Exact p*=.67	χ^2 = 0.24 *Exact p*=.70	χ^2 = 0.23 *Exact p*=.67	χ^2 =0.06 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 = 0.06 *Exact p*=1
Debate	χ^2 = 0.00 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 =0.50 *Exact p*=.65	χ^2 =0.30 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 = 0.73 *Exact p*=.45	χ^2 = 0.73 *Exact p*=1
Selecting and Evaluating	χ^2 = 0.20 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 = 0.67 *Exact p*=.60	χ^2 = 1.71 *Exact p*=.54	χ^2 =0.46 *Exact p*=1	χ^2 =0.46 *Exact p*=1

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.9.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate creative thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicator				
Activity	Stories	Problems	Essays	Consequences	Writing and reading short stories
Craft	U=12(50%) UW=9(75%) NW=5(41.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=6(50%) NW=8(66.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=6(50%) NW=7(58.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=6(50%) NW=7(58.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=1(8.3%) NW=1(9.1%)
Jigsaw	U=12(50%) UW=7(58.3%) NW=7(58.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=7(58.3%) NW=7(58.3%)	U=12(50%) UW=5(41.7%) NW=8(66.7%)	U=12(50%) UW=8(66.7%) NW=5(41.7%)	U=11(52.2%) UW=1(8.3%) NW=1(9.1%)
Story	U=14(58.3%) UW=6(42.9%) NW=8(80%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=8(57.1%) NW=6(60%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=7(50%) NW=6(60%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=9(64.3%) NW=4(40%)	U=14(60.9%) UW=2(14.3%) NW=0(0%)
Essay	U=14(58.3) UW=10(71.4%) NW=4(40%)	U=14(58.3) UW=9(64.3%) NW=5(50%)	U=14(58.3) UW=8(57.1%) NW=5(50%)	U=14(58.3) UW=6(42.9%) NW=6(42.9%)	U=13(56.5%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(20%)
Conflict	U=13(54.2%) UW=5(38.5%) NW=9(81.8%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=10(76.9%) NW=7(36.4%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=9(69.2%) NW=4(36.4%)	U=13(54.2%) UW=8(61.5%) NW=5(45.5%)	U=13(56.5%) UW=1(7.7%) NW=1(10%)
Completing a jumbled story	U=8(33.3%) UW=6(75%) NW=8(50%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=4(50%) NW=10(62.5%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=3(37.5%) NW=10(62.5%)	U=8(33.3%) UW=5(62.5%) NW=8(50%)	U=7(30.4%) UW=0(0%) NW=2(12.5%)

Table 6.3.9.3: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate creative thinking and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill

	Indicator				
Activity	Stories	Problems	Essays	consequences	Writing and reading short stories
Craft	χ^2 =2.74 *Exact P*= .21	χ^2 =0.69 *Exact P*= .68	χ^2 =0.17 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =0.17 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2=.004 Exact p=1
Jigsaw	χ^2 =0.00 – check these 0 *Exact P*= 1.00	χ^2 =0.00 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2=1.51 *Exact P*= .41	χ^2 =1.51 *Exact P*=.41	χ^2 =0.004 *Exact P*=1
Story	χ^2 =3.31 *Exact P*= .10	χ^2 =0.02 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =0.24 *Exact P*= .70	χ^2 =1.39 *Exact P*= .41	χ^2 =1.41 *Exact P*= .50
Essay	χ^2 =2.37 *Exact P*= .21	χ^2 =0.49 *Exact P*=.68	χ^2 =0.12 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =1.73 *Exact P*= .24	χ^2 =2.85 *Exact P*= .18
Conflict	χ^2 =4.61 *Exact P*= .047*	χ^2 =4.03 *Exact P*= .095	χ^2 =2.59 *P*= .11	χ^2 =0.62 *P*= .43	χ^2 =0.04 *Exact P*= 1
Completing a jumbled story	χ^2 =1.37 *Exact P*= .39	χ^2 =0.34 *Exact P*= .67	χ^2 =1.34 *Exact P*= .39	χ^2 =0.34 *Exact P*= .68	χ^2 =0.96 *Exact P*= 1

(N = 24)

Table 6.3.10.3: The relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate problem-solving and the number of teachers who observed each indicator of that skill

Note: In the table below, U = Used, UW = Used and Witnessed, and NW = Not Used and Witnessed

	Indicator				
Activity	Alternatives	Avoid	Helping others	Negotiate	Answering questions
Case studies of problem situations	U=12(52.2%) UW=8(66.7%) NW=4(36.4%)	U=12(52.2%) UW= 5(41.7%) NW=5(45.5%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=8(66.7%) NW=6(54.5%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=4(33.3%) NW=4(36.4%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=4(33.3%) NW=10(90.9%)
Case studies of conflicts	U=12(52.2%) UW=5(35.7%) NW=7(70%	U=11(50%) UW=5(50%) NW=6(42.9%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=8(57.1%) NW=7(70%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=5(35.7%) NW=4(40%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=8(57.1%) NW=6(42.9%)
Resolving conflicts in the class	U=12(52.2%) UW=9(64.3%) NW=3(33.3%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=6(42.9%) NW=5(55.6%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=9(64%) NW=6(66.7%)	U=12(52.2%) UW=5(35.7%) NW=4(44.4%)	U=14(60.9%) UW=9(64.3%) NW=5(55.6%)
Discussing problem situations in children's lives	U=14(58.3%) UW=3(21.4%) NW=9(90%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=8(57.1%) NW=3(30%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=7(50%) NW=8(80%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=4(28.6%) NW=5(50%)	U=14(58.3%) UW=8(57.1%) NW=6(60%)
Solving tasks and questions	U=6(25%) UW=4(66.7%) NW=8(44.4%)	U=6(25%) UW=4(66.7%) NW=7(38.9%)	U=6(25%) UW=5(83.3%) NW=10(55.6%)	U=6(25%) UW=2(33.3%) NW=7(38.9%)	U=6(25%) UW=1(16.7%) NW=13(72.2%)
Jigsaw filling	U=5(23.8%) UW=3(60%) NW=8(50%)	U=5(23.8%) UW=2(40%) NW=7(43.8%)	U=5(23.8%) UW=4(80%) NW=10(62.5%)	U=5(23.8%) UW=1(20%) NW=8(50**%)**	U=5(23.8%) UW=3(60%) NW=9(56%)

Table 6.3.10.4: Chi-square results of the relationship between the number of teachers who used each method to facilitate problem-solving and the number of teachers who observed each indicators of that skill

	Indicator				
Activity	Alternatives	Avoid	Helping others	Negotiate	Answering questions
Case studies of problem situations	χ^2 = 2.11 *P*=.15	χ^2 =0.03 *Exact P*=1	χ^2 =0.35 *Exact P*=.68	χ^2 = 0.02 *Exact P*=1	χ^2 =7.99 *Exact P*=.01*
Problem-solving case studies	χ^2 =2.74 *P*= .1	χ^2 =.12 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = .41 *Exact P*=.68	χ^2 =.046 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =.02 *Exact P*= 1
Problem-solving-resolving conflicts	χ^2 = 2.10 *Exact P*= .21	χ^2 = .35 *Exact P*= .68	χ^2 = 0.01 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 =.18 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = .18 *Exact P*= 1
Discuss problem	χ^2 = 10.97 *P*=.001*	χ^2 = 1.73 *Exact P*= .24	χ^2 =2.24 *Exact P*=.21	χ^2 = 1.14 *Exact P*= .40	χ^2 =.02 *Exact P*= 1
Solving tasks and questions	χ^2 = 0.89 *Exact P*= .64	χ^2 = 1.40 *Exact P*= .36	χ^2 = 1.48 *Exact P*= .35	χ^2 =.06 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 5.71 *Exact P*= .05
Jigsaw filling	χ^2 = 0.15 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = .02 *Exact P*= 1	χ^2 = 0.53 *Exact P*= .62	χ^2 =1.40 *Exact P*= .34	χ^2 =.33 *Exact P*= 1

(N = 24)