

Multicultural Education Review

Integrative Character Education (ICE): Grounding Facilitated Pro-social Development in a Humanistic Perspective for a Multicultural World --Manuscript Draft--

Full Title:	Integrative Character Education (ICE): Grounding Facilitated Pro-social Development in a Humanistic Perspective for a Multicultural World
Manuscript Number:	
Article Type:	Review Article
Keywords:	Character Education, Anti-social Behavior, Pro-social Development, Personality, Five Factor Model
Manuscript Classifications:	Child Development; Inclusive Education; Psychology
Abstract:	<p>Character Education initiatives within schools have gained both proponents and opponents over recent years and continue to garner mixed reviews. Proponents argue that the need is urgent and the increasing level of school disruption, anti-social behavior and violence requires a focus on values/virtues/moral education and claim this is synonymous with good practice in education. Opponents ask, whose values will be taught and how does this address the needs of our multicultural reality? While others claim that, many initiatives embrace moral education delivered in a behaviorist fashion promoting control by other and lack a humanistic understanding of the pluralistic nature of modern society. This review addresses these issues by exploring, critically interpreting, and synthesizing educational and psychological research. The aim being to develop a definition of character education that is not confined to antiquated understandings of ethnocentric non-negotiable ideological values/virtues/morals. The main focus of the review being to inform a unified theory of character education embedded in a sociocultural understanding of personality development. By developing a research informed discussion of characteristics beneficial to life outcomes a theory of Integrative Character Education (ICE) is offered.</p>
Order of Authors:	Robert White

Title: Integrative Character Education (ICE): Grounding Facilitated Pro-social Development in a Humanistic Perspective for a Multicultural World

Abstract:

Character Education initiatives within schools have gained both proponents and opponents over recent years and continue to garner mixed reviews. Proponents argue that the need is urgent and the increasing level of school disruption, anti-social behavior and violence requires a focus on values/virtues/moral education and claim this is synonymous with good practice in education. Opponents ask, whose values will be taught and how does this address the needs of our multicultural reality? While others claim that, many initiatives embrace moral education delivered in a behaviorist fashion promoting control by other and lack a humanistic understanding of the pluralistic nature of modern society. This review addresses these issues by exploring, critically interpreting, and synthesizing educational and psychological research. The aim being to develop a definition of character education that is not confined to antiquated understandings of ethnocentric non-negotiable ideological values/virtues/morals. The main focus of the review being to inform a unified theory of character education embedded in a sociocultural understanding of personality development. By developing a research informed discussion of characteristics beneficial to life outcomes a theory of Integrative Character Education (ICE) is offered.

Keywords: Character Education, Anti-social Behavior, Pro-social Development, Personality, Five Factor Model

Introduction

The current perception among educational stakeholders is that as schools and society in general continue to experience an increase in anti-social behavior, general indiscipline is becoming the normal behavioral pattern within classrooms (Logan & Rickinson, 2005). This concern, coupled with the current confusion and uncertainty regarding pro-sociality, ethics, values, and the role of social institutions, particularly schools, in facilitating the process by which children and adolescents acquire pro-social and ethical sensibilities, gave rise to this investigation.

However, before a clear and defined approach to overcome anti-social attitudes and behaviors can be offered, a coherent understanding of the role school-wide mediated pro-social development may play in pupil behavior must be placed within a perspective that takes into account the pluralistic nature of modern society. It is important to note that these concerns are not new; every society and every generation decides, either explicitly or implicitly, what it will attempt to teach the next generation and how it will raise its young (Dewey, 1932). Although as highlighted by current rhetoric, what does appear new is the sense of angst and urgency that currently accompanies these inter-related philosophical, psychological, and educational questions and concerns. This rhetoric and growing unrest related to increased migration and global insecurity has led to a reactionary approach to anti-social behavior implemented on a piecemeal basis within our schools.

Aims and Objectives

The objective of this review is to develop a unified theory of character education grounded in a synthesis of current personality research and to bridge the gap between educational

practice and a sociocultural understanding of human development. In developing a theory rooted in modern empirical evidence the character education initiative may be able to advance the discussion beyond culturally centric and/or non-negotiable values or morals education. The aim of this review is to address the following two questions:

1) What is the relationship between personality, educational outcomes, and the ability to overcome adversity?

2) What role can teacher facilitated pro-social learning opportunities play in the development of beneficial character adaptations in children?

Background. Increasing concern regarding disruptive behavior, under achievement, disengagement, and mental health issues among school-aged children has led to the resurgence of government rhetoric calling for the implementation of character education (Arthur, 2005). In addition, the growing prevalence of mental illness among school-age children has led to a proliferation of initiatives in schools varying considerably in range and focus (Gott, 2003).

There is a growing discussion regarding what can be done to address inappropriate behavior and re-establish social cohesion within schools and the broader community. Such concern is not groundless; in one study, Williams et al. (2005) found that 85% of teachers with more than 15 years of experience reported that disruptive and anti-social behavior is progressively worsening and that 60% of all teachers reported a behavior crisis within UK schools today. Mayer and Leone (1999) found that school personnel spend more time and resources on punitive and reactive measures aimed at inhibiting aggression, violence, and ongoing disruptive behavior than on positive or preventative strategies. Yet, school shootings are on the rise and armed police officers have been assigned to the vast majority of US schools.

Although disruptive, anti-social and even violent behavior is not new, school based initiatives to enhance one's "character" have become more imbedded in culturally centric values and morals education programming since the UK Government published its first White Paper on Education, *Excellence in Schools* (DfEE, 1997). This paper argued that schools should take the responsibility to teach children to "appreciate and understand a moral code on which civilized society is based" (DfEE, 1997: p.10) and "develop a strength of character and attitudes to life and work." However, no clear definition or explicit guidelines were given for schools regarding the teaching of a "moral code" or what this "code" entails within a pluralistic society. Therefore many have moved toward indoctrinational programming to assimilate children into "acceptable sense and sensibilities" based on culturally centric interpretations of 'what a person should be and what they should believe' based on writings from 'western' antiquity or ethnocentric perspectives established during colonial empiricism.

However, it is not the anti-social behavior of children that should be driving school reform. Instead we should consider the United Nations (UNICEF-2007) report concluding that the United Kingdom is at the bottom of a quality of life survey for children and young people when compared to 21 of the most-developed nations, implying that initiatives to improve life outcomes for children in the United Kingdom are not meeting needs. Furthermore, one in ten children in England experience mental health difficulties before their 16th birthday any given time. It should also be noted that half of those with lifetime mental health difficulties experience symptoms before the age of 14 (No Health without Mental Health, 2011). Mental illness constitutes to be up to 23% of the total burden of ill health and the largest cause of disability within the United Kingdom (2010), and we know that mental ill health often starts before adulthood and continues through life. Moreover, Merrell, Tymms and Jones (2007) reported a no

change in the developmental levels of children despite the introduction of several Early Years initiatives, suggesting that the developmental needs of children are not being met by recent educational initiatives and that the focus of these initiatives may be wrongly placed. However, the OECD report *Education at a Glance* (2007) and the UNICEF (2013) reports indicate that the UK is continuing to fall behind other nations in academic uptake and achievement. Although, the UN Children's Fund (2013) highlights that the UK has moved up the rankings overall in an expanded field of 29 'wealthy' countries under evaluation, the country has made little progress in Education placing 24th. Troublingly, the report goes on to highlight that nearly 35% of young teenagers in the UK have been involved in at least one physical fight in the previous 12 months and over 30% state that they have suffered from bullying. The 2013 report like the previous UNICEF reports on the wellbeing of children continues to highlight that British children have the worst relationships with their family and peers, suffer from greater poverty, and indulge in more binge drinking and unsafe sex than children in most other wealthy nations. All of this speaks volumes for children in distress and their disruptive and anti-social behaviors need to be understood in light of the daily distress they are experiencing. Therefore, school reform needs to move away from indoctrination based assimilation approaches to 'character education' and consider how to bring security and belongingness into the lives of all children. By focusing on these fundamental needs of children and young people we may be able to move beyond reactionary behavior management dogma that stress compliance to authority and move toward providing a caring and supportive school that can facilitate the development of the strength of character required to overcome the social inequalities many children and young people face on a daily basis in our society.

In light of the above issues the Department for Education in England (2014) declared its intention to become a global leader of teaching character. However the issue remains, what does it mean to teach character, what research has been undertaken to determine what ‘character’ is most beneficial and who decides what ‘character’ is valued and taught?

Therefore, an exploration to resolve these issues can begin with perspectives reviewed by Hanh (1998) and Haydon et al. (2009) that highlight character education and citizenship education aim to make a difference to the values or behavior of children and even though there is no common unified theoretical base the majority of models focus on indoctrinating children into sanctioned behavior to address the growing concern or perception of a continued decline of moral standards in society. In addition, a point of debate between proponents and opponents of teachers teaching character regards the question; whose values and what behavior is acceptable and by whom. Addressing this concern, a central theme of this exploration is investigating the literature related to in person aspects that enhance educational and life outcomes even in the face of adversity. Placing character education within the framework of pro-social development to enhance the construction of a resilient character able to engage in socially competent and cooperative decision-making, problem-solving, and conflict resolution is also discussed in detail.

It should also be noted that there is not only no satisfactory definition of character education but no synthesis of psychological or educational research under a unified theory or practice to guide the advancement of an appropriate school-based pro-social development initiative to meet the social, emotional, and cognitive needs of children in a pluralistic society. Therefore, it is paramount to ground our understanding of what constitutes a “strength of character” that supports protective life outcomes, as well as an understanding of the nature of a

character education program that facilitates this strength of character within pluralistic societies from an inter-disciplinary perspective of modern theory.

Methodology

The sources examined in this review were identified through searching six electronic databases. A title search review followed by an exhaustive review of the abstracts provided a sufficient number of sources to provide a grounded understanding of the research position and full awareness of the aims of this review to allow for knowledge to be moved toward a theory of Integrative Character Education (ICE) pedagogy.

Due to the numerous articles (n=479,779) returned in a full-text search, an iterative keyword search using the referenced academic databases (Table 1) was conducted, which led to a systematic mapping of the research literature. A second set of criteria was then applied at the in-depth review stage to focus further on literature that engaged with the social and emotional well-being outcomes of school-aged children. After a title keyword search led to the identification of potentially relevant articles (n=9,048), it was deemed necessary to conduct a combined keyword title search followed by abstract and full-text scans. In this manner 498 articles most appropriate for the final critical review and synthesis were identified.

Insert Table 1 here

In order to effectively synthesize the relevant literature, each article using a grounded theory approach to the review was open coded, axial coded, selectively coded (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) and then grouped according to its relevance to the following six emerging themes. The themes are based on the overarching aim of developing a holistic understanding of the association between the development of a strength of character and school outcomes:

- Resilience in children and its implication for education;
- Social competence and social well-being;
- Cooperative temperament and emotional well-being;
- Personality and its implications for character education;
- Behavior and patterns of self-regulation;
- Schools as protective factors in life outcomes.

Coding and Synthesis of the Literature

Despite the absence of a modern theoretical basis (see Leming, 1997; McLaughlin & Halstead, 1999), character, citizenship, moral, values, and social-emotional educational programs that aim to improve the values and behavior of children (Elias et al., 1997; Hanh, 1998; Hayden, 1997) have been implemented across the US and UK. Many advocates of models that aim to promote certain types of behavior have encouraged their implementation due to the “moral crisis” of modern societies (Berkowitz, 2003; Lickona, 1991; Vincent, 1999c). Unlike other curricula designed to facilitate the child’s ability to reason and solve problems, the goal of many forms of character, citizenship, moral, and values education appears to be to encourage children to appreciate and comply with rules and regulations established for control and management of their behavior by others.

Clearly, the current conceptualization of most behavior management programs couched within values, virtues or character education do not consider the underlying drive for autonomy or self-actualization. However, aligning the development of character education with a perspective influenced by modern developmental, psychological, and educational theory and research it may be possible to provide a sociocultural framework for character education

designed to develop characteristics associated with pro-social development and self-regulation. This type of character education programming could provide the support necessary for children to reach their full potential and achieve an autonomous ego.

Key Themes Emerging from the Literature

Historical perspectives on personality and character education. As previously discussed, the proponents of returning character education to the agendas of the US and the UK educational systems argue that there is a “moral crisis” threatening our societies that requires the teaching of values and moral codes within our schools. Such a call for the need for character education is not new; the development of the understanding of personality on learning, education, social integration, and mental health has been a concern for over 100 years. The literature reviewed in this section develops a link between the demands of character education, goal orientation, and motivation by reference to Webb’s (1915a) character-derived unitary constructs and the Big Five Factor Model (FFM; Thurstone, 1934; Hofstee, W., De Raad, B., & Goldberg, L. (1992); De Raad, B., Hendriks, A., & Hofstee, W. 1993) of personality as first synthesized by Deary's (1996) research. Although this review is by no means exhaustive, it provides the groundwork for embedding the facilitated development of character traits based on the understanding of the role personality plays in educational and life outcomes into the development of an integrative character education program.

Attempting to understand the role personality plays in learning and deciding whether character education within a socio-cultural understanding of personality development and character adaptation can provoke not only confusion but consternation. Confusion is felt by those who keep personality psychology and education at arm’s length, preferring to stick to the less

controversial aspects of learning math, literacy, and science, and consternation by those who argue education is not meant to be an acculturational process (see Kottak & Kozaitis, 2003).

Educational research has placed the relationship between education and personality as juxtaposed lines of inquiry close enough for comparison but always remaining separate. Eysenck (1990) argued that because an individual's temperament affects achievement-oriented behaviors, inherited temperament impacts educational achievement. However, Sockett (1988) argued that personality affecting achievement and outcomes can be directly influenced and constructed by the environmental context.

The early psychodynamic perspective on the development of personality, which considered personality the result of powerful inner forces not only responsible for shaping personality but also behavior (see Freud, 1961), led to a focus on describing personality traits. Webb's (1915b) early work on character and intelligence provided an explicit framework for relating the moral and relational qualities of personality to educational outcomes. To date, a robust investigation of this link has not been undertaken in studies associated with the revitalization of the character education movement.

McCloy (1936) argued for the importance of moral qualities in reference to constructs such as honesty, cooperation, and integrity in his work on character education. In both McCloy's (1936) and Webb's (1915a; 1915b) studies, these constructs emerged as important themes in the factor analysis of traits.

Research during this first half of the 20th century investigated non-cognitive (i.e., social and emotional) factors and the importance of their relationship in predicting educational achievement and outcomes. This early work provided valuable insight into constructing a character education program rooted in socio-emotional factors for promoting pro-social

development to enhance social competence and cooperation and in turn decrease anti-social behavior within school. Later in the 20th century, both Allport (1965) and Eysenck (1967) argued that human behavior and personality can be viewed within a hierarchical organizational structure. Allport and Odbert (1936:26) described *traits*, defined as features or quantifiable measurements that are inherited and/or environmentally determined, as “generalized and personalized determining tendencies, which are consistent and stable modes of an individual’s adjustment to his environment.” On the nature side of the debate, Eysenck (1970, 1990) emphasized the biological/inherited foundation of personality traits. Within trait theory and the research interests associated with non-cognitive factors influencing academic achievement, both Alexander (1935) and Wechsler (1943) highlighted the three temperamental traits of (a) drive, (b) persistence, and (c) interest, which they argued played a key role in certain types of achievement. Cronbach and Snow (1977) argued such factors are likely to contribute to success within the learning environments of formal education. Along this same line of inquiry, Messick (1979) identified background factors, coping styles, values, motivations, and attitudes that may function as mediating factors in (a) facilitating or disrupting a child’s learning, (b) moderating responses to teacher-guided instruction, or (c) moderating responses to the social demands of the learning environment.

Building on Messick’s (1979) work, the 1980s saw a revitalized interest in trait research that ultimately led to the development of the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality (Goldberg, 1981; 1990). The FFM framework in turn led to a renewed interest in research on performance-related personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992, 1993, 1995; Costa et al, 1999; John, 1990; Loehlin et al, 1998; McCrae & Costa, 1985, 1990, 1994, 1996, 2003). Borrowing from Costa and McCrae’s (1992) research, the five factors in the FFM framework are *openness*, *extroversion*,

agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and intellect/autonomy, all of which encompass a broad range of aspects associated with behavior. These aspects as described by Peabody and Goldberg (1989) represent (a) power and expression of energy; (b) love, acceptance, and peacefulness; (c) task-oriented behavior; (d) affect and emotional control; and (e) imagination, intellect, and autonomy.

The FFM is of interest because it captures basic dispositional and temperamental factors that help conceptualize personality traits and displayed characteristics relevant to learning in the educational context. When using the FFM to inform character education within a multicultural setting, it is important to consider the universality of the factors and whether they are replicable across cultures. Several studies suggest that the FFM provides a near universal perspective on the nature of human behavior at the basic and abstract level. Within their systematic review of cross-cultural research, Saucier, Hampson, and Goldberg (2000) found that extroversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness can be found in most language groups.

Although the review of Saucier et al. (2000) suggests variations in how different cultures view the basis of human behavior, their findings may be more related to language restraints than differences in behavior. To understand this more fully, it is necessary to consider that the FFM has been replicated in a number of different languages. Several studies have supported the FFM in non-English languages, including Japanese (Bond, Nakazato, & Shiraishi, 1975), German (Borkenau & Ostendorf, 1992), Hebrew (Birenbaum & Montag, 1986), and Spanish (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998). However, these studies have limited generalizability because they relied on measures translated from English. More recent studies that used indigenous trait terms have had mixed results. For example, studies of Germans (Angleitner & Ostendorf, 1989) and Filipinos (Church & Katigbak, 1989) using indigenous terms supported the FFM, but studies of

Chinese (Yang & Bond, 1992) supported only two of the five factors. However, De Raad et al. (1992) found a growing body of evidence that people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds view individual differences in personality traits in similar ways. Specifically, De Raad and Van Hock. (1994) found that at least three of the factors, and often all five factors, are frequently found across cultural and linguistic groups. More recently, using an international English language scale, Thompson (2008) demonstrated that the FFM structure is represented across several cultures. This body of research is building toward the growing understanding of the universality of the FFM model.

Understanding the Five Factor Model. The five factors in the FFM were derived from factor analysis of a large number of self-reports and peer reports on personality relevant adjectives that reduced many variables into a single factor. Factor analysis, first developed nearly one hundred years ago by Charles Spearman, is a statistical method used to describe variability among observed variables in terms of fewer unobserved variables called *factors*. The disadvantages of this type of analysis are that (a) it relies on a heuristic way of thinking about a topic such that there can be more than one interpretation of the data (b) it cannot identify causality and (c) it is completely reliant on the data collected (Darlington et al. 1973). The primary advantage of this approach is that it allows for both objective and subjective attributes to be employed in the analysis to identify hidden constructs that may not be evident in direct analysis, providing a means of isolating the underlying factors that explain the data. With this in mind, it is important to understand that the factors are dimensions along a continuum, with most people falling between the extremes.

Many longitudinal studies correlating test scores over time and cross-sectional studies comparing personality levels across different age groups have found a high degree of stability in

personality traits during adulthood. However, more recent studies have indicated that this stability begins in young adulthood after the age of 20 (Soldz & Vaillant, 1999).

Moreover, several meta-analyses of previous studies indicate that change occurs in all five traits at various points in the lifespan providing evidence for a maturational effect associated with the five traits (McCrae & Costa, 1990,1996; McCrae & John, 1992). In general, levels of agreeableness and conscientiousness tend to increase with time, whereas extraversion, neuroticism, and openness tend to decrease (Srivastava, John, Gosling,& Potter, 2003). These findings aid the understanding regarding how educational interventions may enhance the development of pro-social characteristics prior to the onset of early adulthood, when traits become more entrenched and resistant to environmental influences.

The twin studies of Jang et al. (1996) suggest that all five factors are affected by both heredity and environmental influences in roughly equal proportion. An analysis of the available studies conducted by Bouchard and McGue (2003) found the following levels of environmental influence on the FFM traits: openness 43%, extraversion 46%, conscientiousness 51%, neuroticism 52%, and agreeableness 58%. These findings highlight that although traits have a genetic basis, the environment plays a significant role in the final distribution of characteristics. Therefore, because personality traits are susceptible to environmental influences during childhood, characteristic adaptations that underpin pro-sociality may be influenced through teacher facilitated activities designed to enhance pro-social development. In short, culturally competent teachers can move beyond non-negotiable ideological values/morals education and teach character in the multicultural reality of the 21st century.

Teaching Character to Enhance Emotional Stability and Wellbeing. A number of meta-analyses have confirmed the predictive value of the FFM factors across a wide range of

behaviors. When Saulsman and Page (2004) examined the relationships between the FFM personality dimensions and each of the 10 personality disorder categories in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV* (DSM-IV: APA, 2000) across 15 independent samples, they found that each disorder displayed a unique and predictable five-factor profile. Specifically, they found that the most prominent and consistent personality predictors underlying the disorders were positive associations with neuroticism and negative associations with agreeableness (Saulsman & Page, 2004). Based on this finding, learning initiatives that focus on enhancing emotional stability and agreeableness may prove beneficial when developing a framework for meeting the personal, social, and emotional needs of children within the educational setting.

In Figure 1 below, Costa and McCrae's (1998) depict the biological basis of personality, asserting that the factor theory traits are expressions of human genetics that remain uninfluenced by the environment; that the maturational effect is mainly intrinsic; and that social experience (i.e. nurture) has little effect on the changing personality. However, as highlighted above, more recent research has suggested that childhood personality is influenced by environmental influences in more powerful ways than first asserted by early FFM research (Jang et al., 1996). Considering these more recent findings in relation to Costa and McCrae's (1998) graphical representation, it can be suggested that the dynamic processes indicated in Figure 1 are the spaces most open to environmental influences or, more specifically to this study, the avenues for teacher led character education interventions designed to influence personality change through characteristic adaptations that promote pro-social development.

Insert Figure 1 A representation of the FFM of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1998).

Linking personality and character education

The FFM has been criticized not only because of its lack of reliability across cultures but also—and even more so—because of its lack of attention to personality change. As Brody (1988) explained, a way of accounting for change is required within a comprehensive theory of personality. This is particularly true when applying a theory in the investigation of the relationship between psychological knowledge and educational strategies to promote learner engagement, social competency, and emotional well-being. Therefore, if one views learning as a general processing of information that leads to lasting change (Lindsay & Norman, 1972, 1977) and education is seen as a transformational process that transmits knowledge (Pring, 2004), then it is possible to suggest that the educational context is best situated to transfer, introduce, and adapt character traits.

The concepts that arise from this perspective in relationship to safeguarding that which makes us most human has been and continues to be the ability to engage in cooperation beyond kinship lines, rational and ethical decision making, social problem solving and conflict resolution. As the literature confirms, education in general, and psychology in particular, has espoused this understanding virtually without exception over the past 100 years (see Dewey, 1910, 1991:13; Ragsdale, 1932; Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1960; Cronbach & Snow, 1977; Sacks, 1997; Vincent, 1999a, 1999b; Slavin, 2002). As Dewey (1910) argued, the “natural and native impulses of the young do not agree with the life customs of the group into which they are born; consequently they have to be directed or guided”. By furthering Dewey’s claim that education acts as a tool of enculturation, the literature reviewed here highlights that learning focused on personality trait adaptations provides an avenue for all children to embrace ethical and rational pro-socialites. This approach in turn may free them from the oppression of non-negotiable ideological indoctrinational teachings that inhibit self-autonomy and awareness.

Cronbach (1977) argued that one focus of educational psychology should be *personal agency* or *autonomy*, often classified as self-regulation, independence, or self-efficacy. When exploring the literature, it becomes evident why the majority of personality constructs in relationship to learning and education are underpinned by the need for autonomy and the drive to reach self-actualization, as the drive for autonomy is a component of the personality trait approach to understanding the development of character. Therefore an exploration of agency and autonomy is warranted to provide a holistic theory of character education.

Informing Character Education through understanding the role of personality in learning and education. If education is defined as a purposeful activity that facilitates the construction of knowledge focused on transformation, attachment, achievement, accomplishment, and success in school, family, community, and society, then developing learning opportunities that lead the development of pro-social personality traits is an important issue. Therefore, a robust understanding of the historical and current perspective of personality traits provides a sound foundation for informing character education practice within schools to meet the growing call for educational mandates that promote the well-being of children and young people from birth through young adulthood. Many calls for reform consider character education as a possible approach for meeting the social, emotional, and cognitive needs of the developing child by facilitating learning opportunities that supports the mental well-being, autonomous drive for independence, and self-actualization of the individual in support of developing a just and civil society (Goldstein, 1939, 1963; Maslow, 1954, 1971; Lester et al., 1985).

While Spearman (1904) searched for a *general* or *g factor* underlying all traits, Galton (1907) sought to identify the non-cognitive factors that contribute to success in learning within

the culturally constructed environments of formal educational settings. Based on their findings, Webb (1915a) argued that personality was constructed of two factors: *intelligence* and *character*. Defining character as “the sum of all personal qualities which are not distinctly intellectual” (Webb, 1915a: 2), Webb went on to produce a rating scale for an extensive list of mental qualities consisting of both cognitive and non-cognitive attributes.

Finding support for Spearman's g factor, Webb argued for the existence of a second factor prominent on the character side of mental activity, which he labelled the *wide generality* or *w factor*. Webb (1915b:60) described the w factor as “persistence of motives” or “will”, which he conceptualized as the deliberate volition of the individual that results from the consistency of the individual's actions. After analyzing Webb's conception of the w factor, Spearman (1927:354) wrote, “We are compelled, then, to fall back upon the same double explanation of studiousness as before; a satisfaction in study derived from success of it, this success being due to superior ‘g’, and the tendency to take pains in the present for the sake of gains in the future, this tendency being bestowed by ‘w’.” Spearman (1927; 359) proposed that the terms *purposive consistency* and *self-control* be used in place of *w*. Upon re-analysis of Webb's (1915a) data, Garnett (1919) proposed a third factor that he labelled *cleverness* or *c*, which he defined as quickness of mind.

Following this research, the 1930s saw an increase in studies associated with non-cognitive factors related to school success. Arguing that most tasks demanded more than brilliance and that success through ability alone is not the rule but the exception, Ryans (1938; 1939) contended that Webb's w factor eventually became *persistence*, which could be more generally recognized as a measure of motivation that is a key aspect in school success (1939:175). Ryans (1939) found a correlation of 0.38 and 0.48 with persistence and academic

test scores, and pointed out that other studies have found a correlation between 0.38 and 0.80 in relationship to the rating of one's persistence and one's academic test scores. As a correlation is a single number used to describe the degree of relationship between two variables the above numbers indicate a significant relationship between persistence and academic test scores.

Lavin (1965:100) documented the importance of persistence in his writings on personality traits and its relationship to impulse control, arguing that persistence (i.e., impulse control), along with flexibility and agreeableness, is directly related to test anxiety, studiousness, and motivation to achieve. In contrast, after conducting a review of literature, Eysenck (1970) concluded that persistence is a relatively unitary construct, which holds a valued position within cultures; he went on to argue that persistence predicts success in life to a significant extent (p. 79). His argument was supported by Duckworth and Seligman (2005), who found that self-regulation is more salient than IQ in predicting educational outcomes.

Character education and personality factors. Research into the early constructs of Spearman's (1904) g and Webb's (1915b) w have been supplanted by research into temperament. As the FFM gained acceptance (Goldberg, 1990), research into persistence or w became overshadowed by research into extroversion and neuroticism. However, such research may be related. Wang (1932) argued that a substantial correlation existed between persistence and both extroversion and neuroticism. McCloy (1936) identified five common character trait clusters within two different datasets that have direct educational relevance, which he termed *conscientiousness, dominance- aggression, self-esteem, respect, and originality*. After completing a meta-analysis of the existing data, Wolfe (1942) concluded that among 50 different factors, only seven have been clearly identified in three or more well-constructed studies: (a) w or will/persistence (Webb, 1915a), (b) c or cleverness (Garnett, 1919), (c) s or shyness (Guilford

& Guilford, 1934, 1936), (d) dominance, (e) flow of mental activity, (f) disorder or depression, and (g) hypersensitivity.

In the following years, researchers focused on extroversion and neuroticism (i.e., emotional stability) as key factors associated with personality and temperament (Eysenck, 1947, 1952; Costa & McCrae, 1976, 1985; Zuckerman, Kuhlman, & Camac, 1988). As research into extroversion and neuroticism increased, a number of studies investigated their relationship within the educational context and their predictive value in academic achievement (see Bendig, 1957; 1958; 1960; Bendig & Sprague, 1954; Lynn, 1957; Grooms & Endler, 1960; Eysenck & Cookson, 1969; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1969). In 1970, Eysenck recorded the correlation of persistence with a lack of neuroticism. In relationship to extroversion and its predictive value, several researchers attempted to measure extroversion in contrast to introversion (see Guilford & Braly, 1930; Cattell, 1933, 1965; Eysenck et al., 1985; Thurstone, 1934) finding that after the age of 11 a lean toward an increase in introversion was beneficial in educational outcomes.

As the historical research above highlights, the relationship between personality, learning, and education has a long history, and many of the findings can be linked to what is now known as the FFM of personality. The FFM provides a comprehensive account of traits that fully cover the domain of personality and underscores the importance of recognizing the role that personality plays in predicting educational outcomes. The model is a primary result of the psycholexical approach to personality, which aims at providing a clear depiction of “all aspects of human personality which are or have been of importance, interest or utility” (Cattell, 1943:483). De Raad and Van Hock (1994) argued that even though the psycholexical approach is not primarily focused on the specific areas of interest, such as learning and education, the factors of openness to new experiences, conscientiousness, extroversion, and agreeableness are related

to successful learning and academic outcomes. This relationship is supported by the fact that when aspects of traits associated with temperament, character, and intelligence are combined with an understanding of the constructs of personality, they assume a predictive nature in relationship to school, work, family, and life outcomes. Therefore, outcomes associated with positive relationship to school work, family and life are underscored by achievement, the development of an autonomous ego, self-control, and self-actualization.

Educators continue to struggle with the definition of character in the design of moral, values, character, citizenship, personal, social health, and social-emotional education. The FFM provides a system for establishing the development of positive traits or characteristics, generally considered to be those traits that promote the “strength of character” best situated to overcome the challenges and setbacks of life to excel in school, work, and family. Development of this strength of character leads to development of one of the primary protective factors associated with overcoming risks, stress, and adversity: resilience.

Resilience. This section discusses the research exploring why some children overcome risk factors associated with poor outcomes (e.g., social marginalization, exclusion, school failure, or maladaptive personality disorders) and why others do not. Defining *resilience* as the capacity to overcome obstacles, achieve, and prosper despite adverse life situations and experiences, the value of resiliency and its importance when working with children and providing initiatives associated with learning and education is discussed.

As discussed in the previous section, research focused on the factors and personality traits that lead to the development of psychopathologies or maladaptive social strategies. By moving toward understanding why some children do well despite adversity, educators and mental health providers can develop initiatives and strategies to facilitate the development of character that can

overcome the adversities associated with modern society. Therefore, understanding resiliency and the personality traits associated with developing resiliency as an organizing concept is important in working with children and adolescents, particularly when developing character education and behavior-management pedagogy embedded in an instructional discourse to promote the development of in-person regulatory discourse (i.e., self-regulation; semiotically mediated at the intramental level).

Fonagy and Target (1994) defined the resilient child as one who bounces back after experiencing and enduring adversity and continues to function reasonably well despite ongoing exposure to risk factors, concluding that “resilience is normal development under difficult circumstances” (Fonagy and Target, 1994: 233). Not only are inborn qualities important in understanding why some children display resiliency but also the social experiences that the child encounters and how these experiences are processed. As school experiences may be more susceptible to professional influences than family influences, schools have the potential to become protective spheres of influence in children’s lives (Fonagy et al, 2002).

Impact of mounting risks on outcomes. Children face a considerable number of risk factors in their daily lives. Rutter (1990) argued that the accumulation of adversity or risks (e.g., abuse in combination with isolation, school disruption, and school/social exclusion) has the greatest negative impact on a child’s life trajectory. Sameroff et al. (1993) added that the accumulation of risk factors may reduce intellectual functioning over time. Although an inborn capacity for resiliency may help children cope with a few serious threats to their functioning, as the number of threats increases, their reserve of resiliency may begin to fail, leading them to experience progressively maladaptive behavior or negative outcomes. Thus, if *prevention*, defined as the facilitated construction of both intrapersonal resiliency and interpersonal

resiliency, becomes standard practice within schools before children are categorized as “at risk” or labelled with a disorder, and if schools are seen as a protective factors in children’s lives, both the inner strength of character can be bolstered and risks addressed before they accumulate.

Prevention is particularly important because, as Stattin and Magnusson (1996) found, serious social problems are likely to persist from childhood into adulthood. In a longitudinal study, Werner (1989) found that only one third of children living with poverty, parental mental illness, and family breakdown developed into competent, caring adults, and Rutter (1985) found that 50% of children who experience severe stress or adversities go on to develop mental health concerns. These difficulties appear to be linked to the extent of the individual’s personal resources (i.e., resiliency and the ability to cope) and the number of risks in the individual’s life. Although societies appear unable to remove individual risks associated with maladaptive development among children (e.g., parental mental illness, abuse, emotional and material neglect, divorce, and poverty), the development of initiatives to facilitate personal strengths (i.e., resiliency or “strength of character”) may reduce the inability to cope, and in turn offset the development of accumulated risk factors associated with the development of childhood mental distress or later development of mental illness. As Stattin and Magnusson (1996) argued, reducing the accumulation of risks seems to reduce the risk of later problems. This research highlights that even a small change in the individual’s trait profile or functioning may lead to a more pro-social, adaptive, and resilient character.

Bowlby (1988) conceived of development as a pathway along which children progress as they grow and develop. The concept of *turning points*, which is prominent within the child development research (Clausen, 1975; 1991; 1995), emphasizes that the absence of discourse associated with set trajectories (Pennington, 2002; Pennington and Ozonoff, 1996; Vygotsky,

1978) is particularly beneficial in understanding the responsibility associated with providing the best educational/learning opportunities for assisting in the development of the “strength of character” necessary for children's emotional and mental well-being. Of course, not all “wrong turns” or situations are as amenable to the same degree of change as others, and not all marginal change may have the same lasting impact. As research by Fergusson, Lynsky, and Horwood (1996) suggests, because it is easier to achieve positive change when the level of adversity is slight or moderate, it is most effective to provide preventative programming before risk factors accumulate.

However, this does not mean that children who have already become entrenched in maladaptive behavior should face further challenges to their well-being by being excluded from schools or marginalized by society. This point is particularly poignant when one considers that these children were likely functioning well or with limited challenges before the inability of their family, community and society to meet their needs led them to develop maladaptive behaviors. This slide toward increased disadvantage is often associated with an escalation in aggressive behavior, and it is this increase in aggressive behavior that is being observed within schools. An understanding of aggressive behavior is therefore necessary to continue this discussion of ameliorating risk factors through the facilitated development of resiliency.

Anti-social and aggressive behavior. Researchers have found that early childhood aggression and disruptive behaviors are major risk factors associated with social maladjustment and can be seen as being predictive of poor outcomes later in life (see Cowen, 1994; Walker et al., 1995; Rutter, 1997, Rutter et al, 1999). Further research (Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986; Patterson et al, 1992; Hinshaw & Anderson, 1996) indicates that anti-social behavior in its extreme forms (e.g., oppositional defiant disorder, conduct disorder, emotional behavioral

disorder, and severe emotional disorder) tends to remain stable throughout childhood and adolescence. As Walker and Rankin (1983) pointed out, because disruptive acting-out behavior is especially aversive to classroom teachers, this behavior places students at serious risk of school sanctions, resulting in the added risk factor of entrenchment in the path of maladjustment. Coie et al. (1990) found that these children are also susceptible to the added burdens of rejection by their peers, poor academic and social functioning, emotional instability, inattention, and impulsivity, as well as truancy (Oswald & Suss, 1994).

However, not all children who display early aggressive or disruptive behaviors continue to display these behaviors in later years. McFadyen-Ketchum et al. (1996) found that only between 25 to 50% of children who display early anti-social behavior continue this behavior one to three years after initial disruptive patterns are documented. Interestingly, McFadyen-Ketchum et al. (1996) found that children rated negatively by their teachers in both behavior and cognitive domains yet managed to remain popular with their peers were able to overcome negative early characteristics, inferring that social competence (i.e., the ability to maintain friendships among peers) may play a role in the ability to overcome early adversity.

Role of resilience in overcoming negative influences. As previously discussed, the ability to overcome adversity is often referred to as resilience. Zimmerman and Arunkumar (1994:4) describe resiliency as “those factors and processes that interrupt the trajectory from risk to problem behavior or psychopathology and thereby resulting in adaptive outcomes even in the presence of challenging and threatening circumstances”. Garmezy (1983) categorized resiliency or protective factors into *in-person factors*, such as positive temperament and social competence, and *community factors*, such as positive relationships with significant adults and positive school

environments. For the purposes of this discussion, in-person factors are referred to as aspects of intra-personal resiliency and community factors as aspects of interpersonal resiliency.

Hawkins and Weiss (1985) affirmed the importance of *bonding* (i.e., attachment and commitment) to family, school, and community as a protective factor in children's lives. According to Bowlby (1988), the development of a "secure base" that encourages the exploration of the wider world best occurs through the development of secure attachments. Although it may be most desirable for young people to develop secure attachments with their primary attachment figures (e.g., parents, siblings, and grandparents), this is not always possible. In the context of character education programs, it is important to realize that secure attachments with secondary or even tertiary attachment figures (e.g., teachers, coaches, and mentors) may play a significant protective role in the lives of children. As Trinke and Batholomew (1997) pointed out, children can develop a hierarchy of attachment relationships, so even children who have secure attachments with their primary attachment figures may benefit further, especially in times of adversity, by developing a broad base (i.e., multiple positive relationships) of secure attachments. Indeed, as Werner and Smith (1992:209) stated, 'the life stories of the resilient youngster now grown into adulthood teach us that competence, confidence and caring can flourish, even under adverse circumstances, *if* (this author's emphasis) children encounter persons who provide them with the secure basis for the development of trust, autonomy and initiative.'

Wang et al. (1994) contended that success in school and other life accomplishments can offset a negative trajectory "brought about by early traits, conditions, and experience" (p. 46). Therefore, in determining why some children overcome adversity, attention may best be focused on intra-personal traits, particularly the three FFM traits of openness to new experience,

conscientiousness, and agreeableness, as well as the school's role in providing interpersonal support to develop strength of character. A considerable body of research also suggests that the abilities to resolve conflict and achieve academic success are key protective factors in a child's life (Hawkins & Lishner, 1987; Hawkins & Weiss, 1985; Hawkins et al., 1991; Werner, 1987).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) identified *social support*, defined by Caplan (1974) as a range of significant interpersonal relationships that facilitates psychological and social functions, as a critical factor in enhancing an individual's ability to cope with life stresses. Schools and teachers are particularly well situated to fill gaps in these relationships, thereby facilitating the development of social competence and cooperative skills necessary to develop and maintain the ability to access social support. Within the literature addressing resilience, a major protective factor is attachment to and receipt of support from at least one significant adult (Garmezy, 1993; Garmezy et al, 1984; Rutter, 1985; Werner, 1989). Therefore, it appears that schools that develop a warm environment with authentically caring adults are well situated to provide support and a point of attachment that may act as a protective factor in the lives of children. This support can provide children with a strong sense of belonging, which they may lack elsewhere, and lead to their secure attachment to both the school and supportive adults.

Cernkovich and Giodano (1992) argued that the more secure the attachment that children develop with the school, the higher their aspirations, grades, and involvement, whereas lack of attachment to school tends to increase delinquency. Morrison et al. (1997) found that school attachment is positively correlated with academic achievement and negatively correlated with anti-social or disruptive behavior in school. As argued by Morrison et al. (1992) and supported by Cernkovich and Giordano (1992), Hawkins and Weiss, (1985), and Ladd, (1990), children who experience stress while attending school experience further threats to achievement and well-

being. This threat is either heightened or alleviated by their ability to access the social support required or the ability of the school to meet the needs of these children and provide the social support required.

Role of character education in resiliency. As the research above indicates, bonding with significant others and the school may act as a protective factor for children, helping them build the strength of character required to overcome the challenges of life. However, children face many stresses outside of the potentially protective school environment and away from potentially supportive teachers and school staff. Therefore, it is important that educators, psychologists, mental health professionals, and other service providers consider how schools and teachers can develop intra-personal characteristics that promote and foster resilience and strength of character.

Recognizing that the development of these characteristics is of paramount importance if the needs of all children are to be addressed in a constructive and holistic manner, this section describes the constructs relevant to character education. In developing a program of direct instruction (i.e., mediated learning) encompassing the FFM components of personality so that productive character adaptations can be internalized, it is helpful to expand directly on Webb's (1915a) and Deary's (1996) mapping work.

Role of personality in learning. Few data are available regarding the personality constructs relevant to learning, education, and the development of "strength of character". Therefore, it is necessary to [re]conceptualize educational initiatives in reference to developing pro-social behavior and learner engagement. The best way forward is to consider how personality, as perceived within the FFM, can inform character education practice, based on research that indicates that it is not only possible but beneficial for all learners and teachers to develop certain skills and character adaptations associated with pro-social behavior and effective

learning. However, before discussing each factor in the FFM and its importance in character education, it is necessary to discuss the application of the socio-cultural theory directly to the adaptation of intra-personal characteristics.

Application of socio-cultural theory to character adaptation within a Five Factor Model personality framework.

Conscientiousness. Goldberg (1992) defined conscientiousness, a key personality trait in the field of education and learning, as the drive to achieve, and described the habits and attitudes associated with this drive as organization, efficiency, practicality, and steadiness. Sockett (1988) agreed that conscientiousness is a central tenet to most character education discourse, reflecting the work of Webb (1915b), Ryans (1938), and others previously discussed. Therefore, it is critical to understand how learning opportunities specifically targeted at enhancing conscientious attitudes and behaviors can play a major role in improving outcomes for children.

Agreeableness. As argued by Hogan (1983), the trait of agreeableness assists individuals in working with others and overcoming disputes that arise within collective settings. Acts of kindness that promote cooperation and trustworthiness that lead to effective interpersonal relationships are encompassed within the trait of agreeableness. As argued by Bandura et al, (1963), agreeableness may be a key factor in promoting effective learning and inclusion within the socially charged milieu of formal education. As the highlighted previously, more than seventy years ago McCloy (1936) found that character education that promotes the development of trustworthiness, respect, and sportsmanship promotes what is now seen as agreeableness and conscientiousness as perceived within the current understanding of personality as defined by the FFM. Furthermore, Kozulin's (1990) argument that cooperative learning through mediated experiences is beneficial in developing attitudes associated with civil society was affirmed by

Stevens and Slavin (1995), who found that cooperative learning environments have significant positive influences on school achievement. Moreover, the teaching of pro-social conflict-resolution skills through restorative processes fosters empathy and forgiveness in children, which in turn increases their levels of cooperative understanding and agreeableness.

Openness. According to Rocklin (1994), the trait of openness is similar to what has more recently been referred to as *typical intellectual engagement* (TIE). TIE being centered on intelligence as a typical performance parameter with high scores relating to (1) an expressed desire to engage and understand the world, (2) an interest in a wide variety of things, (3) a preference for a complete understanding of a complex problem and (4) a general need to know (Ackerman & Heggstad, 1997; Goff & Ackerman, 1992). Although TIE is a broader construct than the construct of openness within the FFM, it can be argued that it represents personality characteristics that enhance the ability to be open to new experiences. Ackerman and Goff (1994) argued that TIE is associated with the variance seen within school performance. In other words, one's degree of openness to new experiences is indicative of one's TIE and thus has a direct impact on learning outcomes. Winne (1995) found a strong connection between TIE and self-regulatory activities in relationship to educational outcomes, and Rocklin (1994) as well as Winne (1995) found that explicitly teaching character traits can enhance the actions, routines, habits, and attitudes that promote learner engagement. Therefore, within the character education model of behavior management, it can be argued that mediated learning activities that develop respect, responsibility, trustworthiness, and kindness best enhance learner engagement and the development of a mastery-oriented approach to learning.

Extroversion. According to the FFM framework, an emotionally stable extrovert assumes leadership and is responsive and sociable, whereas an emotionally unstable extrovert (i.e., a

neurotic extrovert) is touchy, aggressive, restless, and impulsive. Whereas the emotionally stable introvert is calm, even-tempered, reliable, and thoughtful, the emotionally unstable introvert is moody, anxious, rigid, and pessimistic. Both Broadbent (1958) and Furneaux (1957) found that university students who perform well academically score low on the rating of extroversion, a finding subsequently supported by Astington (1960), Child (1964, 1990), Lynn (1959), and Savage (1992). Eysenck and Cookson (1969) found that only young children, generally those under the age of 12, who have a high level of extroversion are more proficient academically than introverted children. Eysenck (1992) argued that these findings indicate that children scoring high in extroversion focus their efforts into socializing and utilize non-academic opportunities to expend energy and have a hard time concentrating on work. Similarly, Goff and Ackerman (1992) found a negative correlation between extroversion in both secondary school and undergraduate university students and academic achievement as indicated by grade point average. Therefore, it can be argued that children must develop a degree of self-regulation to concentrate on work when required and forgo their need to socialize to enhance their ability to concentrate on tasks at hand.

Neuroticism/Emotional Stability. Working from Eysenck's early view in which neuroticism is seen to be directly related to emotional stability several studies (Eysenck, 1990; Finlayson, 1970; Lynn & Gordon, 1961; Savage, 1962) indicate that the correlation between neuroticism and academic attainment becomes more prevalent as individuals age, with a turning point occurring around 13 years of age. Although these studies relied on small sample sizes, calling for verification of their findings through replication, they provide adequate data with which to examine how emotional stability in particular and personality traits in general relate to emotional well-being and educational outcomes.

As there is considerable debate (Arthur, 2005; Berkowitz, 2002) in reference to a schools' role in developing the character of children, many researchers refer back to Eysenck's (1990) insights into possible ways of capitalizing on personality factors beneficial within the socially complex setting of formal education. Specifically, Eysenck highlighted the importance of two primary interactions: the intersection between personality and motivation and the interaction between teaching methods and personality. Research into the relationship between personality and motivation (see Dierne & Dweck, 1978; Dweck, 1975, 1986, 1999; Dweck & Repucci, 1973; Dweck & Legget, 1988) has identified the maladaptive response of *helplessness* and the more adaptive response of *mastery orientation*. Whereas helplessness is characterized by an avoidance of challenge and a decrease in performance when one is faced with obstacles, adversity, or stress, mastery orientation is characterized by the seeking out of challenging tasks and the maintenance of effort to complete these tasks even when one fails at first to overcome obstacles, adversity, or stress (Dierne & Dweck, 1978).

Paris and Byrnes (1989) argued that the character traits of an effective learner are self-regulation, emotional stability, and slight introversion. In other words, an emotionally stable and slightly introverted personality is able to enact the self-regulated behavior best suited for meeting the demands of formal education. Additional research (see Bandura et al, 1963; Zimmerman 1990, Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995) identified diligence, resourcefulness, autonomy, and self-efficacy as the specific characteristics of the self-regulated learner.

Conclusion of the Role of Personality in Education and how Teacher Facilitated Learning Experiences can influence Characteristic Adaptations.

As highlighted in the literature, personality traits influence educational outcomes and are predictive factors in life outcomes, emotional well-being, and the ability to overcome adversity.

The FFM provides an understanding of personality development that aids the development of character education programming. Having determined that personality is an important factor in education and learning, this discussion needs to turn toward consideration of the development of effective integrative character education pedagogy.

Although the research indicates that there is a bi-directional influence between educational outcomes and emotional and mental well-being, this bi-directional relationship has been underappreciated in the current drive to reach targets based solely on academic achievement. Equally overlooked, have been the traits identified as beneficial to the development of both educational outcomes and resiliency, which have been found to be similar. Within the FFM, the traits of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness are particularly beneficial in developing the strength of character necessary to achieve positive educational outcomes and to facilitate the strengthening of intrapersonal resiliency, the latter of which is necessary for maintaining educational achievement when exposed to risk. Whereas *intrapersonal resiliency* is defined here as the ability to access in-person resources to recover after experiencing adversity, *interpersonal resiliency* is defined here as the ability to access community resources that provide support when intrapersonal resources become overwhelmed. It has been shown throughout this discussion that intra-personal resiliency as reflected in the character traits of respect, responsibility, trustworthiness, and kindness enhances social competence and skills related to rational and ethical decision-making, problem-solving, and pro-social conflict resolution, all of which are necessary to access and benefit from school-developed interpersonal resiliency.

The literature indicates that resiliency underpinned by the development of social competence and a cooperative disposition has been shown beneficial in aiding children as they progress through the challenges associated with achieving academically, attaining emotional

well-being, and navigating the challenges of modernity. As research indicates, resiliency or a strength of character if you will is a dynamic state that may be attainable by all if the appropriate support is provided by both significant others and the community (i.e. the school community for our purposes here). The school community is well situated to be a significant protective factor in the lives of children if it offers mediated learning experiences designed to meet the needs of the whole child and provide access to authentically caring adults for support, as children will only recognize the fulfilment of their needs through the development of strong and trusting relationships.

Toward a Sociocultural Theory of Integrative Character Education. Throughout his theory of learning Vygotsky (1978) asserted that at each point of development, children choose among multiple trajectories, some positive and some negative. Only through pro-social support will the positive be manifested and the negative curbed or restrained throughout the overall life course of development, which Vygotsky (1987) termed *ontogenetic development*. Vygotsky's perspective went beyond the perception of a linear or fixed developmental pathway and argued for the importance of support in reaching one's full potential. This provides an understanding that development was neither fixed nor stagnant (Pennington, 2002).

Bruner (1960) continued this application of psychological understanding to educational practice by emphasizing that “schools must contribute to the social and emotional development of the child if they are to fill the function of education for life in a democratic community and the development of a fruitful family life” (p. 9). As Vygotsky (1978) first espoused, learning should be recognized to be the major vehicle underpinning and driving child development. Moreover, as argued by the majority of researchers, the identification of traits as predictors of achievement, especially traits with dynamic connotations, emphasizes the possibility of change (Entwistle,

1981; Schmeck, 1988). Therefore, it can be argued that based on the perspective that no trajectory is set nor develops in a linear manner and that learning through mediated experiences precedes and facilitates development, education and learning is central in the reaching of the full potential and positive enculturation of children into the socially complex nature of classrooms, schools, communities and societies. In other words, a child's character can be developed through learning experiences be they positive or negative.

It is argued here that the FFM can provide a framework for understanding the characteristic adaptations that should be promoted within character education. The sociocultural understanding that learning precedes development provides a sound footing for the pedagogy of a character education program designed to encourage the character adaptations that support pro-social development. In particular, programming that promotes "strength of character" has the potential to enhance educational and life outcomes for all children and lead to cooperative social cohesion within the school setting and broader community.

The literature reviewed highlights that an integrative character education strategy can provide individuals with the capacity for choice through the development of resiliency, self-regulation, and autonomy. These characteristics can in turn influence change associated with the expression of the personality traits of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to new experiences, as depicted within the FFM of personality.

References

- Ackerman, P., & Goff, M. (1994). Typical intellectual engagement and personality: reply to Rocklin. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86: 15&153.
- Ackerman, P. L., & Heggstad, E. D. (1997). Intelligence, personality, and interests: Evidence for overlapping traits. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121, 219–245.

- Arthur, J. (2005). The Re-emergence of Character Education in British Education Policy. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 53, 239-254, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2005.00293.
- Alexander, H. (1935). Intelligence, concrete and abstract, *British Journal of Psychology, Monographs Supplement*, 19.
- Allport, G. (1965). *Letters from Jenny*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Allport, G., & Odbert, H.(1936). Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study. *Psychological Monographs*, 47, doi: 10.1037/h0093360.
- Angleitner, A., & Ostendorf, F. (1989). *Personality factors via self- and peer-ratings based on a representative sample of German trait descriptive terms*. Paper presented at the First European Congress of Psychology, Amsterdam, Netherlands.
- Astington, E. (1960). Personality assessment and academic performance in a boys' grammar. *Annual Review of Psychology* 13, 371-414.
- Ausubel, D. (1978). In defense of advance organizers: A reply to the critics. *Review of Educational Research*, 48, 251-257.
- Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. (1963). Imitation of film-mediated aggressive models. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66, 3-11, doi: 10.1037/h0048687.
- Bendig, A. (1957). The validity of two temperament scales in predicting student achievement in introductory psychology. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 50: 571-580.

- Bendig, A. (1958). Objective measures of needs and course achievement in introductory psychology. *Journal of General Psychology*, 59: 51-57, doi: 10.1080/00221309.1958.9710171.
- Bendig, A. (1960). Extraversion, neuroticism, and student achievement in introductory psychology. *Journal of Educational Research*, 53: 263-267.
- Bendig, A., & Sprague, J. (1954). The Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey as a predictor of achievement level and achievement fluctuation in introductory psychology. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 38: 409-413. *General*, 117: 288-318.
- Benet-Martinez, V., & John, O. (1998). *Los cinco grandes* across cultures and ethnic groups: Multitrait multimethod analyses of the big five in Spanish and English. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 729-750, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.75.3.729.
- Berkowitz, AD (2002). Fostering Men's Responsibility for Preventing Sexual Assault. Chapter 7 in Paul A. Schewe (Ed): Preventing Intimate Partner Violence: Developmentally Appropriate Interventions Across the Life Span. Washington DC: American Psychological Press.
- Berkowitz, M. (2003). The science of character education. *Bringing in a new era in character education*, edited by W. Damon, 43-63. Palo Alto, CA: Hoover Institution Press.
- Birenbaum, M., & Montag, I. (1986). On the location of the sensation seeking construct in the personality domain. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 21: 357-373, doi: 10.1207/s15327906mbr2103_5.

- Bond, M., Nakazato, H., & Shiraishi, D. (1975). Universality and distinctiveness in dimensions of Japanese person perception. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 6: 346-355, doi: 10.1177/002202217563007.
- Borkenau, P., & Ostendorf, F. (1992). Social desirability scales as moderator and suppressor variables. *European Journal of Personality*, 6: 199-214, 10.1002/per.2410060303.
- Bouchard, T., & McGue, M. (2003). in Bergvall, N., Iliadou, A., Tuvemo, T., and Cnattingius, S. (2006). Birth Characteristics and Risk of Low Intellectual Performance in Early Adulthood: Are the Associations Confounded by Socioeconomic Factors in Adolescence or Familial Effects? *Paediatrics* 117: 714-721.
- Bowlby, J. (1988). *A secure base: Parent-child attachment and healthy human development*. New York: Basic Books.
- Broadbent, D. (1958). *Perception and Communication*. London: Pergamon, doi: 10.1037/10037-000.
- Brody, N. (1988). *Personality: In Search of Individuality*. New York: Academic Press, doi: 10.1016/B978-0-08-091707-8.50008-2.
- Bruner, J. (1960). *The Process of Education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Caplan, G. (1974). *Support Systems and community mental health: Lectures on concept development*. New York: Behavioral Publications.
- Cattell, R. (1933). Temperament tests: I. temperament, *British Journal of Psychology*, 23:308-329.

- Cattell, R. (1943). The description of personality: basic traits resolved into clusters, *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 38: 476-507, doi: 10.1037/h0054116.
- Cattell, R. (1965). *The Scientific Analysis of Personality*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Cernkovich, S., & Giordano, P. (1992). School bonding, race, and delinquency. *Criminology*, 30: 261–290, doi: 10.1111/j.1745-9125.1992.tb01105.x.
- Child, D. (1964). The relationships between introversion-extraversion, neuroticism . *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 38: 308-329. 476507.
- Child, D. (1990). *The essentials of factor analysis*. London: Cassell.
- Church, A., & Katigbak, M. (1989). Internal, external, and self-report structure of personality in a non-Western culture: An investigation of cross-language and cross-cultural generalizability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57: 857-872, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.57.5.857.
- Clausen, J. (1975). The social meaning of differential physical and sexual maturation. In S. Dragastin & G. Elder, Jr. (Eds.), *Adolescence in the life cycle: Psychological change and the social context* (pp. 25-47). New York: Halsted.
- Clausen, J. (1991). Adolescent competence and the shaping of the life course. *American Journal of Sociology*, 96(4), 805-42, doi: 10.1086/229609.
- Clausen, J. (1995) Gender, contexts and turning points in adult lives. In P. Moen, G. Elder, and K. Luscher (Eds). *Examining Lives in Context-Perspectives on the Ecology of Human*

- Development* (pp. 51-58), Washington DC: American Psychological Association, doi: 10.1037/10176-010.
- Coie, J., Dodge, K., & Kupersmidt, J. (Eds.). (1990). *Peer group behavior and social status*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Costa, P., Jr., & McCrae, R. (1976). Age differences in personality structure: a cluster analytic approach. *Journal of Gerontology*, 31: 564-570, doi: 10.1093/geronj/31.5.564.
- Costa, P. Jr., & McCrae, R. (1985). *The NEO Personality Inventory Manual*. San Diego, CA: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) Professional Manual* Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1993). Bullish on personality psychology. *The Psychologist*, 6: 302-303.
- Costa, P. & McCrae, R. (1998). Six approaches to the explication of facet-level traits: Examples from conscientiousness. *European Journal of Personality*, 12: 117–134, doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1099-0984(199803/04)12:2<117::AID-PER295>3.0.CO;2-C.
- Costa, P. Jr. & McCrae, R. (1995). Solid ground in the wetlands of personality: A reply to Block. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117: 216-220, doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.117.2.216.

Costa, P. Jr., McCrae, R., & Siegler, I. (1999). Continuity and change over the adult life cycle:

Personality and personality disorders. In C. R. Cloninger (Ed.), *Personality and psychopathology* (pp. 129–154). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press.

Cowen, E. (1994). The enhancement of psychological wellness: Challenges and opportunities.

American Journal of Community Psychology, 22: 149-179, doi: 10.1007/BF02506861.

Cronbach, L. (1977). *Educational Psychology*, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Cronback, L., & Snow, R. (1977). *Aptitudes and instructional methods: A handbook for research*

on interactions, New York: Irvington.

Darlington, R., Weinberg, S., & Walberg, H. (1973). Canonical variate analysis and related

techniques. *Review of Educational Research*, 453-454.

Deary, I. (1996). A (latent) big five personality model in 1915?: A re-analysis of webb's, *Journal*

of Personality and Social Psychology, 71 (5): 992-1005, doi: 10.1037/0022-

3514.71.5.992.

Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) (1997). *Excellence in Schools*. London:

HMSO.

Department of Education and Employment (DfEE) (1999) *Values, Aims and Purposes of the*

National Curriculum for England. London: HMSO.

Dewey, J. (1910/1991). *Principles of moral education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Dewey, J. (1932). *Democracy and Education*. Westport: Greenwood.

- De Raad, B., Hendriks, A., & Hofstee, W. (1993). Towards a refined structure of personality traits, *European Journal of Personality*, 6: 301-319, doi: 10.1002/per.2410060405.
- De Raad, B., & Van Hock, G. (Eds.). (1994). The fifth of the big five [Special issue]. *European Journal of Personality*, 8 (4).
- Dienre, C., & Dweck, C. (1978). Analysis of learned helplessness: Continuous change in the performance, strategy and achievement cognitions following failure, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36: 451-462, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.36.5.451.
- Duckworth, A., & Seligman, M. (2005). Self-discipline outdoes IQ predicting academic performance in adolescents. *Psychological Science*, 16: 939-944, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2005.01641.x.
- Dweck, C. (1975). The role of expectations and attributions in the alleviation of learned helplessness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 31: 674-685, doi: 10.1037/h0077149.
- Dweck, C. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning, *American Psychologist*, 41:1040-1048, doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.41.10.1040.
- Dweck, C. (1999). *Self Theories: Their Role in Motivation, Personality and Development*. Hove, East Sussex: Psychology Press.
- Dweck, C., & Leggett, E. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review*, 95: 256-273, doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.95.2.256.

- Dweck, C., & Repucci, N. (1973). Learned helplessness and reinforcement responsibility in children. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 25: 109-116, doi: 10.1037/h0034248.
- Entwistle, N.(1981). *Styles of Learning and Teaching*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Eysenck, H. (1947). *Dimensions of Personality*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co.
- Eysenck, H.(1952). *The scientific study of personality* (pp. 94-98). London: University of London.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1967). *The biological basis of personality*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.
- Eysenck, H. (1970). *The Structure of Human Personality*, 3rd Ed, London: Methuen. (Original work published 1953).
- Eysenck, H. (1990). *Rebel with a cause (an autobiography)*, London: W. H. Allen & Co.
- Eysenck, H. (1992). Four ways five factors are not basic. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13, 667-674.
- Eysenck, S., Eysenck, H., & Barrett, P. (1985). A revised version of the Psychoticism scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 6: 21-29, doi: 10.1016/0191-8869(85)90026-1.
- Eysenck, H., & Cookson, D. (1969). Personality in primary school children: ability and achievement, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 39: 109-122, doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1969.tb02054.x.

- Finlayson, D. (1970). A follow-up study of school achievement in relation to personality. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 40: 344-349, doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1970.tb02142.x.
- Fonagy, P., & Target, M. (1994). The efficacy of psychotherapy for children with disruptive disorders. *Journal of American Academic Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 33(1): 45-55, doi: 10.1097/00004583-199401000-00007.
- Fonagy, P., Target, M., Cottrell, D., Phillips, J., & Kurtz, Z. (2002). *What works for whom? A critical review of treatments for children and adolescents*. New York: Guilford Publications.
- Freud, S. (1961). *The ego and the id*, In J. Strachey (Ed. and Trans.), *The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud* (Vol. 19, pp. 3- 66). London: Hogarth Press. (Original work published 1923).
- Fergusson, D.M., Lynskey, M.T., and Horwood, L.J. (1996) The short-term consequences of early onset cannabis use. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*. 24, 499-512.
- Furneaux, W. (1957). Imperial College of Science and Technology, London: Report for 1955-56.
- Gage, N., & Berlinger, D. (1991). *Educational psychology* (5th ed.). Boston: Houghton, Mifflin.
- Galton, F. (1907). *Inquiries into Human Faculty and its Development*, New York: Duttin, doi: 10.1037/10913-000.
- Garnett, J. (1919). General ability, cleverness and purpose. *British Journal of Psychology*, 9: 345-366.

- Garnezy, N. (1983). Stressors of Childhood. In N. Garnezy & M. Rutter (Eds.), *Stress, coping, and development in children* (pp. 43-84). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Garnezy, N., Masten, A., & Tellegen, A. (1984). The study of stress and competence in children: A building block for developmental psychopathology. *Child Development*, 55: 97–111, doi: 10.2307/1129837.
- Garnezy, N. (1993). Children in poverty: Resilience despite risk [Special issue: Children and violence]. *Psychiatry: Interpersonal & Biological Processes*, 56(1): 127–136.
- Goff, M., & Ackerman, P. (1992). Personality-intelligence relations: assessment of typical intellectual engagement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84: 532-552, doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.84.4.537.
- Goldberg, L. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In: L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 2 (pp. 141-165). Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative “description of personality”: the Big-Five Factor structure, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 1216-1229, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.59.6.1216.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers of the big-five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 26-42, doi: 10.1037/1040-3590.4.1.26.
- Goldstein, K. (1963). *The Organism: A holistic approach to biology derived from pathological data in man*. Boston: Beacon Press (Original work published 1939).

- Gott, J. (2003). The school: the front line of mental health development? *Pastoral Care*, 5-13.
- Grooms, R., & Endler, N. (1960). The effect of anxiety on academic achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 51: 299-304, doi: 10.1037/h0042077.
- Guilford, J., & Braly, K. (1930). Extroversion and introversion, *Psychological Bulletin*, 27: 96-107, doi: 10.1037/h0073968.
- Guilford, J., & Guilford, R. (1934). An analysis of the factors in a typical test of introversion-extroversion. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 28: 377-399, doi: 10.1037/h0069917.
- Guilford, J., & Guilford, R. (1936). Personality factors S, E, and M, and their measurement. *The Journal of Psychology*, 2: 109-127, doi: 10.1080/00223980.1936.9917446.
- Hahn, J. (1998). On the Role of the Propensity Score in Efficient Semiparametric Estimation of Average Treatment Effects. *Econometrica*, 66(2), 315-332, doi: 10.2307/2998560.
- Hawkins, J., & Lishner, D. (1987). Etiology and prevention of antisocial behavior in children and adolescents. In D. H. Crowell, I. M. Evans, & C. R. O'Donnell (Eds.), *Childhood aggression and violence: Sources of influence, prevention, and control. Applied clinical psychology* (pp. 263–282). New York: Plenum Press, doi: 10.1007/978-1-4684-5170-2_11.
- Hawkins, J., Lishner, D., Catalano, R., & Howard, M. (1985). Childhood predictors of adolescent substance abuse: Toward an empirically grounded theory [Special issue: Childhood and chemical abuse: Prevention and intervention]. *Journal of Children in Contemporary Society*, 18(1/2), 11–48.

- Hawkins, J., von Cleve, E., & Catalano, R. (1991). Reducing early childhood aggression: Results of a primary prevention program. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 30*(2), 208–217, doi: 10.1097/00004583-199103000-00008.
- Hawkins, J.D., and Weis, J.G. (1985). The social development model: An integrated approach to delinquency prevention. *Journal of Primary Prevention 6*:73–97.
- Haydon, T., Mancil, G., & Van Loan, C. (2009). *Using opportunities to respond in a general education classroom: A case study*. *Education and Treatment of Children*, vol 32, (2), 267-278, doi: 10.1353/etc.0.0052.
- Hinshaw, S., & Anderson, C. (1996). Conduct and oppositional defiant disorders. In E. Mash & R. Barkley (Eds.), *Child Psychopathology* (pp. 113-154). New York: Guilford.
- Hogan, R. (1983). A socioanalytic theory of personality. In: Page, M. (Ed), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation-Current Theory and Research*, Vol. 30, pp. 58-89, Lincoln, NB: University of Nebraska Press.
- Hofstee, W., De Raad, B., & Goldberg, L. (1992). Integration of the big five and circumplex approaches to trait structure, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 63*:146-163, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.63.1.146.
- Jang, K., Livesley, J., & Vernon, P. (1996). Heritability of the big five personality dimensions and their facets: A twin study. *Journal of Personality 63*, 577-591, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.1996.tb00522.x.

- John, O. (1990). The "Big Five" factor taxonomy: Dimensions of personality in the natural language and in questionnaires. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 66-100). New York: Guilford.
- Kottak, C., & Kozaitis, K. (2003). *On being different: Diversity and multiculturalism in the North American mainstream* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Kozulin, A. (1990). *Vygotsky's psychology: A biography of ideas*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Kristjánsson, K. (2006). *Justice and desert based emotions*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Ladd, G. (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: 321-333, doi: 10.2307/1130877.
- Lavin, D. (1965). *The Prediction of Academic Performance: A Theoretical Analysis and Review of Research*, New York: Sage.
- Lazarus, R., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Leming, J. (1997). Research and practice in character education: A historical perspective. In A. Molnar (Ed.), *The construction of children's character* (pp. 31-44). Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Lester, D., Dinerstein, H., Werner, M., Harvey, P., Evans, N., II, & Brown, R. (1985). *ApJ*, 296, 565, doi: 10.1086/163475.

- Lickona, T. (1991). *Educating for character: How our schools can teach respect and responsibility*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Lindsay, P., & Norman, D. (1972). *Human information processing; an Introduction to psychology*, New York: Academic Press.
- Lindsay, P., & Norman, D. (1977). *Human information processing*. New York: Academic Press.
- Loeber, R., & Stouthamer-Loeber, M. (Eds.). (1986). *Family factors as correlates of juvenile conduct problems and delinquency* (Vol. 7). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Loehlin, J. C., McCrae, R. R., Costa, P. T., Jr., & John, O. P. (1998). Heritabilities of common and measure-specific components of the big five personality factors. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 32: 431-453, doi: 10.1006/jrpe.1998.2225.
- Logan, P., Rickinson, M. (2005, December). *Report of the working group on student behavior*. Retrieved from <http://www.icmresearch.co.uk/index.html>.
- Lynn, R. (1957). Temperamental characteristics related to disparity of attainment in reading and arithmetic, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 27: 62-67, doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1957.tb01392.x.
- Lynn, R. (1959). Two personality characteristics related to academic achievement, *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 29: 213-216, doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1959.tb01501.x.
- Lynn, R., & Gordon, I. E. (1961). The relation of neuroticism and extraversion to intelligence and educational attainment, *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 31:194-203, doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1961.tb02931.x.

Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper.

Maslow, A. (1971). *The farther reaches of human nature*. New York: Viking Press.

Mayer, M., & Leone, P. (1999). A structural analysis of school violence and disruption: implications for creating safer schools. *Education and Treatment of Children, 22*(3), 333-56.

McCloy, C. (1936). A factor analysis of personality traits to underlie character education, *Journal of Educational Psychology, 27*: 375-387, doi: 10.1037/h0063134.

McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1985). Comparison of EPI and Psychoticism scales with measures of the five-factor model of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences, 6*, 587-597, doi: 10.1016/0191-8869(85)90008-X.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1990). *Personality in adulthood*. New York: Guilford.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: Theoretical contexts for the five-factor model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 51-87). New York: Guilford.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A five-factor theory perspective* (2nd ed.). New York: Guilford Press, doi: 10.4324/9780203428412.

McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality, 60*, 175-215, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.1992.tb00970.x.

- McFadyen-Ketchum, S., Bates, J., Dodge, K., & Petit, G. (1996). Patterns of change in early childhood aggressive- disruptive behavior: Gender differences in predictions from early coercive and affectionate mother-child interactions. *Child Development, 67*, 2417-2433, doi: 10.2307/1131631.
- McLaughlin, T., & Halstead, J. (1999). Education in character and virtue. In M. Halstead and T. McLaughlin (eds.), *Education in morality* (pp. 132-163). London: Routledge.
- Merrell, C., Tymms, P., & Jones, P. (2007). *Changes in Children's Cognitive Development at the Start of School in England 2000-2001*. Paper presented at the EARLI conference in Budapest.
- Messick, S. (1979). Potential uses of noncognitive measurement in education. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 71*: 281-292.
- Morrison, G., Laughlin, J., Smith, D., Ollansky, E., & Moore, R. (1992). Preferences for sources of social support of Hispanic male adolescents with mild learning handicaps. *Education & Training in Mental Retardation, 27*(2), 132-144.
- Morrison, G., Robertson, L., Laurie, B., & Kelly, J. (1997). Early risk and resiliency indicators of school and behavioral maladjustment: The role of students ratings. Unpublished manuscript.
- Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) (2007). *Education at a Glance*. OECD: France.
- Oswald, H., & Suss, K. U. (Eds.). (1994). *The influence of parents and peers on misconduct at school: Simultaneous and synergistic effects*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

- Paris, S., & Byrnes, J. (1989). The constructivist approach to self-regulation and learning in the classroom. In: Zimmerman, B. J. and Schunk, D. H. (Eds), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research, and practice*, pp. 169-200, New York: Springer, doi: 10.1007/978-1-4612-3618-4_7.
- Patterson, G., Reid, J., & Dishion, T. (1992). *Antisocial boys*. Eugene, OR: Castalia Press.
- Peabody, D., & Goldberg, L. R. (1989). Some determinants of factor structures from personality-trait descriptors, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57: 552-567, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.57.3.552.
- Pennington, B. (2002). *The development of psychopathology: Nature and nurture*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Pennington, B., & Ozonoff, S. (1996). Executive functions and developmental psychopathology. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 37, 51-87, doi: 10.1111/j.1469-7610.1996.tb01380.x.
- Perkins, D., & Zimmerman, M. (1995). Empowerment theory, research, and application. *American Journal of Community Psychology* 23: 569-579, doi: 10.1007/BF02506982.
- Pring, R. (2004). *Philosophy of Education: Aims, Theory, Common Sense and Research*, London: Continuum.
- Ragsdale, C. (1932). *Modern Psychologies and Education*, New York: MacMillan.

- Rocklin, T. (1994). Relation between typical intellectual engagement and openness: comment on goff and ackerman (1992), *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86: 145-149, doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.86.1.145.
- Rutter, M. (1985). Resilience in the face of adversity: Protective factors and resistance to psychiatric disorder. *British Journal of psychiatry*, 147, 598–611, doi: 10.1192/bjp.147.6.598.
- Rutter, M. (1990). Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. In J. Rolf, A. S. Masten, D. Cicchetti, K. H. Nuechterlein & S. Weintraub (Eds.), *Risk and protective factors in the development of psychopathology* (pp. 181-214). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, doi: 10.1017/CBO9780511752872.013.
- Rutter, M., Andersen-Wood, L., & Beckett, C. (1999). Quasi-autistic patterns following severe early global privation. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 40, 537-549, doi: 10.1111/1469-7610.00472.
- Ryans, D. G. (1938). The meaning of persistence, *Journal of General Psychology*, 19: 79-96, doi: 10.1080/00221309.1938.9711188.
- Ryans, D. G. (1939). The measurement of persistence: an historical review, *Psychological Bulletin*, 36: 715-739, doi: 10.1037/h0060780.
- Sacks, J. (1997). *The Politics of Hope*, London: Jonathan Cape.
- Sameroff, A., Seifer, R., Baldwin, A., & Baldwin, C. (1993). Stability of intelligence from preschool to adolescence: The influence of social and family risk factors. *Child Development* 64: 80–97, doi: 10.2307/1131438.

- Saucier, G., Hampson, S., & Goldberg, L. (2000). Cross-language studies of lexical personality factors. In S. E. Hampson (Ed.), *Advances in personality psychology*, Vol. 1. (pp. 1-36). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Saulsman, L., & Page, A. (2004). The five-factor model and personality disorder empirical literature: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 23: 1055-1085, doi: 10.1016/j.cpr.2002.09.001.
- Savage, R. (1962). Personality factors and academic performance, *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 32: 251-253, doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1962.tb01767.x.
- Savage, T. (1992). A review of walker's research. In Eugene H. Casad (ed.), *Windows on bilingualism*, 89-115. Dallas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Schmeck, R. (1988). Individual differences and learning strategies. In: Weinstein, C.E., Goetz, E. T. and Alexander, P. A. (Eds), *Learning and study strategies: Issues in assessment, instruction, and evaluation*, pp. 177-191, San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Slavin, R. (2002). Evidence-based education policies: Transforming educational practice and research. *Educational Researcher*, 31(7), 15-21, doi: 10.3102/0013189X031007015.
- Sockett, H. (Ed.). (1980). *Accountability in the english educational system*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Sockett, H. (1988). Education and will: aspects of personal capability, *American Journal of Education*, 96: 195-214, doi: 10.3102/0013189X031007015.

- Soldz, S., & Vaillant, G. (1999). The big five personality traits and the life course: A 45-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 33, 208-232, doi: 10.1006/jrpe.1999.2243.
- Spearman, C. (1904). "General intelligence" objectively determined and measured. *American Journal of Psychology*, 15, 201–293, doi: 10.2307/1412107.
- Spearman, C. (1927). *The Abilities of Man*, London: MacMillan.
- Srivastava, S., John, O., Gosling, S., & Potter, J. (2003). Development of personality in early and middle adulthood: Set like plaster or persistent change? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84, 1041-1053, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.84.5.1041.
- Stattin, H., & Magnusson, D. (1996). Antisocial development: A holistic approach. *Development and Psychopathology*, 8, 617-645, doi: 10.1017 /S0954579400007331.
- Stevens, R., & Slavin, R. (1995). The cooperative elementary school: effects on students' achievement, attitudes, and social relations, *American Educational Research Journal*, 32: 321-351, doi: 10.3102/00028312032002321.
- Thurstone, L. L. (1934). The vectors of mind. *Psychological Review*, 41, 1-32, doi: 10.1037/h0075959.
- Thompson, E.R. (2008). 'Development and validation of an international English big-five mini-markers'. *Personality and Individual Differences* 45 (6): 542–548.

- Trinke, S., & Batholomew, K. (1997). Hierarchies of Attachment Relationships in Young Adulthood. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 14, (5) 603-625, doi: 10.1177/0265407597145002.
- United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) Innocenti Research Centre. (2007). UNICEF, Child poverty in perspective: An overview of child well-being in rich countries, *Innocenti Report Card 7*, Florence.
- Vincent, P. (1999a). *Developing Character in Students: A Primer*, 2nd ed., North Carolina: Character Development Publishing.
- Vincent, P. (1999b). *Promising Practices in Character Education, Volume II: More Success Stories From Around the Country*. North Carolina: Character Development Publishing.
- Vincent, P. (1999c). *Rules & Procedures for Character Education: The First Step Toward School Civility*. North Carolina: Character Development Publishing.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Ed. Michael Cole et al. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. (originally published in 1938).
- Vygotsky, L. (1987). *Speech and Thinking*. In L.S. Vygotsky, *Collected Works, Vol 1* (pages 39-285). Reiber, R. and Carton, A. (eds), Minick, N., Translation. New York, Plenum. (originally published in 1934).
- Walker, H., Colvin, G., & Ramsey, E. (1995). *Antisocial behavior in school: Strategies and best practices*: Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

- Walker, H., & Rankin, R. (1983). Assessing the behavioral expectations and demands of less restrictive settings. *School Psychology Review, 12*, 274–284.
- Wang, C. (1932). A scale for measuring persistence, *Journal of Social Psychology, 3*:79-90, doi: 10.1080/00224545.1932.9919133.
- Wang, M., Haertel, G., & Walberg, H. (Eds.). (1994). *Educational resilience in inner cities*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Webb, E. (1915a). Character and intelligence. *British Journal of Psychology Monographs 3*, 1-99.
- Webb, E. (1915b). *Character and Intelligence: An Attempt at an Exact Study of Character*, Cambridge: Cambridge Press.
- Wechsler, D. (1943). On-intellective factors in general intelligence, *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 38*: 101-103, doi: 10.1037/h0060613.
- Werner, E. (1987). Vulnerability and resiliency in children at risk for delinquency: A longitudinal study from birth to young adulthood. In J. D. Burchard & S. N. Burchard (Eds.), *Prevention of delinquent behavior* (pp. 16–43). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Werner, E. (1989). High-risk children in young adulthood: A longitudinal study from birth to 32 years. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 59*(1), 72–81, doi: 10.1111/j.1939-0025.1989.tb01636.x.
- Werner, E., & Smith, R. (1992). *Overcoming the odds: High risk children from birth to adulthood*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

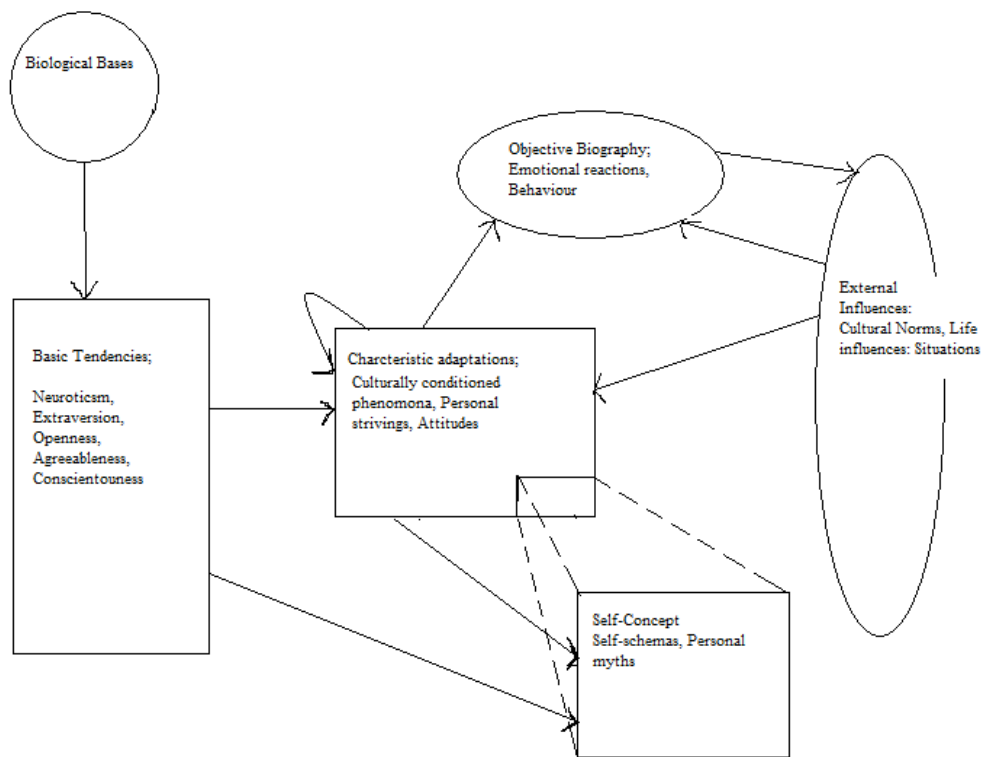
- Winne, P. (1995). Inherent details in self-regulated learning, *Educational Psychologist*, 30: 173-187, doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep3004_2.
- Wittrock, M. (Ed). (1986). *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, 3rd Edn, New York: MacMillan.
- Wolfe, D. (1942). Factor analysis in the study of personality, *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 37: 393-397, doi: 10.1037/h0058868.
- Yang, K., & Bond, M. (1992). Exploring implicit personality theories with indigenous or imported constructs: The chinese case. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1990). Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: an overview, *Educational Psychologist*, 25, 3-17.
- Zimmerman, M., & Arunkumar, R. (1994). Resiliency research: Implications for schools and policy. *Social policy report: Society for research in child development*, 8(4), 1-17.
- Zuckerman, M., Kuhlman, D., & Camac, C. (1988). What lies beyond E and N? Factor analyses of scales believed to measure basic dimensions of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54: 96-107, doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.54.1.96.

Table 1

Databases and Key Words Used in Title Search

Key word title search							
Database	Character + Education	Adventure + Education	School + Emotional + Learning	Cooperative + Education	Moral + Education	Resilience	Personality +
Blackwell Synergy	15	138	3	227	128	205	2
Sage On- Line	25	823	3	941	44	47	12
ECO	52	83	14	29	235	152	13
Article First	318	124	29	725	604	477	59
ERIC	346	1275	16	573	778	142	78
PsycInfo	34	33	10	26	59	139	12

Figure 1



Note: arrows represent the dynamic processes which indicate how the environment influences features of a person but leaves the basic traits unchanged.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Title

Integrative Character Education (ICE): Grounding Facilitated Pro-social Development in a Humanistic Perspective for a Multicultural World

Abstract:

Character Education initiatives within schools have gained both proponents and opponents over recent years and continue to garner mixed reviews. Proponents argue that the need is urgent and the increasing level of school disruption, anti-social behavior and violence requires a focus on values/virtues/moral education and claim this is synonymous with good practice in education. Opponents ask, whose values will be taught and how does this address the needs of our multicultural reality? While others claim that, many initiatives embrace moral education delivered in a behaviorist fashion promoting control by other and lack a humanistic understanding of the pluralistic nature of modern society. This review addresses these issues by exploring, critically interpreting, and synthesizing educational and psychological research. The aim being to develop a definition of character education that is not confined to antiquated understandings of ethnocentric non-negotiable ideological values/virtues/morals. The main focus of the review being to inform a unified theory of character education embedded in a sociocultural understanding of personality development. By developing a research informed discussion of characteristics beneficial to life outcomes a theory of Integrative Character Education (ICE) is offered.

Author Robert White, PhD

Institute of Education, University of Wolverhampton: Faculty of Education, Health and Wellbeing
Walsall Campus

Correspondence to: Robert White, PhD Institute of Education University of Wolverhampton Faculty of Education, Health and Wellbeing Walsall Campus WA Building Room 212 Gorway Road, Walsall WS1 3BD

Email: R.White4@wlv.ac.uk

Pen Portrait: Robert White PhD, FHEA, MSc

Robert is currently a Reader in the Institute of Education at the University of Wolverhampton. He has a broad academic background that spans education, psychology, mental health and child & youth development. His research interests are supported by a solid foundation in transdisciplinary research informed by mixed methods approaches that incorporate; qualitative endeavours situated in grounded theory; quantitative investigations that utilise structural equation modelling to understand the complexities of inter-related variables; the challenges of merging data sets to reach robust synthesis for understanding and inform recommendations for policy and practice.

Prior to joining the University of Wolverhampton he spent recent years working within the Wolfson Institute of Preventive Medicine, Centre for Psychiatry: Queen Mary University of London; the Community, Health and Educational Studies Research Centre: Northumbria University, and the Clemmer College of Education: East Tennessee State University to develop a sociocultural understanding of the protective factor of school and how teachers can support emotional wellbeing, mental health and resiliency to help children and adolescents overcome adversity and improve life outcomes through pedagogy that embraces social justice and empowerment. Robert has also worked with many schools in several countries and across three continents to develop programmes to meet the needs of the most hard to serve children and adolescents facing emotional and behavioural difficulties that lead to social marginalization, exclusion and on-going precarity, social injustices and inequalities.

Primary Line of Inquiry:

Integration, Inclusion and Equality: School initiatives enhancing integration, prosociality, social justice and civil society to overcome precarity, marginalization, exclusion and inequalities

Robert's primary research project suggests that homes and schools are viewed as 'small cultures' (Holliday, 1999) with their own sets of values, world views and accepted norms, embedded in variations in language use and different sorts of applications of literacy (Gee, 2008). Thus, there may be dissonance between the cultures of the home and school which may present barriers to the early development of language, literacy and numeracy negatively impacting school engagement and outcomes. Furthermore, development of literacy alone does not bring about a transformation of social life chances and 'schooled literacy' may be in conflict with the sorts of every day uses of literacy experienced by children living in chaotic homes and/or experiencing precarity (Cook-Gumperz, 2006). More troubling, current government initiatives in the UK are leading schools to seek the assimilation of children from diverse backgrounds into school norms by implementing Values or Moral Education delivered in a behavioristic manner and promoted as Character Education. However, this approach to 'character education' may lead to marginalization and eventual exclusion serving only to add to the precarity of young people. Therefore, developing a more culturally competent humanistic approach to character education may overcome the adverse effects associated with culturally centric behavioristic approaches within schools and home chaos many children of the precariat experience.