

Multicultural Education Review

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

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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, PhD Tae Seob Shin, PhD
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Title

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

Authors

Robert White, PhD

Reader in Education: Institute of Education, University of Wolverhampton: Faculty
of Education, Health and Wellbeing

Tae Seob Shin, PhD

Assistant Professor: Department of Education, College of Education Ewha Womans
University Seoul, South Korea

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

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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 that can inform practice in multicultural settings. 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 challenges associated with increased migration and multicultural communities have placed the education system at the center of the need to develop culturally responsive services. Services and initiatives that meet the needs of the individual, community, and society at large as societies strive for social justice, equity and wellbeing, This has led many to call for schools to promote certain values, others have called for citizenship education to go beyond the purpose of allegiance building and instill a ‘moral code’ within children. Still more ask whether there is enough support within schools to promote children’s social and emotional wellbeing (Smith, 2015). These calls for schools to do more have placed a strain on the educational system and a tremendous burden on teachers. Teachers are on the frontline of meeting the needs of children yet receive little guidance and training in meeting the social, emotional, and mental health needs of children. Yet, the scrutiny continues and the demands for schools and teachers to take the responsibility of instilling a ‘moral code’ or ‘certain values’ in children to overcome the deterioration of civil society. However, the calls for schools to respond to the needs have not considered the cultural diversity of modern communities nor has it been open about whose values should be instilled or who’s ‘moral code’ should be promoted. Many initiatives embrace character education processes that espouse non-negotiable culturally centric values, morals and behaviors while ignoring the rich cultural tapestry of modern society leaving many schools relying on behavioristic models of classroom management.

The issue of school based incivility is not unfounded, however the need for a culturally competent understanding of pro-social development is needed if schools are to meet the social, emotional, and mental health needs of all children. For example, the 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). The above concerns, coupled with the current confusion and uncertainty regarding pro-sociality, ethics, values, and the role of social institutions within the multicultural reality of modernity, 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 considers 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 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. Moreover, a significant amount of research links poor mental health with poor educational outcomes. The UK in particular has a low international ranking for child wellbeing and statistical probability of early drop-out in education (Cornaglia, Crivellario, & McNally, 2012). Furthermore, one in ten children in England experience mental health difficulties before their 16th birthday. 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 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.

More concerning is Merrell, Tymms and Jones (2007) study that claimed 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. Troublingly, 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 since 2007 in an expanded field of 29 'wealthy' countries under evaluation, however the country has made little progress in Education placing 24th. 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 stresses compliance to authority. Thereby, moving 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 daily in our society.

Considering 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. However, even though there is no common unified theoretical base most 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.

Insert table 1

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. Following the initial keyword search, the returned articles were subjected to a Grounded Theory coding process (Glaser, 1978; Glaser, 1992; Strauss & Corbin 1990). Using the coding process of grounded theory allows for a systematic and rigorous coding of diverse research literature to formulate a theory informed by a broad multidisciplinary perspective. The articles included at the keyword search level were subjected to open coding. Open coding is the ‘initial step of theoretical analysis that pertains to the critical discovery of categories and properties’ (Glaser, 1992 p39). The articles included following open coding were further scrutinized at the axial coding stage. Axial coding is the process of exploring the relationship amongst categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Following this level of analysis, the Selective coding stage began. Selective coding is a process in which one or more core categories are identified with the intent to generate a narrative that connects the

categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The final stage of analysis is theoretical coding of the remaining articles. Theoretical coding is the process of theorizing the relationship among the substantive codes discovered in the previous stages of coding (Glaser, 1978). At the end of the analysis, a theory (i.e. a set of theoretical propositions) is generated (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). In this manner a total of 98 articles most appropriate for the final critical coding were identified.

Insert figure 2

Following the rigorous coding process, the articles were grouped according to their relationship in the following six emerging themes. The themes that emerged from the literature provide a holistic understanding of the association between the development of resilience, social competency, personality, and school outcomes and provide a solid ground for developing a theory for facilitated prosocial development:

- 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 a growing number of countries. 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). However, 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. Therefore, by 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 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 (De Raad, Hendriks, & Hofstee, 1993; Hofstee, De Raad, & Goldberg, 1992; Thurstone, 1934) of personality as first synthesized by Deary's (1996) research. This review 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 also 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 (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 (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, 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. 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 and adolescence, characteristic adaptations that underpin pro-sociality may be influenced through teacher facilitated activities designed to enhance pro-social development during the school years. In short, culturally competent teachers can move beyond non-negotiable ideological values/morals education and facilitate prosocial development in the multicultural reality of the 21st century.

Teaching Character to Enhance Emotional Stability and Wellbeing. Several 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, 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 prosocial development interventions designed to influence personality change through characteristic adaptations that promote pro-social development.

Insert Figure 1

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 and influence personality expression (Corno & Anderman, 2015; Jylhä et al., 2013; Lockwood, 2015; Roback, 2013).

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 (Bruner, 1960; Cronbach & Snow, 1977; Dewey, 1910, 1991:13; Ragsdale, 1932; Sacks, 1997; Slavin, 2002; Vincent, 1999a, 1999b; Vygotsky, 1978). 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 acculturation, the literature analyzed 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 most 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, 1963; Lester et al., 1985; Maslow, 1954, 1971).

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). Eysenck's 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) *f* or flow of mental activity, (f) *d* 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 (Costa & McCrae, 1976, 1985; Eysenck, 1947, 1952; 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 (Bendig, 1957; 1958; 1960; Bendig & Sprague, 1954; Eysenck & Cookson, 1969; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1969; Grooms & Endler, 1960; Lynn, 1957). 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 (Cattell, 1933, 1965; Eysenck et al., 1985; Guilford & Braly, 1930; 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 and academics continue to struggle with the definition of character in the design of moral, values, character, citizenship, personal, social health, and social-emotional education within the multicultural settings of modern society. 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 the complexities of modern multicultural societies. 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 & 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. Since 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. Therefore, if *prevention*; defined as the facilitated construction of both intrapersonal resiliency and interpersonal resiliency (i.e., support networks) becomes standard practice and if schools are seen as a protective factor 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. Moreover, 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. Currently, 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). Therefore, initiatives to facilitate personal strengths (i.e., resiliency or “strength of character”) may provide an avenue to enhance the ability 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 individual.

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 (Cowen, 1994; Rutter, 1997, Rutter et al., 1999; Walker et al., 1995). Further research (Hinshaw & Anderson, 1996; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986; Patterson et al, 1992) 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 also 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 and personality expression.

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. Goldberg 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 that 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 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 within multicultural school settings 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 & Heggestad, 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. The importance of openness can also be situated within Sam and Berry's (2010) model of acculturation as related to when individuals with different cultural backgrounds meet. In this model, both cultural participation and maintenance are beneficial aspects of integration into communities and the broader society and cultural participation is argued here to be underpinned by both openness to new experiences and TIE. 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 should be provided with facilitated learning opportunities that 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.

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 further 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.

Although there is considerable debate (Arthur, 2005; Berkowitz, 2002) about a schools' role in developing the character of children, many researchers refer to Eysenck's (1990) insights into possible ways of capitalizing on personality factors beneficial within the socially and culturally 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 (Dienre & Dweck, 1978; Dweck, 1975, 1986, 1999; Dweck & Legget, 1988; Dweck & Repucci, 1973) 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 (Dienre & 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 can enact the self-regulated behavior best suited for meeting the demands of formal education. Additional research (Bandura et al, 1963; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman, 1990) 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 this review, personality traits influence educational outcomes and are predictive factors in life outcomes, emotional well-being, and the ability to overcome adversity. The FFM provides a culturally competent 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 review 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, 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 is beneficial in aiding children as they progress through the challenges associated with achieving academically, attaining emotional well-being (i.e. emotional stability within the FFM lexicon), and navigating the challenges of modernity. As research indicates, resiliency 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 this review). 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. It should be noted, that

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. In understanding how schools can meet the needs of the diverse classroom we can refer to Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural understanding of learning. Throughout his theory of mediated learning, Vygotsky (1978) asserted that at each point of development, children choose among multiple trajectories, some positive and some negative. Only through culturally competent pro-social support will the positive be manifested and the negative curbed or restrained throughout the overall life course of 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 is neither fixed nor stagnant (Pennington, 2002) and provides a firm understanding of the role environment plays in childhood outcomes.

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). Vygotsky (1978) first espoused, learning should be recognized to be the major vehicle underpinning and driving child development. Moreover, as highlighted by the literature in this review, 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 (Pennington, 2002), and that learning through mediated experiences precedes and facilitates development (Vygotsky, 1978), 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 (Bruner, 1960). In other words, and with a note of caution, a child's character can be developed through learning experiences be they *positive* or *negative*.

With ever increasing demands on schools and teachers to meet the social. Emotional and mental health needs of children as societies strive to build sustainable and civil communities it is argued here that the FFM can provide a framework for understanding the characteristic adaptations that should be promoted within character education. It is further argued that character education, at its best, should not be reliant on non-negotiable culturally centric codes of conduct. Therefore, culturally competent character education should provide learning experiences that promote the development of emotionally stable, cooperative, ethical, and rational decision makers and problem solvers. The sociocultural understanding that learning precedes development provides a sound footing for the pedagogy of an integrative character education program designed to encourage the character adaptations that support pro-social development. Mediated learning opportunities that promote resilience, empathy, social competence, cultural competence and self-regulation have the potential to enhance educational and life outcomes for all children and lead to cooperative social cohesion within the school setting and broader multicultural community.

The literature reviewed highlights that an integrative character education strategy can provide individuals with the capacity for choice through the development of resilience, 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. Therefore, a sociocultural informed integrative character education that embraces the current understanding of the environmental

influences on prosocial development and personality expression can provide a culturally competent approach for policy makers, schools, and teachers to build a community of learners based on universal concepts of respect, rational and ethical cooperation, problem solving and conflict resolution. This in turn can provide a research informed approach for understanding the role schools play in building civil societies and cultures of peace within the complexity and diversity of modernity.

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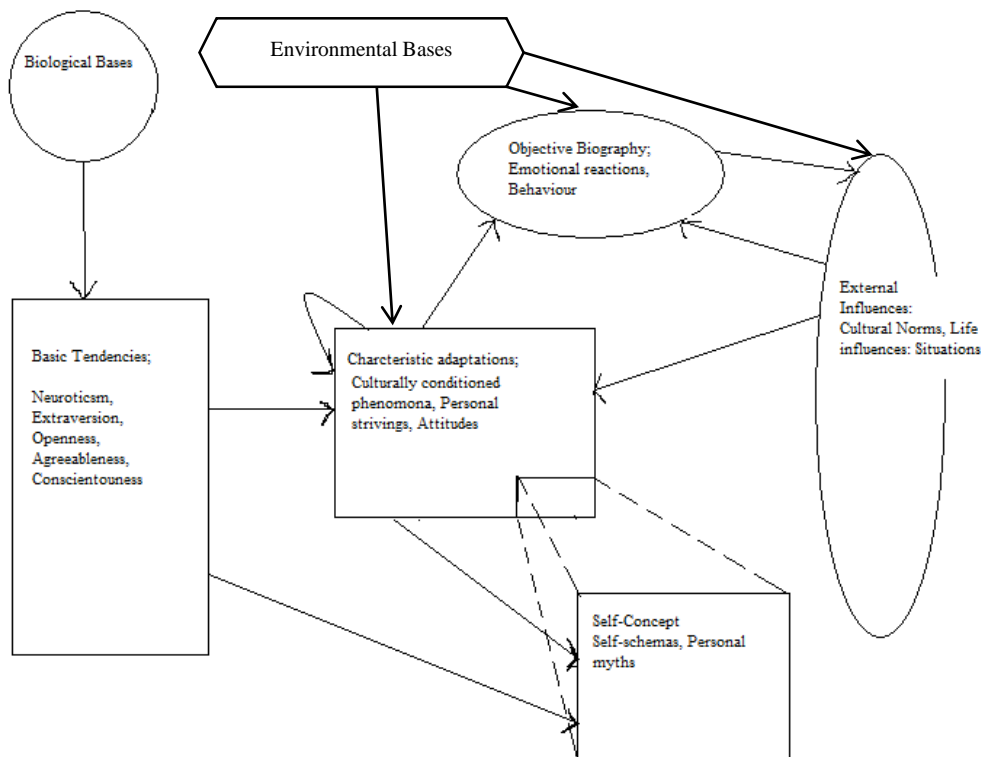
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Table 1

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 + Education
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. Adapted from Costa & McCrae, 1998 FFM representation highlighting the environmental bases for personality malleability and characteristic adaptations.



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

Figure 1. Diagram of literature search and coding

