

**Investigation of positive education implementation and its
impact on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy
in K-12 private schools in Dubai**

التحقيق في تطبيق التعليم الإيجابي وتأثيره على رفاهية الطلاب وفعاليتهم
الذاتية الأكاديمية في مدارس K-12 الخاصة في دبي

by

RIMA ABOU KHREIBI

A thesis submitted in fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION
at

The British University in Dubai

January 2022

**Investigation of positive education implementation and its impact on
students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy
in K-12 private schools in Dubai**

**التحقيق في تطبيق التعليم الإيجابي وتأثيره على رفاهية الطلاب وفعاليتهم
الذاتية الأكاديمية في مدارس K-12 الخاصة في دبي**

by

Rima Abou Khreibi

**A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Education in
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION**

At

The British University in Dubai

January 2022

**Thesis supervisor
Professor Sufian Forawi**

Approved for award:

Name
Designation

Name
Designation

Name
Designation

Name
Designation

Date: _____

DECLARATION

I warrant that the content of this research is the direct result of my own work and that any use made in it of published or unpublished copyright material falls within the limits permitted by international copyright conventions.

I understand that a copy of my research will be deposited in the University Library for permanent retention.

I hereby agree that the material mentioned above for which I am author and copyright holder may be copied and distributed by The British University in Dubai for the purposes of research, private study or education and that The British University in Dubai may recover from purchasers the costs incurred in such copying and distribution, where appropriate.

I understand that The British University in Dubai may make a digital copy available in the institutional repository.

I understand that I may apply to the University to retain the right to withhold or to restrict access to my thesis for a period which shall not normally exceed four calendar years from the congregation at which the degree is conferred, the length of the period to be specified in the application, together with the precise reasons for making that application.

Signature of the student

COPYRIGHT AND INFORMATION TO USERS

The author whose copyright is declared on the title page of the work has granted to the British University in Dubai the right to lend his/her research work to users of its library and to make partial or single copies for educational and research use.

The author has also granted permission to the University to keep or make a digital copy for similar use and for the purpose of preservation of the work digitally.

Multiple copying of this work for scholarly purposes may be granted by either the author, the Registrar or the Dean of Education only.

Copying for financial gain shall only be allowed with the author's express permission.

Any use of this work in whole or in part shall respect the moral rights of the author to be acknowledged and to reflect in good faith and without detriment the meaning of the content, and the original authorship.

Abstract

Positive Education is underpinned by positive psychology and infuses happiness lessons within the traditional taught curriculum. Wellbeing refers to life satisfaction and happiness. Academic self-efficacy discusses the level of an individual's confidence and their perception of how they successfully accomplish their activities. Schools are progressively more concerned with the use of positive education for the holistic development of the whole child through an increased focus on 'social emotional wellbeing' (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy. The purpose of the current study is to investigate the implementation of positive education and the impact of positive education implementation on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy within Dubai's K-12 private schools. Guided by theories and perspectives of world culture theory, institutional theory, Seligman's PERMA model, Ryff's six-factor model of psychological wellbeing, Diener's tripartite model of subjective wellbeing, Brofenbrenner eco-biological theory, social constructionism theory, self determination theory and social-cognitive learning theory. A convergent parallel mixed method research design was used in the study. Document analysis of key policy documents and initiatives, lesson plans, strategic plans, KHDA reports, schools' vision/mission and values statements, Dubai Student Wellbeing School Census (DSWC) reports and Pupil Attitudes to Self and School (PASS) reports, teachers', parents' and students' questionnaires, and interviews and focus groups of school leaders, teachers, parents, and students were administered. The PASS results from 1006 students were used. The DSWC results from 702 and 1202 students were used. The questionnaire's participants included 43 teachers, 277 parents, and 480 students. The interviews and focus groups participants included 12 school leaders, 17 teachers, 10 parents, and 15 students. The findings revealed the following: 1) in recent years there has been increasing positive education implementation grounding in the recent international, national, local, and educational authority policies and initiatives. 2) absence of standardised local and school policy related to positive education implementation has led to the need for adaptability of positive education implementation across school. 3) there has been strong engagement of the internal school community (teachers, school leaders and students) with external school community (parents). 4) significant changes in the overall level DSWC indicators associated with social emotional wellbeing, life satisfaction, perseverance, feeling safe, and belonging to school. 5) insignificant changes associated with DSWC indicators associated with emotional regulation, happiness, optimism, academic self-concept, cognitive engagement, engagement (flow), peer belonging and school climate. 6) PASS assessment factors show increase in wellbeing, motivation and self-efficacy for regulation and decrease in academic self-efficacy. 7) significant increase in emotional, social wellbeing and academic self-efficacy among students due to positive education implementation as perceived by teachers, parents, and students.

Key words: Positive Education, Positive Psychology, Student Wellbeing, Social Wellbeing, Emotional Wellbeing, Academic Self-Efficacy, Subjective Wellbeing, Wellbeing Census, Pupil Attitude Towards Self and School

الخلاصة

إن التعليم الإيجابي يستند إلى السيكولوجية الإيجابية ويهدف إلى تعزيز السعادة في إطار المناهج التعليمية التقليدية. إن الرفاهية تشير إلى الرضا عن الحياة والسعادة. وتناقش الفعالية الذاتية الأكاديمية مستوى ثقة الفرد وتصورهم لكيفية نجاحه في إنجاز أنشطته. فالمدارس تهتم بشكل متزايد باستخدام التعليم الإيجابي من أجل النمو الكلي للطفل بالكامل من خلال التركيز بشكل متزايد على "الرفاهية الاجتماعية العاطفية" والفعالية الذاتية الأكاديمية. إن الغرض من الدراسة الحالية يتلخص في التحقيق في تنفيذ التعليم الإيجابي وتأثير تنفيذ التعليم الإيجابي الرفاهية الاجتماعية العاطفية بين الطلاب والفعالية الذاتية الأكاديمية داخل مدارس دبي الخاصة من التمهيدي إلى الثاني عشر. وبالإشراف بالنظريات ووجهات النظر الخاصة بنظرية الثقافة العالمية، والنظرية المؤسسية، ونموذج PERMA الذي قدمه سيلينغمان، ونموذج رايف الذي يتألف من ستة عوامل للرفاهية النفسية، ونموذج دينر الثلاثي للرفاهية الذاتية، ونظرية Brofenbrenner البيولوجية البيئية، ونظرية البنائية الاجتماعية، ونظرية تقرير المصير، ونظرية التعلم الإدراكي الاجتماعي. تم استخدام تصميم بحثي مقارب على طريقة متوازنة مختلطة في الدراسة. وتحليل الوثائق الخاصة بوثائق السياسات والمبادرات الرئيسية، وخطط الدروس، والخطط الاستراتيجية، وتقارير هيئة المعرفة والتنمية البشرية، وبيانات الرؤية/المهام والقيم في المدارس، وتقارير تعداد مدرسة دبي لرفاهية الطلاب، ومواقف التلاميذ من تقارير المدارس الذاتية والمدرسين، واستبيانات الآباء والطلاب، والمقابلات مع قادة المدارس، والمعلمين، وأولياء الأمور، والطلاب. تم استخدام نتائج PASS لعدد 1006 طالب. تم استخدام نتائج DSWC من 702 و 1202 طالب. وكان من بين المشاركين في الاستبانة 43 مدرساً، و 277 من أولياء، و 480 طالباً. وشملت المقابلات المشاركين 12 من قادة المدارس، و 17 مدرساً، و 10 من الآباء، و 15 طالباً. وكشفت النتائج عما يلي: (1) في السنوات الأخيرة، كان هناك تنفيذ إيجابي متزايد للتعليم في إطار السياسات والمبادرات التي اتخذتها مؤخرا السلطات الدولية، والوطنية، والمحلية، والتعليمية. (2) أدى عدم وجود سياسة موحدة على الصعيدين المحلي والمدرسي فيما يتعلق بتنفيذ التعليم الإيجابي إلى الحاجة إلى التكيف مع تنفيذ التعليم الإيجابي عبر المدرسة. (3) كان هناك مشاركة قوية من المجتمع المدرسي الداخلي (المعلمين وقادة المدارس والطلاب) مع المجتمع المدرسي الخارجي (الآباء). (4) تغيرات الكبيرة في المستوى الكلي لمؤشرات في DSWC المرتبطة بالرفاهية الاجتماعية العاطفية، والرضا عن الحياة، والمثابرة، والشعور بالأمان، والانتماء إلى المدرسة. (5) تغيرات غير مهمة مرتبطة بمؤشرات في DSWC المرتبطة بالتنظيم العاطفي، والسعادة، والتفاؤل، والمفهوم الذاتي الأكاديمي، والمشاركة المعرفية، المشاركة (التدفق) والانتماء إلى الأقران والمناخ المدرسي. (6) تُظهر عوامل تقييم النجاح زيادة في الرفاهية والتحفيز والفعالية الذاتية للتنظيم وانخفاض الفعالية الذاتية الأكاديمية. (7) زيادة كبيرة في الرفاهية العاطفية والاجتماعية والفعالية الذاتية الأكاديمية بين الطلاب بسبب تنفيذ التعليم الإيجابي كما يتصور المعلمون والآباء والطلاب.

الكلمات الرئيسية: التعليم الإيجابي، علم النفس الإيجابي، رفاهية الطلاب، الرفاهية الاجتماعية، الرفاهية العاطفية، الكفاءة الأكاديمية الذاتية، والرفاهية الذاتية، وتعداد الرفاهية (DSWC)، وموقف التلميذ تجاه الذات والمدرسة (PASS)

DEDICATION

First, a big gratitude goes out to all my family and my friends for their constant encouragement, faith and support which helped me achieve this milestone in my life.

I dedicate this thesis first to my father for instilling the value of education in me, to my mother who supported and continued to comfort me throughout my journey and for being my best friend.

To my husband Kassem for always encouraging me to do my best and supporting me every step of the way.

To my children Meera, Mohamad and Malak for their understanding, support, patience, and unconditional love.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Although at times it was challenging, this doctoral thesis was a thrilling journey, and I enjoyed every step of this journey. It would not have been possible without the support and encouragement of many individuals.

First, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Prof. Sufian Forawi for his continuous support during my PhD research and study, and for sharing his immense knowledge and guidance. Thank you, Prof. Sufian, for having me as your student. It was my greatest honor to finish this thesis under your guidance and supervision.

I would like to extend my appreciation to all my professors who listened to my questions and guided me. My gratitude extends to all the people working at the British University in Dubai and to all the people and participants who made it possible for me to administer my research study.

I am also indebted to my friends and colleagues that helped me along the way with their words of support and wisdom. Special thanks goes to my parents, my sisters, and brothers. My greatest gratitude is owed to my husband Kassem whose patience and support, helped me achieve my dreams and for encouraging me every step of the way. My deepest gratitude to my lovely children Meera, Mohamad and Malak for their spiritual support during this journey of writing my thesis and throughout my life.

Above all, my gratitude to the Almighty God for granting me the health, strength, and wisdom to achieve my dream of undertaking this research and completing it.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background.....	1
1.2.1 Researcher’s Personal Reason for Conducting this Study.....	11
1.3 Statement of the Problem	12
1.4 Research Purpose and Questions	16
1.5 Significance and Rationale of the Study.....	17
1.6 Structure of the Study	18
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	21
2.1 History of Positive Psychology.....	21
2.2 History of Positive Education	27
2.3 Conceptual Framework.....	33
2.4 Literature Review	35
2.4.1 Positive Education	35
2.4.1.1 Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) and The Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL).....	36
2.4.1.2 Character Strengths and Values in Action (VIA).....	39
2.4.1.3 Positive Psychology Interventions (PPI) in Schools.....	43
2.4.1.4 Evaluating PPI Efficacy and Effectiveness	51
2.4.1.5 Incorporating Student Perceptions in PPI Evaluations	55
2.4.2 Evaluating Positive Psychology Interventions implementation within schools	57
2.4.3 Implementation Science of Positive Education.....	62
2.4.4 Wellbeing	67
2.5 Approaches to Wellbeing.....	69
2.5.1 Wellbeing Portrayal and Determinants in Several Disciplines	70
2.5.2 Student Wellbeing	74
2.5.2.1 Student Wellbeing Interest and Meaning	74
2.5.2.2 Wellbeing Approaches in Schools	75
2.5.3 Wellbeing and Positive Education in the Local Context.....	77
2.6 Academic Self-efficacy	80
2.7 Theoretical Framework.....	85
2.7.1 Institutions and Culture Policy Theories	86
2.7.1.1 World Culture Theory	86
2.7.1.2 Institutional Theory	87
2.7.2 Models of Positive Education and Wellbeing	89
2.7.2.1 Seligman’s Model of Positive Education and Wellbeing	90
2.7.2.2 Ryff’s Six-factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing	95

2.7.2.3 Diener's Tripartite Model of Subjective Wellbeing	96
2.7.3 Child Development, Wellbeing and Bio-ecological Systems Theory	98
2.7.4 Learning and the Social Constructionism Theory	100
2.7.5 Academic Self-efficacy Theories	100
2.7.5.1 Self-determination Theory (SDT)	101
2.7.5.2 Social-cognitive Learning Theory	101
2.8 Positive Education Integrated Theoretical Framework	102
2.9 Situated Literature Review	103
2.10 Literature Review Conclusion	106
<i>Chapter 3: Methodology</i>	<i>107</i>
3.1 Introduction	107
3.2 Research Approach.....	108
3.3 Research Design	110
3.4 Research Method.....	115
3.4.1 Context.....	116
3.4.2 Site and Population	116
3.4.2.1 Site	116
3.4.2.2 Population	117
3.4.3 Sampling Techniques and Samples.....	118
3.4.4 Data Collection and Instrumentation.....	126
3.4.4.1 Document analysis.....	126
3.4.4.2 Interviews.....	128
3.4.4.3 Questionnaires	132
3.4.4.4 Assessment Tools - PASS and DSWC.....	137
3.4.4.4.1 Pupil Attitudes to Self and School (PASS)	137
3.4.4.4.2 Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC)	140
3.5 Reliability and Validity.....	144
3.6 Pilot of Instruments	148
3.7 Data Analysis	159
3.7.1 Qualitative Data Analysis Sequence.....	159
3.7.2 Quantitative Analysis	161
3.7.3 Data Analysis and Mixed Methods	162
3.8 Ethical Considerations.....	164
3.9 Summary	166
<i>Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings</i>	<i>167</i>
4.1 Introduction	167
4.2 Research Question #1 Findings and Analysis	167
4.2.1 Implementation of Positive Education	168
4.2.2 Positive Education Implementation Science Constructs Exploration.....	171

4.3 Research Question #1 Summary of Results	224
4.4 Research Question #2 Findings and Analysis	227
4.4.1 DSWC Analysis: Social and Emotional Wellbeing Overview from 2017 to 2018.....	228
4.4.2 PASS Assessment Test Analysis.....	235
4.5 Summary of RQ#2 Findings	243
4.6 Research Question #3 -Questionnaires' Findings and Analysis	244
4.6.1 Questionnaire Reliability and Measurement Validation	245
4.6.1.1 Teacher Questionnaire Reliability	245
4.6.1.2 Parents' Questionnaire Measurement Validation	246
4.6.1.3 Students' Questionnaire Measurement Validation	254
4.6.1.4 Overall/ Whole Study Reliability	260
4.6.2 Results of the Teacher Questionnaire	261
4.6.2.1 Teachers' Demographics	261
4.6.2.2 Teachers' Perceptions.....	268
4.6.2.2.1 Teachers' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Emotional Wellbeing	268
4.6.2.2.2 Teachers' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Social Wellbeing (SW)	273
4.6.2.2.3 Teachers' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Academic Self-Efficacy	278
4.6.3 Results of the Parent Questionnaire	283
4.6.3.1 Parents' Demographics.....	283
4.6.3.2 Parents' Perceptions	291
4.6.3.2.1 Parents' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Emotional Wellbeing	291
4.6.3.2.2 Parents' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Social Wellbeing	296
4.6.3.2.3 Parents' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Academic Self-Efficacy	299
4.6.4 Results of the Students Questionnaire	303
4.6.4.1 Students' Demographics	303
4.6.4.2 Student Perceptions	308
4.6.4.2.1 Students' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Emotional Wellbeing	309
4.6.4.2.2 Students' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Social Wellbeing.....	312
4.6.4.2.3 Students' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Academic Self-Efficacy.....	316
4.7 Summary of RQ#3 Findings	320
4.8 Chapter Summary.....	321
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations and Limitations of the Study ...	323
Introduction	323
5.1 Discussion	323
5.1.1 Research Question #1 Discussion: Implementation of Positive Education.....	323
5.1.2 Research Question #2 Discussion: Extent of the Impact of Positive Education on SEWB and Academic Self-efficacy	335
5.1.3 Research Question #3 Discussion: Impact of Positive Education on SEWB and Academic Self-efficacy	341
5.2 Discussion Summary	347
5.3 Conclusion	349

<i>5.4 Implications of the Study</i>	351
<i>5.5 Recommendations for Future Research</i>	354
<i>5.6 Limitations of the Study</i>	355
<i>Appendices</i>	395
Appendix B.1: School Consent Form	395
Appendix B.2: Principal/Deputy Head Interview Questions	397
Appendix B.3: Head of Department Interview Questions	400
Appendix B.4: Positive Education/ Wellbeing Officer Interview Questions	404
Appendix B.5: Teachers’ Focus Group Questions.....	408
Appendix B.6: Students’ Focus Group Questions	412
Appendix B.7: Parents’ Focus Group Questions	414
Appendix B.8: Students’ Questionnaire and Student Parent’s Consent Form	417
Appendix B.9: Teachers’ Questionnaire	421
Appendix B.10: Parents’ Questionnaire.....	425
Appendix B.11: Pilot Study SPSS Results – Parents’ Questionnaire	430
Appendix B.12: Pilot Study SPSS Results – Students’ Questionnaire	440
Appendix B.13: Pilot Study SPSS Results – Teachers’ Questionnaire.....	450
Appendix B.14: British University in Dubai (BUiD) Consent Letter	462
Appendix C.1: Teachers’ Questionnaire Emotional Wellbeing (EW), Social Wellbeing (SW) and Academic Self-efficacy (ASE) Item Reliability Details	463

List of Illustrations

Figure (2. 1): Positive education implementation and impact conceptual framework	33
Figure (2. 2): Different constructs within each Level of the DMEE model of PPI implementation (Adopted from Chodkiewicz, 2018).	60
Figure (2. 3): Organising framework showing factors impacting the success of the implementation of positive education (Adopted from Halliday et al., 2020)	64
Figure (2. 4): Middle childhood student wellbeing development: dive dimensions (Adopted from Schonert-Reichl 2011, p. 11)	74
Figure (2. 5): Institutional theory and the institutional isomorphism mechanisms (Adopted from Greenwood, 2008).....	89
Figure (2. 6): Diener’s Subjective Wellbeing Model (Adopted from Diener, 1984)	97
Figure (2. 7): Bronfenbrenner’s bio-ecological systems theory (Adopted from Bone 2015, p.258)	99
Figure (2. 8): Propositive education integrated theoretical framework for positive education, wellbeing and academic self-efficacy	103
Figure (3. 1): The current’s study proposed research approach ‘convergent mixed-parallel design’ (Adapted from Demir and Pismek, 2018)	112
Figure (3. 2): Attitudinal factors of PASS determining self-efficacy relation to self-regulation and academic success (Adapted from GL Education 2018, p. 11)	140
Figure (3. 3): Comparison between attitudinal factors of PASS and subdomains of DSWC (Adapted from GL Education 2018, p. 7)	143
Figure (4. 1): Positive Education Implementation Science Constructs	172
Figure (4. 2): UAE and Dubai Government/Educational Authority Policy Documents Summary and Timeline	178
Figure (4. 3): UAE Centennial Plan 2071 Community and Education Axes (Adopted from National Media Council, 2017).....	183
Figure (4. 4): Well Schools Network Wellbeing Initiatives Area (Adopted from MoE, 2021b)	184
Figure (4. 5): Dubai 2021 Plan Aspirations Focusing on Individuals	185
Figure (4. 6): Percent Change in SEWB Indicators Within DSWC	233
Figure (4. 7): Percent Change in Relationships and Learning in School and at Home Indicators Within DSWC.....	234
Figure (4. 8): Satisfaction Levels for PASS Tests [2018 vs. 2020]	241
Figure (4. 9): First Order CFA Model for Parents Perceptions	248

Figure (4. 10): Second Order CFA Model for Parents Perceptions	249
Figure (4. 11): First Order CFA Model for Students' Perceptions	258
Figure (4. 12): Second Order CFA Model for Students' Perceptions.....	259
Figure (4. 13): Teachers' Nationality broken down by School	262
Figure (4. 14): Teachers Years of Experience by School	265
Figure (4. 15): Teachers' Highest Education Level Completed by School	266
Figure (4. 16): Bar Chart of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on EW Indicators	271
Figure (4. 17): Bar Chart of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on SW Indicators	276
Figure (4. 18): Bar Chart of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators.....	281
Figure (4. 19): Parents Age Group by School.....	284
Figure (4. 20): Parents' Education Level by School.....	285
Figure (4. 21): Parents' Work Status by School	286
Figure (4. 22): Parents Total Number of Children Attending School by School	287
Figure (4. 23): Bar Chart of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on EW Indicators	294
Figure (4. 24): Bar Chart of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on SW Indicators	298
Figure (4. 25): Bar Chart of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators.....	302
Figure (4. 26): Students' Curriculum by School.....	307
Figure (4. 27): Bar Chart of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on EW Indicators	311
Figure (4. 28): Bar Chart of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on SW Indicators.....	315
Figure (4. 29): Bar Chart of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on ASE Indicators	319

List of Tables

Table (2. 1): Explanation of CASEL models factors (Adapted from Ross & Tolan, 2018)....	37
Table (2. 2): Explanation of the PRP-CA factors (Adapted from Reivich & Gillham, 2010).	47
Table (2. 3): Concepts and propositive education models and theories underpinning positive education practice and conceptualizations	85
Table (2. 4): Explanation of PERMA models factors (Adapted from Norrish, 2015).....	92
Table (2. 5): Explanation of Diener’s Subjective Wellbeing elements (Adapted from Diener, 1984)	97
Table (3. 1): Population of Dubai’s private schools’ distribution (Adopted from MoE, 2021a	118
Table (3. 2): Participating schools’ positive education context and curriculum.....	121
Table (3. 3): Participating schools’ summary of questionnaire participants	122
Table (3. 4): Summary of participant’s types and number participating in interviews and focus groups	124
Table (3. 5): Summary total of actual participating numbers from the participating schools	126
Table (3. 6): List of documents to be examined and analysed.....	128
Table (3. 7): PASS assessment factors measuring student attitude toward learning (Adapted from GL Education, 2019).....	138
Table (3. 8): PASS assessment tool sample used for the current study	139
Table (3. 9): DSWC domains and subdomains (Adopted from KHDA, 2018).....	142
Table (3. 10): DSWC number of participants used from the two participating schools (AJA and BITJ) included in the current study.....	144
Table (3. 11): Demographic data associated with parents participating in parents’ questionnaire pilot (age group, gender, and education level)	151
Table (3. 12): Demographics data associated with parents participating in parents’ questionnaire pilot (work status, student grade (son/daughter), and curriculum).....	151
Table (3. 13): Parents’ questionnaire pilot overall Cronbach alpha for the 30 questionnaire items.....	152
Table (3. 14): Demographic data associated with students participating in students’ questionnaire pilot (nationality, gender, and age group)	153
Table (3. 15): Demographic data associated with students participating in students’ questionnaire pilot (grade level, curriculum, and years in current school).....	154
Table (3. 16): Students’ questionnaire pilot overall Cronbach alpha for the 30 questionnaire items.....	154

Table (3. 17): Demographics data associated with teachers’ participating in teachers’ questionnaire pilot (nationality, gender, position, and years of experience)	156
Table (3. 18): Demographics data associated with teachers’ participating in teachers’ questionnaire pilot (education level, specialisation, and training).....	157
Table (3. 19): Teachers’ questionnaire pilot overall Cronbach alpha for the 30 questionnaire items.....	157
Table (3. 20): Research questions, approaches, methods, and participants’ alignment (Research Methodological Approach)	163
Table (4. 1): Positive Education Implementation Description Across Schools (AJA, BITJ, CGS, DITM)	169
Table (4. 2): Positive Education Implementation Within Lessons (AJA, BITJ, CGS, DITM)	171
Table (4. 3): International Policies/Initiatives Document Analysis Findings Associated with Wellbeing & Positive Education.....	177
Table (4. 4): National, Local Government and KHDA Document Analysis of Policies/Initiatives Associated with Wellbeing and Positive Education.....	189
Table (4. 5): Positive Education Implementation Contextual Findings – political and systemic support.....	195
Table (4. 6): Positive Education Implementation Contextual Findings – school political and systemic support.....	198
Table (4. 7): Positive Education Implementation Contextual Findings – Engagement of Internal and External Stakeholders/Home Environment	201
Table (4. 8): Summary of Key Positive Education Character Strengths and Associated Words Presented in Mission, Vision and Values	203
Table (4. 9): Positive Education Implementation Intervention Findings – Fitness of Positive Education / PPI/ Compatibility with Recipients	206
Table (4. 10): Positive Education Implementation Intervention Findings – Fidelity vs. Adaptability/ Dosage Effects/ Socio-cultural Expectations.....	212
Table (4. 11): Positive Education Implementation Organisational Findings – Staff Efficacy and Buy-in/ Evidence-based Evaluation and Resource Readiness/ Collaboration and Communication/ Rewards for Teachers and Students	218
Table (4. 12): Positive Education Implementation Provider Findings – Perceived Beliefs and Motivation/ Teachers’ Experience and Training	221
Table (4. 13): Positive Education Implementation Recipients’ Findings – Recipients’ Attitudes/ Buy-in and Motivation	224
Table (4. 14): Paired t Test and Effect Size Results for SEWB Overview Indicators by Level	232
Table (4. 15): PASS Test Sample Descriptive Summary [N = 1,006] for the AY 2018 and 2020.....	236

Table (4. 16): Paired t Test Results for PASS Test Scores [Year 2018-19 vs. Year 2020-21]	238
Table (4. 17): Effect Size of the PASS Test Factor Paired T Test Calculations.....	239
Table (4. 18): Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for PASS Test – Indicator ‘Satisfaction Level’ [AY 2018-19 vs. AY 2020-21]	240
Table (4. 19): Correlation and Reliability Statistics for Teachers Questionnaire.....	246
Table (4. 20): Factor Loadings (Standardised Regression Weights), Cronbach’s Alpha, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Explained from CFA of Parents’ Perceptions	252
Table (4. 21): Factor Matrix showing Discriminant Validity of PEI Constructs.....	253
Table (4. 22): Fit Indices for Measurement Model of Parents’ Perceptions Questionnaire ..	254
Table (4. 23): Factor Loadings (Standardised Regression Weights), Cronbach’s Alpha, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Explained from CFA of Students’ Perceptions	256
Table (4. 24): Factor Matrix showing Discriminant Validity of PEI Constructs for Students’ Perceptions.....	257
Table (4. 25): Fit Indices for Measurement Model of Students’ Perceptions Questionnaire	260
Table (4. 26): Whole Study Reliability Statistics for Teachers’, Parents’, and Students’ Questionnaire	261
Table (4. 27): Chi-square test coefficient (Cramer’s V) for Teachers’ Nationalities	262
Table (4. 28): Descriptive Summary of Teachers’ Gender [N = 43], broken down by School	263
Table (4. 29): Descriptive Summary of Teachers’ Position at School [N = 43], broken down by School	264
Table (4. 30): Chi Square Test (Cramer’s V) of Teachers’ Years of Experience [N = 43] ...	265
Table (4. 31): Chi Square Test (Cramer’s V) Teachers’ Highest Education Level Completed [N = 43].....	266
Table (4. 32): Descriptive Summary of Teachers’ Subject of Specialization [N = 43], broken down by School.....	267
Table (4. 33): Descriptive Summary of Teachers’ Positive Education PD Sessions [N = 43], broken down by School	268
Table (4. 34): Descriptive Summary of Teachers’ Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on EW Indicators	270
Table (4. 35): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on Social Wellbeing (SW) Indicators.....	275
Table (4. 36): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators	279
Table (4. 37): Descriptive Summary of Parents’ Gender [N = 277], broken down by School	283
Table (4. 38): Chi square test (Cramer’s V) for Parents’ Age Group [N = 277]	284

Table (4. 39): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' Educational Level [N = 277].....	285
Table (4. 40): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' Work Status [N = 277]	285
Table (4. 41): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' No. of Children Attending School [N = 277].....	287
Table (4. 42): Descriptive Summary of Grades of Children Parents Have Attending School by School [N = 277], broken down by School	288
Table (4. 43): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Sample and the Curriculum their Children Studied in School [N = 277], broken down by School	289
Table (4. 44): Descriptive Summary of Parents' – Years of Child Presence in School [N = 277], broken-down by School.....	290
Table (4. 45): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Children Participating in Extracurricular Activity [N = 277], broken down by School.....	290
Table (4. 46): Descriptive Summary of Parents Frequency of Talking to their Child/ren about their School Activities.....	291
Table (4. 47): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on EW Indicators.....	293
Table (4. 48): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on SW Indicators	297
Table (4. 49): Table (4.39): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators	301
Table (4. 50): Descriptive Summary of Students Participants Nationalities [N = 480], broken down by School.....	305
Table (4. 51): Descriptive Summary of Student Participants' Gender [N = 480], broken-down by School	305
Table (4. 52): Descriptive Summary of Student Participants' Age Group [N = 480], broken down by School.....	306
Table (4. 53): Descriptive Summary of Students Participants Grade [N = 480], broken down by School	306
Table (4. 54): Chi Square test (Cramer's V) for Student Participants' Curriculum Being Studied [N = 480], broken down by School	307
Table (4. 55): Descriptive Summary of Students Participants No. of Years in Current School and Family Member They are Living with [N = 480], broken down by School.	308
Table (4. 56): Descriptive Summary of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on EW Indicators	310
Table (4. 57): Descriptive Summary of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on SW Indicators	313
Table (4. 58): Descriptive Summary of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on ASE Indicators	318

List of Abbreviations

Acronym	Full name
CASEL	Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning
COVID	Coronavirus Disease
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DSWC	Dubai Students Wellbeing Census
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
KHDA	Knowledge and Human Development Authority
IB	International Baccalaureate
IPEN	International Positive Education Network
IPPA	International Positive Psychology Association
MENA	Middle East and North Africa Region
MEP	Moral Education Programme
MHC-LF	Mental Health Continuum Long Form
MoE	Ministry of Education
MSLQ	Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire
NA	National Agenda
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PASS	Pupil Attitudes to Self and School
PERMA	Positive Emotions, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning and Accomplishment
PPI	Positive Psychology Interventions
SEL	Social and Emotional Learning
SEWB	Social and Emotional wellbeing
SWB	Subjective Wellbeing
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WHO	World Health Organization

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a short background of the current study. It discusses the importance of the implementation and impact of positive education in schools at the global and the local levels. Positive education is seen to foster adolescents' functioning, improve overall wellbeing, infuse positivity within the school environment, and improve the academic achievement and social and emotional wellbeing (SEWB) of students. The background section of the study includes the provisions set by the researcher, providing a holistic overview of the study's context within Dubai and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The background section ends with a brief discussion of the researcher's personal reason for carrying out this study. The chapter outlines the statement of the problem, the study's purpose, research questions, rationale and significance, and the study's structure.

1.2 Background

Positive education is defined as “education for both traditional skills and for happiness” (Seligman et al., 2009, p.293). When Martin Seligman introduced positive education in 2009, his aim was to introduce a new approach to pedagogy, where students develop resilience, flourishing, and happiness along with academic skills in schools (Noble & McGrath, 2016; Whiteside et al., 2017). He called on governments to instil practices and policies early on to provide students with the tools to flourish (Seligman, 2011). Flourishing refers to finding fulfillment in one's life through forming connections with others and accomplishing meaningful outcomes, leading to a better life. Seligman founded this branch of psychology called positive education to address the need for developing students' wellbeing within the educational setting. Positive education is underpinned by positive psychology (Morrish et al., 2018) using interventions which infuse school evidence-based skills and knowledge to enhance

wellbeing within the traditional academic curriculum (Carr et al., 2020). The latter means that positive psychology interventions (PPI) through positive education are taught as part of the school's curriculum, either as stand-alone activities or integrated into lessons, to assist in improving students' wellbeing. PPI are validated activities that facilitate thoughts, emotions and action encouraging enhancement in wellbeing. These PPI can be used in many settings including schools and universities. Schools have varying PPI associated with positive education taught and integrated into the curriculum. Thus, it is important to study the implementation of positive education and its impact within educational settings. Prior to examining the impact within the school setting, it is important to explore the implementation of positive education within the school context. Positive education implementation within schools has been growing (Halliday et al., 2020; Waters & Loton, 2019). However, positive education suggested practices and programmes have only been studied a few times which has created reliability and replicability issues. Educational institutions (schools and universities) deciding to include positive education as part of their curriculum have been faced with a huge range of activities which they perhaps have not heard of or unsure about its fit for their students. Schools' administrators and teachers are faced with various educational regulations and policies; however, they need to see the value of implementing positive education within their schools prior to investing in resources and efforts (White & Kern, 2018). Halliday et al. (2020) state that as of now, positive education remains in a state of plasticity until robust empirical scientific evidence about its impact and implementation practices are more defined and available.

Recently, positive education and PPI have been implemented by many schools and universities. This is because academic institutions are being increasingly held accountable for students' wellbeing (Hernández-Torrano et al., 2020) in addition to the focus on academic achievement. PPI have diverse access points through the curriculum and school environment

(Seligman & Adler, 2019). These interventions can be exhibited through mindfulness, cognitive restructuring and behavioural activation, reducing negative thoughts (Armenta et al., 2020; Quoidbach, Mikolajczak & Gross, 2015). PPI assist in developing Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) (Tejada-Gallardo et al., 2020; Ruscio, 2018), overall wellbeing and the ability to cope with challenges (Hendriks et al., 2020). Heydariollah, Telpasand, and Rahimian's (2019) study has shown that PPI increase academic achievement, happiness, and wellbeing among students. This improved wellbeing leads to improved relationships (Chen, 2016), academic performance (Carr et al., 2020), and academic self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014). PPI ensure the improvement of growth mindset, resilience, optimal and social functioning, positive emotions and feelings and strengthening of attitudes (Hendriks et al., 2020; Roffey, 2017). On the social level, positive education within the school environment infuses positivity across the school climate, thus, leads to higher positive relationships among teachers, students, their friends. The latter fosters engagement and belonging (O'Rourke, Cooper & Gray, 2012). On the individual student emotional level, Carr et al. (2020) stated that positive education within the contexts of education has led to individuals' improved levels of positive emotions, life satisfaction and decreased levels of negative emotions. Hendriks et al. (2020) assert that positive education using PPI in schools promotes an overall increase in children's life satisfaction, leads to greater subjective wellbeing (SW), and leads to students experiencing a greater sense of positive emotions. Having high levels of positive emotions helps bring positive outcomes in adolescents' lives in the long run. On the academic level, Dix et al. (2020) claim that improvements in wellbeing and developing positive emotions leads to better social relationships and improved academic performance. Improvements included having greater resiliency and cognitive flexibility (Moskowitz et al., 2021). Lambert et al. (2020) assert that university students who experience positive emotions feel better mentally and physically, and experience less stress. Therefore, individuals and students participating in

the implementation of positive education interventions in school and university have shown improvements on many levels leading to more positive outcomes, some of which are social, emotional, and academic.

Globally, the introduction of positive education has become top priority in education departments (Burke & Minton, 2019) due to positive student outputs on many levels (White & Murray, 2015) as presented above. Positive education fosters adolescents' functioning as a key educational goal (Adler & Seligman, 2016), through improvements in wellbeing (Morrish et al., 2018), and academic self-efficacy (Albert & Steinberg, 2011). Positive education is a form of social and emotional learning (SEL), in which youngsters acquire and apply skills, attitudes, and knowledge to effectively achieve positive goals, manage emotions, and maintain and establish positive relationships (Domitrovich et al., 2017) through interpersonal and intrapersonal proficiencies that improve the youths' ability to avoid risky attitudes, and cultivate healthy relationships, self-control, and academic success (Domitrovich et al., 2017). Historically, schools relied on academic outcomes to determine adolescents' readiness for adulthood (OECD, 2018). Schools paid little attention to the development of students' personal interests, overall life satisfaction (Hendriks et al., 2020), and SEWB (Schoffham & Barnes, 2011). Students' and teachers' anxiety, negative emotions towards school or certain academic subjects due to overwhelming expectations from government-mandated accountability measures (Birrell, 2016), has led students and teachers to experience low SEWB (Ruscio, 2018), and students to struggle with low self-efficacy towards certain academic subjects (Birrell, 2016). Therefore, it is important to examine the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and self-efficacy.

However, prior to examining this impact, the factors involved in implementing positive education should be examined. Despite growing interest in positive education, major limitations exist in the literature that describe how positive education is being implemented.

Some of these major limitations include a lack of comprehensive curriculum measures and difficulties with implementing positive education within a naturalistic and real-world context (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2017). Much of the previous research on PPI has been performed within laboratory conditions; few studies have used actual schools to study implementation (Eichas, Ferrer-Wreder & Olsson, 2019). Eichas, Ferrer-Wreder, and Olsson (2019) stress the importance of the positive education implementation context and delivery, which can significantly affect the outcomes. PPI have been run by researchers and psychologists rather than teachers. These K-12 teachers have different training expertise from researchers and psychologists, who lack the knowledge of how to properly implement PPI into the school curriculums and the associated process challenges (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014). Therefore, to effectively measure effects of positive education in schools, a consistent delivery model should be developed which allows for replication and standardization. Halliday et al. (2020) have identified different implementation factors that need to be considered when implementing and looking at the impact of positive education. These factors include the country's contextual construct, such as: policies and practices associated with positive education/wellbeing on the international/national/local levels; policies' support at the school level; and the engagement of schools' stakeholders. Other implementation constructs associated with positive education include intervention: PPI fit and adaptability/fidelity, timing, and socio-cultural expectations. It also includes the organisational construct: staff buy-ins, positive education programme evaluation and resource readiness, staff collaboration, and rewards for both students and teachers. There is also the provider/teacher construct, which includes teachers' perceived beliefs/motivation, teachers' understanding of the PPI theory, and their experience and training associated with PPI. Finally, implementation examines the recipient/student construct: students' feelings, buy-in and motivation towards positive education implementation.

In 1983 in the United States, the National Commission on Excellence in Education report titled *A Nation at Risk* strongly criticised public education, and called for greater accountability toward educating the whole child with the ‘*No Child Left Behind*’ legislation enacted in 2002. As a result, many public schools had to adopt a more child-centred education providing students with curriculum components and life skills to become emotionally and socially healthy adolescents (Seligman et al., 2009). Schools embody an environment where students devote a considerable period of time developing lifelong relationships with other children and adults (Kellock, 2020; OECD, 2017). Schools were initially considered to be mostly responsible for students’ academic advancement, however, due to new policies, schools have become more and more tasked with examining students at various levels, such as targeting students’ wellbeing and holistic development (Powell & Graham, 2017; Thorburn, 2018). To address the need for enhancing students’ and teachers’ wellbeing in education, Martin Seligman, the forefather of positive psychology, created the branch of psychology which he called positive education to address the demand for educating adolescents and academics simultaneously about developing their wellbeing for overall life success (Seligman, 2011). Using positive education to improve wellbeing has helped in determining the degree to which schools are preparing students for adulthood (Kern et al., 2015). Scholars argue that predicting the economic aggregate of a country’s wellbeing using gross domestic product (GDP) is insufficient in informing policymakers of how well individuals in the society feel about their non-monetary point of view and their daily lives (Aitken, 2019; Stiglitz, Sen & Fitoussi, 2009). As a result, many indices capturing the principle of wellbeing on the individual and public level have been developed (OECD, 2013) and countries have started to mobilize the use of positive education to improve the principles of wellbeing (Seligman & Adler, 2019). Wellbeing has been viewed as an opportunity, since satisfied and happy individuals are key to reaching positive outcomes in life, education, work, health, and relationships (Maccagnan et al., 2019).

There is a wealth of research on wellbeing due to its cross-disciplinary nature, but this wealth has equally complicated the conceptualisation of wellbeing and how it is applied (Kellock, 2020; Anand, 2016). Wellbeing refers to being satisfied with our life (McLellan & Steward, 2015). However, what constitutes life satisfaction differs with each individual and elicits a multitude of responses based on each person and each context (Kellock, 2020; Seligman, 2011). Wellbeing as a term has been interchangeably used with terms related to happiness, life satisfaction and quality of life (Gray, Beamish & Morey, 2020). Wellbeing can encompass subjective, objective, and psychological, emotional, and social aspects to form this multi-dimensional phenomenon (Western & Tomaszewski, 2016). In scientific terms, wellbeing refers to the subjective domain which accentuates individuals' evaluation of their own life: their level of happiness, and of life satisfaction (Bellani & D'Ambrosio, 2011). The psychological aspect refers to individuals' contentment with the knowledge they have about themselves and achieving their potential (Kellock, 2020).

The current study focuses on the emotional and social aspects of students' lives. Therefore, initially the researcher finds it important to discuss student wellbeing in education and school. Although a definition of student wellbeing is not straightforward, Noble et al. (2008 p.5) refer to it as a "sustainable state of positive mood and attitude, resilience, and satisfaction with self, relationships and experiences at school". This definition shows the multi-dimensional nature of student wellbeing which entails students' interaction with the environment and others (Kellock & Sexton, 2017). It is shaped by many aspects that are constantly interacting with one another to impact the school community and the students (Govorova, Benítez & Muñiz, 2020; Seligman & Adler, 2019). The latter aspects can be associated with the social and emotional aspect of wellbeing. The term 'social and emotional wellbeing' (SEWB) was introduced in Australia in the 1980s. It encouraged scholars to look more holistically at people's mental health and incorporate their mental wellbeing, and can be defined as:

A dynamic state, in which the individual is able to develop their potential, work productively and creatively, build strong, positive relationships with others, and contribute to their community. It is enhanced when an individual is able to fulfil their personal and societal goals and achieve a sense of purpose in society (UK Government Office for Science, 2008, p. 10)

SEWB refers to the individual's state of social and emotional wellbeing, where the individual can achieve their potential. Once individuals can develop their potential they can contribute to their communities, and engage in beneficial and positive relationships with other people in their environment (Gray, Beamish & Morey, 2020). Students' life satisfaction and wellbeing are critical indicators of their emotional, social, and academic outcomes (OECD, 2018). Improvements in students' SEWB improves their relationships with their parents, friends and teachers, and in the long run it enhances their productivity in the community (Hendriks et al., 2020). Student SEWB affects mental health traumas, challenges, and resilience positively (WHO, 2017). It also impacts students' sense of inclusion within their school community, which consequently impacts their performance and engagement (Dix et al., 2020; OECD, 2017). Therefore, examining how SEL programmes such as the introduction of positive education affect SEWB will help educators focus on students' holistic development. Examining how positive education and PPI are implemented in schools will help reduce threats arising from the school environment. The latter will show how students' needs for inclusion and belonging in the school community are being met. Thus, this study investigates how positive education is being implemented in schools and its impact on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy.

Positive approaches to education are not new (Kern et al., 2017), however, they have increased over the past decade (Slemp et al., 2017). Globally, educational institutions have been increasingly tasked to not only become responsible for children's academic development,

but also to focus on the children's holistic development, targeting their wellbeing (Thorburn, 2018) and academic self-efficacy (Norrish, 2015). Students spend a considerable time in school, developing long-lasting relationships with other students and adults (OECD, 2017). Positive education has been used in many schools to improve SEWB (Noble & McGrath, 2016; OECD, 2018) and academic self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014). Zhang (2016) showed an increase in students' happiness and wellbeing in China post-PPI. Similarly, Burke & Minton (2019) in Ireland showed similar improvements in students' overall wellbeing and character strengths due to positive education. Emotional regulation has improved, eighteen months after the implementation of PPI in Australia (Morrish et al., 2018). PPIs showed improvement in self-esteem (Kern et al., 2019), self-regulation (Clevenger, 2018) and self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014). Positive education has become recognised in the education field and continues to grow due to the important role it plays fostering wellbeing, which in turn is linked to academic success (Heydariollah, Telpasand & Rahimian, 2019; Norrish et al., 2013).

Dubai has developed very ambitious goals and reform measures to become one of the world's top-performing countries. Dubai Vision 2021 plan, which was adopted in 2007, has strategic goals to focus on developing its key sectors such as the society and individuals (The Executive Council, 2018). Dubai Vision 2021 includes strategic goals, related to the 'The People', 'The Society', 'The Experience', 'The Place', 'The Economy', and 'The Government'. The researcher in the current study outlines the goals related to The People and The Society, since these goals are directly related to the current research study. As part of its strategic goal to enhance the individual and the people, Dubai Vision 2021 aims to empower individuals through making Dubai a happy city. Many initiatives across the city have been adopted to infuse happiness among individuals, such as initiatives to improve wellbeing in the work and school environments to empower individuals and enhance their creativity (Lambert & Hussain, 2016). Consequently, improvement in individuals' wellbeing and living standards

as well as the quality of life will improve 'The Society'. The improvement in the individual's and society's wellbeing will lead to better SEWB, with enhanced relationships among people within the society and a more cohesive and inclusive society.

Positive education as a culture emerged worldwide during the past decade and noticeably it has spread across the UAE. HH Sheikh Mohammed bin Mohammad Al Maktoum in March 2016 approved a 'National Program for Happiness' with the aim to enhance the work environment and infuse it with benchmarks developed for happiness (Lambert & Hussain, 2016). Initiatives for happiness and positivity were launched in the educational sector to harmonise governmental educational plans and ensure a happier and more cohesive society. Dubai has become a global knowledge platform, annually hosting the World Government Summit, working to propose international policy agendas aligned to innovative, technological advancement around the globe. Happiness and the importance of instilling happiness within the society and governments was the focus of the 2017 and 2019 summits. Dubai has embarked on empowering its people's wellbeing specifically focusing on students within its schools. Annually, during the World Government Summit, positive education has become a key policy topic that gets reviewed and reported on (The Global Council for Happiness and Wellbeing, 2019). Dubai joined the Convention on the Rights of the Child and has promoted happiness, positive education policies and wellbeing initiatives policies to improve the community's lifestyles and emphasise the care, safety, and happiness of children both in and outside school, supporting and encouraging students in adopting positive habits (Lambert & Hussain, 2016). The Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA) launched the Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) for both staff and students (Clarke, 2019). The aim of the survey is to assist local governmental authorities to understand students' emotional, social, psychological, health and physical functioning and wellbeing and to develop plans to enhance students' wellbeing and functioning.

Wellbeing is essential since its happiness elements would provide students with a positive outlook and significant feeling of self, which is essential and conducive for learning engagement. Wellbeing is subjective and can be defined as the presence of positive elements and absence of negative elements leading to satisfaction within one's life (Mehdinezhad, 2012). Students experiencing positive wellbeing become more resilient, can face life challenges and problem-solve conflicts, and overcome life stressors and negative feelings (Carr et al., 2020; Majid et al., 2018) while becoming more adaptable to uncertain events and challenges (Hendriks et al., 2020; Norrish, 2015). Wellbeing is essential for students' education and future, and it impacts their emotional and social skills, psychological health and mindset, motivation towards learning, and quality of life (Gashi & Mojsoska-Blazevski, 2016). Positive education allows students and teachers to connect and enhances relationships among teachers and students, leading to improvement in the psychological, emotional, and social wellbeing of students and teachers (Samways et al., 2019). It helps in improving engagement among teachers and students, helping to foster teachers and students' emotional wellbeing (Taylor et al., 2017) engagement, and cognitive nature (Oberle et al., 2016). Heydariollah, Telpasand and Rahimian (2019) showed that a group of students who took a course using PPI had improved academic satisfaction, self-efficacy and achievement, compared to the control group.

1.2.1 Researcher's Personal Reason for Conducting this Study

As a parent and educationalist, the researcher has seen first-hand students' and her own children's challenges with SEWB wellbeing and academic self-efficacy and thus felt driven to examine this current's study topic. The researcher has three children at Dubai private schools and she has always focused on the academic development of her children. Initially, the researcher registered her children in a school that fosters academic achievement. Recently, the researchers' goal towards her children's education has become more focused on their holistic education and development. Also, as part of her work as an educationalist she has been

introduced to positive education. The MoE as part of the ‘National Program for Happiness’ introduced at the same time as KHDA positive education into MoE public schools. This has caused her to become more interested in the implementation process and impact of positive education. After investigating the topic, she decided to move her children to a school that implements and fosters wellbeing and positive education as well as maintaining academic rigour. Therefore, from personal motives she decided it is important for her to conduct high-calibre research on positive education: how it is implemented in schools, and its impact on students’ SEWB and academic self-efficacy. The author feels that her research will add to her personal knowledge as a parent on the implementation of positive education and its impact. She can also use this study, which has K-12 context, to advise educationalist stakeholders and policymakers in her work on the state of implementation of positive education within Dubai K-12 private schools and how it impacts students’ wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Therefore, the researcher aims to use the current study to investigate positive education, its implementation, and the extent of its impact on students’ SEWB (Ruscio, 2018) and academic self-efficacy (Norrish, 2015) in Dubai K-12 private schools. The results from this study aim to provide the status of practices, policies, impact and extent of the effect of positive education in Dubai’s K-12 schools. These results provide the researcher with the knowledge to key stakeholders within UAE on policy decisions and practices related to positive education.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Schools are progressively more concerned with the use of positive education to improve students’ SEWB (Ruscio, 2018) and academic self-efficacy (Heydariollah, Telpasand & Rahimian, 2019; Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014) rather than only improving students’ academic performance (OECD, 2018). This shift in the educational perspective is referred to by many educators as the development of the ‘whole child’ which focuses on providing a balance of skills involving the social, cognitive, and emotional skills (OECD, 2018). Choi (2018) showed

that PPIs lead to wellbeing enhancement in early school years, impacting brain structure changes in adolescents and leading to long-term impacts on motivation, regulation of emotions and cognitive functioning. Similarly, social-emotional development through positive education during schooling may impact the likelihood that students pursue tertiary education (OECD, 2015). The World Government Summit (2017) asserted that overall social and emotional wellbeing (Morrish et al., 2018), grit, academic self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014) and life satisfaction (Burke & Minton, 2019) are complementary outcomes of positive education. Little is known regarding positive education's application and its effectiveness and efficacy (Ciarrochi et al., 2016) and there are many positive education frameworks implemented in the education field (Conoley et al., 2014; Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2017). The discussion about the implementation and impact of positive education on social, emotional, and academic level evidence mainly refers to the context of western cultures. It is hard to generalise these findings to the non-western conceptualizations of positive education (Lambert et al., 2020) to the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) regions and the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) region. Therefore, the variation in the implementation factors of positive education and its impact should be further studied.

There have been few studies showing the impacts of positive education on students' wellbeing (Zhang, 2016), and self-efficacy (Liu et al., 2018; Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014)). Most of these studies have investigated the impact of teachers' positive attitudes on students' self-efficacy and academic emotion (Liu et al., 2018), leadership's positive education training on students' wellbeing (Zhang, 2016), the relation between positive education and emotional regulation (Morrish et al., 2018), positive education and character strengths (Burke & Minton, 2019), and the implementation of positive education (Halliday et al., 2020). One problem is that most of the latter studies use experimental PPI and mostly in university settings through the offering of a course, rather than looking at real K-12 school environment settings where

positive education is being implemented. Another issue is that it is mostly psychologists and therapists who are implementing these interventions, while Dubai's K-12 schools context involves teachers who do not have knowledge of positive education or training on these PPI.

In terms of examining implementation this study is unique because it explores the implementation of positive education with K-12 school settings and examines all the factors associated with the contextual level, positive education intervention level, organizational/school level, provider/teacher level and recipient/student level. Secondly, it is unique because it is the first study that examines the extent of the impact of positive education on Dubai K-12 private school students using the DSWC survey results and the Pupil Attitude Towards Self and School (PASS). Lastly, it is unique because it involves the perceptions of all stakeholders: school administrators, teachers, students, and parents', in investigating the impact of positive education implementation within their school on the students' emotional/social wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

Despite policy and academic interest around positive education implementation and its impact on wellbeing and self-efficacy, the implementation of the practices and interventions associated with positive education lack conceptualisation and clarity, and are narrowly defined in the education arena (McLellan & Steward, 2015). Positive education initiatives are mainly informed by international agendas such as the Positive Education Schools Association, International Positive Psychology Association (IPPA) education division, and the International Positive Education Network (IPEN). Dubai's local context needs to be examined due to many idiosyncrasies related to the community, resources and wellbeing needs of the students, and their diverse characteristics (Lambert et al., 2020; Al Krenawi et al., 2004).

Globally, educational institutions are tasked with using positive education (Whiteside et al., 2017) to promote students' SEWB (Ruscio, 2018), and academic self-efficacy (Liu et al., 2018). However, there is no clear guidance on how to appraise these practices in the long

and short terms (Seligman, 2011; Morrison & Schoon, 2013). Schools struggle to balance between offering practices and interventions that promote wellbeing (non-cognitive) and cognitive skills (Seligman et al., 2009). Few studies have examined the implementation and impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy (WHO, 2015; OECD, 2018) identifying a gap in this research area. In the USA and Australia, studies have examined positive education's impact on subjective wellbeing (Ruscio, 2018), and emotional regulation (Morrish et al., 2018). However, in Dubai's context, research has focused on depression (Ali et al., 2014), youth violence (Al Shareef et al., 2015), and substance abuse (Khansaheb et al., 2016). Although the latter studies are important, the lack of literature related to studies examining the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy reflects the gap in literature in the promotion of positive education values in advancing moral character, positive values, resilience, self-efficacy, and wellbeing, globally and in the context of Dubai's private schools (Samways et al., 2019; Lambert et al. 2020).

Consequently, this study initially investigated the implementation of positive education, and factors associated with implementation on the contextual, intervention, organizational, provider, and recipient levels. Secondly, the study examined the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's K-12 private schools. The findings identified the benefits of implementing positive education and explored how it significantly impacts on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The study provides evidence for furthering the long-term goal of improvement associated with implementation and increasing the use of positive education in enhancing wellbeing and self-efficacy. It aims to assist policymakers and stakeholders in evaluating and informing policies and practices related to implementation, and the impact of positive education on students, identifying best practices for the enhancement of teaching, learning and support of various stakeholders.

In terms of positive education implementation, Halliday et al. (2020) assert that positive education remains in a state of fluidity. Halliday and colleagues discuss the need to define, and avail of, more robust scientific and empirical evidence about positive education implementation policies, practices, and impact. Samways et al. (2019) views that improvements in student-teacher relationships, social and emotional wellbeing need to be further developed and studied within the Dubai context. Lambert et al. (2020) discuss the need to develop studies that can be generalised to non-western conceptualisations of positive education within MENA GCC regions and to the K-12 context in Dubai and the UAE.

1.4 Research Purpose and Questions

The current study aims to investigate the implementation and impact of positive education on students social and emotional wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy within Dubai's K-12 private schools. The study has the following main research questions to answer:

Research Question (RQ) #1: How is positive education implemented within K-12 private schools in Dubai?

Research Question (RQ) #2: To what extent does positive education affect students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

Research Question (RQ) #3: What are the teachers', parents', and students' perceptions about the impact of positive education on students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

The three questions were answered by adopting a convergent mixed- method research design. Document analysis of key local, national, and international policies, schools' strategic plans, lesson plans, websites, KHDA, PASS and DSWC reports was performed, concurrently with the closed-ended questionnaires for key stakeholders which included parents, teachers, and students. Also, semi-structured interviews with senior leadership members, and focus groups with teachers, parents and students were concurrently conducted by the researcher.

1.5 Significance and Rationale of the Study

The study's rationale is centred on its educational impact and its significance. In terms of educational impact, the implementation and impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy has become a major priority in terms of policy when addressing students' holistic development. However, the issue has been centred on how ministries and educational institutions implement positive education to enhance students' wellbeing (Bonell et al., 2014) and whether this enhancement is evident.

Studies have shown the importance of positive education in enhancing students' SEWB wellbeing (Zhang, 2016) and improving academic self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014). Positive education has become a top priority of education departments in promoting wellbeing, such as in Australia (Morrish et al., 2018), China (Zhang, 2016), Ireland (Burke & Minton 2019), and USA (Ruscio, 2018). In Australia, positive education has been promoted to help improve students' academic self-efficacy (White & Murray, 2015). Internationally, education has witnessed a paradigm shift to developing the holistic child and improve wellbeing (OECD, 2018) and academic self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014) using positive education (Burke & Minton, 2019). Halliday et al. (2020) pointed out that although interest in positive education has increased in the last five years, minimal research has been associated with the study of positive education creating large gaps between practice and research. Internationally, there is a lack of studies examining the implementation of positive education and its relationship with academic self-efficacy and wellbeing (WHO, 2015) while most studies have been conducted in the USA and Australia (Seligman et al., 2009). Ministry of Happiness and KHDA have introduced positive education in line with wellbeing and happiness initiative within Dubai schools (KHDA, 2019a). In 2017, KHDA initiated the Dubai Schools Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) to assess students' thoughts and feelings about their SEWB (KHDA, 2019b). The DSWC has been conducted twice thus far through questionnaires

targeting students in grades 6–12. In Dubai’s context little is understood about positive education implementation and practices across the different schools (Engelhardt & Lewkowicz, 2019), and its relationship to wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy (Lambert & Hussain, 2016). Most of the studies have focused violence among youth (Al Shareef et al., 2015) and examining depression (Ali et al., 2014). This study is valuable in its exploration of the implementation of positive education within K-12 school settings and its examination of all the factors associated with this. It is the first study to examine the extent of the impact of positive education on Dubai K-12 private school students using the DSWC survey results and the Pupil Attitude Towards Self and School (PASS). The study obtains stakeholders’ perceptions of the impact on students’ SEWB wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, and is uniquely able to provide findings that can be generalised to non-western conceptualizations of positive education within MENA and GCC regions.

The current study aims to add to the literature related to positive education and wellbeing since it is a relatively novel discipline. It aims to add insightful information and data that can be used to enhance and shape future literature and attitudes towards positive education and wellbeing. In addition, the researcher recognizes the relevance of holistic adoption of wellbeing principles and positive education within the school climate and how it impacts students, fostering flourishing, and character strengths such resilience and growth mindsets. The current study identified the factors associated with successfully implementing positive education in Dubai’s private schools, and, identified the relationship between positive education and wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Furthermore, the study addresses the gap in the literature concerning positive education and wellbeing, thus contributing to the knowledge on this topic.

1.6 Structure of the Study

The current thesis comprises six chapters: the introduction, the literature review, the methodology, the data analysis, the discussion of main findings, and the conclusion. Below, the researcher presents a summary of each chapter:

- **Chapter 1- Introduction:** the introduction clearly states the current study's purpose, background, and significance. The study's research background introduces positive education, how it impacts students in the educational setting, how it has been adopted internationally, and how Dubai has adopted positive education as part of its educational vision reform. Within the chapter the researcher clearly describes the study's problem statement, objectives, research questions and study design.
- **Chapter 2- Literature Review:** the literature review chapter outlines the history of positive psychology, positive education, implementation principles and factors, wellbeing concepts, academic self-efficacy concepts, and literature related to positive education, wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Also, this chapter outlines the conceptional and theoretical frameworks underpinning the current study.
- **Chapter 3 – Methodology:** the methodology chapter outlines the study's methodology and research approach. A pragmatic approach was used in a mixed-method design. The chapter describes the research design, research setting, data collection tools and methods, participants, and sampling methods. It also addresses the research's ethical implications.
- **Chapter 4 – Findings and Data Analysis:** the data analysis chapter outlines the findings from the various tools used for data collection. Both quantitative and qualitative results are described using figures, tables and text outlining the results and triangulating the findings.
- **Chapter 5 – Discussion, Conclusion, Recommendations and Limitations:** the discussion chapter presents the answers to the research questions. It also discusses the

study's results and findings in line with prior relevant literature and the theoretical principles presented. This chapter presents policy implications, discusses possible future practice related to the topic, and outlines future recommendations for research based on the results attained. Finally, it addresses the study's limitations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The study's purpose is to investigate the implementation of positive education and the impact of this Positive education implementation on students' "Social Emotional Wellbeing" (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy within Dubai's K-12 private schools. Positive education has its roots in the science of *Positive Psychology*. Therefore, in order to understand positive education, it is important to initially discuss the history of positive psychology and its main virtues. Then, it is relevant to investigate how positive education has been introduced and how it is linked to positive psychology. This chapter discusses the history of positive psychology and discusses positive psychology in the literature. It provides an overview of the history of positive education and its connection to positive psychology and wellbeing. Later sections present the conceptual framework, exploring positive education, positive psychology interventions (PPI), character strengths and virtues. It defines wellbeing, wellbeing approaches, student wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. Finally, it introduces the theoretical framework and theories that support positive education, wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, identifying the integrated theoretical framework and the interrelated theories associated with concepts of the study.

2.1 History of Positive Psychology

This section introduces readers to positive psychology's methodology, subject matter, and aims. Philosophers have long contemplated the subject of wellbeing and the nature of what makes life worth living; recently many researchers have made wellbeing and positive psychology a focus of educational research (Judice, 2018; Lambert et al., 2020). This development in research has resulted in the emergence of a new field within psychology called '*Positive Psychology*'. *Positive psychology* was launched in 1997 by two renowned psychologists called Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi and Martin Seligman (Kristjánsson, 2012). The birth of positive psychology can be marked by the inaugural speech Seligman gave when he

was the American Psychological Association president, which rejuvenated positive psychology concepts and inspired the development of new innovation and theories (Vella-Brodrick, 2011). However, it should be noted that positive psychology epistemological discipline's name, subject matter and ontological positions are not new. Maslow initially referred to it within his study of human virtues and strengths (Gokcen, 2013). For example, Maslow's work on self-actualization and creativity considered topics related to positive psychology which is rooted in humanistic psychology (Belli, 2012).

Kristjánsson (2012) argues that from the 1950s to the 1970s humanistic psychology emphasized self-education and self-fulfilment, while during the 1980s and 1990s adaptability psychologists addressed self-efficacy, self-esteem, multiple intelligences, self-determination theory, and emotional intelligence. These attributes are at the heart of the strengths and virtues associated with positive psychology. Maslow was not the only psychologist who addressed attributes incorporated as part of positive psychology. Historically, positive psychology has been described to be highly rooted in the Aristotelian model of human nature and Aristotle's question of 'What is the good life?' (Judice, 2018).

In a recent research study Chodkiewicz (2018) presented that scientists state that positive psychology has grown out of the humanistic field of psychology and that it overlaps in their theoretical contents (Waterman, 2013). The idea is that the humanistic psychology field prior to the introduction of pre-positive education considered that individuals are good and all humans must be respected for the adoption of multiple paradoxical positive attributes (Ivtzan et al., 2016). However, Judice (2018) points out that positive psychology differs primarily in its ontology, epistemology, and methodology. An alternative interpretation of the origins of positive psychology can be attributed to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2014). They state that positive psychologists seek to enhance the human strengths that lead to a life worth living, thus permitting communities and individuals to thrive. Individuals thrive by cultivating a more

positive perspective on human nature and decreasing their psychologically negative predisposition (Judice, 2018).

Having discussed the history and theories related to positive psychology, this section of the chapter defines positive psychology and addresses the virtues and character strengths associated with it. The term ‘Positive Psychology’ was first introduced in 1997 and focuses on enhancing the best characteristics in life rather than being preoccupied with repairing the worst qualities in life (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In the field of education, various definitions of positive psychology have emerged. Its meaning has been broadened in recent years to focus on the positive factors of human development, emphasising human flourishing instead of the focus on languishing and on identifying how aspects of flourishing can be promoted at school and in the home (Coulombe, Hardy & Goldfarb, 2020; Dix et al., 2020). Therefore, positive psychology concentrates on positive personal virtues, experiences, and character (Judice, 2018). It is founded on three interrelated pillars (Watkins, 2016):

- the study of subjective experiences or positive emotions (pleasure, happiness, fulfilment, gratification and wellbeing);
- the study of positive character traits (interests, values, talents, and character); and
- the study of positive organisations (communities, families, and schools).

The main continuum concern of positive psychology is valued subjective life experiences, past satisfaction and wellbeing, present happiness and joy, future optimism and hope (Seligman, 2011; Worth & Smith, 2018;). This continuum leads to an overall outcome of wellbeing and happiness (Seligman, 2011), while positive psychologists claim interest in developing positive institutions and communities, primarily through the focus on assisting people to flourish. Its main focus is on strengthening positive relationships which are instrumentalized to improve individuals’ wellbeing levels (Belli, 2012).

Recent growth in the interest in positive psychology interventions within the education field has amazed both its opponents and supporters; while supporters identify it as a new era in education and psychology, its opponents set its claims as exaggerated in their aspirations (Belli, 2012). Supporters of positive psychology identify it as being rooted in humanistic psychology, which manifests a scientific rigour of identifying wellness-enhancing personal and social variables and takes the moral factors that make life worth living seriously (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Supporters argue that once positive psychology enters the classroom and school practice, it emphasizes the enhancement of strengths and remedying of weaknesses within education, rather than on identifying happiness as the preeminent aim of education (Lambert et al., 2020; Seligman, 2011).

One problem that has been proposed by opponents of positive psychology is the extent that it contributes to the educational purpose of enhancing wellbeing, and other factors associated with positive psychology. For example, educational psychologists to date have not been able to systematically and explicitly explain the real possible contributions of positive psychology to their work (Hendriks et al., 2020; Owens & Patterson, 2013). Although research has introduced PPI into classrooms and the school setting, minimal research has taken place (Carr et al., 2020; Belli, 2012) and the impact on wellbeing and other associated factors are still not well understood (Lambert et al., 2020; Ruscio, 2018). Another weakness is that positive psychology does not constitute a new and original theory and it needs to present an independent, novel, and empirically grounded testable programmed framework for positive education to be implemented within the school setting (Halliday et al., 2020; Judice, 2018). The lack of a positive psychology educational framework for schools with empirically tested and tried PPI presents a problem for the implementation and research surrounding the use of positive psychology within the education sector. The latter challenge can be overcome by

identifying key interventions and writing a curriculum or programme encompassing these interventions which can be implemented within the education field.

One major issue identified by educational psychologists is the key focus of positive psychology on the introduction of happiness classes and the focus on positive character strengths and virtues rather than negative character traits (Kristjánsson, 2012; Lambert et al., 2020). A strength of this argument is that although this shift in education from negativity focus to positivity focus is really needed, they identify that the introduction of ‘happiness lessons’ has raised much criticism from critics arguing that happiness cannot be taught in school (Ng, 2017). Another argument was introduced by Lerner et al. (2010), arguing that the simple advancement of positive attributes has been doubted by discoveries that show that encouraging the good does not simply diminish the bad. Miller (2008) argues that positive psychology ultimately promotes a type of extrovert personality that is goal-driven, outgoing, cheerful, and status-seeking who will eventually become a shallow careerist; while Belli (2012) and Carr et al. (2020) argue that the quest for happiness through education is anti-educational and shallow and have objected to the process of psychologisation of education at the detriment of moral and conceptual considerations.

As explained earlier, within its evolutionary development and introduction into education, one argument related to positive psychology is that it emphasises the excessive use of the principles of positive emotions and its uplifting benefits within everyday life (Seligman & Csikzentimihalyi, 2014). Difficulties arise from this excessive use of positive happiness and emotions, as stated by Ng (2017), who points out the downside of this excessive use, and admits that negative emotions would also contribute to optimal living. A more comprehensive view of positive psychology must consider the evolutionary perspective related to work, friendships, and relationships and how these help individuals flourish (Lambert et al, 2020; Lewis, 2015).

A strength with this argument is that according to many critics, positive psychology has not given enough attention to contextual and social factors (Carr et al., 2020; Lomas, 2015).

It is clear in the literature that some criticisms of positive psychology have been reported from two decades of critical findings; responses claim that positive psychology is fraught and incoherent with measurement constructs, and it lacks evidence supporting lavish claims. Simply put, positive psychology is bad science (Frawley, 2015). On the other hand, supporters of positive psychology have claimed that the discipline can be considered as an umbrella where research and theory are linked through the common pursuit of common goals (Vella-Brodrick, 2011). Vella-Brodrick defined these goals as:

- fostering an optimal individual level of collective wellbeing;
- equipping people with the skills and the strengths required to face everyday life challenges, and
- presenting a preventative model to mitigate dysfunction.

According to Chodkiewicz (2018), positive psychology promises to re-energise awareness of positive life links in an attempt to improve a person's wellbeing across a lifespan. Therefore, the techniques and ideas of positive psychology have a common place in current practices, in particular schools, where it has been applied to promote improved functioning and better quality of life for future generations. Warren, Donaldson and Lee (2018) and Proyer et al. (2015) encouraged the use of positive psychology and the focus on people's strengths in the fields of education, philosophy, economics, sociology, political science and technology. Positive psychology's accessibility, privileges, applicability, practicality, discipline's research and methodology are being applied in many initiatives and disciplines (Belli, 2012). As a result, in the educational setting, the propositive education evolutionary development and perspective allows people to recognise that students can use positive psychology constructs at all grades to emphasise collective and individual strengths, improve their personal development, and

achieve academic success (Shiota, 2014). Through focusing exclusively on positive character strengths, positive psychology overlooks the important interplay of negative and positive emotions, attributes, and experiences which form a holistic picture of good life and human flourishing (Judice, 2018). One problem of positive psychology is the inflation of causation and correlation (Belli, 2012). For instance, this problem of associating causation and correlation needs to be considered when applying positive psychology to policy, since it may determine what gets incentivised, valued and maximized (Belli, 2012). This question of incentivizing and valuing positive psychology is fallacious because its causation and correlation with wellbeing is complicated. The fallacy applies because positive psychology's impact on the subjective wellbeing of individuals is mainly based on the individuals' self-reporting satisfaction with situations and the emotions that stem from positive psychology, which cannot be generalised to all individuals, thus making it hard to incorporate and include as part of the policy.

2.2 History of Positive Education

Positive psychologists have gradually introduced positive education as an independent approach to education, introducing 'happiness lessons' with practical interventions within schools (Seligman et al., 2009). The teaching of happiness is about the creation and cultivation of positive experiences (Watkins, 2016). Although the positive education movement originated in the United States (US), the United Kingdom (UK) has been quick to adopt positive education in its public educational policy (Lambert et al., 2020; Kristjánsson, 2012). This was after a 2005 extensive pilot campaign in Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL), which resulted in the 2011 adoption of happiness lessons in the UK. Positive education posits wellbeing or happiness as an ultimate and fundamental goal of education (Halliday et al., 2020) similar to claims introduced earlier, in 2006 by Brighthouse, 2003 by Noddings and in 1985 by Aristotle (Kristjánsson, 2012).

The positive education movement is a recent movement with only about twenty years of advocacy, dating back to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi in 2000 (Kristjánsson, 2012). Since the adoption of positive psychology in 2004 within the field of education in its current form of positive education programmes and interventions (Judice, 2018), positive education's main aim has been to improve students' entrenched strengths, developing competence, functioning and overall mental health (Chodkiewicz, 2018). It focuses on improving the child's quality of life during childhood and later on during adulthood, leading children toward hope, love of life and optimism (Coulombe, Hardy & Goldfarb, 2020; Gokcen, 2013). Seligman (2011) refers to positive education as the introduction of positive interventions within schools for optimal human functioning, promoting and investigating elements that allow school communities and individuals to thrive.

Positive education refers to positive psychology's application to the educational settings, which means that school is seen as a positive institution that aims to cultivate positive emotions and positive traits for educational purposes (Halliday et al., 2020). Positive psychologists claim that in educational settings, positive emotions lead to increased learning (Hendriks et al., 2020; Seligman et al., 2009). Positive education includes interventions from positive psychology that foster strengths, resilience, gratitude and other non-cognitive skills (Judice, 2018). In addition to the latter interventions, positive education includes social and emotional learning interventions such as self-management and self-awareness (Halliday et al., 2020).

In the field of education, various definitions of positive education are found. Seligman et al. (2009) defines positive education as "teach[ing] both the skills of well-being and the skills of achievement" (p. 294). For the purpose of this thesis, Gokcen's (2013) definition of positive education will be used since it encompasses the purpose of this study. Gokcen states that positive education can be defined as the practical appliance of empirically positively validated

psychological factors, principles, and strategies within the school setting, with the aim of maintaining, enhancing and facilitating students' wellbeing as a whole or within specific constructs such as positive cognitions, behaviours and emotions. The practical applications include the utilisation of holistic wellbeing programmes, incorporated within mainstream school subjects or as stand-alone courses or in the form of narrower initiatives. Waters (2011) most importantly points out that positive education differs from wellbeing-oriented interventions such as anti-drugs and anti-bullying programmes; its main aim is to cultivate wellbeing through actively achieving positive constructs rather than eliminating negative ones.

Positive education psychologists like Seligman have chosen schools to implement interventions and initiatives of positive education because adolescents and children spend much of their waking hours within the school environment (Kristjánsson, 2012; Lambert et al., 2020;). Positive education interventions in schools have focused on small-scale initiatives of introducing positive emotions and traits due to the ease of administering personal level changes, rather than administering large-scale changes that may lead to political transformation (Seligman, 2011). Positive education school models intend to provide students with motivated teachers and administrators that model good character skills which one would like adolescents to embody, with a supportive ethos, while also providing students with the opportunities to actualise the institution's expectations (Halliday et al., 2020; Kristjánsson, 2012). Positive education schools instil happiness lessons to cultivate both positive experiences through pleasant emotions, and positive traits or dispositions (Belli, 2012; Dix et al., 2020).

Some argue that positive education with its roots in positive psychology presents a theoretically incoherent discipline, lacking a central idea that binds its subject knowledge, such as the concept of optimal functioning together (Hendriks et al, 2020; Gokcen, 2013; Chodkiewicz, 2018). Nevertheless, Seligman, the forefather of positive education, accumulated fifteen years of empirical evidence showing happiness skills and skills for

educational achievement along given theoretical lines, that can be taught to students within an educational context (Halliday et al., 2020; Seligman et al., 2009).

But Seligman (2011) also states that authentic happiness as a theory is slightly narrow in focus, since happiness as a construct emphasises the maximising of feelings, which has received criticism from psychologists outside the field of positive psychology. Furthermore, Gokcen (2013) notes that authentic happiness theory does not consider the diversity and multiplicity of optimal states usually achieved by different individuals, and one of these optimal states is happiness. One problem with optimal happiness theory is that it lacks multidimensionality in the factors leading to or constituting the optimal states, and having positive psychology and education confine itself to a singular aim which is happiness becomes debatable.

Some positive psychologists and educationalists have described the character strengths and virtues associated with positive psychology and positive education to have a relationship with the elements that make up the 'Big Five' theory. A serious weakness of this argument, however, is that the elements of the 'Big Five' theory cannot in a meaningful way be used to set one individual from another because of the broad nature of these elements, unlike the virtues and strengths which are part of positive education (Kristjánsson, 2012).

As presented above, critics of positive education and educational psychologists have been critical of the introduction of positive education and its focus of instilling happiness within learners. They believe that the goal of education should be a focus on learning, and argue whether it is the purpose of introducing happiness as goal of education for educational psychologists to explore what is really the most important goal within education. (Belli, 2012; Govorova, Benítez, Muñiz, 2020). Chodkiewicz (2018) asserts that educational psychology has witnessed an unprecedented interest in emotions as being ultimately involved in nearly every aspect of the teaching and learning process. Moreover, even though there is increasing

evidence that positive education interventions within education assist in improving wellbeing, this evidence does not show that positive education interventions in complex educational settings are as effective, and less is known about its efficacy (Halliday et al., 2020). As a result, there has been criticism about its effectiveness and efficacy; educationalists think it overlooks contextual variables and overemphasises a positive disposition, while disregarding negative states (Ciarrochi et al., 2016). Furthermore, there is a lack of best positive education implementation frameworks that help in guiding its rapid in the educational field (Conoley et al., 2014). Consequently, to ensure that schools and students benefit from positive education, educators and policy-makers need to ensure that efficient positive education resources are available; also that implementation and practices used within positive education are effectively minimising unintended effects (Halliday et al., 2020). Positive education framework and curriculum need to be unified and defined for schools to ensure uniformity and a standardised effect.

Drawbacks of positive education include its decontextualised, individualistic, ideologically neutral, descriptive and non-dialogic nature (Kristjánsson, 2012). Additionally, a serious weakness with positive education is the issue related to definition and the lack of consensus and clarity with the terms related to positive education, such as ‘happiness’, ‘flourishing’ and ‘wellbeing’ (Belli, 2012; Gray, Beamish & Morey, 2020). The ambiguity in the definition leads to confusion related to what values, ideology, and the notions of a flourishing life positive education teaches and examines. Difficulties arise, however, when an attempt is made to move positive education out of the theoretical state and to operationalise it within education. Therefore, it is important that when exploring efforts of creating positive educational curricula centred around the development of wellbeing, one must contextualise interventions within both positive psychology and more generally among educational matters (Belli, 2012). Within education, it is relevant to ensure a clear definition of values and terms

particularly specific to learning outcomes, goals, and assessment methods. It is also important to address neutrality related to curriculum, subject matter, pedagogy, and school (Halliday et al., 2020).

Another consideration to be examined is whether teaching wellbeing is inextricably value- and morality-bound and whether it has a place in schools (Belli, 2012). According to Halliday et al. (2020), positive education attempts to overcome its ethical and political propositions through focusing on student-centred learning, individual strengths and experiential curriculum without considering the larger context where schooling and learning take place. Perhaps the most serious problem of understanding positive education poses the following crucial questions: Is happiness teachable? Can happiness be an educational outcome? And if so, what is the most productive instructional pedagogy for happiness, and what are its goals and aims? (Belli, 2012).

The ultimate goal of positive education is to increase wellbeing. One problem is that currently positive education's available resources are how-to manuals, practical guides written as if the benefits of positive education and flourishing are unquestionable and self-evident, requiring no interrogation (Halliday et al., 2020). Positive education, at times, incorporates crucial components of relevant pedagogy, such as student-centred, and the accommodation of valuing diverse learning styles. However, it lacks an equally relevant pedagogical aim: assisting students to be incorporated in the broader community along with being individuals with individual strengths and needs (Belli, 2012).

This section looked at the history of positive psychology, positive education, and their critics, identified the supporters and proponents of both constructs. The next section will identify conceptual frameworks and will discuss other concepts associated with the study in more detail such as positive education virtues and character strengths, wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. It will identify the layered theoretical framework associated with the concepts

presented such as positive education theories, wellbeing theories, institutional policies theories, child development and learning policies, and academic self-efficacy theories.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Figure (2.1) below provides a diagrammatic representation to show how the different concepts within the study relate to each other. It outlines how positive education implementation is impacted by many factors associated with context (community), intervention (curriculum/classroom environment), organisation (school leaders), providers (teachers) and recipients (students). Figure (2.1) also provides a representation of the indirect impact of positive education implementation on students' social and emotional wellbeing (SEWB) (measured using questionnaires and Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC)), and academic self-efficacy (measured using Pupil Attitude towards Self and Student (PASS)) through mediating positive education implementation factors such as context (community), intervention (curriculum/class environment), organisation (school leadership), provider (teachers) and recipient (students) factors.

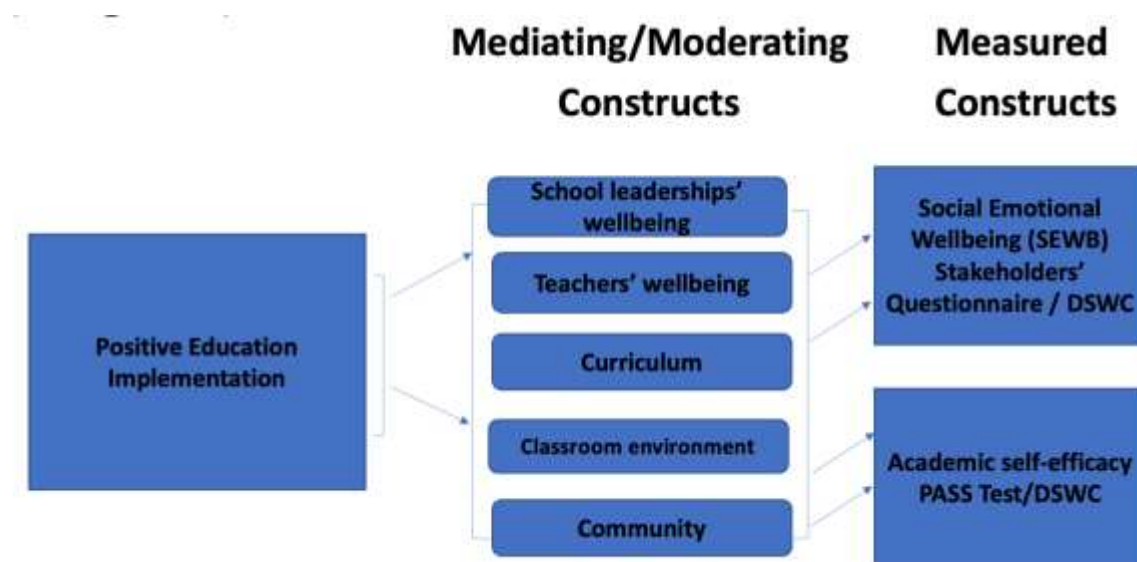


Figure (2. 1): Positive education implementation and impact conceptual framework

Figure (2.1) describes how positive education, which is being currently implemented within Dubai K-12 private schools, impacts the SEWB and academic self-efficacy of students. The author will first study the implementation of positive education using mediating factors. The mediating factors are contextual (community), intervention (curriculum/classroom environment), organisation (school leaders), providers (teachers) and recipients (students). These mediating factors are identified through the school leaderships, teachers, curriculum being taught and how it incorporates positive education, classroom environment, school environment, and parents.

Document analysis of the lesson plans, strategic plans, mission and vision and policies, on the international, national, and local level provide an insight on how the schools' curriculum incorporates positive education. These document analyses show how the factors associated with positive education implementation on the contextual, intervention and school level and how positive education impact the implementation process and students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The author conducted interviews and focus groups with key stakeholders outlined as part of the mediating factors in Figure (2.1); school leaders provide an insight on the policy aspect of implementation and overall impact on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Focus groups with teachers outline the implementation process, curriculum associated with positive education and provide teachers' perceptions of the implementation factors such as resources, training. Teachers also outline their perception of the benefits of the intervention and how positive education impacts the academic self-efficacy and wellbeing. Focus groups of parents and students assert the students' and contextual community's perceptions and involvement in the implementation. These focus groups with students and parents identify elements from the community and school that impact the outputs, in this case positive education implementation, and impact on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Finally, the final column in Figure (2.1) shows what factors will be measured as being impacted by positive

education implementation. It also identifies the tools that will be used for measuring impact such as questionnaires, DSWC and PASS.

The next section outlines and discusses the concepts associated with the current study, identifying aspects related to positive education and positive education literature. Moreover, wellbeing is defined, approaches and types of wellbeing are identified, and literature associated with wellbeing is discussed. The last concept is associated with academic self-efficacy, which is also defined, and aspects associated with self-efficacy are outlined and discussed.

2.4 Literature Review

As was pointed out in the introduction of this chapter, the history of positive psychology and positive education have been discussed, the conceptual framework has been outlined, explained, and supported. In the current section positive education is revisited and explained further. The components associated with the virtues and character strengths of positive education are introduced. The author outlines and critiques the variable positive psychology interventions (PPI), highlights and critiques models of PPI/ positive education implementation and describes the associated factors that impact the implementation (Halliday et al., 2020).

2.4.1 Positive Education

Since its inception, the science of positive education has involved applying positive psychology principles in the context of education (Gray, Beamish & Morey, 2020; Norrish, 2015). Educators and promoters of positive education interventions have considered schools as places where students cultivate emotional virtues, strengths and social competencies in addition to academic skills (Halliday et al., 2019). Positive education has provided pathways to promoting creativity (Waters & White, 2015) and self-management (Kern et al., 2015). It has improved whole institutions, including all stakeholders' optimal flourishing and functioning skills, leading to improved wellbeing (Hendriks et al, 2020; Jamtsho, 2015). PPI have helped individuals, communities and organisations build optimal performance

(Heydariollah, Telpasand & Rahimian, 2019; Kern et al., 2015), drawing to what is going right with individuals' lives rather than concentrating on what is going wrong (Dix et al. 2020; Morrish et al., 2018). PPI and positive education argue that individuals have character strengths that need to be effectively developed in order to enhance subjective (emotional) happiness, and coping with adversity (Macaskill & Denovan, 2013).

Positive education's main curriculum has been based on wellbeing elements outlined in PERMA model, Values in Action (VIA) Signature Character Strengths, and the individual PPI. Developments in positive education have had their roots in the University of Pennsylvania's Masters of Applied Positive Psychology (MAPP) programme (Judice, 2018). PPI which has been used within schools include the use of optimism, strengths, positive emotions, resilience, self-compassion, and positive relations (Carr et al., 2020; Judice, 2018). These interventions have revealed slight to moderate impact in improving wellbeing (Hendriks et al., 2020; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2017). Positive education is a form of Social and Emotional Learning Aspects of Learning (SEAL). The next section introduces SEAL programmes and discusses the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL).

2.4.1.1 Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) and The Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL)

Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) or Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) has arisen from emotional intelligence models and it focuses on positive development, academic and social outcomes in elementary students and early childhood (Ross & Tolan, 2018). After the adoption of SEAL happiness lessons in the US and UK in 2011, positive education was introduced across many schools as a form of SEAL. SEAL theoretical linkages are focused on promoting specific skills and changes in behaviour and are often found in structured classroom environments emulated by teaching and practising processes (Ross & Tolan, 2018). Some of the theories associated with SEL include the following: 'Social Learning Theory', 'Social-Cognitive Theory' and 'Problem Behaviour Theory'. The Collaborative for

Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is a five-construct SEAL model that has been proposed based on research of interventions and development, targeting different personal and social skills (Durlak et al., 2015; Oberle et al., 2016). Most studies associated with the CASEL model have focused on lower elementary school students (Ross & Tolan, 2018). It has become famous in emotional and social competency studies. The five factors of the CASEL model described in Table (2.1) comprise (i) self-management, (ii) self-awareness, (iii) social awareness, (iv) relationship skills, (v) responsible decision-making.

CASEL Factor	Meaning
(i) Self-management	Ability to control behaviours, thoughts and emotions
(ii) Self-awareness	Ability to assess one's emotions and accurately assess one's weaknesses and strengths
(iii) Social awareness	Awareness of the world around us, people's feelings, beliefs and culture
(iv) Relationship skills	Ability to communicate effectively, build working relationships with peers, and meaningful relationships
(v) Responsible decision-making	Ability to plan for the future, follow ethical and moral standards, contribute to others' wellbeing

Table (2. 1): Explanation of CASEL models factors (Adapted from Ross & Tolan, 2018)

The CASEL model claims that these five factors affect most short- and long-term outcomes associated with conduct problems, social behaviour, positive attitudes, emotional distress, graduation rates, engaged citizenship and academic success (Durlak et al., 2015). The

applicability of the CASEL model has been mainly examined within early elementary and preschool populations and more recently has been applied in middle school (Ross & Tolan, 2018).

There is limited applicability of the CASEL model within the context of upper elementary, high school and secondary school (Ross & Tolan, 2018). Furthermore, the CASEL model also presents many limitations. Durlak et al. (2011) state that the CASEL model has not provided robust supporting evidence across adolescence and has not been tested to date in the way it has been in young children. One other weakness of this model is that it has not tested the five factors as a multidimensional measurement, therefore, it is unclear (a) if the factors act as distinct or related components of SEL development, and (b) of the association of the factors and overall model/framework to relevant indicators of social, emotional and academic functioning (Ross & Tolan, 2018). Another argument regarding the CASEL model is the limited number of studies associated with the construct's impact on wellbeing. Since this study is mainly investigating positive education implementation on wellbeing, it is not useful to use it to theoretically underpin the current research. Another weakness of the CASEL model is that it is more associated with mental health and impacts on mental health rather than wellbeing. One other problem with the CASEL model when compared to other SEL models is that some characteristics are lacking. CASEL does not include in its construct reference to the 'Confidence' scale describing positive identity, or the 'Character' scale emphasising personal values, and diversity of values. Also, it lacks reference to the 'Connection' Scale which involves the family, community, and school connection (Ross & Tolan, 2018). The latter scales mentioned are all part of the PERMA model. The current study aims to examine the character, connection and confidence scales and their impact on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Therefore, the PERMA model rather than the CASEL model has been chosen to underpin the positive education and wellbeing concepts that are the key constructs in the current study. This

PERMA model is part of the theoretical framework underpinning positive education in the current study.

2.4.1.2 Character Strengths and Values in Action (VIA)

Positive traits that have been encompassed as part of positive education include moral character traits, character strengths, resiliency, and virtues. In 2004, Peterson and Seligman, the forefathers of positive education, introduced moral character traits through the introduction of the ‘Values In Action’ project (Judice, 2018). This project introduced 24 measurable character strengths or virtues which are important constituents of eudaimonia, by drawing on a number of empirical researches, and surveying major world philosophies and religions, as well as psychological theories such as Thorndike character theories, Kohlberg’s moral reasoning stages, Erickson psychosocial stages, and multiple intelligence theories of positive education by Gardner (Kristjánsson, 2012). Eudaimonia defines happiness in terms of the individual’s function within the society (Deci & Ryan, 2008). They tried to identify strengths that would lead to high achievement and social virtues desired by teachers, students, parents, friends and siblings to build meaningful relationships (Coulombe, Hardy & Goldfarb, 2020; Park & Peterson, 2009). In identifying the character strengths and virtues of positive education’s positive traits, positive psychologists have argued that the ‘Big Five traits’ initially introduced through personal and moral research are too broad to be meaningfully used in setting individuals from one another (Kristjánsson, 2012). Positive psychologists have also argued that the ‘Big Five traits’ only measure the moral component of the character strengths (Park & Peterson, 2009). ‘Big Five traits’ theory was developed in 1949 by D.W.Fiske and has been modified since by many researchers to pin down character. It underpins five traits to describe individuals’ personality such as “Openness”, “Conscientiousness”, “Extraversion”, “Agreeableness”, and “Neuroticism”. Positive education has been built on the idea that good moral character is not inborn, but rather it can be cultivated through supplying empirical and

conceptual tools to craft appropriate interventions (Seligman, 2011). Positive education lessons have been designed to cultivate both (a) positive traits and dispositions, and (b) positive emotions and forms of pleasant experiences (Hendriks et al., 2020; Kristjánsson, 2012). Positive traits have encompassed moral character traits such as character strengths, resiliency and virtues (Judice, 2018).

As mentioned earlier, Christopher Peterson and Martin Seligman in 2000 formed the Values in Action (VIA) Institute (Kristjánsson, 2012). The purpose of the VIA Institute was to provide empirical and conceptual means to describe positive adolescence development, and to use and identify strengths (Judice, 2018). VIA Classification of Character Strengths regards positive character constructs as a group of positive factors which include kindness, teamwork, perspective and hope (Seligman, 2011). Virtue as a term has referred to acquired valuable traits and characteristics that are beneficial to have and possess, while character strengths has been described as psychological mechanisms and processes that define virtues (Stichter & Saunders, 2019). As part of the VIA model, six virtues have been defined, and have been linked to 24 taxonomic character strengths, where each virtue forms a hierarchy with three to five character strengths (Stichter & Saunders, 2019).

Researchers such as Snow and Miller have evaluated the VIA model and have raised some issues related to it; Miller, regarding the role virtues play within the VIA model (McGrath, 2018). However, one of the main issues has been the lack of clarity between the connections among virtues and character strengths (Stichter & Saunders, 2019). In discussing this, researchers have explained that there are a number of possible ways virtues and character strengths could become related. However, these connections have not been free of problems and as a result the role virtue levels play within the VIA model has not been clear. Furthermore, Stichter and Saunders (2019) argued that one factor analysis presents some doubt related to many-to-one association provided by the VIA model (having one virtue encompass a number

of character strengths). Miller and Snow have pointed out that the VIA classification system does not stem directly from theoretical VIA researchers' commitment, rather from directly emerging from the empirical research (Kristjánsson, 2013). Another problem with the model and virtues has been the specific terms and meaning associated with virtues, as well as the variation in this meaning cross-culturally, due to the way these virtues are situated within specific metaphysical practices and narratives (Kristjánsson, 2013). However, McGrath, Greenberg and Hall-Simmonds (2018) pointed out that the VIA model is cross-culturally universal, in spite of the varying meanings of the virtues. Virtues have always required the exhibition of the right feelings, motivations and thoughts to a certain degree and not just acting correctly (McGrath, Greenberg & Hall-Simmonds, 2018). According to Aristotelian theorists, character strengths exist along with character weaknesses (Kristjánsson, 2013). McGrath, Greenberg and Hall-Simmonds (2018) stated that the VIA model does not exhibit consistent alignment with the Aristotelian moral model: that most of the character strengths that have emerged from the VIA model have no specific moral focus, and thus do not require moral justification, similar to eudemonia. They have further stated that virtues and character strengths have been directed at various analysis levels and thus it is not an issue that these virtues and strengths are not conceptually related.

Before proceeding to examine character strengths and virtues, it is important to identify the relationship between character strengths and PPI. When examining PPI and its relationship with character strengths, Judice (2018) has empirically validated PPI, and has shown that character strengths can be increased. He also showed that PPI can assist in the decrease of suffering when used to supplement conventional interventions. Proyer et al. (2014) stated that character strengths' measurement has allowed for targeted interventions among aged individuals; similar outcome has been yielded with PPI among younger individuals.

Having discussed how PPI has been associated with character strengths, the next section will address and clearly define the character strengths and virtues, and outline the difference between them. Another construct of Seligman's character strengths work has been associated with virtues. While character strengths have been defined as the psychological processes, ingredients and mechanisms that define virtues, virtues have been defined as acquired traits or character and valuable characteristics which are good to possess and seem good to represent abstract categories (Stichter & Saunders, 2019). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2014) posited that cultures often show attention to qualities related to life which are deemed as virtues. The virtues of spirituality, patience, and suffering have been underscored; however, they are important and are suggested to have been integrated into spiritual and religious traditions (Schnitker & Emmons, 2017). Martin Seligman's genetic/secular positive psychology approach has been compared to Thomas Aquinas's virtue theory; the two approaches have offered good research and significant practices when dealing with character strengths and flourishing (Titus, 2017). Positive education has viewed the virtue of forgiveness as being significant and mattering a great deal (Manne et al., 2015). Virtues such as humility, gratitude, and patience have shown as overarching factors and shared undergirding mechanism (Luna, Lindsey & Van Tongeren, 2017). Furthermore, attention must be given to the highlighting of virtues, and the relational element in the formation of happiness (Crespo & Mesurado, 2015), while the virtue of humility must be empirically reviewed within the science of positive education (Hill & Sandage, 2016).

Although resiliency has many definitions, the one that guides the current research defines resiliency as the set of processes that allow individuals to have the ability to recover from adversity, and persist against challenges (Reivich & Gillham, 2010). Seligman (2011) posited that resiliency can be guided through regular processes, which can be taught, and these processes can contribute to the positive development of adolescents. Reivich and Gillham

(2010) stated that resiliency can offset associated risk factors within adolescents, through the development of strong problem-solving skills, cognitive abilities, childhood and adolescence adaptability, positive self-efficacy, self-perception, strong self-regulation, and the development of a sense of meaning, faith, hope, optimism, and exhibiting talents that are valued by others. Self-efficacy, self-regulation, and optimism have been viewed as skills that can be trained through skill-based programmes (Seligman et al., 2009). Increased resiliency has led to improved psychological wellbeing, increased academic success and stronger positive social relationships (Reivich & Gillham, 2010).

2.4.1.3 Positive Psychology Interventions (PPI) in Schools

Thus far, this chapter has discussed the history of positive psychology and positive education, has defined positive education, has introduced the conceptual framework underpinning the current study, has reflected on the components of the VIA model and its character strengths and virtues, and has outlined how virtues and character strengths are associated with positive education and the current study. In this section, PPI within education are introduced, defined, and discussed. Progressively, schools have been tasked with improving students' happiness, fostering students' optimal functioning, increasing wellbeing, enhancing social skills, supporting students' self-image and equipping them with higher cognitive skills levels (Lambert et al., 2020; Schnoert-Reichl et al., 2015). These calls for the transformation of schools' teaching practices and curriculum have aimed to increase the schools' roles in supporting positive youth mental health development and developing the holistic child. These calls have also initiated a shift in the policies and rhetoric of most governments world-wide (Askill-Williams et al., 2013; Cheney et al., 2014). The Council of Australian Governments (2012) pledged additional support for positive education and wellbeing initiatives within youth programmes in schools, such as the 'wellbeing for schools' initiative released in 2015 by the NSW Department of Education (Department of Education NSW, 2015). This initiative includes

a Wellbeing Framework for school administrators and teachers. Globally, similar policy modifications are taking place. One of these modifications includes the introduction of the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) programmes in the UK (Downey & Williams, 2011), and the Collaborative for Academic Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) (Jones & Bouffard, 2012) in the US. Moreover, according to Cefai and Cavioni (2015), promotion of wellbeing in Western education systems has become a permanent fixture.

As stated earlier in this chapter, a number of researchers have identified schools as the ideal place for interventions that support the social and emotional development of young people (Bothe, Grignon & Olness, 2014; Nielsen et al., 2015). Some key arguments in support of the implementation of PPI in schools have been due to the large percentage of time spent at school by young individuals (Seligman et al., 2009). First, schools have always offered substantial opportunities to cover the biggest possible population of young individuals and children (Nielsen et al., 2015). Secondly, the integration of these PPI within school can be cost-effective, since existing personnel and resources can be used to reduce the extra expense associated with implementing new initiatives (Bothe, Grignon & Olness, 2014). Third, school-based PPI have offered an opportunity for effective and timely support and help to a wider scope of young individuals in need, by breaking down the practical, cultural and financial barriers associated with youth's use of external mental health services (Casslerly, 2013). Finally, schools have been the places where young students experience most of the ups and downs of life and can therefore be supported to learn better ways of coping. Therefore, having PPI implemented within the school context allows PPI techniques to be modelled within a setting in which students can apply these PPI and can be supported during the application of PPI (Miller et al., 2010). Cheney et al. (2014) assert that schools provide environments for learning, therefore, students are accustomed to new techniques and skills at school, making them theoretically more ready and open to engage in PPI in a school setting.

Turning now to the historical evidence of the presence of PPI, this section looks at how today's school-based psychological interventions have emerged. PPI are not new to schools and have existed since the 1930s (Chodkiewicz, 2018). However, Shankland and Rosset (2016) asserted that the rise of the use of positive psychology has led to new PPI promotion within schools and the evolution of positive education. The recent school-based PPI are varied and diverse, but share a common goal. The main aim of PPI have been to enhance the developmental nature of young individuals and assist in addressing future issues through teaching (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Recently, there has been strong support for PPI implementation in schools. Vella-Brodrick (2011) asserted that positive education has transformed and will continue to transform educational institutions into environments where behaviours associated with optimism, empathy, self-efficacy, resiliency and creativity are cultivated, appreciated, and identified. Similarly, Cefai and Cavioni (2015) pointed out that PPI have led to the formation and promotion of socially, emotionally and academically literate young students who have the abilities, emotional resilience and skills needed to thrive within the challenging global world.

The section has analysed the history of PPI and has argued the importance and impact of PPI on students within schools. The following part of this paper moves to describe in greater detail the different forms of PPI that exist in positive education. The Penn Resiliency Programme for Children and Adolescents (PRP-CA) is considered as one of the most investigated PPI to date. The PRP-CA programme has been described as a documented school-based curriculum teaching Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) techniques, relaxation skills and social problem-solving techniques. It includes 18 hours of student instruction, normally run in groups of up to fifteen students. Sessions involve worksheets, games and class discussions. This PPI has aimed to promote resilience and build adaptive coping skills and realistic thinking (Chodkiewicz, 2018). PRP-CA has been implemented as a school-based intervention that aims to enhance overall wellbeing within youth and improve resiliency, using

goals and factors that target the enhancement of general youth wellbeing and problem-solving skills (Reivich & Gillham, 2010). It includes a set of intrapersonal abilities and factors that seem to improve overall resilience (Chodkiewicz, 2018). PRP-CA has targeted protective factors such as: emotional awareness and regulation, impulse control, cognitive flexibility, realistic optimism and strong relationships (Reivich & Gillham, 2010), as explained in Table (2.2). The cognitive components of PRP-CA comprise several skills and concepts derived from cognitive therapy; central to these components is the Albert Ellis' ABC model (1962) which presents the notion that an individual's beliefs about events impact their emotions and behaviour (Reivich & Gillham, 2010). When using PRP-CA interventions, students have been taught to evaluate and monitor their beliefs and the accuracy of these beliefs through the use of therapy developed by Beck and his colleagues, where the emphasis has been on enhancing cognitive flexibility, self-efficacy and optimism (Reivich & Gillham, 2010). PRP was structured on the ABC model of propositive education by Albert Ellis (1962), which proposes that different individuals respond and feel differently about exact events due to idiosyncratic dogmas. According to Albert Ellis's ABC model, each letter stands for an event or consequence, for instance activating events are represented by the letter 'A', thoughts and beliefs are represented by the letter 'B', consequences are represented by the letter 'C'. Ellis argued that activating instances are not a direct result of the behaviours and emotions that a person experience, which represent the consequences; rather these events are a result of the beliefs and thoughts we have about these instances. These instances have mediated our feelings and behaviours (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

PRP-CA Factors	Explanation
Emotional awareness and regulation	Ability to identify, express, label and control emotion when appropriate
Impulse control	Ability to classify and resist counter-productive impulses within a situation for a long-term goal achievement
Cognitive flexibility	Ability to ascertain multiple reasons for problems and to view situations from multiple perspectives
Realistic optimism	Ability to think optimistically and implementing problem-solving and coping skills that are well-suited for the situation
Strong relationships	Ability to navigate fluctuations of relationships and empathize with others

Table (2. 2): Explanation of the PRP-CA factors (Adapted from Reivich & Gillham, 2010)

Another PPI that has been notably implemented in school is the FRIENDS programme, which is an acronym for: ‘Feelings, Remember to relax, I can try my best, Explore solutions and coping step plan, Now reward yourself, Do it every day, and Smile’ (FRIENDS). Similar to the PRP-CA, the FRIENDS programme uses CBT techniques, where it teaches self-regulation, emotional awareness, promotes problem-solving skills and challenges thoughts that lead to anxiety. It consists of about nine hour-long classes, usually delivered as part of whole class groups, which are documented as part of a teacher manual and student handbook (Stallard et al., 2014).

A third PPI is the Body, Reflections, Emotions, Attention, Tenderness and Healthy habits (BREATHE (L2B)) learning mindfulness curriculum which has been developed for adolescents to assist them understand their feelings and thoughts, as well as managing negative

emotions (Broderick, 2013). The BREATHE curriculum consists of six hour-long sessions, and was designed to be implemented as a whole-class group. Classes include group sessions and discussions, mindfulness practices and meditation activities. CDs and student handbooks are usually given, to encourage meditation exercises at home.

Other sets of PPI have involved a more simplistic approach to supporting students' wellbeing within schools. These approaches have included reflection diary interventions where students use time to draw on a daily basis for set time. Owens and Patterson (2013) studied 5-11 year old students, dividing them into three groups: one group was asked to draw pictures of things which they are grateful for, another group to depict their best-possible self, while a third group was simply asked to draw conditions aimed at improving students' experiences of life-satisfaction levels, global self-esteem and positive emotions (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

Another classic entire-school PPI which involved a whole-school approach of introducing positive education is the Geelong Grammar School programme. The Geelong Grammar School is a K-12 private school with both primary and secondary students, which serves as boarding school with about 1500 students living across four campuses in Victoria, Australia (Seligman et al., 2009). The school's management in 2008 invited University of Pennsylvania positive psychology scholars to develop a holistic entire-school approach to improve students' wellbeing. Some of the scholars and researchers travelled to the school, some remaining for a long time as residents and others visiting to professionally develop staff and teachers on the implementation of positive teaching practices, positive curriculum, PPI, and other subjects associated with positive emotions and strengths. The implementation of the positive education programme involved the entire school and across all grades. Some of the PPI included secondary phase students attending classes on character strengths, which would introduce the research and theory related to certain character strengths and they were asked to write specific times where they have exhibited their own character strengths. Other subjects

included kindness, positive emotions and the use of the Albert Ellis (1962) theory in order to develop resilient and realistic coping approaches. Students actively engaged in practical positive psychology exercises related to each approach.

In summary, it has been shown that although PPI vary greatly in the way they have been approached by positive psychologists and educationalists, parallel themes across these PPIs have been identified. First, most of the school-based PPI have been focused on early adolescence and late childhood. Kanwal, Jung and Zhang (2016) attribute the latter trend to the greater understanding of the neural plasticity related to youth. Late childhood and early adolescence are considered as a time when young brains are in the process of development and become more engaged in thought restructuring, internal reflection, and cognitive demands, all of which are associated with PPI (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2015). Concurrently, young students exhibit a level of willingness and malleability to change, which is not often observed in older adults, where patterns of thoughts become increasingly engrained (Lerner et al., 2010). Chodkiewicz (2018) has stated that the adolescence period of development is considered a crucial turning point, with a time of noticeable decline in some students' learning motivation and with having an increased risk of facing life challenges and serious difficulties (Bakadorova & Raufelder, 2014; Madden, Green & Grant, 2011). One benefit of using PPI during the late childhood and early adolescence period has been that these programmes which teach adaptive skills become instrumental in assisting young children and students to manoeuvre through their challenging adolescent period (Horn, Pössel & Hautzinger, 2011).

Another significant aspect of PPI that has been highlighted is that most school-based PPI have been implemented for limited durations – usually between six to ten sessions (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2016; Suldo et al., 2015). The PRP-CA is an exception, with a total of 18 hours of classes (Challen, Machin & Gillham, 2014); so is the Aussie Optimism programme with 20 hours of classes (Roberts et al., 2010), and the Positive Action Programme with 140

hours (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Chodkiewicz and Boyle (2016) stated that these types of long programmes are viewed as time-consuming and impractical to logistically fit into the full school curriculum. In addition, it is important to point out that PPI have usually been firmly grounded in either dual or single theoretical frameworks (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Most of the PPI have been modelled based on CBT (Collins, Woolfson & Durkin, 2014; Woods & Pooley, 2015), since CBT is the most widely utilised therapeutic psychological intervention in schools and usually has exhibited a positive impact on adolescents' mental health (Dawood, 2013). Nevertheless, positive educationalists should consider other models, which include strength-focused coaching (Seligman et al., 2009), solution-based therapy (Madden, Green & Grant, 2011), attribution retraining (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2016) and mindfulness (Bluth et al., 2016). In contrast to PPI, more recently contemporary scientists have started to create more variable interventions (Azeez, 2015; Waters et al., 2015). These scientists are still a minority. Stice et al. (2010) have suggested that PPI where teaching involves a tiny number of ideas tend to be often the most effective. Finally, the downside of PPI has been that they adhere to a single theoretical framework which provides limited possible skills and accessible techniques to students (Chodkiewicz, 2018). The single theoretical framework has shown an assumption that is naïve, that positive development among students can be only stimulated by using one-size-fits-all interventions (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Ng (2015) stated that researchers have identified that individual differences (such as adherence to interventions, motivation and personality) moderate the effects of PPI. Furthermore, researchers have argued that not a single PPI has been considered optimal for all involved and that school-based PPI must be diverse and rich as the population they serve to inspire (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Therefore, when designing PPI for the future, school practitioners and researchers must investigate and look more widely at what has worked previously, which will allow educationalists to develop more variable PPI that do

not focus on single skills, but endow students with a toolkit of techniques to pick from, allowing them to fortify and enrich their lives.

Finally, most of the positive education work has focused on the student level. PPI have been designed to alter students' coping patterns and thinking skills, mostly without efforts being used to engage the students' wider educational community including the home environment (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Context plays a pivotal role in shaping an individual's wellbeing; thus, Lomas (2015) argued that PPI must increase efforts to engage the student's micro- and meso-systems. Seligman et al. (2009) pointed out a PPI which considered the whole-school approach, and which has been successful in engaging the wider community of the student, which is the Geelong Grammar School project, conducted in an Australian private school. Although the Geelong Grammar School project may be considered as an ideal PPI, one must realise that teachers had to attend training workshops for nine days with ongoing lectures, and where visiting scholars and fulltime researchers were on site to support staff throughout the entire year (Chodkiewicz, 2018). One problem of the Geelong Grammar School approach is that other educational systems may not be able to logistically implement the whole school community initiative due to various financial and logistical reasons. As a result, educationalists need to search for existing shorter and less resource-intensive PPI and how these PPI impact can be widened and modified. Herman et al. (2011) included parent workshops and teaching coaching session as criteria to increase the effect of PPI beyond the student, but this approach has not been adopted widely yet.

2.4.1.4 Evaluating PPI Efficacy and Effectiveness

Since PPI's adoption in the 1990s, interest has grown in both school education and psychology fields towards evidence-based implementation practices (Cook & Odom, 2013). Researchers must scientifically evaluate PPI in order to establish that it reliably impacts students' outcomes. In spite of extensive recognition that PPIs require a solid and strong

evidence-base prior to their implementation within schools; until now there has been limited consensus about the exact quantity and form of evidence needed (Chodkiewicz, 2018). The majority of researchers to date have utilized a positivistic approach, solely relying on quantitative data methods for analysis in order to evaluate PPI efficacy (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Evidence related to PPI efficacy show links between PPI and wellbeing (Manicavasagar et al., 2014; Schonert-Reichl et al., 2015), life satisfaction (Kwok, Gu & Kit, 2016; Suldo et al., 2015), academic achievement (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2016; Shoshani, Stenimetz & Kanat-Maymon., 2016), self-esteem (Azeez, 2015; Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014), anxiety (Warner et al., 2016), and depression (Bennett & Dorjee, 2015). These studies have also been key in identifying PPI outcomes that can be substantiated scientifically or have demonstrated over time the maintenance of student outcomes (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

PPI efficacy evaluation has provided findings that are largely mixed and incongruent, and justification for such incongruity could be attributed to research methodologies discrepancy (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2014). Positive education has been an umbrella term encompassing an array of alternative approaches, techniques, and theories (Vella-Brodrick, 2011). Therefore, PPI have been varied in their instructional methodology and theoretical scope (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Another problem with PPI is that even if the interventions share a common theoretical framework, they sometimes vary greatly in their presentation and form. For instance, while one intervention has followed a group discussion style based on specifically designed handbooks (Boyle et al., 2011), another intervention may have used role-plays and games to engage students (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2015); a different intervention may have utilised a web-based platform (Manicavasagar et al., 2014). These challenges show a lack of consistency in the pedagogy involved in implementing PPI. Another issue that may have arisen is the length of the PPI and how it may vary greatly among different programmes, ranging from one week (Owens & Patterson, 2013) to six months (Madden, Green & Grant, 2011). Lastly,

there has been no standardised agreement among positive educationalists as to what should be monitored or how these outcomes would be measured. Fabiano et al. (2014) and Zack et al. (2014) stated that across PPI research, various academic and psychological constructs have been assessed, using different constructs definitions and variable measurement tools, to evaluate PPI.

A large amount of PPI research has been compared using systematic meta-analysis; these reviews have presented evidence that PPI have assisted students to thrive (Waters, 2011). Around 74 studies were published between 1977 and 2008, which revealed that about 96% of wellbeing and 80% of depression were positively impacted by PPI. Chodkiewicz (2018) discussed the effect of size across research and concluded that PPI have not only worked, but they have worked very well, and they have been more effective than using standard psychological treatments. Similarly, Neil and Christensen's meta-analysis of 27 randomised controlled research trials carried out between 1987 and 2008 have shown that three-quarters of the studies supported school-based PPI where anxiety symptoms decreased among young adolescents (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Lastly, Waters (2011) carefully studied a broad range of selected research to review the broad spectrum impact of school-based PPI using large samples and encompassing five PPI foci (hope, serenity, character strength, resilience, and gratitude). According to the twelve PPI reviewed, Waters (2011) concluded about the efficacy of PPI in schools: "taken together, the results are significant, robust and promising" (p.83).

Determining PPI efficacy is considered an important step when evaluating and developing an intervention. Even though to date research has been optimistic, pointing out the potential benefits of PPI, there have been mixed findings in research at the individual level of each study and there has been huge variability among individual PPI (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Therefore, it has been essential to evaluate the PPI to verify the extent and nature of any significant positive effects on students.

As researchers study and develop PPI, efficacy evaluation of the PPI is only considered as the first step. Chodkiewicz (2018) asserted that it is just as vital to study whether the PPI has been effective as that it has been implemented within real-world conditions. Durlak (2015) stated that when evaluating the effectiveness of programmes, it is important to ensure to look at well-implemented evidence-based programmes and not use evidence related to the programmes as being effective. Some researchers assert that numerous PPI have not bridged the gap between effectiveness and efficacy, thus resulting in decreased positive impacts (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Therefore, researchers would benefit from conducting evaluations of PPI effectiveness to identify the impact of PPI implementation by teachers in schools. Typically, teachers have been responsible for running these PPI implementations (Sanetti, Dobey & Gallucci, 2014). Baker et al. (2012) identified logistical and theoretical advantages when teachers implement PPI. The use of teachers has reduced the cost associated with PPI implementation, maximised the exposure of students to PPI ideas and increased the sustainability chances of PPI across time, since the teacher is considered to have a consistent classroom presence (Baweja et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2010). Sanetti, Dobey and Gallucci (2014) and Pas and Bradshaw (2012) raised concerns related to the classroom teachers' ability to effectively implement PPI. Urhahne et al. (2011) claimed that teachers are often not trained to concentrate on areas of students' learning outside student achievement. Another problem that has been identified in the literature is that teachers usually have limited available time to implement the PPI and typically have juggled a number of competing academic priorities and non-academic tasks (Long et al., 2016; Pinkelman et al., 2015). Moreover, there have been teachers' individual variations related to self-efficacy beliefs, teachers' understanding of the intervention, and motivation to correctly implement the intervention. These individual differences have been associated with a difference in the quality of the implementation of PPI (Castro-Villarreal, Rodriguez, & Moore, 2014; Villarreal, Ponce & Gutierrez, 2015).

Mixed outcomes have been linked to individual research which evaluated the effectiveness of interventions implemented by teachers. Shoshani, Steinmetz and Kanat-Maymon (2016), and Collins, Woolfson and Durkin (2014) showed that teachers are effectively capable of implementing PPI within their classrooms environments. Others such as Stallard et al. (2014) and Challen, Machin and Gillham (2014) determined that teacher-led PPI are not as effective as those led by health professionals and researchers. Stockings et al. (2016) and colleagues examining individual studies and meta-analyses studies to date concluded that if teachers are well supported, they can effectively teach school-based PPI.

However, one of the problems that presents itself as a result of the diversity of school-based PPI is the fact that researchers may oversimplify the question of whether or not teachers can/cannot effectively implement PPI. Thus, researchers would rather benefit from examining individual PPI and ask themselves questions such as, ‘How can teachers effectively implement this particular PPI?’ There have been different inherent factors within a PPI that may affect the effectiveness of the implementation process by the teachers. For instance, PPI that are simple to do such as writing a gratitude diary (Schuitema, Peetsma & Van der Veen, 2014); provide easy instructions to follow and that are clear (Collins, Woolfson & Durkin 2014); and offer ongoing professional development (Shoshani, Steinmetz & Kanat-Maymon., 2016), which may be easy for teachers to implement, rather than those PPI that have required extensive professional development (Challen, Machin & Gillham, 2014) or have stopped support during or before the PPI (Vickery & Dorjee, 2016). The factors that have been mentioned in this section show the need for evaluation of the effectiveness of the PPI as an essential step in its development and implementation.

2.4.1.5 Incorporating Student Perceptions in PPI Evaluations

With respect to looking at the efficacy and effectiveness of the PPI from different stakeholders’ perspectives as presented above, the author has felt that it is important to also

examine the evaluation of the PPI from the point of view of the student. School-based PPI evaluations have been normally based on a positivistic paradigm, which has relied entirely on quantitative methodologies (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Although these positivistic paradigm evaluations provide a central base of evidence that support PPI claims, these evaluations have had many limitations. One of the limitations of such evaluations has been the constraint to test only a group of pre-determined outcomes associated with students, essentially missing other positive impacts linked directly to the PPI. Furthermore, these evaluations have depended on pooling students' data, which have usually masked individual differences among students and thus have resulted in relevant benefits and impacts being missed (Chodkiewicz, 2018). However, the interpretivist approach has offered an alternative paradigm for PPI evaluation, since it has considered a humanistic paradigm which has relied mostly on qualitative data (Babones, 2016). Evaluations using open-ended questions about participants' and students' experience regarding PPI outcomes have highlighted extensive PPI outcomes, and potential individual variation influence on these outcomes (Kellock, 2020; Lam, 2016). Stanbridge and Campbell (2016) claimed that research has shown the prevalence of the student voice in assisting in the implementation, design and evaluation of PPI. Interpretivist paradigm data collection forms have gained recognition (Macdonald et al., 2014; Pernebo & Almqvist, 2016). Recently within the field a wider number of researchers have collected qualitative data for the evaluation of school-based PPI (Dariotis et al., 2016). Biggeri and Santi (2012) assert that students can take decisions at various times from those made on their behalf than adults. Domínguez-Serrano, Moral-Espin & Galvez Munoz (2019) suggest involving students can present significant social and cultural elements within their contexts.

Over a long period of time the interpretivist and positivist research approaches have been considered as opposing paradigms, with researchers emphasising exclusively on one form of research (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Contemporary researchers have started to see the two

approaches as being modern, with both qualitative and quantitative methodologies in a combined mixed-method approach. Researchers in the field of positive education have only more recently embraced the mixed-method approach (Tashokkori, Teddlie & Sines, 2012), in spite of its initial valuable evidence as it has been used within school mindfulness research (Bluth et al., 2016; Vickery & Dorjee, 2016). Therefore, Chodkiewicz (2018) has proposed that future PPI evaluations should involve an interpretivist and positivist approach in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the PPI.

One new development in the field of positive education has been the emergence of an approach referred to as the mixed-research synthesis, defined by Sandelowski, Voils and Barasso (2006) as “the type of systematic review aimed at the integration of results from qualitative and quantitative studies in a shared domain of empirical research” (p. 29). With mixed-method research, data is collected, both quantitative and qualitative, from a single study. With mixed-research synthesis, data is extracted from a few quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method primary articles (Heyvaert, Maes, & Onghena, 2013). There are many potential benefits from using mixed-research synthesis, but in spite of these potential benefits, researchers report that the integration of mixed-method approaches in studies remains limited (Fetters, Curry and Creswell, 2013). Chodkiewicz (2018) states that future researchers should not only use variable data collection techniques in a single research study, but should also use a mixed-research synthesis approach to use mixed forms of data from a number of studies.

2.4.2 Evaluating Positive Psychology Interventions implementation within schools

The following part of this chapter moves on to describe in greater detail the implementation of PPI. Even if PPI turn out to be both effective and efficacious, Mohammadi, Rowling and Nutbeam (2010) and Sanetti, Dobey and Gallucci (2014) have discussed the importance of still implementing these PPI in schools and studying whether they have meaningful and wide impact. One other issue to be mindful of has been that even if PPI have

been implemented within schools, they have not always been implemented correctly (Evans, Murphy, & Scourfield, 2015). Atkins et al. (2016) attribute poor implementation of PPI on the way these interventions have been disseminated and designed rather on the failure of the teachers and schools to effectively implement the PPI. Other researchers such as Durlak and DuPre have claimed that it is not sufficient for researchers to design an intervention and expect its implementation to be effective and wide (Chodkiewicz, 2018). It is necessary for researchers to be knowledgeable of the target settings and subjects and comprehend the constructs that hinder and promote the successful implementation of a school-based PPI (Mohammadi, Rowling & Nutbeam, 2010).

The field of implementation science has been developed to provide a greater understanding of the multileveled complex nature of implementation and has assisted in identifying prospective obstacles that may lead to ineffective implementation across various settings. It has aimed to enhance the evidence-based long-lasting and real impact practices (Halliday et al., 2020; Paul, 2015). Few frameworks of implementation science have been proposed that underline the complexity of implementation on the child level, organisation level, family level, and system level (Southam-Gerrow & Dorsey, 2014). Fixsen et al. (2005) developed a well-recognised model, which identified the factors and processes that are essential to transform scientific developments and implementations into real-world practices. It comprises four key implementation stages: exploration, installation, initial and full implementation; these stages require several core drivers, characterised as: competency, leadership and organisation. The Fixsen and colleagues' model has identified the complexity of the implementation process and the importance of different elements at various stages and levels (Bertram, Blasé & Fixsen, 2015). A similar implementation conceptual model of positive education by Aarons, Hurlburt, and Horwitz (2011) includes four key parts: exploration, active implementation, preparation and sustainment. Aarons and colleagues have identified each

stage factor as either falling within an ‘inner’ or ‘outer’ context. The model of positive education by Aarons and colleagues has clearly identified that within each process of implementation, various variables may play a critical role in determining the implementation process effectiveness (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Aarons, Hurlburt, and Horwitz (2011) suggested a heuristic model consisting of four nested components: the larger environment, group, organisation, and individual. At each one of these levels, the model has delineated three different but interrelated outcomes: service, implementation and client. The latter Aarons and colleagues’ model has been proposed to distinguish and at the same time link, key implementation outcomes and processes. Olswang and Prelock (2015) clarified that although common constructs may emerge among the different models discussed in the field of implementation science, there remains variation among the specific theoretical orientations with each model. The variations across the models have been influenced by the individual research field characteristics in which it has been developed (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

The Dynamic Model of Educational Effectiveness (DMEE) model has been proposed in the field of education (Chodkiewicz, 2018). It has identified four hierarchical levels in which an intervention effectiveness can be shaped: regional, school, classroom, teacher, and student. Figure (2.2) presents the constructs within each level of the DMEE.

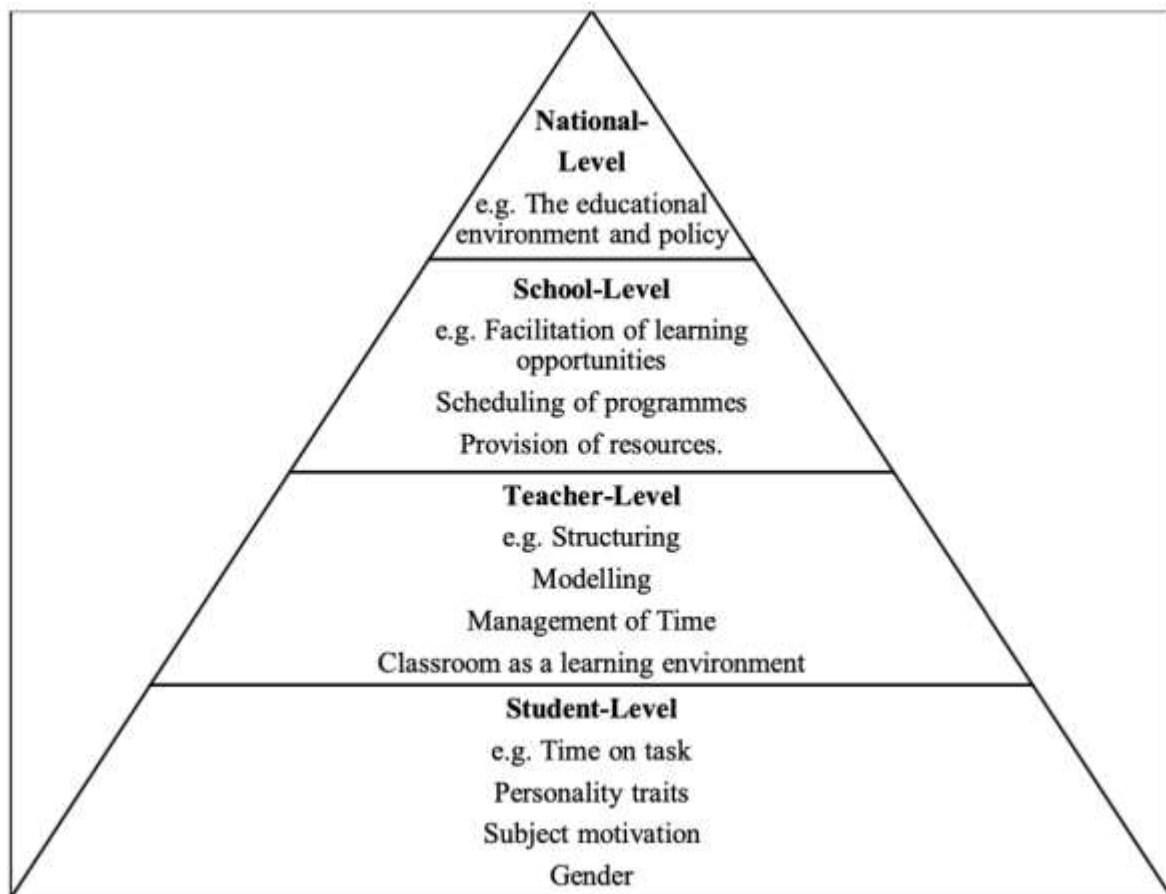


Figure (2. 2): Different constructs within each Level of the DMEE model of PPI implementation (Adopted from Chodkiewicz, 2018).

Within the positive education field, researchers have identified key constructs that have hindered or fostered the successful implementation of school-based PPI. Few of these constructs overlap with the DMEE constructs; most of these constructs have been placed in the three bottom levels of the DMEE hierarchy (Chodkiewicz, 2018). The school-level constructs have included access to resources, leadership support and commitment, simultaneous implementation of multiple PPI, and alignment with the school philosophy (Askill-Williams et al., 2013; Fabiano et al., 2014). The teacher-level constructs have included teachers' buy-in, experience and knowledge, self-efficacy, competing priorities, intervention adaptation and time (Baweja et al., 2015; Castro-Villarreal et al., 2014). The student-level constructs have included invested time spent on the task, parental engagement, and student involvement (Cefai & Cavioni, 2015; Stallard et al., 2014).

Researchers have tried to identify constructs that hinder or promote school-based PPI implementation in order to tailor the dissemination means of the intervention and the development of intervention to ensure efficacious and effective implementation that has been maintained within real-world settings. Pinkelman et al. (2015) claimed that previous studies have shown that finding time as part of the school calendar to schedule the PPI is a crucial barrier to the successful school-based implementation of PPI. Therefore, brief and short PPI have been more likely to be implemented successfully than lengthy PPI (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Similarly, previous studies have highlighted concerns over teachers' pre-existing knowledge about PPI implementation, which suggests that providing teachers with high-quality professional development carries a high value (Bearman et al., 2015; Evans, Murphy, & Scourfield, 2015).

Even though previous studies can assist in providing the general guidelines related to the constructs that influence PPI implementation, these constructs can differ among individual programmes. For instance, PPI which teach complex skills require larger resource allocation and demand significant time spent by teachers to prepare for PPI sessions, compared to brief simple skills' PPI that are associated with easy-to-follow teachers' instructions. Correspondingly, practices that have been utilised to overcome difficulties to successful PPI implementation may function for some PPI, but not for others. For example, extensive professional development of teachers has been viewed as effectively leading to successful PPI implementation (Shoshani, Steinmetz & Kanat-Maymon, 2016), however, not as part of the PRP-CA which was studied by Challen, Machin and Gillham (2014). Therefore, researchers should consider the main constructs that affect the PPI implementation and investigate these constructs via case studies, along with effectiveness and efficacy studies (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Growing research evidence has claimed that school-based PPI can promote increased positive students' developmental trajectories, which will lead to improved academic achievement,

wellbeing and mental health. However, there has been definitely an unavoidable gap between educational practice and research theory where PPI have often not been correctly or routinely implemented within educational environments (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

2.4.3 Implementation Science of Positive Education

The current study's main purpose is to study the impact of positive education implementation within educational settings on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. However, prior to investigating the impact of positive education programmes on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, educationalists must ensure to study the implementation of these programmes and interventions within the schools. In the previous sections, the efficacy and evaluation of PPI was considered. Also, the author introduced the models related to the implementation. This section further analyses the science of the implementation of positive education and addresses the different factors and mechanisms impacting positive education and PPI implementation. Slep et al. (2017) argued that there has been growing interest in investigating the mechanism and factors impacting the success of these programmes using an informed implementation science framework, which investigates elements impacting practices.

According to Halliday et al. (2020), implementation science was introduced as a new field that examines how interventions work within real-world contexts, exploring gaps within findings in different settings. Positive education implementation has had some challenges that may limit its benefits. For example, studies have shown the effects of implementation are at least two to three times higher in programmes that are properly implemented compared to less careful implementation (Durlak et al., 2011). The current study aims to study not only the impact, but also intends to use the approach of investigating implementation, which involves delivery, planning, and practice. This has allowed the researcher to examine what does or does not work, and why and under what conditions certain factors hindered or supported the achievement of certain intended outcomes (Kelly & Perkins, 2012).

Researching the implementation of programmes within schools has allowed the researcher to understand non-significant outcomes and become more responsive to practical challenges in complex educational environments (Greene, 2015). Moreover, Bauer et al. (2015) asserted that the identification of certain implementation enablers and barriers can inform more successful future implementation efforts. Durlak et al. (2011) discussed the use of implementation science to investigate SEL programmes, identifying the lack of application of this science to positive education programmes until recently. Halliday et al. (2020) stated that the impact of an intervention in dynamic and complex school environment systems may be affected by various factors. Implementation science approach has enabled the researcher to identify these factors. The implementation organising framework has involved five determinants that influence the interventions implementation within an educational institution context. These include: contextual, intervention, organisation, providers and recipients constructs. Although the relative influence and interaction of each of these implementation constructs is unknown, and often its importance varies across different settings and time, these constructs have provided areas to consider in the high-quality programme implementation (Durlak, 2013). Halliday and colleagues' approach to the study of positive education implementation has underpinned the author's exploration of the implementation of positive education within schools in the current study. The author presents the next section to define and explain each entity of constructs related to contextual, intervention, organisational, provider, and recipient in more detail as outlined in Figure (2.3).

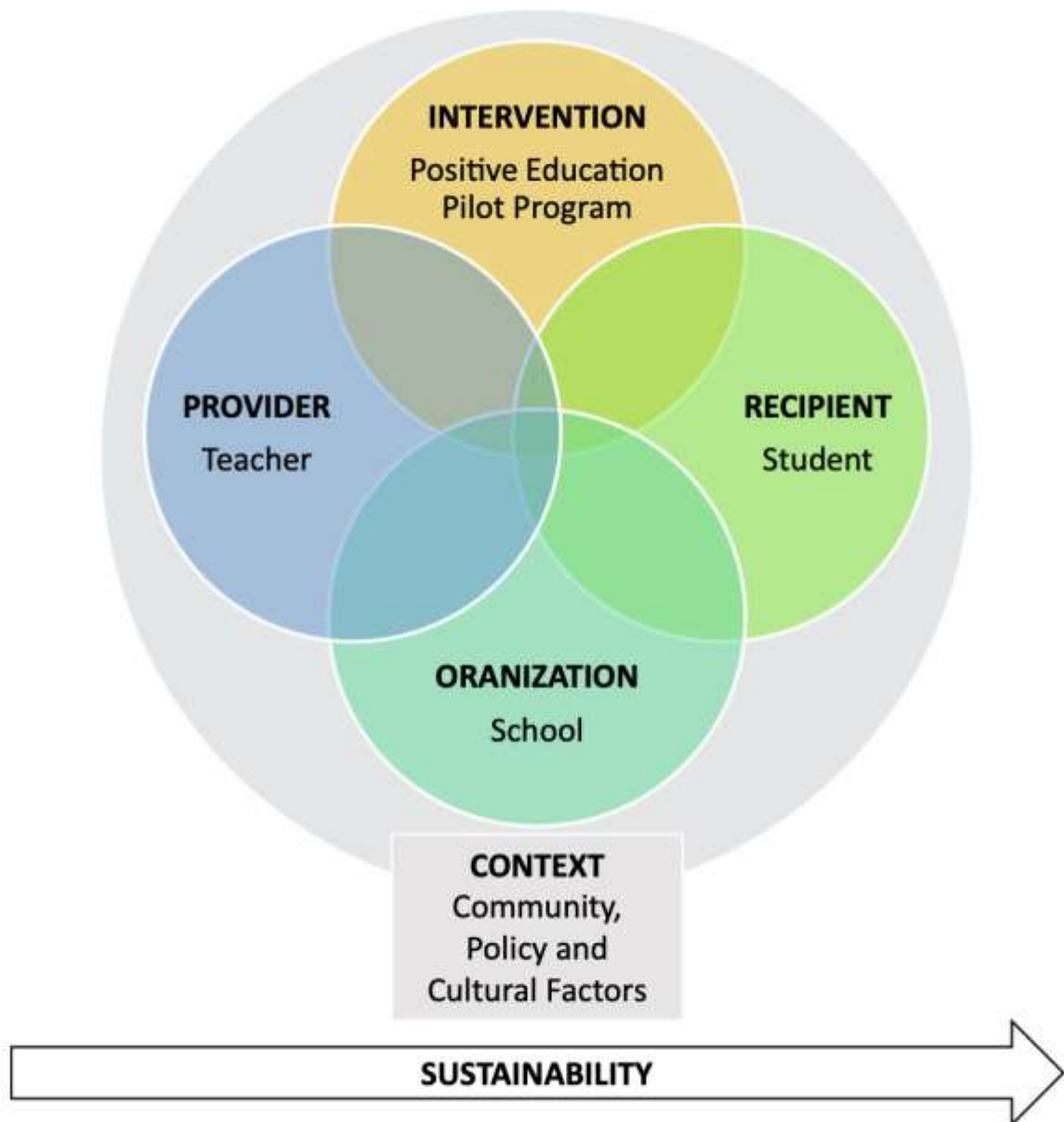


Figure (2. 3): Organising framework showing factors impacting the success of the implementation of positive education (Adopted from Halliday et al., 2020)

- ***Contextual Construct***

The ‘Contextual construct’ section notes that the success of positive education success can also be impacted at the macro level, with community characteristics such as political or systemic support at the international, national, local, and the school level, or lack thereof, of funding, associated policies, and students’ school, engagement of school community stakeholders, and home environments (Halliday et al., 2020). Even though educational

institutions have less control over previously mentioned constructs, much research identifies the importance of pinpointing the constraints and impacts such constructs impose on intervention implementation e.g. the CASEL model (Kern et al., 2017). Contextual construct refers to both the school on the micro level, and home environment and the community and country on the macro level.

- ***Intervention Construct***

This ‘Intervention construct’ section discusses the characteristics of the positive education programme itself or the intervention being utilised. The construct includes the programme’s fit with organisations’ mission, recipients’ compatibility, implementation fidelity vs adaptation of the implementation, timing and mode of delivery of the programme, socio-cultural expectations and outcome measures clarity (Owens et al., 2014; Pearson et al., 2015). Little is known about positive education programmes and interventions’ compatibility with recipients within a school environment. A more detailed account is needed of positive education knowledge related to the extent to which the programme/PPI is implemented as intended, its adaptation and modification to fit the provider. Organisational practices, recipients’ preferences, sociocultural expectations which may impact outcome and show incongruous effect (Lyubomirsky & Layous, 2013) should be examined as part of the intervention construct.

- ***Organisational Construct***

‘Organisational construct’ refers to subconstructs involved within the delivery and support system of the intervention. In the current study these constructs refer to the constructs within the school where positive education is being implemented. These constructs include whether there are people with the capacity and motivation to push an intervention/practice forward (Halliday et al., 2020). They also include the institutional preparedness for change and resource availability to implement the intervention. Organisational construct consists of the social relationships’ nature within the school such as the level of technical assistance, communication

and collaboration, institutional norms, provider, and recipient reward/incentive (Lyubomirsky & Layous, 2013). These subconstructs also encompass the institutional goals alignment with the intervention, as well as the competing stakeholders' interests within the institution (Halliday et al., 2020).

- ***Provider Construct***

The term 'Provider Construct' is used to refer to individuals delivering the programme or interventions. These providers include teachers (primary deliverers), administrators, assistant teachers and coordinators or any other providers of positive education. Providers have a significant contributory factor to the implementation process of positive education. Proctor et al. (2011) stated that a provider's genuine understanding and insight gained during the training becomes vital. Proctor et al. (2011) also points out the vital role of the providers in the success of the implementation of positive education. He also revealed that it has not necessarily led to intended programme implementation or fidelity. On the other hand, researchers have pointed out that provider's perception of the relevance, benefit, skill, effectiveness, motivation, experience, self-efficacy, skills, and personal attributes and understanding impact the implementation of the interventions (Halliday et al., 2020). Furthermore, Pearson et al. (2015) asserted that the implementation is impacted by external providers' paraprofessionals factors.

- ***Recipient Construct***

Recipient construct involves the individuals at whom the intervention or programme is aimed. The recipients in the current research study are primary and secondary school students (Grade K–12) within Dubai private schools. The influential factors associated with these recipients involve recipients' motivation, perceived need, buy-in, adherence, and self-efficacy. These recipients are aware of the benefits of the intervention, believing that the intervention will bring change, identifying to what extent the recipients' contributions are valued, and

identifying significant others' support or resistance to the intervention (Slemp et al., 2017; Vella-Brodrick, 2013).

The success of the programme's implementation depends on the sustainability of the interventions being used, both in terms of its activity's continuation and in terms of the behaviours that last beyond the end of the intervention period and within the continuing provision of the intervention itself (Halliday et al., 2020). The constructs of recipient, provider, organisation, intervention and context over time change, thus, making the practice/intervention less or more sustainable. Slemp et al. (2017) point to staff turnover and leadership changes, while Halliday et al. (2020) refer to teachers' buy-in, financial resources, community involvement and development of shared decision-making as other influences impacting programme/intervention sustainability.

2.4.4 Wellbeing

The chapter thus far has demonstrated on the history associated with positive psychology, positive education, discussed the conceptual framework of the study and identified constructs related to positive education such as virtues, character strengths, examples of positive education programmes and PPI interventions, efficacy and efficiency of positive education implementation and factors impacting positive education implementation within the school environment. It is now necessary to explain the literature related to the other concepts in this study. These concepts include wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The current section will analyse the types of wellbeing and present supporting literature on the global and regional level related to wellbeing.

Wellbeing has been defined as a multi-dimensional phenomenon (Western & Tomaszewski, 2016). It has encompassed psychological domains, subjective and objective domains, and does not simply imply happiness and life satisfaction. In the literature, wellbeing has been discussed within many disciplines such as sociology, economics, philosophy, health,

and psychology (Anand, 2016). Wellbeing has had many definitions varying according to the approach and setting. Social scientists have approached wellbeing in terms of being a multidimensional domain which has encompassed feeling happy and performing well (Kern et al., 2015). It has encompassed many aspects ranging from psychological, social, physical, and environmental aspects. According to Burke and Minton (2019), wellbeing from a developmental viewpoint incorporates a state and process of psychological and social contexts leading to the individual's satisfaction and happiness.

Gunther (2015) described wellbeing as being either subjective or objective. He referred to *objective* wellbeing as the individual's satisfaction with possessions or environmental occurrences and assets; while he described *subjective* wellbeing as the individual's fulfilment and happiness with their life. The focus of positive education has been on the areas of individuals' happiness with their life. These areas have included the levels of mindedness, hope, creativity, perseverance and wisdom (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Spiller (2017) stated that adolescents' cognitive, social and emotional wellbeing have been correlated with and considered as the foundation of maturing from an adolescent into a young individual and impacted by the social context of the school.

The second focus of the current study has been the impact of positive education on wellbeing within the educational setting. Wellbeing encompasses a broad range of skills, concepts, attitudes, and dispositions embedded into education policies and has been promoted through SEAL and the Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS), focusing on positive models of learning (Watson et al., 2012). Positive education as a field has aimed at building collective and individual wellbeing, usually applied in a system of approaches, principles, interventions and practices (Kern et al., 2019) embedded into the traditional pedagogy of school, allowing for adaptation strategies to improve wellbeing (Gunther, 2015). Wellbeing has comprised of being happy, feeling confident, and autonomous (Kern et al.,

2019). Wellbeing involves individuals experiencing a feeling of control over their own life, resilience, owning high problem-solving skills leading to a high sense of psychological wellbeing, i.e., being involved with others (Spiller, 2017). In terms of social wellbeing, it involves the ability to build good and strong relationships with others thus avoiding delinquent, disruptive and violent behaviours (Watson et al., 2012).

An individual exhibiting a high state of flourishing should have high scores on subjective wellbeing, social wellbeing and psychological wellbeing (Gokcen, 2013). Subjective wellbeing has included an individual's positive and negative emotions and life satisfaction (Gunther, 2015). Social wellbeing refers to how an individual may perceive the quality of their relationships with friends, neighbours, family and communities (Belli, 2012). Psychological wellbeing describes an individual's satisfaction with personal growth, self-acceptance, purpose in life, positive relations, environmental mastery and autonomy (Gokcen, 2013).

2.5 Approaches to Wellbeing

Having defined what is meant by wellbeing, the author will now move on to discuss approaches to wellbeing. Optimal wellbeing has been regarded as an individual's positive point of reference making education possible (Ecarius, 2018). Positive education has been limited and has been based on the individual's situation and factors such as courage, motivation, own action, focus, happiness, and sense of wellbeing (Gunther, 2015). The impact of positive education is in its infancy (Belli, 2012). Recent approaches to wellbeing have focused on becoming more proactive rather than being reactive. In other words, efforts have been directed towards cultivating wellbeing in the workplace and education sectors. Some studies have examined different positive psychology techniques to improve wellbeing such as improving individuals' character strengths. Individuals who use their character strengths to encourage themselves to do particular tasks are happier and more engaged in their work environment

(Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Adolescents with optimal wellbeing have become more prepared for future life demands and have positive expectations and character strengths (Burke & Minton, 2019). Ecarius (2018) confirmed that students experiencing improved wellbeing take hold of their own future and make sound decisions.

Wellbeing has been shown to be associated with improving quality of life through improvement in achievement among university students, leading to receiving higher education (Richardson, Abraham & Bond, 2012), and enhanced life fulfilment, quality and pleasure (Gunther, 2015). Psychological capital has been positively associated with Filipino students' wellbeing and academic engagement leading to optimal positive functioning, flourishing, and interdependent happiness (Datu & Valdez, 2016). Similarly, Filipino teachers' psychological capital has been explored. Enhanced wellbeing has permitted teachers' experience to improve work outputs, performance, dedication, involvement, and competency (Ganotice et al., 2016).

2.5.1 Wellbeing Portrayal and Determinants in Several Disciplines

The wellbeing of an individual is embedded within a set of determinants that continuously influence it (Helliwell & Barrington-Leigh, 2010). These contextual determinants consist of but are not limited to culture, economics, natural environment and political governance.

1. Culture:

Wellbeing has been studied across cultures and across times. Its conceptualisation between different cultures varies. Some empirical studies have focused on the cultural interpretation of flourishing and wellbeing between the West (Europe and America) and the East (East Asia) (Gokcen, 2013; Lambert et al. 2020). In Western culture, flourishing has been a form of personal achievement, whereas in Eastern culture, it has been often linked to social harmony. Studies examining the relationship between flourishing, religion and subjective wellbeing have concluded strong relationships among them, and the role of religion acts as a

defence criterion against mental problems (Seybold & Hill, 2001). In their research of subjective wellbeing and culture, Tov and Diener (2007) argued that there are common wellbeing factors that are universal to different cultures. Also, some of the emotions which are associated with subjective wellbeing have differed in their intensities and meaning between various cultures.

Wellbeing is a universal outcome and quest among individuals, but it has been important to identify it as a social-cultural factor. Within environments like Dubai where there is a high level of cultural interactions and immigration, cultural influences have to be seriously examined when studying impact on wellbeing measures.

2. Political governance:

In addition to culture, researchers have investigated the association between levels of society's wellbeing and government types. Research has found a strong association with the wellbeing of individuals within a society and democracy practices in a country (Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000). The latter result has been further echoed through studies by Dorn et al. (2007) who examined 28 countries' social survey data, and identified that wellbeing has correlated with democracy indicators, while controlling for factors such as cultural differences and income. Moreover, governance variables have been related to effectiveness, stability and low corruption correlated with individuals' evaluation of life satisfaction and subjective wellbeing (Helliwell, 2003). Resource distribution among different individuals and groups in a country has also influenced wellbeing, where social inequalities result in negative wellbeing effects (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2010). Kaufman, Kraay & Mastruzzi (2003) asserted that countries with good governance conditions have tended to have better educational systems, that have reflected positively on students' wellbeing.

- **Health viewpoint**

The World Health Organisation (WHO) has designated the word ‘wellbeing’ as a component of the term ‘health’ definition since 1946, and defined health as “the state of complete mental, physical, social wellbeing, not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (WHO 2006, p. 1). There has been a strong linkage between wellbeing and health (Cho et al., 2011; Diener & Chan, 2011), but as a construct, wellbeing has been defined broader term than just having healthy body. Within schools’ contexts, wellbeing is recognised by many international organisations as part of healthy practices, and many initiatives have been encouraged such as the ‘health-promoting schools’ (WHO, 2017). These initiatives promote health-oriented curricula, health environments and school health services.

- **Economic viewpoint**

In recent years, economics as a discipline has activated the revitalization of wellbeing from a society and individual standpoints. Even though income has been associated with wellbeing, it has become apparent that economic traditional frameworks do not completely resolve the ever-growing issues related to poverty, inequality, political and environmental concerns (Jackson, 2011; Oström, 2012). Post the 2008 crisis, the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress have suggested a move to a global aim towards a sustainable human wellbeing rather than a focus on production and wealth (Stiglitz, Sen & Fitoussi, 2009). Economy has been viewed in a new outlook that has integrated cultural and social dimensions, along with a built and natural environment, compared to the typical view of economy being a process of resource allocation (McGregor & Pouw, 2017). Wellbeing has been viewed from a capability approach, where a person was seen as being able to achieve if they are provided with certain favourable factors within their environment (Soutter, 2013). The use of this capabilities approach has been common in education and it has promoted the identification of the factors that improve student wellbeing within the school setting.

- **Sociological viewpoint**

In terms of the sociological viewpoint, wellbeing has not been simply viewed from a subjective angle. It has focused on the social challenges and relationships experienced by individuals, and how these individuals function within larger groups (Gallagher, Lopez & Preacher, 2009). Few research studies have shown a positive correlation between subjective and psychological wellbeing and social interactions such as relationships with families and friends, sports club participation, political engagement, and activism (Gokcen, 2013; Klar & Kasser, 2009). Keyes (1998) emphasised the struggle of unravelling private and public aspects of an individual's life. The natural disposition of individuals is to be part of social structures, where both social, subjective and psychological wellbeing are important. Keyes (1998) suggested five social wellbeing dimensions: social contribution, social acceptance, social actualisation, social integration and social coherence.

- **Psychological perspective**

Positive psychology has renewed the idea of flourishing and happiness, through examining positive experiences at three different periods: in the past, focusing on life satisfaction and wellbeing; in the present, envisioning notions of flow and happiness; and in the future, aiming to examine the visualisation of optimism and hope (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). The advantage of positive psychology has been the combining of single factors (e.g. engagement, creativity) to subjective states (optimism, happiness) and to other traits that assist individuals' functioning within the wider societal groupings (e.g. citizenship, altruism). In terms of eudemonia and hedonism, positive psychology has combined the two, which has helped individuals reflect on their life in relation to life's pleasures, engagement and meaningfulness (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

Schonert-Reichl (2011) identified five areas of students' lives that are critically important during adolescence, that are represented in Figure (2.4). The next section will discuss student wellbeing in more detail.

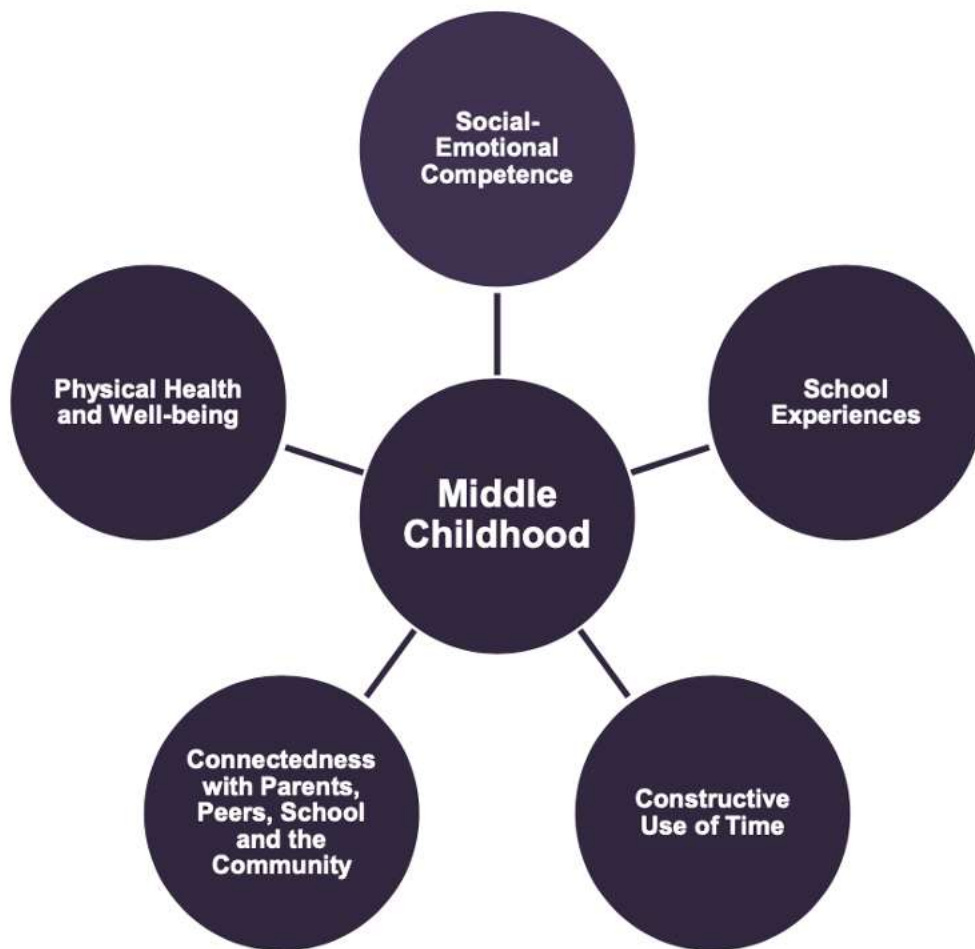


Figure (2. 4): Middle childhood student wellbeing development: Five dimensions (Adopted from Schonert-Reichl 2011, p. 11)

2.5.2 Student Wellbeing

2.5.2.1 Student Wellbeing Interest and Meaning

Having discussed the construct of wellbeing, and the approaches of wellbeing from different viewpoints, it is now necessary to explain the course of student wellbeing. Student support, pastoral care, and student welfare have historically been used as terminology referring to wellbeing prior to the more recent use of student wellbeing (Cross, Lester & Barnes, 2014). Student wellbeing focusses on individual attributes and can be defined as the “sustainable state of positive mood and attitude, resilience, and satisfaction with self, relationships and experiences at school” (Noble et al., 2008 p. 5).

Schools are structured educational institutions that prepare young individuals to lead productive, happy and independent lives. Judice (2018) asserted that students' preparation aspires to involve the holistic development of the child, targeting social skills, emotional skills and academic skills. Since 2003, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has initiated a global movement to promote emotional and social learning across educational institutions within many countries. As result, many countries have incorporated subjective, social and psychological aspects of wellbeing into their educational policies as aspirational outcomes for students. Similarly, there has been a greater focus on incorporating social and emotional skills' development at the level of school structures and cultures (Belli, 2012).

- **Social-emotional Wellbeing**

Schonert-Reichl (2011) theorised that early adolescence is characterised by a number of changes in students' social-emotional wellbeing and cognitive development. As students reach adolescence, they acquire abilities that enable them to become more self-reflective and self-aware and they develop self-concept, personal identity, rapid cognitive growth, and start to note others' perspectives and orient themselves toward school (Schonert-Reichl, 2011). Three basic psychological elements drive social-emotional wellbeing and children's development:

1. Developing a sense of ownership and autonomy over one's own experiences.
2. Experiencing a sense of relatedness, belonging and connection to others.
3. Achieving a sense of accomplishment and competence.

2.5.2.2 Wellbeing Approaches in Schools

- **School-based practices:**

Schools have varied in the way they develop approaches to and practices of student wellbeing. The adopted practices and approaches have ranged in spectrum from target-specific

interventions and stand-alone practices, to more inclusive school-wide organised interventions involving all students. Some of the practices that have commonly existed for a long time include counselling, guidance, pastoral care, youth development, and mental health promotion; other approaches that have been more recently introduced involve positive education and moral education.

- **Positive education**

As explained earlier, Seligman defined positive education as “education for both traditional skills and happiness” (Seligman et al. 2009, p. 293), while Oadesa et al. (2011) has given positive education a broader definition, defining positive education as “the development of educational environments that enable the learner to engage in established curricula in addition to knowledge and the skills to develop their own and others’ wellbeing” (p.432). Others have viewed positive education as a collection of practices and interventions that have been tried and used and which have led to positive outcomes among students (White & Murray, 2015). One critical outcome from these definitions has been to show that there are pluralistic access arenas to positive education such as the school environment and the curriculum. It has also signified that wellbeing can be developed and taught. Positive education has been considered as an empirical field which has stemmed from positive psychology, and can be measured to see its effect on student outcomes (McCallum & Price, 2017; Slemp et al., 2017). Positive education has been verified through different applications (White & Kern, 2018). Seligman’s 2018 Global Happiness Report listed a number of reported and tried interventions that have been inspired from positive education and have led to measurable effective results among students; some of these results include decision-making (Albert & Steinberg, 2011), critical thinking (Marin & Halpern, 2011), character-building, gratitude contemplation (Judice, 2018), and coping with emotions (Belli, 2012).

- **Moral Education**

Campbell (1997) stated that moral education involves the building of the individual's moral character and values, which enable the people within a society to live cohesively and harmoniously together. Character-building and ethics have been viewed as the school's responsibility and that schools take charge of building a sense of ethics and character-building since their establishment (Judice, 2018). At the start of education, religion was seen as crucial in defining virtuous education, however over the years, theoretically ethics have come to be viewed as part of the teachers' and the schools' responsibilities towards students. From a pragmatic point of view, John Dewey has advocated that education has always played a social function and that ethical issues have always existed and thus necessitate logical collective levels' control on individuals to achieve happiness (Karafillis, 2012). A large number of countries have adopted the subject of moral education as part of the core subjects to be taught in the curriculum, and the purpose of this has been to strengthen national identity, promote citizenship skills and harmonise acceptance and cultural diversity (Splitter, 2011). In 2017, the UAE launched the Moral Education Programme (MEP). MEP was introduced as a curriculum which provides schools with an opportunity to equip students and UAE youth with 'universal' principles and values. The MEP curriculum includes four pillars: cultural studies, civic studies, individual and the community, and character and morality (Moral Education, 2018). Until recently, schools within the UAE were requested to embed MEP within their curriculum; however, now there is flexibility to offer MEP integrated into subjects, into assemblies, or as a standalone subject.

2.5.3 Wellbeing and Positive Education in the Local Context

Wellbeing and happiness as a subject has been at the forefront of the international agenda, and has cascaded down to the UAE and many other countries. Recent research into wellbeing, student wellbeing, and positive education has been reviewed in the Middle East and

North Africa (MENA) region, Dubai and the UAE. Even though research has been very little, it has presented a promising emerging trend to showcase positive education and wellbeing and their connection to political, social and cultural constructs of the region. Study examples are shared below, with critical highlights of each study's content.

Warren, Donaldson, and Doiron (2015) systematically explored 53 research articles focusing on the topic of positive psychology. They reviewed approaches, topics, and findings from the period of 1998 to 2013. Subjective wellbeing has been the focus of most of this research, with emphasis and targeting on its affective component (happiness) and cognitive component. Focus on positive education has been associated with wellbeing predictors in the region, which have focused on religion and spirituality in addition to social support and family. Social and family support are viewed as two dominant values within the culture in the region. A large number of these studies have an empirical nature, where they look at the effect of certain approaches and interventions related to either tackling existing issues within the communities or individuals or investigating positive values associated with the communities and individuals. Gender differences, war effects and comparison with other contexts have been commonly studied as part of MENA research. The review presented by Warren, Donaldson, and Doiron (2015) considered to be very useful in portraying an overview of the field of positive education and wellbeing that is gaining regional popularity as a research topic. This review pointed out the dependence on Western comparative research related to positive education and wellbeing and the need to initiate research that corresponds to the local needs of the MENA region.

Lambert et al. (2020) have proposed (the development of a positive psychology and positive education) research that address the context of the UAE. The authors highlighted that the positive education and psychology model relies mostly on Western culture and does not fully address the cultural, political and social aspects of the UAE. Western psychology and

associated positive education interventions have been designed around the behaviours and characteristics of Western groups. The latter can cause negligence of local effective interventions and practices, which rely on community and family resources. Lambert et al. (2020) have also asserted the limited view about the absence of psychological counselling and interventions within the UAE. They also have asserted the presence of wealth of western professionals using western models. Positive education interventions and wellbeing remain to be viewed from the absence of a dys-functioning standpoint. The researchers have advocated for the establishment of a homegrown positive education model stemming from the local strengths of Emirati, and expatriate cultures, communities and individuals.

A study done by Lambert et al. (2015) utilised the PERMA model (Seligman, 2011) which investigated UAE university students' responses to questions related to their happiness. These questions were, What makes you happy? and What does happiness mean to you? Analysis of the responses to these questions included analysis of qualitative data deductively and inductively to contrast with the five PERMA model elements. Significance has been obtained between the answers and the model. Regularly, participants asserted the interpersonal values, relational values among others, and achievement as a main component of wellbeing. This research has verified the role of cultural and social values in highlighting certain aspects of happiness over others. Furthermore, the research has shown the usefulness of targeting students and obtaining their own factors associated with happiness. However, it should be pointed out that wellbeing and positive education have dealt with constructs related to flow as well as happiness and therefore the use of the PERMA model can be misleading as the main instrument for comparison.

The Global Happiness Policy Report (2018) highlighted the UAE as the leading Arab country in its pursuit of happiness on the levels of the nations and individuals. Seligman and Adler (2018) commented on positive education practice as part of this report. This report

highlighted the pilot positive education project introduced in few public schools. It also points out several private schools' approaches and KHDA's initiative to measure staff and students' wellbeing. This article was limited in its description of how UAE-based practices within positive education have been implemented and planned to be aligned to the UAE's unique cultural and social background. Furthermore, it failed to indicate how the practices and interventions will be implemented and how their outcomes will be assessed.

Abu Dhabi's school students have been surveyed to obtain the relationship between school constructs and student happiness (Badri et al., 2018). This survey covered several variables associated with life and self-satisfaction, relationships among family members, feelings of happiness and quality time spent outside school. The research results showed that the home and school environments have significant positive influences on student happiness. The research also presented higher levels of happiness in among younger students and female students. This research presented the importance of further research to explore contextual variations within happiness among students (such as investigating gender, nationalities, and school type). It also highlighted the importance of investigating other social variables in addition to school and home constructs. This study has been the first to explore UAE school-aged students; however, it again focuses on the happiness notion of positive education and how it is associated with the concept of flow and wellbeing.

2.6 Academic Self-efficacy

Having defined wellbeing, introduced the approaches to wellbeing, discussed wellbeing approaches, introduced, and argued studies associated with student wellbeing, and wellbeing studies within the MENA region context, the final section of this chapter will define academic self-efficacy and introduce studies associated with academic self-efficacy and positive education.

A core model of social cognitive psychology which researchers have used to investigate the association among personal adaptation and competence and perceptions is the way individuals adapt to life's challenges, and this is referred to as self-efficacy (Jiang, 2018). Self-efficacy as a concept was introduced by Bandura (1977). He claimed that an individual's behaviour is highly influenced by their own beliefs regarding their abilities towards possible outcomes (Critchley, 2010). Bandura (1994) has defined self-efficacy as "an individual's self-judgement of their aptitude to: initiate and effectively execute specified tasks at designated levels, to apply increased effort, and to persevere when faced with hardship and misfortune" (p.71). The theoretical four stages of self-efficacy beliefs according to Bandura (1997) include vicarious experience, mastery experience, social/verbal persuasion, and affective and physiological states (Bandura, 1997). Jiang (2018) claimed that successful practices and experience will improve self-efficacy, while failed practices and experiences usually decrease self-efficacy. According to Critchley (2010), individuals cannot master all human activity aspects given the effort, resources and time these activities require. The fields where people develop competency are determined by several socio-cultural combinations of experiences and circumstances in which individuals use positive education to increase their growth and development and natural aptitude. Individuals' development of efficacy levels vary among different people (Critchley, 2010).

Self-efficacy involves the individual's belief in their own abilities to implement and organise actions needed to learn and/or perform behaviours (Schunk, 2012). Within the education context, students' academic progress and achievement has been linked to a number of variables and researchers have examined many theories to show influential constructs and have attempted to predict academic achievement. Jiang (2018) posited that self-efficacy beliefs significantly contribute to students' self-development within education and this has been supported by research results. Pajares (1996) demonstrated the ways self-efficacy impacts self-

development within education. He described that self-efficacy beliefs facilitate the impacts of self-beliefs or other skills on systematic performance through impacting on perseverance, persistence, and effort.

Academic self-efficacy has been defined as the individuals' level of confidence in the way they perceive their abilities to successfully accomplish academic activities at a specific level (Pajares & Schunk, 2002); while Bandura (2006) stated that academic efficacy is students' beliefs in their abilities to master their subjects and learning and control their learning tasks. Jiang (2018) pointed out that self-efficacy usually contributes to and can be used as a predictor of achievement and learning. He asserted that it has been correlated with academic achievement. Usually, more self-efficacious students within the different ability levels have managed their tasks and time better (Jiang, 2018). They have usually been persistent and more likely to choose correct solutions within the required time (Pajares, 1996). According to Bandura (2006), self-efficacy thoughts define the course of action and impact academic performance, thus, these beliefs improve persistence and effort in academic tasks. The positive relationship between academic achievement and self-efficacy beliefs has been evidenced in a number of research studies (Ahmad, Azeem & Hussain, 2012; Komarraju & Nadler, 2013). Ahmad, Azeem and Hussain (2012) showed that self-efficacy beliefs predict students' different academic performance. Komarraju and Nadler's (2013) showed that students who experience high self-efficacy usually self-regulate their persistence and motivation as they cope with challenges. They usually have set performance and mastery goals to achieve outstanding grades and performance and gain knowledge.

According to the social-cognitive theory by Bandura (1997), usually each individual has a self-system that permits them to self-reflect and self-regulate their feelings, behaviours and thoughts. This has allowed individuals to interpret information and self-evaluate their own experiences as contributors to self-efficacy levels (Jiang, 2018). Furthermore, self-efficacy

beliefs are context-specific; they could change and become impacted by environment changes. Educators have become concerned with negative aspects determining students' motivation constructs, such as students' academic self-efficacy (Spiller, 2017). Therefore, the current study plans to identify if positive education impact students' self-efficacy.

Research has shown that self-efficacy impacts learners' performance (Liu et al., 2018). For example, learners may avoid certain tasks in which they feel that their capabilities are exceeded (Spiller, 2017). Self-efficacy beliefs modify students' behaviours towards efforts, achievement, persistence, and perceived skills (Clevenger, 2018). Academic self-efficacy signifies an individual's conviction that they can successfully achieve a certain academic goal or accomplish an academic task at a designated level (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

While past studies have addressed self-efficacy's impact on academic performance (Richardson, Abraham, & Bond, 2012), more recent studies have focused on students' wellbeing and their experience within the school environment (Choi, 2018) and its impact on self-efficacy. Students who have high emotional self-efficacy have been able to deal with anxiety related to deadlines and are able to achieve and pursue set goals and foster higher motivation towards achieving these goals (Pacilleo et al., 2016). Pacilleo et al. (2016) focused on the three competencies of self-regulation: social, self-regulated and emotional learning. Recently there has been a shift to look at positive effects such as pride and enjoyment and how these impacted maths achievement and engagement. They have been positively correlated with self-regulation, performance, and self-efficacy in Filipino students (Villavicencio & Bernardo, 2016).

Research has explored the relationship between character strengths, happiness, negative emotions, positive emotions and academic self-efficacy. One of the most fundamental aspects of positive education involves studies associated with positive traits (Seligman &

Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Psychologists have started investigating positive traits due to their importance in the psychological, educational and economic benefits they bring to the school context for building positive character traits (Datu & Mateo, 2020). As presented earlier, character strengths are considered morally and universally accepted traits that impact optimal functioning and happiness (McGrath, 2015). The character strengths are comprised of six core virtues: (a) curiosity, love of learning, perspective, and creativity (these traits encompass knowledge and wisdom strengths that facilitate using and gaining knowledge); (b) honesty, zest, bravery and perseverance (these strengths encompass courage strengths which allow individuals to overcome different obstacles); (c) kindness, social intelligence and love (these strengths encompass humanity which promotes caring towards others); (d) teamwork, leadership and fairness (these strengths encompass justice that help lead to a smooth community life); (e) prudence, self-regulation, forgiveness and modesty/humility (these strengths encompass temperance which protects individuals against excess); and (f) gratitude, spirituality, humour, excellence and beauty appreciation (these strengths describe transcendence which involves strengths that maximize a sense of connectedness to others and sense of purpose).

McGrath (2016) discusses the presence of evidence that shows the generalisability of a 24-dimensional character strengths' model across cultures. Some of these character strengths which are the most likely endorsed strengths in 75 countries involve fairness, curiosity, kindness, honesty and judgement (McGrath, 2015). Most of these character strengths are associated with increased levels of wellbeing (Toner et al., 2012), academic attainment (Datu & Bernardo, 2020), life meaning (Littman-Ovadia & Steger, 2010); decreased burn-out (Allan, Owens & Douglass, 2019), and coping methodologies (Gustems-Carnicer & Caldéron, 2016).

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This chapter so far has examined and discussed in depth the history of positive psychology and positive education. It has outlined the conceptual framework and delved in greater detail, discussing the various concepts of the current study such as positive education, wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. In this section the researcher presents the models and theories to obtain a comprehensive examination of theories associated with the main purpose of the study related to the the implementation and impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools. The theories and models presented in the current theoretical framework of the study are layered under different defined concepts related to institutional policy theories, positive education models and theories, wellbeing theories, child development theories, learning theories and academic self-efficacy theories outlined in Table (2.3).

Institutional Policy Theories <ul style="list-style-type: none">• World Culture Theory• Institutional Theory
Positive Education Models and Theories <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Seligman's PERMA Model
Wellbeing Theories <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ryff's Six-Factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing• Diener's Tripartite Model of Subjective Wellbeing
Child Development Theory <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Brofenbrenner Biological Theory
Theory of Learning and Social Development <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Social Constructionism Theory
Academic Self-efficacy Theories <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self Determination Theory• Socio Cognitive Learning Theory

Table (2. 3): Concepts and propoitive education models and theories underpinning positive education practice and conceptualizations

2.7.1 Institutions and Culture Policy Theories

Positive education implementation involves whole institutions and policy interactions. This section introduces theories underpinning institutions, international cultural context and policy. The current study will focus on studying educational institutions and policies related to positive education implementation, wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai. Dubai is considered a multi-cultural and international society. Dubai normally consults and benchmarks with international organisations for advice about policy development and implementation. Therefore, it is important to investigate theories related to world culture, which underpins policies' implementation within different contexts than where these policies were developed. It is also important to study institutional policy influence and development within the context of organisations and institutions. The next part will introduce theories related to culture such as the 'World Culture Theory' and institutions such as 'Institutional Theory'.

2.7.1.1 World Culture Theory

The world culture theory is an approach introduced by Stanford University scholars such as John Meyer, within the subject of 'neoinstitutional theory'. It describes mass policy influence in education due to the global expansion of education, thus, building an educational view based on world society rather than on a defined national society (Carney, Rappleye & Silova, 2012; Keita, 2015). It states that there are various ways to spread educational policies, some of which include the imitation of policies, pressure, and coercion (Kieta, 2015; Ramirez, 2006). However, imitating and borrowing policies are simple in theory, but complicated in terms of implementation.

International educational bodies such as UNESCO and The World Bank drive school homogeneity among countries (Anderson-Levitt, 2003). This school homogeneity has resulted in practices, policies, application and principles being adopted from many countries and driven by policy-makers in a top-down approach (Chabbott & Ramirez, 2000). The adoption of

homogenous educational policies among schools is seen as advantageous, for example inclusive education, gender-equal enrolment and compulsory education. World culture scholars describe the global spread of certain education models which reflect Western, North American ideas and legitimising these educational, dominant paradigms to advocate for local policy adoption driven by the global education convergence (Dawson, 2010). In modern times, globalisation impacts policy design and content due to the multi-level relationships existing among countries (Howlett, 2019). One main idea of the world culture theory is the responsive expansion of education due to the 'contemporary world system' rather than the individual country's social, economic, and political characteristics (Carney, Rappleye & Silova, 2012; Keita, 2015). In terms of policy implementation and practice, failure occurs at many levels (Meyer et al., 1997). This limitation in implementation can be due to some stakeholders' resistance (Anderson-Levitt, 2003) which may lead to different outcomes and transformation of the policy being adopted, or it may be due to a loss in policy meaning during the translation and application process (Datnow, Hubbard & Mehan, 2002). Therefore, in terms of implementation of positive education in Dubai's educational context, it is imperative to decipher the international recommendations and process of implementation and apply it to the local context. Moreover, it is important to involve all stakeholders in their perception, adoption, and conceptualization of positive education and compare and contrast this to international conceptualisation and implementation.

2.7.1.2 Institutional Theory

According to institutional theory, institutions maintain legitimacy through interaction and the adoption of different forces, emphasising the shaping of organisations' beliefs/norms to the larger ecosystem (Meyer, John & Brian, 1977). Schools are described as being both institutions and organisations. As institutions, schools play a two-fold moral and administrative role (Scott, 1998). As organisations, schools involve a group of individuals who are structurally managed

to achieve mutual goals (Business Dictionary, 2020) and select norms and positions that help their interests. Institutions frequently highlight the policy adoption level and fail to stress the level of policy resistance.

Isomorphic mechanisms are institutional pressures that play a dominant part in shaping both public and private organisations (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020; Scott, 1987). Isomorphic mechanisms include: (1) ‘coercive isomorphism’ which originates from the need for political legitimacy and influence which subjects organisations to accreditation or licensing measures, among other regulations (Beckert, 2010); (2) ‘normative isomorphism’ which stems from peer organisations and associations such as KHDA in this study; finally (3) ‘mimetic isomorphism’ which portrays a crucial position in assisting organisations to benchmark their processes and align their performance with other organisations (Scott, 1998). Figure (2.5) highlights the three ‘isomorphic pressures’ that can impact the implementation of positive education within the context of the school: isomorphism mechanisms such as (1) ‘coercive’ isomorphism outlines how regulations and legislations impact the implementation and adoption of positive education to impact wellbeing and academic self-efficacy; (2) the ‘mimetic’ aspect of isomorphism mechanism which is depicted through the establishment of support networks, cooperation and the sharing of best practices to assist in responding to uncertainty (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020; Scott, 1998); (3) the ‘normative’ aspects describe the accreditation, certification, and quality standards (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020; Greenwood, 2008). The institutional theory supports the current study since it outlines schools’ response to the government’s push for positive education to improve wellbeing within schools. It highlights individual roles through looking at implementation from the viewpoint of different stakeholders who have different social, cultural and power characteristics to impact the adoption and implementation of positive education (Colyvas, 2007).

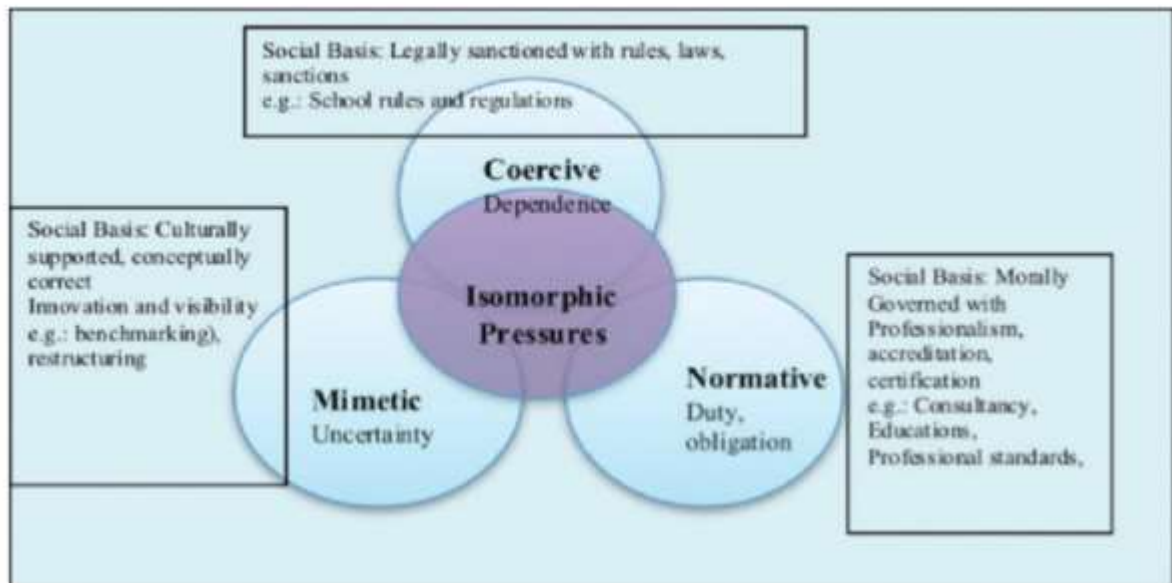


Figure (2. 5): Institutional theory and the institutional isomorphism mechanisms (Adopted from Greenwood, 2008)

2.7.2 Models of Positive Education and Wellbeing

Earlier models associated with positive education and positive reinforcement include Skinner’s Behaviourism Theory, and Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs theory (Kristjánsson, 2012). One of the continuing struggles of positive education as a field, according to most researchers, is the lack of a cohesive positive education and wellbeing theoretical framework (Lambert, Passmore, & Holder, 2015). Few models have been used as primary proponents of positive education and provide meaningful research areas (Credé, Tynan & Harms, 2017; Joseph, 2015). These models include the work of Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and Seligman (1998) and more specifically Seligman’s model of positive education and wellbeing: the positive Emotion, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning and Accomplishment ‘PERMA’ model; Ryff’s Six-factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing (1995); and Diener’s Tripartite Model of Subjective Wellbeing (1994).

2.7.2.1 Seligman's Model of Positive Education and Wellbeing

In his book *Flourish*, Martin Seligman discusses the role of positive education in increasing happiness. Seligman (2011) states that happiness can lead to increased overall life satisfaction. Initially, as Seligman studied happiness, he concluded that happiness cannot be measured; therefore, he shifted the focus of positive education from its emphasis on happiness to focusing on wellbeing. Seligman et al. (2009) developed the PERMA model to measure positive education and wellbeing using five elements. PERMA stands for Positive Emotion, Engagement, Positive Relations, Meaning and Achievement/Accomplishment. Seligman asserted that this shift from his earlier beliefs about life satisfaction allows researchers to measure how individuals self-report wellbeing (Seligman, 2011). Although many theories related to 'flourishing' have been proposed recently. Kern et al. (2015) suggested the new EPOCH (Engagement, Perseverance, Optimism, Connectedness (relationships) model related to adolescents and children. However, the PERMA model remains the most widely used theory in the literature when examining wellbeing and positive education (Ruscio, 2018). Therefore, this study uses Seligman's PERMA model as the most relevant model to underpin the impact of positive education and wellbeing and academic self-efficacy among students.

The PERMA model introduces opportunities for teaching specific skills, interventions and practices to achieve an overall goal of improving individuals' wellbeing and flourishing within the fields of psychology and education (Birrell, 2016). The PERMA model in the educational literature has connection to scholarly work in the educational writing of B.F. Skinner. Although Skinner's (1948) book *Walden Two* does not consider the concept of subjective wellbeing, it paved the way to positive education and its relation to wellbeing and the PERMA model (Adams, 2012). In his book *Walden Two*, Skinner discusses the virtues of raising children and the connection to the pursuit of happiness and wellbeing (Birrell, 2016) thus paving the way to the introduction of wellbeing teaching and learning within the

educational field. Furthermore, in Skinner's novel community's behavioural, economic, and social system, it promotes education towards an enhanced wellbeing thus drawing on the use of the PERMA model and the use of positive education to promote wellbeing. This system parallels Skinner's ideas related to wisdom, such as love of learning, creativity, open-mindedness and curiosity, to Seligman's PERMA constructs leading to a level of wellbeing (Adams, 2012) which is the focus of the current study.

Even though the PERMA model has connections to the work of behaviourists such as Skinner, it has faced some criticism such as a lack of originality (Kristjánsson, 2012). Although, humanistic psychology shares similar views as presented within positive education and the PERMA model. However, the PERMA model differs on a slight but consequential terminology related to resiliency and emotions (Friedman & Robbins, 2012). Additionally, the PERMA model has only been recently developed and has had limited use within schools and among educators (Seligman, 2011). Nevertheless, the use of the PERMA model as the backbone of positive education and wellbeing shows the potential of this field of positive psychology to become the forefront in benefiting students in terms of the introduction of positive changes within the educational setting (Norman, 2013). Also, research-based practices and PPI have presented strengths in increasing overall life satisfaction and wellbeing for individuals within educational settings (Mather & Hulme, 2013).

Table (2.4) below explains the different factors of the PERMA model and how it impacts the individual's wellbeing.

Factor	Explanation
Positive emotions	refers to feeling content
Positive engagement	refers to developing relationships within organisations and with others
Positive relationships	show a sense of being integrated within a social network
Positive meaning	describes the valuable feeling of being connected to greater things than own self
Positive accomplishment	developing a sense of achievement and progression toward one's set targets

Table (2. 4): Explanation of PERMA models factors (Adapted from Norrish, 2015)

The PERMA model is often associated with positive education and wellbeing (Kern et al., 2015). Seligman (2011) presented the PERMA model as a model depicting individuals' positive wellbeing. Seligman (2011) views the PERMA model as the life's measurable constituents of wellbeing multi-dimensional constructs (Kern et al., 2015), such as the psychological, emotional, and social wellbeing being examined in this study. It combines flourishing and wellbeing theories, 'Subjective Well-being Theory (SWB)', and 'Psychological Wellbeing Theory (PWB)' (Burke & Minton, 2019). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) foster the proactive role of positive education of cultivating the virtues and strengths among individuals (Kern et al., 2015), stating that people relate to the different elements in the PERMA model differently at different instances, explaining variations in wellbeing among people (Seligman et al., 2009).

When Seligman proposed this PERMA model, he tried to move away the focus from hedonia or happiness as being the central human wellbeing component. Seligman's (2011) PERMA model has flourishing as central to this model. Seligman views flourishing as a multi-faceted, complex form of wellbeing (Gokcen, 2013). According to Seligman (2011), flourishing is a form of overall, global wellbeing that emerges from the five elements of the PERMA model. These five key elements are positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment. Gokcen (2013) argues that Seligman only views these five

elements that contribute to flourishing. Seligman (2011) states that each element within the PERMA model contributes to flourishing; these elements can be measured separately and conceptualised without overlapping with each other theoretically.

The PERMA model is fairly new, and empirical work associated with its assessment and structure remains ongoing (Gokcen, 2013). Therefore, there is criticism of the PERMA model related to the contextualisation. One weakness in the PERMA model as presented by Seligman (2011) and Diener, Wirtz and Tov (2010) is that it presents flourishing as a detachable phenomenon from the context in which it occurs in terms of economic, political, historical, cultural and social contexts. Kern et al. (2015) argue about how we know that humans flourish across the same domains and contexts with the elements presented in the PERMA model. Gokcen (2013) argues that while positive education advocates and theorists present specific qualities or trait to enhance and represent human flourishing, these advocates present these qualities without contextualizing flourishing as a phenomenon in any applied, concrete setting.

One problem with lack of contextualization/abstraction of the PERMA model is that when applied in a particular field, it fails to adequately take into consideration the individual's contextual (situational and personal) disposition (Biswas-Diener, 2011). Sin, Della Porta and Lyubomirsky (2011) proposed that the PPI duration, personal activity fit, motivation, and continued practice may justify the success of the PPI. Another problem with contextualization, presented by Biswas-Diener, Kashdan and Minhas (2011), is that positive education's 'character strengths' have been argued to be more understood in the context in which they are employed and developed. Therefore, Gokcen (2013) suggests that when character strengths are applied as part of PPI they should be tailored to the demands and feature of the context where they are being employed and in which way they are being developed. As a result, Biswas-Diener (2011) concludes that positive education theories cannot be applied with the 'one size fits all' mentality.

When looking at happiness and reviewing positive education it is important to discuss the concept of 'Flow'. Since the year 1975, Csikszentmihalyi has been investigating the concept of flow, which he defined as the psychological state which is associated with highly engaging actions (Judice, 2018). According to Ivztan and Lomas (2016), flow and mindfulness increase an individual's eudaimonic and hedonic wellbeing. Recently, schools usually integrate a flow mindset encouraging positive psychology through school practices that pay attention to wellbeing (Krakauer et al., 2017). Leach and Green (2016) showed that schools offering sports programmes have discovered that flow and positive psychology have increased students' resilience and wellbeing. Flow as a concept is associated with optimal experiences (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014; Tse et al., 2018). Flow experiences include leisure activities such as social media (Schwartz et al., 2016). Adolescents have experienced flow when they have perceived that their individual skills are high, when they experienced events which provided them with high autonomy, and when appropriate challenges were offered (Shernoff et al., 2014).

The literature has discussed many studies either supporting or critiquing the PERMA model (Van Zyl, 2013); one of which is the absence of the physical wellbeing factor, even though the World Health Organization (WHO) has always associated wellbeing with physical health (WHO, 2006). Also, the PERMA model does not discuss the social and economic factors related to life satisfaction emphasising personal emotional responsibility and success of individuals (Belli, 2016). The current study aims to use the PERMA model as a guide for examining the extent in the variation/relationship between positive education and wellbeing (Morrish et al., 2018). Positive education studies have used the PERMA model as an underpinning theory due to its neutrality and universality, suggesting the independence of its five elements (Seligman et al., 2009). However, this is not always the case and caution should be exercised due to the complex nature of schooling, pedagogies, and curriculum (Belli, 2016).

Researchers need to pay attention to experiences and influencing factors rather than concentrating on the philosophical views related to wellbeing (Wong, 2011).

Studies applying the PERMA model within schools implementing positive education have shown promising empirical findings (Boniwell & Ryan, 2012). However, PERMA model studies are few and are still in the early stages to scientifically provide sustainable, positive, generalisable outcomes (Slemp et al., 2017). The model is still under trial and is not practical due to its implementation complexity within the schools' environment and the unknown consequences arising from potential teachers' resistance to the new teaching pedagogies (White & Kern, 2018).

2.7.2.2 Ryff's Six-factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing

The focus of this model involves six distinct dimensions of wellbeing: personal growth, environmental mastery, positive relations among others, autonomy, self-acceptance, and purpose in life (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Some studies have stated that psychological wellbeing neglects the six components and that wellbeing refers to more than just feeling satisfied and happy and is more relevant to feeling well; however, this issue has been rebutted by further research (Ryff, Singer, & Love 2004). Furthermore, studies have shown that out of the six dimensions that are part of the six-factor model, four considerably overlap and may be considered empirically as only one dimension. These four are self-acceptance, purpose in life, environmental mastery and personal growth (Dierendonck et al., 2008). For the purpose of this study, subjective wellbeing has been chosen as the focus. Donaldson, Dollwet and Rao (2015) define subjective wellbeing as an individual's affective and cognitive evaluations of his or her life, thus, falling within the 'hedonic' point of view (ultimately avoiding pain and maximizing pleasure). The above theories have their limitations and merits, and they will not be the focus of this study. This study will focus on subjective/emotional wellbeing using theories such as Diener's model of subjective wellbeing.

This shift in focus on subjective wellbeing is due to the rapid growth in this science, where more than 14,000 annual publications on this topic have been developed (Diener and Tay, 2017). Research into subjective wellbeing points out that quality of life constitutes a greater focus than economic indicators and research needs to investigate subjective wellbeing factors. Layous et al. (2017) investigated evidence supporting the positive feedback loop which exists among positive activities, wellbeing and kindness.

2.7.2.3 Diener's Tripartite Model of Subjective Wellbeing

Wellbeing theories include eudaimonia and hedonism theories, forming the basis of the current wellbeing theories (Taylor, 2015). Eudaimonia defines happiness in terms of the individual's function within the society (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Hedonism is defined as being subjective and regards life satisfaction in terms of the individual's pleasure regardless of the pleasure origin or type (Huta & Ryan, 2009).

Diener (1984) proposed the subjective wellbeing model, which aligns with hedonism. This model encompasses an individual's cognitive and affective evaluation of one's own life Figure (2.6). In order to understand and create countries' happiness indicators, Diener (2000) suggested the need to increase research to understand the constructs of subjective wellbeing, the importance of goals and adaptation to wellbeing feelings, as well as the cultural influences of subjective wellbeing.

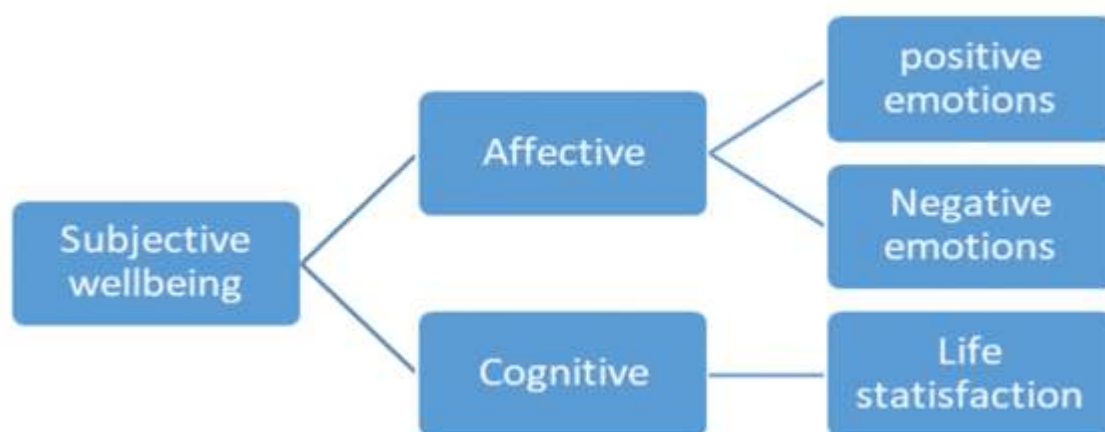


Figure (2. 6): Diener's Subjective Wellbeing Model (Adopted from Diener, 1984)

Table (2.5) below explains the elements of Diener's model.

Elements	Explanation
Affective elements	reflect emotions, feelings, and moods which can be negative or positive.
Cognitive elements	outline a person's thoughts about own life, specifically in particular areas such as work, study, marriage, etc...

Table (2. 5): Explanation of Diener's Subjective Wellbeing elements (Adapted from Diener, 1984)

The current study focusses on the context of Dubai private schools. Dubai is a cosmopolitan country of different nationalities and cultures. The advantage of using Diener's model lies in the fact that subjective-wellbeing scales have been applied to both children and adults from different cultural backgrounds (Renshaw, 2015) and have been proved to be psychometrically sound (Gadermann, Guhn & Zumbo, 2011). Subjective wellbeing reflects individual's own affective and cognitive assessments of negative and positive emotions, and life satisfaction (Silva et al. 2015). Furthermore, Goodman et al. (2017) compared Diener's model of subjective wellbeing to Seligman's PERMA model. They concluded that PERMA and Diener's model of subjective wellbeing show similar outcomes, even though each has unique features.

Seligman's PERMA model defined what he thought to be the fundamental constructs of happiness and psychological wellbeing. One question that needs to be asked is whether Seligman's PERMA positive education and wellbeing model and Diener's subjective wellbeing model have common features. A serious strength with this argument is that although these models have unique and common features, they converge to a single wellbeing construct showing similar relationships with 24 character strengths (Judice, 2018; Goodman et al., 2017).

Wellbeing and positive education models are increasingly being used in the education field and classrooms, helping to promote goals and motives that support optimal functioning (Judice, 2018); wellbeing and positive education models provide students with support and assist them in capitalising on their identified strengths, thus, gaining greater intrinsic motivation (Spence & Deci, 2016).

2.7.3 Child Development, Wellbeing and Bio-ecological Systems Theory

Knight and McNaught (2011) suggest the use of a 'systems approach' during the implementation of positive education. They suggest that positive education should be viewed as being influenced by multiple system parts such as family, communities and social network, self and culture, rather than examining it from an individualist manner. Knight and McNaught (2011) and La Placa, McNaught and Knight (2013) proposed an ecological systems theory for wellbeing that emerges from the child development theory of positive education by Bronfenbrenner (1979). This theory identifies that wellbeing emerges from the complex influences of the three factors of the micro-, meso- and macro- level.

Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological theory Figure (2.7) was influenced by Vygotsky's social-cultural theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), which posits that children develop in an ecosystem composed of different systems. The older the child becomes, the greater the number of systems that co-occur and hinder or help their social, physical and cognitive development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Recently, the theory has been renamed from the ecological systems

theory to the bio-ecological systems theory. It includes the child's biological makeup, which interacts with other parts of the systems (Bone, 2015).

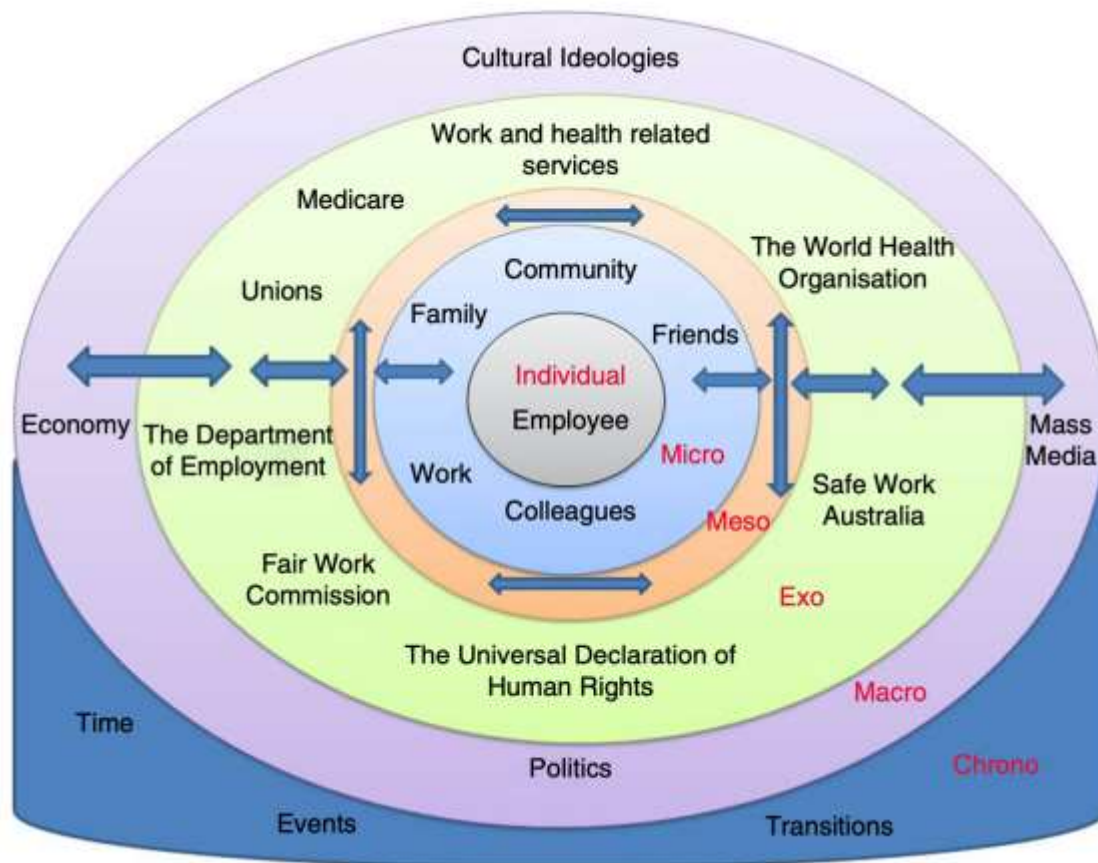


Figure (2. 7): Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological systems theory (Adopted from Bone 2015, p.258)

The theory presents all the social aspects that impact the child's development and therefore the child's wellbeing. Therefore, it can be referenced in the current study since it examines the interaction of positive education with the social and emotional development of students, encompassing all the ecosystems impacting students, such as the microsystems/mesosystems/ecosystems/macrosystem, which emphasise and frame the cultural, political, and social child development contexts, thus broadening wellbeing conceptualisation beyond the level of the individual alone (Belli, 2016).

However, the theory has limitations. The first limitation relates to the presence and position of culture in the nested systems (Vélez-Agosto et al., 2017). Where Bronfenbrenner places culture in the outer layers, culture cannot be separated from the individual and cannot be placed as a separate concept existing outside of the other layers. Culture is part of human interactions and should be integrated across all systems (Markus & Kitayama, 2009). The second limitation lies in the nested approach used by Bronfenbrenner which limits the exhibition of linkage between the various systems (Neal & Neal, 2013).

2.7.4 Learning and the Social Constructionism Theory

Social Constructionism Theory (SCT) was presented to education through the work of Vygotsky (1978), and it majorly contributed to teaching, learning and pedagogy domains. The theory states that human beings construct ‘realities’ using what is common sense in the world (Schutz, 1990) and through the social connections among them. History, language, and culture are fundamental factors determining SCT specificity. These factors also contribute to the nature of learning development (Andrews, 2012). The theory views learning as a social process in which students are not merely knowledge recipients, but rather as individuals able to form their own knowledge interpretations based on interactions and experience with other individuals. Emotions become similar to the knowledge formation process, socially constructed and learned through historic and cultural contexts (Harré, 1985).

SCT examines students’ social wellbeing as a culturally and socially constructed model as presented in this study where the researcher aims to examine the schools’ implementation through the perspective of all stakeholders including the parents to examine the social wellbeing of students. One of the criticisms of SCT is that independent realities do not exist outside the construction and definition of people, and thus every reality needs to be interpreted and positioned within its own socio-cultural framework (Cromby, 2004).

2.7.5 Academic Self-efficacy Theories

Academic self-efficacy describes students' action-outcome and action-control prospects, which represents students' beliefs to originate and implement a task and generate positive outcomes (Liu et al., 2018). The theories presented below underpin academic self-efficacy.

2.7.5.1 Self-determination Theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory (SDT) is associated with the individual's enhancement and realisation of one's own potentials through a variety of social, cultural, and economic support, facilitating wellness and self-regulation (Ryan & Niemiec, 2009). SDT theorises that humans' psychological needs include three specific criteria: relatedness, autonomy, and competence, and satisfying these needs is a necessity for optimal self-efficacy, optimal wellbeing, and motivation (Wehmeyer, Shogren & Toste, 2018). SDT has been associated with many fields, and it has been chosen since it relates an individual's self-efficacy and motivation to his/her wellbeing through the interaction between the individual's social, psycho-social and environment (Waters & White, 2015). SDT theory predicts that humans are motivated to integrate their skills and knowledge based on both the social and physical environments; these incorporate motivational basic psychological needs (Maulana et al., 2016; Wehmeyer, Shogren & Toste, 2018). SDT as a motivation theory focuses on human personality and motivation, emphasizing the cultural and social attitudes which impact students' wellbeing, attitude towards learning, performance quality, motivation, and engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The theory posits that consistent support and motivation enhance students' academic self-efficacy and wellbeing (Turner et al., 2002).

2.7.5.2 Social-cognitive Learning Theory

Social-cognitive learning theory (SCLT) provides a framework for understanding human behaviour (Green & Peil, 2009). It explains how social experiences influence

individuals' cognitive behaviours. Bandura asserts that learning behaviours are cognitively directed toward specific self-regulated goals (Betz, 2007), and views human actions in terms of 'triadic reciprocity'; this means that human behaviour results from reciprocal interaction of behaviour, personal and environmental aspects (Spiller, 2017). According to Schunk (2012), self-efficacy influences expected behavioural outputs. Self-efficacy exerts its impact through motivational, emotional, cognitive and decisional approaches (Wang & Wu, 2008). SCLT is related to positive education since it relates these SEL programmes to the approaches already mentioned. Some of the strengths of the SCLT include the rich literature supporting its role in explaining human social attitudes, learning, reward setting, and behaviour stability. However, SCLT is limited in terms of loose organisation and issues related to the dynamic nature of self-efficacy. The lack of explanation of self-efficacy is related to the broader personality and its susceptibility to change certain behaviours (McCormick & Martinko, 2004). It also pays little or no attention to motivation, emotion and conflict and their relation to self-efficacy (Nabavi, 2012).

2.8 Positive Education Integrated Theoretical Framework

Positive education has been recently integrated within the educational system and therefore prior to explaining positive education and studying its impact on the social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, the researcher needs to place them within the context of the study (Griffin 1986). Figure (2.8) outlines the positive education integrated theoretical framework for the current study which is based on various inter-related theories describing the constructs of the study. It shows how the theories related to emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing, child development, learning, academic self-efficacy, and institutional policies are integrated and related to each other at the level of cultural, individual and social dimensions.

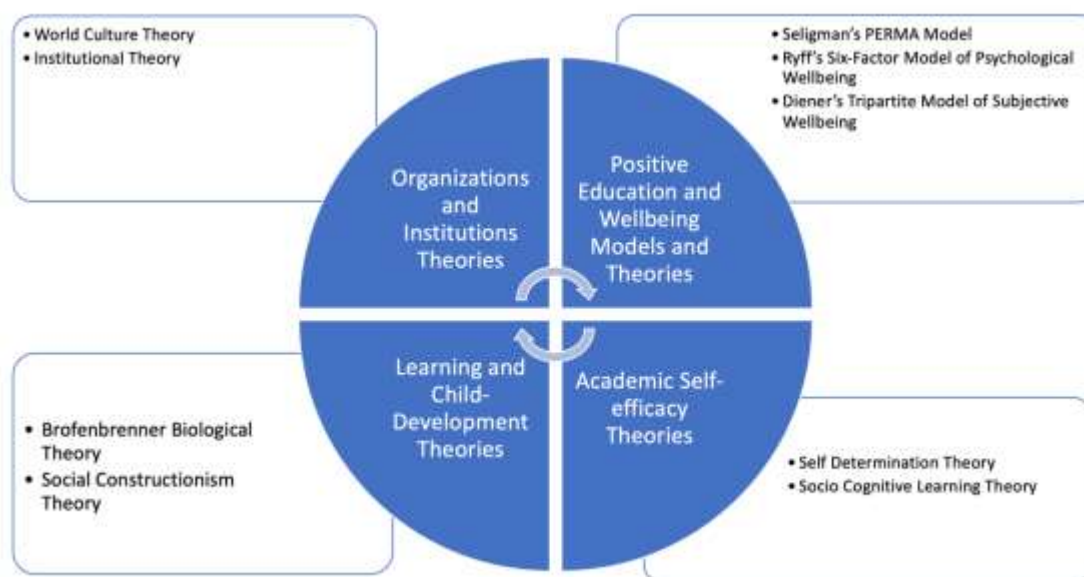


Figure (2. 8): Propositive education integrated theoretical framework for positive education, wellbeing and academic self-efficacy

2.9 Situated Literature Review

Studies have investigated the impact of positive education on students' academic achievement and wellbeing (Ruscio, 2018), emotional regulation (Morrish et al., 2018), self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014), and character strengths (Burke & Minton, 2019). Adolescent students' wellbeing has been improved (Ecarius, 2018) through the use of the PERMA framework (Kern et al., 2015). However, the introduction of positive education to teachers' and students' wellbeing has not been linked due to missing data and methodological problems in Ruscio (2018). However, in terms of academic achievement and positive education, Ruscio (2018) did not show high correlation among secondary students, but it proved to be highly correlated among university students (Richardson, Abraham & Bond, 2012). In terms of self-efficacy, teachers' positive feedback and PPI have shown a direct positive relation to students' self-efficacy (Liu et al., 2018; Paciello et al., 2016). The current study also aims to explore the implementation of positive education within an institution context. Kern et al. (2019) investigated the systematic informed nature of implementation

positive psychology interventions, while Halliday et al. (2019) implemented the participatory approach to positive education implementation, which involved having students choose the best interventions to use to implement positive education, rather than having a top-down approach of having only educators dictate the approach to implementing positive education. Past research has studied the strengths involved, drawing on the relationship to academic self-efficacy within Western cultures (Weber & Ruch, 2012). Previous studies have exhibited the performance-related and psychological-related advantages of character strengths at various developmental phases (Datu & Mateo, 2020). Increased life satisfaction has been associated with prudence, hope and fairness (Toner et al., 2012). Increased well-being (showing perceived life satisfaction needing competence, autonomy, subjective vitality and life meaning) has been evidenced to have a relationship with gratitude, hope, zest, and curiosity across Croatian schools (Brdar & Kashdan, 2010). Almost all character strengths except for modesty and forgiveness have been shown to be linked to increased general self-efficacy among Swiss adolescents (Ruch et al., 2014). Also, Swiss secondary students have shown that all character strengths except for modesty have been positively correlated with academic self-efficacy (Weber & Ruch, 2012). On the other hand, in primary school students in Switzerland, love of learning, zest, creativity, honesty, perseverance, bravery, social intelligence, perspective, gratitude, hope, humour, teamwork, self-regulation, leadership and social intelligence have all been positively correlated with higher academic achievement; while only perspective, love of learning, forgiveness, gratitude, zest, perseverance and hope are linked with increased levels of achievement across secondary school students (Wagner & Ruch, 2015). Other studies on character strengths in Switzerland and Liechtenstein have shown that kindness, fairness, perspective, social intelligence, teamwork and love have been correlated with improved acceptance among peers (Wagner, 2019).

Ros-Morente et al. (2018) showed evidence that all character strengths are linked with positive effects and emotional clarity in Spanish undergraduate students. Strengths such as kindness, fairness, love of learning, humour and perseverance have been correlated with self-reported academic achievement among U.S. undergraduate students (Datu & Mateo, 2020); whereas, hope and gratitude have been related to increased persistence and perceived institutional commitment among first-year U.S. undergraduate students (Browning et al., 2018). Finally, most character strengths have been associated with a higher grade point average (GPA) among selected U.S. undergraduate law students; however, the same strengths have been linked with lower Law School Aptitude Test (LSAT) scores (Kern & Bowling, 2015). In European countries such as Switzerland, Austria and Germany, evidence has shown linkage between all character strengths and higher psychological flourishing among adults (Wagner et al., 2020). While in Hong Kong, all character strengths except for prudence, spirituality, perspective, creativity, open-mindedness, modesty and humour were found among selected in-service and pre-service teachers (Datu & Mateo, 2020). Datu and Mateo's (2020) research shows correlational association among all character strengths associated with positive education and academic self-efficacy among Filipino adolescents. Similarly, the previous findings resemble studies done by Weber and Ruch (2012) who showed a strong association with most character strengths, and specifically hope and gratitude, and other strengths such as academic self-efficacy.

Donaldson, Dollwet and Rao (2015) researched approximately 1336 peer-reviewed articles published between the years 1999–2013 related to positive psychology and education. These scientists found that there has been a steady growth in the publication rate related to positive education and that a greater number of published research articles strive to gain a better understanding of wellbeing, optimal functioning and human excellence (Judice, 2018).

2.10 Literature Review Conclusion

This chapter began by describing the history of positive psychology and positive education and associating positive psychology and positive education to the purpose of this study, which is to explore the implementation of positive education and to investigate the impact of the implementation of positive education on the students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. It went on to introduce the theoretical framework and theories that support positive education, wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. Furthermore, it has presented the integrated theoretical framework and conceptual framework. Finally, it has explored and defined wellbeing, academic self-efficacy, and the literature related to positive education, positive education interventions, character strengths and virtues, wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, and how they are interrelated.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The current research used a mixed-methods research which was carried out over a period of five months in four K-12 private schools in Dubai, UAE that implement positive education interventions and activities. The study's main aim was to investigate the implementation and impact of positive education on students' social and emotional wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy within Dubai's K-12 private schools. Three research questions were designed:

RQ #1: How is positive education implemented within K-12 private schools in Dubai?

RQ #2: To what extent does positive education affect students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

RQ #3: What are the teachers', parents', and students' perceptions about the impact of positive education on students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

Consequently, the current study was designed to examine the breadth and depth to cover the many factors of the positive education phenomenon. Thus, a convergent parallel mixed-methods research approach was followed. This approach consisted of two different parts using multiple research instruments. One part of the convergent parallel mixed-method approach was mostly qualitative, and it involved document analysis of website, lesson plans, strategic plans, examination of Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) and the Pupil Attitudes to Self and School (PASS) reports. It also consisted of focus groups and interviews discussion with students, teachers and parents, and interviews of head of departments, senior leadership members and positive education officers/wellbeing officers within the schools. The second part was quantitative, and it consisted of questionnaires for students, teachers, and parents.

This chapter presents the research approach, study's design, and paradigm rationale. The chapter explores the framework of the beliefs and methods within which the research was

administered. Moreover, the chapter discusses the site, scope, population, participants sample, validity and reliability, data collection and analysis, ethical considerations, and limitations of the study. The main purpose of the methodology chapter is to present the adopted methodological tools and justify the approach of the research using the relevant literature (Johnson & Christensen, 2020).

3.2 Research Approach

In this section the researcher outlines the research approach and defines the components associated with it, including the mixed-method approach and convergent parallel mixed method approach. The section outlines how convergent parallel mixed-method approach is utilised in the study and discusses the rationale for using this approach.

Mixed-methods research approaches involve qualitative and quantitative data collection, where there is emphasis on the integration of these two data forms with a probable reference to a philosophical basis or theoretical assumptions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The mixed-methods research designs foster the use of the combination of both quantitative and qualitative techniques and approaches to improve research quality within the study and to obtain a greater understanding of the research problem being investigated (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017; Johnson & Christensen, 2020). Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2018) discuss the importance of the use of a mixed-method approach with research questions that focus on real-life situations and multi-level perspectives. Ercikan and Roth (2009) are critical in the use of a single research design and it having supremacy over other designs, emphasising each design compatibility for offering the needed interpretation and understanding. Creswell and Creswell (2018) encouraged the continuum research approaches view, in which quantitative and qualitative approaches offer extreme ends in terms of research design, and mixed-method design is placed within the middle of the continuum. Qualitative approach is identified as an inductive design utilised by the researcher to explore an unknown procedure and explain

occurrence and motive behind a phenomenon (Pasick et al., 2009). The quantitative approach is a deductive design appropriate to measure a specific well-known phenomenon comprised of causality suggestions and prospects. The mixed method approach authentic paradigm does not limit the researcher to one particular approach (Johnson & Christensen, 2020), it allows for different focus modes among narrow, wide, and deep viewpoints (Johnson & Stefurak, 2013), deviating from a purist approach and adopting what pragmatically works (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). Mixed-method approaches allow for broad perception of the ‘positive education’ phenomenon with the complexity of its ‘how’ questions related to implementation and ‘to what extent’ question related to its impact on SEWB wellbeing and academic self-efficacy (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2015).

Since the 1990s, the mixed-method research approach has provided a ‘dialectical’ worldview compared to the other purist paradigms (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This pragmatism paradigm has allowed for multiple approaches and has integrated overviews with back-and-forth multiple overviews synthesis (Hall, 2013). This philosophy has been transformed into forming the metaparadigm dialectical pluralism. Positive education implementation and impact is complex and multi-faceted. The implementation and impact can be seen from views, judgements, hermeutic explanations, and feelings (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). Pragmatism as a philosophy has stated that the research design conducted and planned should be based on what best assists in answering the main purpose of the study and the research questions (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). According to pragmatism, knowledge has been based on the reality of the world being experienced (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). Pragmatism enables the flexibility to understand positive education and how it works (Creamer, 2018). Dewey stated that when exploring a particular phenomenon, the researcher must have considered all the consequences (Morgan, 2013). Practical and empirical consequences should be studied prior to judging ideas, by exploring the philosophical standpoints which dictate further actions to be

taken (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Positive education is new and not well-defined, with many complex practices and interventions which use different disciplines calling for real changes to pre-existing practices and beliefs (Romm, 2014). The author proposed the pragmatism paradigm since it promoted mixing best suitable research approaches to meet the research context (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). Students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy as concepts have intricate, multifaceted aspects that are impacted by many practices and concepts related to positive education; pragmatism permitted the researcher to benefit from investigating hermeneutic understandings, feelings, judgements, and views (Wagenaar, 2007) and thus allowed the researcher to generalise findings related to the benefits and downfalls of the impact and implementation of positive education. Furthermore, the most imperative rationale of adopting a philosophical paradigm encompassing pragmatism has been reality of how well and flexible pragmatism is in accommodating social, cultural and personal contexts of positive education and how it best works (Shannon-Baker, 2016).

3.3 Research Design

The study aims to explore the implementation of positive education and the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Implementation involves the school organisation such as the leaders, teachers, and students. Examining the impact involves all key stakeholders such as teachers, students, and parents. To obtain an in-depth understanding of positive education's impact and implementation, the research has used a convergent parallel mixed-methods research approach combining both qualitative and quantitative designs to gain an understanding of the research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). Convergent parallel mixed-methods research approach is symbolised by both qualitative and quantitative data collections methods being used and analysed to investigate the underpinning variables related to positive education, and further advance the understanding and investigate the research problem (Onwuegbuzie, Bustamante & Nelson, 2010). Creswell

and Plano Clark (2011) argue that the convergent parallel approach entails the concurrent conduct of the qualitative and quantitative elements of the research in the same research process, weighing the methods equally, analysing the quantitative and qualitative components independently and interpreting the results together. The research problem explored positive education's implementation and investigated its impact on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

The convergent parallel approach allowed the researcher to gain a comprehensive understanding of positive education implementation, through the conceptualisation associated with the practices of different stakeholders within the school system using qualitative designs, while the quantitative design examined the extent of the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai schools' context. The convergent parallel mixed method approach presented extensive queries and innovative designs tackling the research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), and therefore provided more confidence about the study's results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). The multiple realities of the positive education implementation and the extent of its impact on the variables was captured, corroborated, and compared using the convergent parallel mixed-method design (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018).

In general, the convergent parallel mixed method approach used in this study is popular within social sciences research (Demir & Pismek, 2018). This approach combines both qualitative and quantitative techniques concurrently within the same study to obtain a better understanding of the problem being investigated and to improve research quality (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017; Johnson & Christensen, 2020). The convergent parallel mixed-methods approach used in this study aims to obtain an in-depth understanding of the positive education phenomenon in terms of implementation and impact. The research process entails concurrent conduct of both qualitative and quantitative elements within the same phase during the

research, where the researcher equally weighs the two research methods, independently analyses the two components, and interprets the results jointly (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). The approach permitted the researcher to initially gain a better understanding and conceptualisation of positive education practices and allowed the researcher to gradually validate, corroborate and to evaluate the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Using convergent parallel mixed-method approach, the researcher aimed to compare qualitative finding and quantitative results and thus triangulate the findings (Demir & Pismek, 2018). The research approach is illustrated below in Figure (3.1):

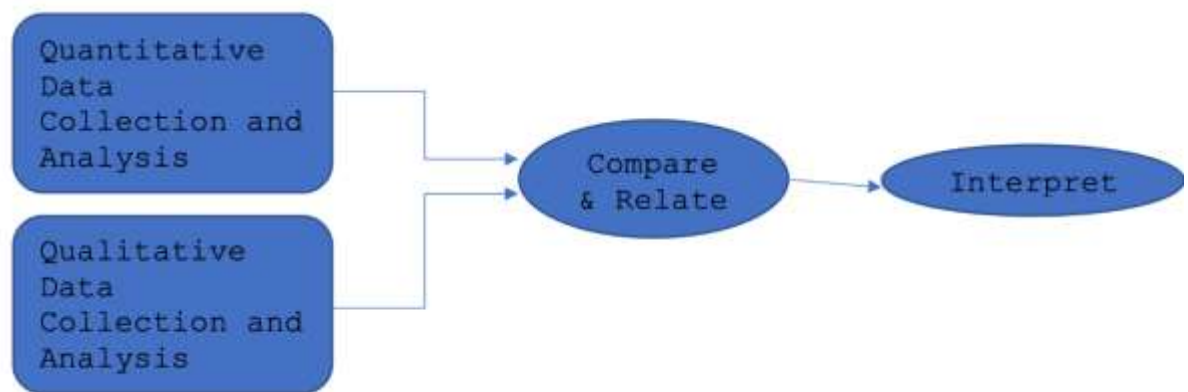


Figure (3. 1): The current's study proposed research approach 'convergent mixed-parallel design' (Adapted from Demir and Pismek, 2018)

Positive education is a multifaceted phenomenon, which makes researching its implementation and impact difficult. Halliday et al. (2020) identified a method to research the implementation of positive education. Halliday and colleagues argue that qualitative approaches are suitable to explore the topic of positive education implementation, while to look at impact a more quantitative approach must be utilised. Therefore, to answer the study's questions, a convergent parallel mixed design approach was utilised. The researcher examined all available research methods and consulted debates surrounding them prior to deciding that the mixed method approach is the most appropriate for the current study since it harmonises with the study's purpose and nature. First, no studies have been conducted on the

implementation of positive education within the context of the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region; therefore, the researcher had to find answers, through the use of concurrent quantitative and qualitative tools to obtain a deep understanding of the positive education phenomenon implementation and impact. The mixed-method convergent parallel approach is suitable for the current study since it neutralises discrepancies that might exist within certain methods and thus assist in obtaining a complete picture of the phenomenon which cannot be obtained through the dependence on one method (Creswell, 2013). Since the researcher aims to study the implementation, impact and extent of impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy; the researcher decided to use the convergent parallel mixed method because she aims to reach a thorough understanding of the research questions and is persuaded that this research design warrants that the outcomes are substantiated in participants' experiences and through quantitative and qualitative techniques. Moreover, the convergent parallel mixed method approach strengthens the study results' validity and triangulation of evidence (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). It is used to triangulate findings and construct reality from multiple evidence sources which will lead to the identification of key factors and improved validity (Wang, Kretschmer and Hartman, 2010).

There are various research methods used for qualitative research such as grounded theory, hermeneutics, phenomenology, ethnography, and content analysis. The current study used content analysis as the main research method in addition to interviews, and close-ended questionnaires. Several sources of international and national policies, school strategic plans, websites, KHDA school reports, lesson plans, Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) and Pupil Attitude Towards Self and School (PASS) reports were mainly analysed. This content analysis was mainly qualitative; many critics in the quantitative field criticise this method of content analysis. They find this method simplistic and that it does not result in statistical analysis (Morgan, 1993). However, Burnard (1995) asserts that content analysis is one of the

leading techniques within qualitative research. It consists of analysis tools of verbal words, texts, visuals (Cole, 1988). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) view content analysis as categorizing and classifying techniques based on shared meaning, while Krippendorff (2004) argues that it creates a better understanding of the data and improves the replicability and validity of inferences. Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) state that content analysis aims to find explanations to the encoded messages within communication documents. Based on the study purpose, observations of some lessons and interviews with key stakeholders such as Senior School Leadership members, Positive Education/Wellbeing Officer and Head of Departments (HoDs) were carried out, along with the document analysis. Concurrently, the quantitative data collection questionnaires were carried to examine the impact from the perceptions of the different stakeholders such as teachers, students, and parents.

The current study used both the deductive and inductive approaches for document analysis to subjectively interpret reports, policies, strategic plans and lesson plans to quantify findings within a systematic classification coding process. Content analysis of DSWC reports and PASS reports used a positivist approach to generate common themes and hypotheses (White & Marsh, 2006). Relevant and valid categories related to positive education and wellbeing were generated which allowed for the generation of questionnaires associated with the third research question. For this study, the researcher used inductive content analysis since there is a lack of similar research within the UAE. This inductive approach is argued to be used by Elo and Kyngäs (2008) if there are no studies associated with the researched phenomenon and if this phenomenon is fragmented. This study used both the qualitative and quantitative content analysis. First, the qualitative content analysis as an inductive approach was based on humanistic research, while the quantitative content analysis utilised the approach of analysis of texts, data, graphs and the identification of concepts, criteria and categories. The researcher in the current study utilised qualitative content analysis, where she retrieved all three main

themes related to wellbeing from reports such as psychological, emotional and social wellbeing and one main theme related to attitude to learning (academic self-efficacy). Then, the researcher used the quantitative content analysis through categorising the frequency of appearance of certain criteria within each theme.

The current study is based on the phenomenological approach since the researcher is interested in the perceptions of participants about the implementation and impact of positive education. Phenomenology is a qualitative research approach that describes lived experiences of certain individuals through a certain phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994). Phenomenological studies allow researchers to examine the experience of a group of individuals who have lived through a particular phenomenon and generalise about the phenomenon from the multiple participants' perspectives. In this study, the lived experience is seen through the lens of key stakeholders, school leaders, teachers, students, and parents.

The qualitative strand of the study involved document analysis of key national and international policies, strategic plans, lesson plans, KHDA school reports, DSWC and PASS reports, interviews were held with key senior leadership involved in positive education, positive education/ wellbeing officer, and head of departments to collect data related to implementation and to examine what needs to be studied for impact. The second strand of the current study conducted three close-ended questionnaires to obtain the perceptions of students, teachers, and parents in terms of how they perceive the impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy.

3.4 Research Method

In this section the research outlines the proposed site, participants, population, sample, data collection tools, data analysis, reliability and validity and ethical consideration.

3.4.1 Context

The current research study was executed in four Dubai private schools that are implementing positive education. Dubai is a major emirate out of seven in the UAE. Its population is approximately three million, consisting of approximately eight percent Emiratis, and ninety-two percent foreigners (non-Emiratis) (Dubai Statistics Center, 2018). Dubai's educational system is comprised predominately of private schools and a few public schools (KHDA, 2019a; MoE, 2021a). Most private schools (K-12) cater to the expatriate society with diverse cultural, social, and educational needs (Bradshaw, Tenant & Lydiatt, 2004). Dubai's private schools have a diversified international student body and diversified taught curricula (Bradshaw, Tenant & Lydiatt, 2004). Emirati students seeking quality education also choose to attend private schools (Kenaid, 2012). Dubai's public schools are governed by the Ministry of Education (MoE), while private schools are governed by the Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA). The current study focuses on Dubai's private schools. The KHDA has partnered with the UAE Ministry of Happiness to jointly design the National Programme for Happiness (NPHP) (Lambert & Hussain, 2016). This initiative recommends that KHDA schools adopt positive education spanning a five-year period, inspiring students to think about their happiness, wellbeing, engagement, and quality of life and encourage 'flourishing' (KHDA, 2019a).

3.4.2 Site and Population

3.4.2.1 Site

The focus of the study was Dubai K-12 private schools. Only schools implementing positive education were selected for the study since the study explores the implementation and impact of positive education. Also, Dubai private schools were chosen because since 2017,

Dubai adopted the use of DSWC and PASS tests which are used as assessment tools in the current study to answer one of the research questions.

3.4.2.2 Population

The population of participants within this study is identified to be K-12 students within Dubai's private schools sector, along with teachers and leadership teams in Dubai English-medium private schools implementing positive education and participating in the DSWC survey and PASS test. The main scope of the study is to study the positive education implementation and impact within K-12 Dubai private schools. The conditions for including schools within the study was first that they must be private schools that implement positive education and administer the DSWC and PASS test. The collection of the data involved interviews and questionnaires of school leaders, parents, teachers, and students. To obtain opinions from all stakeholders for the qualitative phase, interviews and focus groups with key stakeholders were held. For interviews and student questionnaire purposes, mostly Grade 5 – 12 students were included in this study since the researcher believes these students were more accessible and could be easily engaged as direct participants. For lower grades, KG-Grade 4 parents mostly provided feedback on their behalf with questionnaires and in focus groups. Also, the study focus was more related to Grade 6 and above because in 2017 when KHDA introduced the DSWC, only Grades 6-9 participated in the survey. Therefore, data DSWC for Grades lower than 5 is not available. In 2018, DSWC data was started to be collected for Grades 10-12. The participating schools were only able to provide DSWC data for the years 2017 and 2018 and therefore Grades 10-12 data only for 2018 was available. Since the study is to examine the extent of impact in wellbeing there would be no starting point to compare DSWC results from 2017 with 2018 for Grades 10-12. In terms of the PASS tests, available data for 2018 and 2020 were compared for the same students, who were surveyed in both 2018 and

2020; this means they would have moved up two grades levels. The population of students involved students from Grades 3–Grade 12.

Table (3.1) below describes the population of private schools in Dubai. The International Positive Education Network (IPEN) website indicated that Dubai as being the central city for positive education within MENA region. However, the researcher was not able to obtain the exact key number of private schools implementing positive education from the respective authority. The researcher searched the MoE website to obtain the latest numbers of private schools by cycle. Table (3.1) shows the MoE 2018-2019 available statistics, showing that there was a total of 208 public schools in Dubai (MoE, 2021a). The total population of K-12 private schools in Dubai was 191 schools. Therefore, the total population of private schools that cover the scope in terms of Grades and Cycles are 191 private schools. Positive education as an initiative had only been introduced since 2017. Therefore, it has been difficult to obtain the exact and most recent statistics related to the number of private schools that have implemented positive education since this initiative started.

Academic Year	School Category	Education Zone	School Type	Kinder garten	Cycle 1	Cycle 2	Secondary	Total
2018-2019	Private Schools	Dubai	Girls	0	0	0	3	3
2018-2019	Private Schools	Dubai	Boys	0	0	0	4	4
2018-2019	Private Schools	Dubai	Mixed	7	29	22	122	184
2018-2019	Private Schools	Dubai	Total	7	29	50	129	191

Table (3. 1): Population of Dubai’s private schools’ distribution (Adopted from MoE, 2021a)

3.4.3 Sampling Techniques and Samples

The study involved both qualitative and quantitative designs, therefore sampling techniques were important and should be aligned to the study’s research questions (Creswell, 2012). To carry out this study, data collection involved a period of five months from February 2021 until

June 2021. Seeking access to the primary data within this study and to the site was a challenge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Creswell (2009) argues that targeted sample populations find it difficult to commit their time to participating in others' studies. One challenge to this argument is that in some institutions some individuals find it hard to grant access for research due to various reasons, such as to fears of confidentiality and topic sensitivity. The researcher was aware of the latter factors and how these factors may hinder her access to the site and population. Therefore, she reassured contacted parties of maintaining confidentiality, where she met with key individuals and explained the study and reassured them. The researcher ensured that she obtained all the required permissions from involved schools and participants prior to administering the study. Initially, the researcher completed the documents needed to obtain consent from the schools (Appendix B.1) and met with all principals of the schools to explain the importance and significance of the research; she also outlined the requirements needed.

The sample consisted of four private Dubai schools implementing positive education. To obtain this sample of schools, the researcher used various methods to obtain access to these schools. Initially, the researcher contacted KHDA to request assistance with the access. KHDA assisted the researcher by posting the outline of the study on their wellbeing group. One school from the four sampled schools expressed interest in participating in the study. For the other three schools, the researcher obtained access to a colleague's school that had been implementing positive education and through the positive education officer at this school, another three schools were suggested. The researcher contacted the other three schools; only two schools showed interest in participating in the study. To obtain more schools, the researcher searched the web for Dubai private schools that implement positive education, as well as the Well Network website. Several schools were contacted, but most of them expressed

difficulty due to the Covid-19 pandemic. The total number of schools contacted was ten, but only four schools accepted and provided access to their school to implement the study.

After being granted access, the researcher began immediately examining websites, international, local, and school policies, KHDA reports, school strategic plans, lesson plans, DSWC and PASS reports. These various media were chosen in order to identify the systemic support of international, local, and school policies for the implementation of positive education to support students' wellbeing. Lesson plans were reviewed to explore how positive education is being integrated within the schools' curriculum and environment. DSWC and PASS reports were used as source of primary document analysis to obtain assessment from students surveyed within schools to answer the research question related to the extent of impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The researcher concurrently started collecting quantitative and qualitative strands of data. Document analysis were based on existing quantitative and qualitative information using a selected list of policy documents and other documents identified based on the literature review and the researcher's knowledge of available documents. Also, questionnaires were administered to the teachers, students, and parents as per the school's convenience. The total population of the schools that were targeted was Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 private schools in Dubai implementing positive education out of the total of 191 private schools. The total sample of population is four schools; the percentage of the sample could not be calculated since there was no exact number or exact statistics related to the number of private schools in Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 that have implemented positive education since this initiative started.

Table (3.2) below provides the codes of the four participating schools that were used in this research. It also describes the curriculum within each school and how positive education was started within each school sampled. It also describes how the questionnaires were administered.

No.	School	Curriculum	Context - Implementation of Positive Education	Sample Population Description
1	AJA	(IB)	The school always included character education as part of its whole school model since it first opened in 2010. When the KHDA initiative started in 2017, the school Senior Leadership started incorporating elements of positive education and shifting towards the use of positive education.	Students from Grade 5–Grade 12 involved in positive education implementation were sent the questionnaire to participate. All K-12 teachers and parents were sent the questionnaire to participate in the study.
2	BITJ	American	Senior Leadership Members started a discussion about positive education implementation when the initiative was announced by KHDA in 2017. In 2017 senior leadership and selected teachers were trained. During 2017–2020 full implementation started within the different classes across different subjects that had selected teachers trained for positive education, and across the school.	Students from Grade 5–Grade 12 involved in positive education implementation were sent the questionnaire to participate. All teachers involved in the implementation of positive education. In terms of parents, all parents from K–12 were sent the questionnaire to participate in the study.
3	CGS	Indian/IB	The school always included character education as part of its whole school education model since it first opened in 1986. When the KHDA initiative started in 2017, the school Senior Leadership started incorporating elements of positive education and shifting towards the use of positive education.	Students from Grade 5–Grade 12 involved in positive education implementation were sent the questionnaire to participate. All teachers were sent the questionnaire to participate. All parents from K – 12 were sent the questionnaire to participate in the study.
4	DITM	American	The school started the implementation during the academic year 2020-2021 in only two grades. These grades were Grades 9 and 12. Some teachers and Senior Leadership Members were trained on positive education.	Students, teachers and parents from Grade 9 and Grade 12 involved in positive education implementation were sent the questionnaire to participate.

Table (3. 2): Participating schools' positive education context and curriculum

Table (3.3) below provides a summary of the number of participants in each questionnaire per school and as a total. Four hundred and ninety-one students participated in taking the questionnaire. However, there were eleven questionnaires that were incomplete and had to be removed. Therefore, the total number of student participants in the questionnaire was (480).

The total number of teacher participants was 43, while the total number of parent participants was 277.

No.	School Code	Year Groups	No. of Student Participants	No. of Teacher Participants	No. of Parent Participants
1	AJA	Pre-KG – Grade 12	55	20	147
2	BITJ	Pre KG – Grade 12	339	18	53
3	CGS	KG 1- Grade 12	27	0	44
4	DITM	Pre-KG – Grade 12	59	5	33
Total			480	43	277

Table (3. 3): Participating schools' summary of questionnaire participants

To offer and review comments related to positive education's implementation and impact, the researcher used semi-structured interviews and focus groups as part of the qualitative data collection phase. The researcher interviewed one head leader from each school and the Positive Education/Wellbeing Officer and Head of Department (HoD) to obtain information from those who were strategically involved in positive education, using a purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling technique involves non-random selection of participants based on specific characteristics as per research constraints (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). The interviews were conducted online via Zoom and MS Teams due to the Covid-19 pandemic and the lack of physical access to the participants. These interviews were recorded and transcribed.

The second quantitative strand involved questionnaires to measure the stakeholders' perceptions. The research proposed convenience sampling of all K–12 participating schools. The researcher used convenience sampling, which targets participants who are easily available and showing interest to participate. Convenience sampling is non-random sampling where participants meeting certain criteria and who are willing to participate, are included in the research (Etikan, Musa & AlKassim, 2015), therefore no inference generalisation of findings can be used, with potential of bias (Morse & Niehaus, 2009). One advantage of convenience sampling is that it reduces cost and time related to access (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). The researcher cooperated with the four school representatives to send the questionnaire to all students, parents and teachers involved in positive education in the school, and the questionnaire was administered.

During the administration of the questionnaire, focus groups were held with stakeholders (students, parents, and teachers) using convenience sampling. Groups of three to seven teachers/parents/students conveniently ready and available to participate were recruited from each school (Johnson & Christensen, 2017) to dig deeper in their conceptualisation of positive education. To overcome limitations related to convenience sampling, the research has

thoroughly described the participating schools' characteristics (Johnson & Christensen, 2014), as shown in Table (3.2) above. The focus groups were also carried out online using Zoom and MS Teams. As per the ethical consideration, focus groups involving students included a teacher being present as part of the focus group.

Table (3.4) provides a summary of the total number of participants in the semi-structured interviews and focus groups. Since the purpose of the study is to study the implementation of positive education and its impact, first, the researcher needed to meet with school leaders, heads of departments, and senior leadership members to explore the strategic and practical factors associated with the positive education implementation. Teachers, parents, and students helped provide information related to the implementation process and factors related to themselves in terms of implementation. Also, during the interviews, the impact was discussed, and evidence related to impact and perceptions of leaders, teachers, students, and parents was obtained. Perceptions of the impact needed to be obtained from all the latter stakeholders because positive education was being implemented in most schools as a whole school approach involving leaders and teachers.

No.	Participant type	Total No. of Participants in Interviews and Focus Groups from four Schools
1	Positive education/wellbeing officers	4
2	Principals/Head Leaders	4
3	Heads of Department/Teachers (HoDs)	4
4	No. of Teachers Participating in Focus Groups	17 teachers
5	No. of Parents Participating in Focus Groups	10 parents
6	No. of Students Participating in Focus Groups	15 students

Table (3. 4): Summary of participant's types and number participating in interviews and focus groups

Lastly, the Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) survey and the Pupil Attitudes to Self and School (PASS) assessment test results of participating students in the participating

schools were sampled to study the extent of impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy across the past four years, since the adoption of positive education and wellbeing census in 2017. DSWC measures wellbeing (KHDA, 2019b). PASS is psychometric assessment that identifies emotional and attitudinal factors impacting students' academic performance and self-efficacy, allowing educators to address and measure the wellbeing of students (GL Education, 2018).

A sample population involves a set of participants sharing common characteristics. It consists of a smaller representative group selected from a targeted population (Peck, Olsen & Devore, 2015). Table (3.5) below summarises the sample size for the study's participants based in the four participating schools. The researcher has considered the low response and access risk and therefore was not committed to covering 10% of the population of all positive education private in Dubai.

Participant type	Targeted Population	Actual Size of population
Schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10 private schools • 1 school for piloting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 participating schools • Multi-participants from multiple schools for piloting
Positive education/ wellbeing officers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 assigned officers (1 from each school) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 officers
Principals/Head Leaders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 Senior Leadership Member (1 from each school) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 Senior Leadership Members
Heads of Department/Teachers (HoDs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 HoDs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 HoDs
Questionnaires	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10% of Population - Student Questionnaires • 10% of Population- Parent Questionnaires • 10% of Population- Teacher Questionnaires 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 480 students' questionnaire • 277 parents' questionnaire • 43 teachers' questionnaire
No. of Teachers Participating in Focus Groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 focus groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3 focus groups (17 teachers)
No. of Parents Participating Focus Groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 focus groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 focus groups (10 parents)
No. of Students Participating Focus Groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 focus groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3 focus groups (15 students)

Table (3. 5): Summary total of actual participating numbers from the participating schools

3.4.4 Data Collection and Instrumentation

The following section presents an overview of the data collection methods and outlines the instruments that were used across the qualitative and quantitative approaches of the study.

3.4.4.1 Document analysis

Bowen (2009) asserts that document analysis aims to explore and interpret data to develop empirical knowledge, gain and elicit understanding. Document analysis is efficient in assessing and examining documents (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). It produces excerpts, data, passages, and quotes that can be organised into major themes and categories through content analysis (Labuschagne, 2003). In the current, study the aim of the content analysis was to unveil the

holistic implementation process encompassing positive education within Dubai private schools.

Although the study's context is Dubai private schools, policy documents reviewed by the researcher encompassed international, national, local, and school contexts. Table (3.6) below, provides a list of related policies documents and the rationale for the selection criteria. The rationale for selecting documents includes the following:

1. General coverage related to positive education policy, implementation and development of positive education and wellbeing on the global, national, local, and school level.
2. Specific coverage of practices, conceptualisation, and curriculum related to positive education, wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy.
3. Review questionnaire related to wellbeing and academic self-efficacy to align with the study questionnaires.
4. Obtain assessment data related to DSWC and PASS results to examine the extent of the impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

No.	Document	Selection Rationale
1	UNESCO Strategy on Education for Health and Wellbeing (2016)	A recently adopted international effort unifying international educational direction and ensuring Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) alignment
2	International Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC) (1989)	Since the UAE has ratified the convention, it has become legally bound to implement it through its programmes and policies
3	Development of Health Promoting Schools: A Framework of Action (WHO)	A framework which suggests set of sections that promote students' health from a holistic view that encompasses a holistic model (mental, physical, environmental and social aspects) within schools
4	Executive Council Resolution n. 2/2017 Regulating Private Schools in the Emirate of Dubai	It outlines the expectations and responsibilities of Dubai's private schools
5	The UAE Centennial 2071	It outlines the UAE's goals to maintain a cohesive, happy society
6	The UAE National Agenda 2021	It outlines the national goals and priorities for education
7	Dubai Plan 2021	It outlines Dubai's priorities and goals in terms of communities and individuals
8	MHC-LF	Mental Health Continuum Long Form
9	MSLQ	Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire
10	Examples of school positive-education and wellbeing policies/Strategic Plans	It outlines the practices that these schools use to conceptualise and implement positive education and student wellbeing
11	School positive education lesson plans	It outlines how the positive education interventions are integrated within the school
12	DSWC Reports	Dubai Student Wellbeing Census
13	PASS Reports	Pupil Attitude for Self and School

Table (3. 6): List of documents to be examined and analysed

3.4.4.2 Interviews

The study's purpose was to explore individuals' perceptions with respect to the practice, impact and conceptualisation of positive education implementation and impact (Kvale, 1996). There are two components to the current study: the investigation of the implementation of positive education, and the impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The interview questions consisted of two parts; first, questions to explore the implementation within the schools, and the second part involved questions related to the impact. The quantitative questionnaires were administered to obtain stakeholders' perceptions on the impact of positive education. Therefore, the researcher was able to run the qualitative and quantitative data collection parts concurrently. First, the interviews were mostly

gauging interviewees' views to obtain information related to implementation and implementation factors impacting positive education. The second part of the interview utilised the questionnaire components to obtain a general overview of the stakeholders' perceptions on positive education's impact. Its aim was to provide triangulating examples and evidence of stakeholders' perceptions. The researcher did not require to analyse data results from the questionnaire to set up the questions related to impact in the semi-structured interviews. Secondly, the interviews provided a wealth of data from different stakeholders' experiences, knowledge, and beliefs which could be corroborated and compared with other data sources (Mears, 2009) that gauge how each school studied implemented positive education and how positive education may impact each school and student's wellbeing and self-efficacy differently. Interviews are used in circumstances where the researcher cannot study the participants' behaviour, interpretations, and feelings of the world around them (Merriam, 2009). It is an inquiry mode that can be used to obtain insight into the participants' experience (Seidman, 2006). The aim of the current study is to explore the implementation and impact of positive education using the insight of those involved, such as senior leadership, heads of departments, students, parents, and teachers. Many interview types exist (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009) in social research, such as structured interviews, focus groups and semi-structured interviews. The choice of these interviews depends on the different researcher's objective, focus and research questions (Alsaawi, 2014). This study's research purpose was best served using two types:

- **Semi-structured interviews:** these are mainly targeting senior school leadership head leaders, HoDs, and positive education officers. They include oral statements to a set of organised queries to gather information from participants, intending to clear up enquiries and examine subjects' answers further if required (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2015). Here they were used to

gauge stakeholders' understanding of the positive education implementation process and impact allowing for flexible open-ended questions (Bryman, 2012); which will contribute a rich amount of anecdotal narratives on the implementation practices and provide supporting data and information on the impacts of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy. Semi-structured interviews involve a combination of un-structured and structured interviews. Here, the moderator/researcher prepares some questions to be used in advance, however, they still provide the interviewees the chance to elaborate on certain issues in more detail, providing clarifications through the use of open-ended questions. Probing is usually used by the interviewee to ask for more clarification.

Appendices (B.2, B.3, B.4) describe some of the questions that were used during these interviews. The researcher ensured that interviewees were given the opportunity to use mostly anecdotal narratives during the semi-structured interviews, using questions as prompts to direct the interviewees' focus on providing key research-related information (Mears, 2009). The semi-structured interview questions were adopted from Halliday et al. (2020), where Halliday and colleagues have tested these questions to study mainly implementation of positive education using many factors. Also, questions aligned to the questionnaires were included to gauge how stakeholders perceive the impact of positive education on students. Halliday et al. (2020) assert that constructs such as: provider constructs, recipient constructs, intervention constructs, organisational constructs and contextual constructs, all impact implementations.

- **Focus groups:** emphasise the interaction among participants under the interviewer's moderation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). It provides

valuable perceptions usually missed during individual interviews in an economical and efficient manner, but can be complex to arrange, and with members' conflict and dominance (Smithson, 2000). Focus groups are conducted to collect different information from a group of homogenous participants, who are involved in the reflection process on interviewers' questions. Usually, these focus groups involve six to nine individuals (Denscombe, 2007). There are some drawbacks to focus group interviews, such as the confidentiality of participants, since most participants must share their opinions in front of each other (Robson, 2011). The focus groups in the current study involved four to seven teachers, parents, and students from each school. The number of participants in each focus group varied due to the convenience sampling and difficulty of having similar number representation from different schools. Positive implementation practices involve interaction among many of the stakeholders, each experiencing the process differently; using focus groups helped the researcher accumulate positive education implementation practices and impact narratives and information that is common among the different stakeholders, providing rich and valuable perceptions. Some of these questions were modified and others were added to be aligned with the designed questionnaires (Appendix B.8, B.9, B.10) which examine the perception of key stakeholders on the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

Like the semi-structured interviews, Appendices (B.5, B.6, B.7) describe some of the questions that were used during focus groups. The researcher ensured that interviewees were given the opportunity to use anecdotal narratives during the focus group, using questions as prompts to direct the interviewees' focus on

providing key research-related information (Mears, 2009). The focus questions were adapted from Halliday et al. (2020), where Halliday and colleagues have tested these questions to study mainly the implementation of positive education, using many factors which they perceive impact implementation. As discussed, earlier Halliday et al. (2020) assert that constructs such as: provider, recipient, intervention, organisational and contextual constructs, all impact implementations. Some of these questions were modified and others were added to be aligned with the designed questionnaires (Appendix B.8, B.9, B.10) which examine the perception of key stakeholders on the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

Two experienced professors surveyed the questions and inquiries, and their comments were used to change the working of the questions and to enhance the reliability of interview protocols (Flick, Kardoff & Steinke, 2004). This subjective information from the interviews and focus groups was examined using thematic analysis and coding to answer the first and second study questions.

3.4.4.3 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are widely used due to their many advantages, such as allowance of anonymity, and the ability to sample many participants with minimal time, money, and effort (Mertens, 2010), and they provide the chance to generalise findings built on appropriate population sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Although qualitative methods capture attitude more precisely than questionnaires, questionnaires undoubtedly are the most widely utilised research approach. Positive education literature has shown that questionnaires are widely used to gauge understanding of its impact on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, by gathering data related to behaviour, attitudes, and perceptions (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2015). A series of online questionnaires were administered to teachers, parents, and students,

in order to identify from their perspectives how positive education impacts students and transforms their SEWB and academic self-efficacy.. The following questionnaires addressed the study's second question.

- **Students' questionnaire (Appendix B.8)**
- **Teachers' questionnaire (Appendix B.9)**
- **Parents' questionnaire (Appendix B.10)**

The literature review had shown that no single tool/instrument assesses the impact of positive education on students' wellbeing from different dimensions (psychological, social). Also, no single instrument assesses the combined impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The researcher used the methodology presented by Carpenter (2018) to develop the questionnaire. The items' wording considered the characteristics of participants (teachers, parents, and students). Previous positive education, positive psychology and wellbeing research was consulted to design these questionnaires (Graham et al., 2014). And they were modified from many sources from the literature. These sources included the DSWC survey (KHDA, 2019b) and Subjective Wellbeing Single-item Questionnaire (Ruscio, 2018), the psychological wellbeing model of six dimensions proposed by Ryff et al. (1998), the affect balance framework proposed by Bradburn (1969), the Mental Health Continuum Long Form (MHC- LF) measuring social and psychological wellbeing (Keyes, 1998), and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich et al., 1993). The different stakeholders' questionnaires have the following content in common:

- a demographic section to obtain age, gender, nationality, student's grade, and number of years at the current school, teacher's subject and grade taught, and parents' profession.

All questionnaires were used to study the opinions of the group of participants involved in the study's topic (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2015). The questionnaire was created as a web

survey using Jotform which has the advantage of easy accessibility for participants (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2015). Technology has provided the researcher with a cheaper and more convenient manner for conducting questionnaires rather than using postal or paper questionnaires. Online questionnaires have various advantages; for example, they allow for flexibility to both researcher and respondents, in addition to objectivity, anonymity, and cumulative data analysis (Gifford, 2016). Online questionnaires enable the conduct of large-scale studies (Couper, 2000).

The questionnaire started with an overview of the study's purpose, and an ethical consent form to ask for participation. It consisted of 30 items and demographical questions. The three questionnaires were designed to use the five-point Likert-scale (5= strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree). The Likert-scale is considered as ordinal data using non-parametric testing, which is simple and provides the researcher with valuable feedback results (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018).

- **Students' questionnaire (Appendix B.8)**

Appendix (B.8) shows the students' questionnaire used to examine student demographics, perceptions related to the impact of positive education on SEWB, and academic self-efficacy. Part 1 is the demographic section, which provides information related to the participant's background. This part will assist the researcher to categorise the impact of positive education on students based on demographic data collected, such as: gender, age, grade level, nationality, Emirate, family make-up, curriculum and years spent at the same school. Part 2 contains questions to collect students' perceptions on the impact of positive education on the three constructs of the study: emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing, academic self-efficacy. The first ten questions examine students' perceptions of the extent of how positive education implementation impacts emotional wellbeing. These questions measure the impact in relation to students' feeling of happiness, safety, satisfaction, trust in the school, ability to problem-

solve, development of resiliency, ability to control negative feelings, growth mindset, positive outlook, and ability to develop a goal or purpose in life. The second ten questions explore students' perceptions of the extent of the impact of positive education on social wellbeing, where questions measure students' perception on the impact of positive education on their relationship with their peers, relationship with others in school, feeling of being equitable with others and trusted by others, connection with individuals from different cultural backgrounds, development of social skills to deal with others and decision-making, development of active relationships with students, teachers, and community inside and outside school. The last ten questions measure students' perceptions of the impact of positive education on elements associated with academic self-efficacy such as improvement in academic skills related to reading, writing and numeracy, development of students' sense of ability to achieve maximum potential, assistance during challenging opportunities and experiences, ability to express views and ideas, and improvement in their attitude towards learning and learning activities.

- **Teachers' questionnaire (Appendix B.9)**

Appendix (B.9) shows the teachers' questionnaire which measures teachers' perceptions of the extent of the impact of positive education on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy. Part 1 comprises the demographic data that will be utilised by the researcher to categorise perceptions of teachers related to positive education's impact on students' SEWB. The demographic accumulates teachers' data related to gender, position/s in school (some teachers teaching positive education have dual jobs such as counsellors and HoDs), years of experience, education level, subject taught and the number of professional development sessions received related to positive education. Part 2 is comprised of Likert closed-ended questions which measure teachers' perceptions of how positive education has impacted their students in terms of emotional wellbeing such as feeling of happiness, safety, satisfaction, trust in school, ability to problem-solve, development of resiliency, ability to control negative

feelings, growth mindset, positive outlook, and ability to develop a goal or purpose in life. The second ten questions explore teachers' perceptions on the extent of the impact positive education has on social wellbeing, where questions measure teachers' perceptions on the impact of positive education on students' relationships with their peers, relationships with others in schools, feeling of being equitable with others and trusted by others, connection with individuals from different cultural backgrounds, development of social skills to deal with others, and decision-making, development of active relationships with students, teachers, and community inside and outside school. The last ten questions measure teachers' perceptions of the impact of positive education on elements associated to academic self-efficacy such as improvement in academic skills related to reading, writing and numeracy, development of students of a sense of ability to achieve maximum potential, assistance during challenging opportunities and experiences, ability to express views and ideas, and improvement in their attitude towards learning and learning activities.

- **Parents' questionnaire (Appendix B.10)**

Appendix (B.10) shows the parents' questionnaire, which measures the perceptions of parents of how positive education impacts students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy. Part 1 includes the demographic information of parents according to gender, age, education level, socio-economic status, size, and type of household. To utilise the latter data collected the researcher required to relate the students to their parents and collect further data to gauge the impact of positive education according to different demographic factors. Part 1b obtains students' gender, age, nationality, grade, curriculum, number of years at school, participation in extracurricular activities, frequency of parent interaction with the student related to school, and availability of positive education/wellbeing officer in school. Part 2 is comprised of Likert closed-ended questions which measures parents' perceptions of how positive education has impacted their children in terms of emotional wellbeing, such as feeling of happiness, safety,

satisfaction, trust in school, ability to problem-solve, development of resiliency, ability to control negative feelings, growth mindset, positive outlook, and ability to develop a goal or purpose in life. The second ten questions explore parents' perception on the extent of the impact positive education has on social wellbeing, where questions measure parents' perception on the impact of positive education on students' relationship with their peers, relationship with others in schools, feeling of being equitable with others and trusted by others, connection with individuals from different cultural backgrounds, development of social skills to deal with others, and decision-making, development of active relationships with students, teachers, and community inside and outside school. The last ten questions measure parents' perceptions of the impact of positive education on elements associated with academic self-efficacy such as improvement in academic skills related to reading, writing and numeracy, development of students of a sense of ability to achieve maximum potential, assistance during challenging opportunities and experiences, ability to express views and ideas, and improvement in their attitude towards learning and learning activities.

3.4.4.4 Assessment Tools - PASS and DSWC

3.4.4.4.1 Pupil Attitudes to Self and School (PASS)

PASS is psychometric assessment multi-factorial measure using students' perspectives that assists schools in identifying student SEWB and academic self-efficacy. It has been used in Dubai since 2017 in line with positive education initiatives as a student assessment tool, along with DSWC (Williams, Whittome & Watts, 2005). The PASS assessment tool measures students' attitudes towards their learning. The tool consists of nine factors which describe students' attitudes towards learning; these are summarised in Table (3.7) (GL Education, 2019).

No.	Factor Name	Explanation
1	Feelings about school	Examines students' feeling of belonging or alienation from their learning environment. Low score indicates 'social exclusion' or bullying.
2	Perceived learning capability	Explores students' impressions related to self-efficacy, revealing disaffection and demoralisation.
3	Self-regard	Like self-worth, focuses on learning and is strongly correlated with achievement.
4	Preparedness for learning	Measures students' perception of their own abilities to learn, focusing on attentiveness, study skills and students' concentration. Correlates with students that are at risk of behavioural problems.
5	Attitudes to teachers	Investigates students' perceptions in relation to their relationships with school staff.
6	General work ethic	Focuses on students' success motivation and future aspirations, highlighting students' direction and purposes beyond school.
7	Confidence in learning	Highlights students' perseverance and ability to cope and persevere against challenges.
8	Attitudes to attendance	Predict students' attitude towards attendance and enables teachers to intervene with earlier strategies to avoid the likelihood of high future absence risk.
9	Response to curriculum demands	Motivational measure which explores school-based motivational measures to complete and undertake tasks related to the curriculum.

Table (3. 7): PASS assessment factors measuring student attitude toward learning (Adapted from GL Education, 2019)

The PASS test is a self-report survey that is administered by schools in Dubai every year or alternate year, depending on the school preference, as an assessment tool. It is an online computerised assessment tool that is administered using the GL software package. The school can administer it for all grades depending on their preference. KHDA does not mandate the schools to administer the PASS test; it is recommended but not mandated. All four participating schools have administered the PASS assessment test since 2018. However, only three schools provided the reports for 2018-2019 and 2020-2021. These were AJA, BITJ, and DITM. AJA administered the tests for Grades 6–12 during these academic years, while BITJ administered the test from K-12 and DITM administered the test to Grade 10 only during 2018 and to Grades 5, 7, 9 and 11. For this research, the researcher followed the same students from 2018-2019 to

2020-2021 to study the changes in wellbeing and academic self-efficacy for these students. As stated earlier, DITM started implementing positive education during 2020-2021 to Grades 9 and 12. The PASS results for these students is not available and therefore unable to be used. However, AJA and BITJ results were used; the results from the same students from 2018 to 2020 were tallied and compared. Table (3.8) below provides details of the number of PASS tests administered and the ones used for the current study.

No.	Test Administered 2018	Grades	Total Administered 2020	Grades	Total Used (Same students from 2018 - 2020)	Grades in 2018	Grades in 2020
AJA	310	6 - 12	314	6 - 12	146	6 -10	8 -12
BITJ	1454	3 -12	314	6 - 12	860	3 - 11	5 - 12
DITM	108	10	428	5,7,9, 11	0	-	-
Total PASS Results Used (Study Sample)					1006		

Table (3. 8): PASS assessment tool sample used for the current study

Figure (3.2) describes the PASS assessment tool factors that directly impact academic self-efficacy which in turn assist students in achieving academic success and it provides educators with the students' perceptions on how well schools promote a love of learning and positive wellbeing and mindsets (GL Education, 2017). Figure (3.2) shows that the three PASS factors that determine academic self-efficacy are: 'Confidence in Learning', 'Perceived Learning Capability', and 'Learner Self-Regard', while self-efficacy for self-regulation is determined by one PASS factor, 'Preparedness for Learning' (GL Education, 2018). Figure (3.2) shows that self-efficacy drives students' aspirations, goals, confidence, academic achievement, motivation, and resilience. Therefore, if the four factors mentioned above show a high percentile, both self-efficacy for academic success and self-efficacy for self-regulation will positively enhance a student's resilience, drive, and confidence showing strong response to the 'Curriculum', General Work Ethic', and 'Attitudes to Attendance'. The above combination

creates pupils with a high love of learning, increased motivation, positive wellbeing, and increased academic achievement (GL Education, 2019).

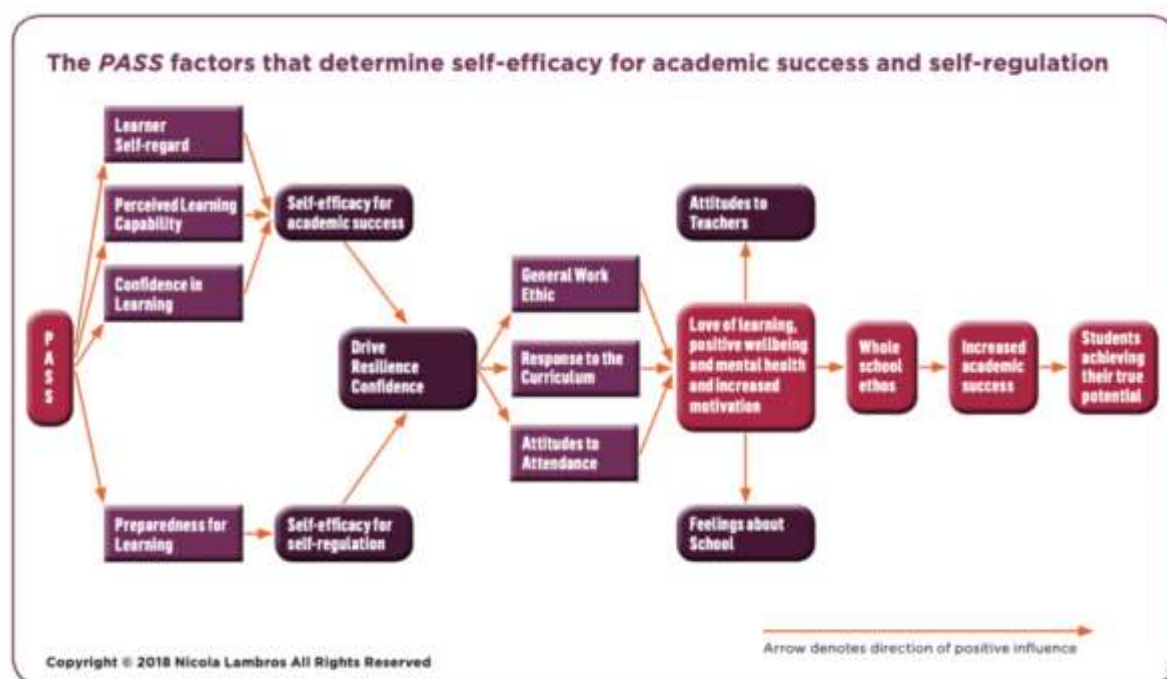


Figure (3. 2): Attitudinal factors of PASS determining self-efficacy relation to self-regulation and academic success (Adapted from GL Education 2018, p. 11)

3.4.4.4.2 Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC)

The DSWC comprises questions that measure SEWB, reflecting young people's understanding of their own wellbeing related to their homes, community, schools, relationship with adults and their personal experience (KHDA, 2019b). The areas related to SEWB measured by the survey include questions about students' happiness, sadness, emotion regulation, optimism, anxiety, perseverance, and life satisfaction, along with physical health and nutrition, as presented below in Table (3.9).

Domains	Sub-domain	Explanation
Social and emotional wellbeing	Happiness	Measures students' general content with life, cheer and happiness feeling
	Optimism	Examines students' mindset for having positive future outlook
	Life satisfaction	Explores the satisfaction and content of students with their lives
	Perseverance	Examines students' tenacity and whether they will pursue particular goals, in spite of challenges
	Emotion regulation	Refers to the ability of students' regulation of their positive and negative emotional outbreaks
	Sadness	Refers to the ability of students' recognition and prevention of long-term sadness that help promotion of positive coping practices prior to adulthood
	Worries/Anxiety	Refers to questions of how to counteract poor mental health and encourage positive coping practices prior to adulthood
Relationships in school and at home	Important adults in school	Measures the relationship between an important adult and the student
	Connectedness to adults at home	Examines the relationship between students and primary caregiver/s
	Connectedness to adults at school	Measures the extent of teacher-student relationships
	Emotional engagement with teacher	Refers to the teacher-student engagement and teachers' encouragement for higher-order learning among students
	School climate/belonging	Explores overall school environment such as teacher-student and student-student interaction as well as the students' feeling of being valued and belonging to school
	Safe at school	Explores the extent students feel safe at school
	Peer belonging	Measures students' feelings of their belonging to their social group

	Friendship intimacy	Differentiates how students seek friendships by relying more on quality than quantity
	Respect	Examines whether students respect differences among them
	Cognitive engagement	Refers to student's will to exert efforts in order to academically succeed and master certain skills
	Academic self-concept	Refers to students' perceptions of their academic ability including levels of interest and confidence
Relationships and learning in school and at home	Engagement (Flow)	Measures how students are interested and become absorbed in a particular activity
	Schoolwork	Looks at how well students do in their schoolwork
	Bullying	Examines aspects such as social, verbal, physical and cyber victimisation
Physical health and lifestyle	Physical/health-Body image	Looks at students' perceptions of their general physical health and body image
	Nutrition	Examines the nutrition of students, such as eating breakfast and fruits and vegetables
	Sleep	Examines students' sleeping pattern
After school activities		Asks students to report on what they normally do after school and the barriers faced by them preventing them from undertaking extracurricular activities

Table (3. 9): DSWC domains and subdomains (Adopted from KHDA, 2018)

Figure (3.3) below shows the relationship of some of the domains of DSWC and PASS factors, identifying which domains and factors will be further examined in the current study and correlated with positive education to see the extent of the impact. To gauge the impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy, the researcher will examine the PASS and DSWC results for the sample of schools selected initially prior to implementing positive education and one year and two years post-implementation. Results from DSWC and PASS will be correlated with positive education implementation to measure the extent of the impact.

	DSWC sub-domains	PASS factors
Attainment	Academic self-concept	Perceived Learning Capability
	Cognitive engagement	Preparedness for Learning General work ethic
	School work	Self-regard as a Learner
	Engagement flow	Response to Curriculum Demands
Engagement	Emotional engagement with teacher	Attitudes towards Teachers
	School climate/belonging	Feeling about School

Figure (3. 3): Comparison between attitudinal factors of PASS and subdomains of DSWC (Adapted from GL Education 2018, p. 7)

KHDA has mandated the administration of the DSWC by every private school in Dubai. In 2017, the first year for administering DSWC, only Grades 6–9 participated in the survey. Subsequent years involved the students from Grades 6–12. The DSWC is a self-reporting survey that is administered online by all private schools in Dubai. All four schools participating in the current study have participated in DSWC since 2017. The researcher decided to use the results from the first survey and compare it with the results from 2018, one year post the introduction of positive education within schools, to understand if a difference was evidenced in the students' wellbeing. The author was not able to obtain later reports since the data was held in a web portal in KHDA for subsequent years and reports could not be generated. Since the results for Grades 10-12 were not available in 2017, DSWC results for Grades 6–9 were used to study the extent of the impact on students' wellbeing. Three schools shared their school reports for the academic years (AY) targeted, 2017–2018 and 2018-2019. These schools were AJA and BITJ. Reporting involves Grade level report rather than reporting on individual students. Table (3.10) below provides a summary of the number of participants used, for the total number of students used from AJA and BITJ to answer the second question, which is the extent of the impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

No.	School	Total Administered AY (2017 – 2018)	Total Administered AY (2018 – 2019)
1	AJA	164	317
2	BITJ	555	885
Total		719	1202

Table (3. 10): DSWC number of participants used from the two participating schools (AJA and BITJ) included in the current study

3.5 Reliability and Validity

Validity and reliability tests ensure the credibility and effectiveness of the required research instruments and procedures (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). The current study uses a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches; thus, the ideas of reliability and validity must be justified and identified for the two approaches (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2012; Mears, 2009). Reliability deals with the replicability and consistency of research over target groups, instruments, and across time (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Validity in its different forms can be defined as the extent that a particular instrument precisely measures and describes what it is intended to measure (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). Since errors could happen when research is done and such errors may be due to question articulation, sampling, and quantitative research data collection, as well participants' subjectivity (for qualitative research), errors will never be eliminated, however they can be diminished (Gronlund, 1981).

In terms of instruments used for quantitative research, the questionnaires were piloted to ensure reliability and validity, as recommended by Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2015). Validity describes whether the instruments used for data collection measure what they aim to measure (Kramer et al., 2009). The researcher used different techniques to assess the validity of the questionnaires used in this study. The questionnaires' construct, face, and content validity were validated through consultation with students, parents, teachers, and youth and academic education wellbeing and development experts. Face validity describes the extent to which the questionnaires appear to be associated to the study's construct. Face construct was

measured by sharing the questionnaire with two of the researcher's work colleagues, who are not trained in the field of education, to ensure that the questionnaires' items were clear and well-organised. Gravetter and Forzano (2012) describe this type of validity as appropriate validity which allows the researcher to test if the questionnaires measure what they are intended to measure. The second type of validity the researcher measured along with face validity was content validity. Content validity refers to what the questionnaires measure (Lawshe, 1975). The researcher shared the questionnaire with her doctoral supervisor, one associate professor in university and one head of department in one private school who have good knowledge and experience in education, positive education, and curriculum implementation to check content validity and evaluate if the questionnaires designed, assess the intended study's content. The researcher shared with the reviewers the study's objective, aim and research questions so that they could assess the content validity. The feedback received from the professor, head of department and doctoral supervisor were used by the researcher to apply minor modifications to the questionnaires. Since the sample is mostly convenience and purposive sample, internal validity was an issue (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). In the current study both the concepts of positive education and wellbeing are collective and individual, tangible, and psychological as well as old and new; hence, construct validity is relatively important. Conceptualisation of positive education lies at the essence of the current study and many theories have tried to conceptualise positive education; the researcher is aware of the essence of exploring and constructing positive education within the local context, therefore, a closer look at the positive education concept offered as part of these theories must be documented well using discriminant and convergent methods (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018).

For the qualitative approach of the study, validity is indicated as referring to authenticity (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The researcher was tasked to explore the participants' worlds, presenting them with fidelity (Blumenfeld-Jones, 1995). In this research study the focus was

on ensuring that the various stakeholders are better understood, and their perceptions about positive education practices and conceptualisation are well presented. The specific context related to why, where, and how data was collected and documented.

Johnson and Christensen (2020) define reliability as the stability and consistency of results; it investigates items' homogeneity within a particular measure and describes the extent in which measurements provide very consistent data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Anonymous questionnaires were used in this study. Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2015) state that anonymous questionnaires encourage participants to provide honest and reliable responses. To measure questionnaires' reliability, Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis using SPSS was used, measuring internal consistency of the questionnaires (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2009; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018) and to ensure that the multi-question Likert scale questionnaires were reliable. In terms of the assessment tools (the PASS and DSWC), the PASS has been tested for reliability and validity (Williams, Whittome & Watts, 2005), as well as the DSWC (Schonert-Reichl, 2011).

Triangulation of methods used as a method to examine the concept of positive education from variable point of view and utilising the use of various techniques has contributed to the improvement of validity and data enrichment. The researcher utilised questionnaires (close-ended), document analysis and semi-structured interviews. The multiple data collection strands of data collection reinforce the study results, assist in eliminating the intrinsic flaws and biases of certain data-collection techniques (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Golafshani, 2003) and increases the validity and reliability through the convergence of information from several data sources (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). The researcher also used the triangulation methods related to participants. Data sources were variable and included: international and national policies, strategic plans, lesson plans, reports, teachers, students, parents, head teachers and senior leadership team members. The researcher has presented a

thorough description of the methods used for data collection and associated procedures to enable study replicability.

Trustworthiness, as opposed to reliability and validity within quantitative research is claimed to be complex. However, interpretivist researchers view that qualitative research can also be associated with reliability and validity measures. Guba (1981) suggested four principles of ensuring trustworthiness and validity of a study. The first suggestion discusses the internal validity and study's credibility. The second suggestion encompasses the transferability and generalisability of the study's findings. The third suggestion refers to the consistency or dependability of the inquiry process. Lastly, Guba (1981) refers to the conformability and the researcher's objectivity. The researcher ensured that the latter four measures were integrated into the current study. In addition to trustworthiness and the latter four measures of credibility, transferability, conformability, and dependability; in 1994 a fifth measure of authenticity was added. Authenticity discusses the extent to which researchers encompass a range of faithful and fair realities' manners during research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The fifth measure was added because according to Guba and Lincoln (1989), it is fit to judge qualitative studies based on constructivist epistemological design such as the one used in the current study. The latter process contests the perspective that one group can embrace the truth about a particular phenomenon and highlights the need of seeking different stakeholders' perspectives (Kelly, 1996). In terms of qualitative data collection, the researcher ensured the validity of the qualitative data tools. To ensure that validity was maintained, reflexivity was practiced. The researcher maintained a self-reflective stance because the researcher was aware that 'personal framework' may implicitly impact the research process (Johnson and Christensen, 2020). Therefore, during the process of collecting interviews and focus group data the researcher tried to detach herself as an educator from the imposing passion towards the phenomena of positive

education by probing participants and using probing techniques that are not influenced by the opinions about the phenomena.

The researcher needed to ensure that she eliminates research bias, however, she could not use multiple researchers for the current research. Therefore, to eliminate this bias she used research designed to ensure reflexivity, and through the development of a reflective journal (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher maintained a diary during the different research phases where she regularly recorded the study's logistics, methodologies practices, and reflections related to the research process related to interaction with research participants.

3.6 Pilot of Instruments

Piloting of instruments used for data gathering is considered as a strategy to test the various research instruments using a small sample size compared to the planned sample size of the study, which encourages efficiency (Monette, Sullivan & DeJong, 2002; Neuman, 1997). Also, the researcher realised the role the interviews play in the current study and therefore conducted a pilot of the interview questions on two colleagues involved in positive education in a private school in Dubai.

The researcher revised the questionnaires used for data collection based on two education specialist suggestions and recommendations prior to the pilot study. Also, one of the researcher's supervisors and an associate professor suggested the alignment of the teachers' questionnaire with the students' and parents' questionnaire. The associate professor recommended the addition of questions to the emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy so that all constructs are equal in numbers to ensure equal coverage of constructs. Based on this suggestion, the emotional wellbeing construct was increased by one from 9 to 10 items, while the academic self-efficacy was increased from 5 items to 10 items and aligned with suggestions from the PASS instrument and recommendations by the associate professor. The

addition of these questions and items were of key importance to answering the research questions.

After revision of the questionnaire by the researcher, supervisor and an associate professor, preliminary research was conducted on the three questionnaires (students, parents, and teachers). The research literature includes many views regarding pilot studies' sample size. For example, Hill (1998), and Isaac and Michael (1995), have suggested that the sample size of the pilot study should range from 10 to 30. Treece and Treece (1982) and Connelly (2008) suggest the sample size to be 10% of the actual population. The current study pilot study was conducted on 15 students, 24 teachers and 14 parents from private schools prior to the conducting of the main study.

Pilot Sample Profile

- ***Parents' Questionnaire Pilot***

The pilot study sample was based on convenience sample and snowball sample techniques. The researcher contacted colleagues and teacher friends and asked them to share the survey with students who they know are exposed to wellbeing and positive education activities in their school. The internet JotForm link to the survey was shared with parents, fourteen parents responded. Table (3.11) represents the demographic profile of parents who participated in the pilot study. The pilot parents' participants consisted of mostly female 86%, and 14% male ranging in age from 71% (35–44 years old) to 29% (45 – 55 years old). Of the parents' pilot participants, 36% held a bachelor's degree, while 21% held a master's degree and 21% held a doctorate degree, the rest of the sample included 7% each holding high school diplomas, some university/college education and post-graduate degrees. Table (3.12) shows that 86% of the participating parents were employed, while 14% were not working. It also shows that the participating pilot parents' children ranged from being in Grade 5/Yr. 6 to Grade 12/Yr.13. Most of the parents sent their children to UK/British curriculum schools at 57%, with 29% American curriculum, 7% each attended UK/IB curriculum schools or another type of curriculum school. The researcher conducted a reliability analysis on the parents' questionnaire to measure the internal reliability/consistency level of the thirty questionnaires items using the Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient. Table (3.13) shows the Cronbach alpha for the parents' questionnaire, which reported overall reliability levels $\alpha = .972$. Appendix B.11 provides an overview of the SPSS statistical data generated for the pilot study by the parents' questionnaires.

Age Group	Frequency/ Percentage	Gender	Frequency/ Percentage	Education Level	Frequency/ Percentage
35-44 yrs old	10-71%	Female	12-86%	High School	1-7%
45-55 yrs old	4-29%	Male	2-14%	Some University/ College	1-7%
				Post- graduate Degree	1-7%
				Bachelor's Degree	5-36%
				Master's Degree	3-21%
				Doctorate Degree	3-21%

Table (3. 11): Demographic data associated with parents participating in parents' questionnaire pilot (age group, gender, and education level)

Work Status	Frequency/ Percentage	Student Grade (Son/Daughter)	Frequency/ Percentage	Curriculum	Frequency/ Percentage
Not Working	2-14%	Gr.5 /Yr.6 – Gr. 7/Yr.8	3-21%	American	4-29%
Employed	12-86%	Gr.8/Yr.9 – Gr.10/Yr.11	7-50%	UK/British	8-57%
		Gr.11/Yr.12 – Gr.12/Yr.13	4-29%	International Baccalaureate (IB)/British	1-7%
				Other	1-7%

Table (3. 12): Demographics data associated with parents participating in parents' questionnaire pilot (work status, student grade (son/daughter), and curriculum)

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.972	.974	30

Table (3. 13): Parents' questionnaire pilot overall Cronbach alpha for the 30 questionnaire items

- ***Students' Questionnaire Pilot***

The pilot study sample was based on convenience sample and snowball sample techniques. The researcher contacted colleagues and teacher friends and asked them to share the survey with students who they know are exposed to wellbeing and positive education activities in their school. The internet JotForm link to the survey was shared with students, and fifteen students responded. Table (3.14) below provides the demographic profiles of fifteen students who participated in the pilot study. The pilot students' participants consisted of nationalities that included mostly Egyptian at 27%, American 20%, Canadian 13%, and 7% each of Turkish, Syrian, Palestinian, Emirati, Jordanian and Moroccan students. These students were mostly female at 73%, and 27% male. Table (3.15) provides more demographic information related to frequency associated with grade level, curriculum and years attending school. The students participating in the pilot were ranged in age from 9-18 years old and Grade 4/Year 5 to Grade 12/Year 13. They were mostly from British curriculum schools at 67%, 27% from American curriculum and 7% from dual curriculum British/IB. The years students were present in the school currently attended ranged from 1 year to 15 years. The researcher conducted a reliability analysis on the students' questionnaire to measure the internal reliability/consistency level of the thirty questionnaire items using the Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient. Table (3.16) shows the Cronbach alpha for the students' questionnaire reported overall reliability

levels $\alpha = .949$. Appendix B.12 provides an overview of the SPSS statistical data generated for the pilot study for the students' questionnaire.

No.	Nationality	Frequency / Percentage	Gender	Frequency/ Percentage	Age Group	Frequency/ Percentage
1	Egyptian	4-27%	Female	11-73%	< 9 yrs	1-7%
2	Turkish	1-7%	Male	4-27%	9 – 11 yrs	3-20%
3	Syrian	1-7%			12 -14 yrs	7-47%
4	Palestinian	1-7%			15 – 18 yrs	3- 20%
5	Emirati	1-7%			Older than 18 yrs	1-7%
6	Canadian	2-13%				
7	American	3-20%				
8	Jordanian	1-7%				
9	Moroccan	1-7%				

Table (3. 14): Demographic data associated with students participating in students' questionnaire pilot (nationality, gender, and age group)

Grade Level	Frequency/ Percentage	Curriculum	Frequency/ Percentage	Years in Current School	Frequency/ Percentage
< Gr. 4/Yr. 5	1-7%	American	4-27%	1	3-20%
Gr. 5/ Yr.6 – Gr. 7/Yr.8	3-20%	UK/British	10-67%	2	2-13%
Gr.8/Yr. 9 – Gr. 10/Yr.11	8-53%	International Baccalaureate (IB)/British	1-7%	4	1-7%
Gr.11/Yr. 12 – Gr. 12/Yr.13	3-20%			5	2-13%
				6	2-13%
				7	1-7%
				8	1-7%
				11	1-7%
				12	1-7%
				15	1-7%

Table (3. 15): Demographic data associated with students participating in students' questionnaire pilot (grade level, curriculum, and years in current school)

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.949	.951	30

Table (3. 16): Students' questionnaire pilot overall Cronbach alpha for the 30 questionnaire items

- *Teachers' Questionnaire Pilot*

The pilot study sample was based on convenience sample and snowball sample techniques. The researcher contacted colleagues and teacher friends and asked them to share the survey with teachers who they know are exposed to wellbeing and positive education activities in their

school. The internet JotForm link to the survey was shared with the teachers, and thirty responded from different schools. Table (3.17) represents the demographic profiles of teachers who participated in the pilot study. The pilot teachers' participants consisted of nationalities that included mostly Egyptian at 33%, Jordanian 21%, Emirati 17%, Canadian and Lebanese 8%, and 4% each of Syrian, Palestinian, and American teachers. These teachers were mostly female (67%), and 33% male. Most of them were teachers (67%), other 17%, HoD 8% and 4% each Lead Teacher and Director/Principal. Years of experience ranged from less than year to more than 20 years, as presented in Table (3.17). Table (3.18) represents demographic data associated with teachers' participating in the pilot, their education level, specialisation, and training. Of the participating teachers, 54% had a bachelor's degree, 17% a master's degree, 13% Post-graduate Diploma, 8% Doctorate Degree and 4% each High School Diploma and Other. Subject specialisations of these teachers varied, including Science, Mathematics, Arabic, English and Other as presented in Table (3.18). Also, presented in the same table are the number of positive education sessions and workshops that were presented, which ranged from None to 10 or more (21%) and (1-5 sessions)/(6-10 sessions) at 29% each.

The researcher conducted a reliability analysis on the teachers' questionnaire to measure the internal reliability/consistency level of the thirty questionnaires items using the Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient. Table (3.19) shows the Cronbach alpha for the teachers' questionnaire reported overall reliability levels $\alpha = .973$. Appendix B.13 provide an overview of the SPSS statistical data generated for the pilot study for the teachers' questionnaires.

Nationality	Frequency/ Percentage	Gender	Frequency / Percentage	Position	Frequency / Percentage	Yrs. Of Exp.	Frequency / Percentage
Egyptian	8-33%	Female	16-67%	Teacher	16-67%	0-5 yrs	4-17%
Emirati	4-17%	Male	8-33%	Lead Teacher	1-4%	6-10 yrs	3-13%
Lebanese	2-8%			HoD	2-8%	11 – 15 yrs	3-13%
Syrian	1-4%			Director	1-4%	16 -20 yrs	9-38%
American	1-4%			Other	4-17%	More than 20 yrs	4-17%
Palestinian	1-4%						
Jordanian	5-21%						
Canadian	2-8%						

Table (3. 17): Demographics data associated with teachers' participating in teachers' questionnaire pilot (nationality, gender, position, and years of experience)

Education Level	Frequency/ Percentage	Specialisation	Frequency/ Percentage	Training	Frequency/ Percentage
High School Diploma	1-4%	Science	17-71%	None	5-21%
Bachelor's Degree	13-54%	English	1-4%	1-5	7-29%
Postgrad-uate Diploma	3-13%	Science/Other	1-4%	6-10	7-29%
Master's Degree	4-17%	Maths/Other	1-4%	10 or more	5-21%
Doctoral Degree	2-8%	Science/Maths	1-4%		
Other	1-4%	Arabic	1-4%		
		Other	2-8%		

Table (3. 18): Demographics data associated with teachers' participating in teachers' questionnaire pilot (education level, specialisation, and training)

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.973	.974	30

Table (3. 19): Teachers' questionnaire pilot overall Cronbach alpha for the 30 questionnaire items

Pilot questionnaire reliability analysis

Reliability refers to the consistency of measures (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Cronbach's alpha α is the most used instrument for measuring internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951). The measurement range for Cronbach's alpha is between 0.00–1.00. Values ranging closer to 1.00 show that the examined item can be viewed as reliable. An item's reliability is considered adequate if the Cronbach's alpha value ranges from .70 - .99 (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996; Nunnally and Bernstein (1994)). In the current study, the researcher conducted a reliability analysis on the three piloted questionnaires to measure the internal reliability/consistency level of the three questionnaires items using the Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient. The three questionnaires (students/teachers/parents) reported overall reliability levels of $\alpha = .949$, $\alpha = .973$, and $\alpha = .972$ respectively. Therefore, the respective reliability coefficient values indicate that the three questionnaires included items that are adequately reliable. Cronbach's alpha values for the 30 items in each questionnaire were also above the 0.9 threshold, which confirms the reliability of these questionnaires and the items in each. Since the reliability and Cronbach alpha values were above 0.9, the researcher did not need to adjust the wording of the items in these questionnaires.

Appendices B.11, B.12, B.13 provide an overview of the SPSS statistical data generated for the pilot study for the parents', students', and teachers' questionnaires. Prior to administering the pilot, the researcher ensured recommendations from Pole and Lampard (2002) were included, as follows:

- A. Logical ordering of the questions
- B. Use of unambiguous, clear and specific questions
- C. Provision for variable perspectives
- D. Provision for appropriate time allocation for each question
- E. Insurance of appropriate cultural views related to each item used in the questions.

In general, the pilot study provided the researcher with a clear statistical indication of the strength of the questions used in the questionnaires and the appropriateness of using these questions to conduct the current study on larger scale.

3.7 Data Analysis

This study used a mixed-method research approach and therefore will collect different data types requiring various data analysis methods. The researcher used a style of data analysis which aligns with the research questions and is congruent with the theoretical framework. The convergent parallel mixed-method approach was used to collect concurrently both the qualitative and quantitative data. Therefore, both types of data were concurrently analysed through an integration stage where all analysed data were connected (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017).

3.7.1 Qualitative Data Analysis Sequence

The qualitative data from the document analysis, interviews and focus groups were collected, interpreted and analysed using thematic analysis. Documents related to local policy were thematically organised and analysed to decipher the quality and quantity of content coverage, and structure and language related to international requirements and best practice. The researcher tried to derive meaning from the words and ideas presented in the documents to create an overall picture of the studied positive education phenomenon; this included theoretical constructs, contextual themes (White & Marsh, 2006) and activities and situational constructs related to different factors.

Braun and Clarke (2006) describe thematic analysis as a process of identifying both explicit and implicit ideas within text. It is more than just counting words/phrases frequency and the content of text. Thematic analysis reduces qualitative data into explicitly workable values through the analysis, identification and reporting of ideas/themes in the data (Braun &

Clark, 2006). The basis of the emerged themes (Boyatzis, 1998) are coded, and are used in line with a constant comparative tool (Charmaz, 2006) to obtain/emphasise the themes that answer the research questions. The researcher explored the emerging themes during the process of thematic analysis and coding. Interview/focus group quotes and themes were grouped according to Halliday et al.'s (2020) constructs related to implementation of positive education, such as constructs related to: intervention, contextual, provider, organisational and recipient. Additional thematic themes were obtained, compared, analysed, displayed, and contrasted.

Inductive and deductive content analysis was used by the researcher. Content analysis is unique as a method since in addition to textual results' generation, percentages and numbers can be used to represent data (Krippendorff, 2004); while the qualitative content analysis summarised above obtains value sets related to report themes and ideas, as well as interview-shared constructs, as outlined by the theoretical framework. The quantitative content analysis involved the analysis of the DSWC and PASS assessment tools results to obtain the frequency of values related to indicators associated with these tools (happiness, relationship with teacher, attendance, and attitude towards learning). Bengtsson (2016) discusses latent and manifest analysis. He describes manifest analysis as the description of obvious information, while latent analysis is the interpretation of information to obtain underlying meaning. The current study aims at exploring the implementation and impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, thus, the researcher utilised both latent and manifest analysis through the interpretation and description of themes and constructs related to implementation. Manifest analysis was used as part of the analysis of the PASS/DSWC reports to count frequencies of certain ideas, values, and themes.

After transcription of the qualitative data, thematic analysis was used to code the open-ended questions for the interviews and focus groups that were conducted with the principals, HODs, teachers, and students.

3.7.2 Quantitative Analysis

During the qualitative data collection stage, another quantitative stage of data collection involved the administration of three questionnaires for Grade 5/Yr. 6–Grade 12/Yr. 13 students, teachers involved in positive education, and parents of all students from K – Grade 12/Yr. 13 involved in positive education. The questionnaire was mainly administered to answer research question #3, which is the impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy. SPSS 26.0 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS 24.0) were used to analyse the questionnaires' results, summarising participants' demographic values and identifying descriptive statistics, such as: mean, standard deviation, percentages and frequencies. Also, the researcher ran statistical tests such as t-tests, Chi Square and ANOVA for correlation and testing the difference between groups. To find the extent of the impact and change in wellbeing and academic self-efficacy prior to and post the implementation of positive education using the PASS/DWSC assessment tools, paired-samples t tests and Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests were performed. In terms of DSWC, the purpose of the analysis was to find if the number of students in each indicator and level had significantly changed. Therefore, paired-samples t-tests were performed to compare the students' number in 2017 to the students' number in 2018 in each indicator and SEWB category and level (high, medium, low). Paired-samples t-tests is a parametric test that determines if there is a statistical difference between paired observations (Ross & Willson, 2017). In terms of the PASS assessment tool, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used, which is an alternative to paired t test. This was used because there are four satisfaction levels, which is an ordinal variable, identifying the extent and significance in change and impact on SEWB and academic self-efficacy.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) posit the utilisation of various data analysis strategies, for example data transformation, i.e., from quantitative data to qualitative data and vice versa, data reduction, consolidation, integration, comparison and correlation.

3.7.3 Data Analysis and Mixed Methods

To consider the research a mixed-method approach, the two sets of data (qualitative and quantitative data) must be associated with each other. The quantitative and qualitative data collection integration methods warrant the mixed-method benefits. The latter integration methods can adopt various forms. One such form may be included at the design level which usually involves the interpretation of the findings and methods used (Fetters et al., 2013). It may also serve various purposes such as connecting previous data to current data, building from previous results, embedding, or merging data results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). This research study used a convergent parallel research design which makes this study integrated by design, since the two types of data are linked to each other at the interpretation level. Although the different questions can be answered separately, the linked data was integrated and interpreted to cover and answer the overall study's scope, purpose, and research questions. The researcher summarised how the integration of findings show linkage between the quantitative and qualitative strands of data in Chapter 4 and further discussed them in chapter 5. Table (3.20) outlines the current research's methodological approach. It includes the research questions, research approaches, instruments, sampling techniques and data analysis.

Research Questions	Paradigm	Instrument	Participants/Sample Size	Sampling Technique	Data Analysis
Q1. How is positive education implemented within K-12 private schools in Dubai?	Qualitative	Document analysis	1) Educational regulations and laws 2) Website/Mission and Vision Statements (4 Websites) 3) KHDA Reports (12 reports) 4) Governance documents/Strategic Plans (2 Plans) 5) Lesson Plans / Positive Education Activities (12) 6) DSWC Reports (4 Reports) 7) PASS Reports (6 Reports)	Purposive sampling	Thematic analysis Content and discourse analysis
		Semi-structured interviews/ Focus Group	1) Positive education / Wellbeing officers (4) 2) Senior Leadership Member (4) 3) Heads of Departments (HoDs) (4) 4) HODs + Teachers (16 teachers) 5) Parents (9 parents) 6) Students (15 students)	Convenience sampling	Content and discourse analysis
Q2. To what extent does positive education affect students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy?	Quantitative	DSWC	1) DSWC Reports (4 reports)	Convenience sampling	Paired-samples t-tests
		PASS	2) PASS Reports (6 reports)	Convenience sampling	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks
Q3. What are the teachers', parents' and students' perceptions about the impact of positive education on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy?	Quantitative	Questionnaire	3) Students (Grades 1 – 12) (480 students) 4) Parents (277 parents) 5) Teachers/ HoDs (43)	Convenience sampling (4 Dubai private schools)	Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis
	Qualitative	Focus Group	1) HODs + Teachers (17 teachers) 2) Parents (10 parents) 3) Students (15 students)	Convenience sampling	Content and discourse analysis

Table (3. 20): Research questions, approaches, methods, and participants' alignment (Research Methodological Approach)

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Initially, the researcher obtained approval from local authorities and schools to access and contact schools based on the use of a British University of Dubai (BUID) consent letter (Appendix B.14), which clarified to all the private Dubai schools participating the purpose of the study, and the type of required data to be collected.

The researcher ensured adherence to the ethical code of BUID in all research stages such as design, planning and conduction. In line with the BUID policy, any information related to the identity of the voluntary participants obtained during the study remained anonymous and was securely kept on a password-protected computer. Moreover, all participants were provided with a clear statement related to the research evidence collection procedures and the confidentiality related to this evidence; also they were informed about the study's purpose and objectives to provide the participants with informed consent to enhance the research accessibility, maintaining total security within the participating schools (Creswell, 2012).

Furthermore, every participant was informed, and written consent was obtained, with the purpose of conveying an explanation of the study and the role of each participant at each explicit step (Johnson & Christensen, 2020), as well as informing participants of the benefits and risks caused by the research, and their right to participate and withdraw at any stage during the research without having to state a reason (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Since students were involved, and given that they are minors, they were approached for their participation after obtaining a written non objection/approval from their legal guardians (Fine & Sandstrom, 1988). Also, the researcher gave deeper attention to students during focus groups to ensure they completely understand the research's intention and the use of the information and data collected. During students focus groups one teacher was present to ensure full ethical considerations were practiced. Extra steps and care were organised to investigate any required

accessibility barriers or needs, to ensure that all students involved had equal opportunities in terms of participation.

Information obtained through the questionnaire should not expose any participant to any form of danger. Moreover, another important action that had to be considered by the researcher was associated with voluntarism. Although the entire research instruments are anonymous, the latter offers participants freedom of choice as to whether they want to voluntarily participate in the study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018), where the researcher should respect and accept the participants' choice.

To increase qualitative data trustworthiness, interviews and focus groups were administered using the ethical code of conduct preventing issues arising related to sensitive data leakage of members' details (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2015). First the researcher introduced herself, the study's aim and ethical considerations associated with the anonymity of research data participants. Personal information of participants or school were not shared, to protect their confidentiality and rights. For interviewee names, codes were used during transcription for demographic information. Pseudonyms were used if needed as part of the research writeup. Transcripts were offered to participants if they requested them and decided that it was important to them. Since the researcher was not employed by any of the school participants and had no formal affiliations with the schools, there was no conflict of interests and bias was controlled. Bias refers to the tendency of provoking prejudice towards the research questions and hindering neutrality (Bourke, 2014). The researcher worked in the MoE in the higher education section. The MoE's role in Dubai is only to oversee *public* K-12 schools. The study's context is Dubai K-12 *private* schools. Due to her job in the MoE she can be assumed to be an 'insider' when examining educational policies and wellbeing/positive education programmes. However, the wellbeing data was unfamiliar to the researcher because her work is mainly in the higher education sector and does not involve K-12. Therefore, the researcher

represented an ‘outsider’ position since she never worked in Dubai private schools. To ensure bias was dealt with, the researcher was cautious in the selection of open-policy documents to examine Dubai context. Policymakers were not included as part of the data collection. The researcher assumed a pragmatic worldview by engaging several participants and multiple data sources. The researcher’s positionality within the study was continually reflected upon and questioned, to enhance reliability and validity when analysing and collecting data, and made her consider both the participants’ views and her own views when collecting data.

3.9 Summary

In summary, the current study adopted a convergent parallel mixed-method approach. This approach and the rationale for its use was detailed and discussed earlier in the chapter. The mixed-method research design involved concurrent qualitative and quantitative data collection to answer the purpose of the research for exploring the implementation and impact of positive education on students’ SEWB and academic self-efficacy. Various data collection tools were used in this study; these included document analysis, interviews (semi-structured and focus groups) and close-ended questionnaires. The research involved various samples of population: national and international policies, strategic plans, lesson plans, PASS/DSWC reports, KHDA report, senior leadership school team members, teachers, students, and parents. In this chapter the researcher has presented the pilot study’s results, instruments’ validation management, ethical considerations, and limitations.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the study's qualitative and quantitative data to answer the study's research questions:

RQ #1: How is positive education implemented within K-12 private schools in Dubai?

RQ #2: To what extent does positive education affect students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

RQ #3: What are the teachers', parents', and students' perceptions about the impact of positive education on students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

Chapter 3 presented the combination of data collection tools/methods used to address the above research questions, which were: document analysis of policies, websites, strategic plans, and assessment tests/survey reports; semi-structured interviews/focus groups; and close-ended questionnaires. Chapter 4 outlines the findings of the study in four main sections that answer each research question individually. The first section highlights and analyses findings addressing RQ #1, clustering findings from document analysis and stakeholders' interview/focus group analysis. The second main section analyses the findings addressing RQ #2 and it consists of two sections: document analysis of DSWC and PASS assessment tool results from reports, in addition to triangulation of findings from interviews/focus groups. The third section shares findings from the close-ended questionnaires. Throughout the three sections, triangulation of findings using evidence from interview/focus groups is carried out. The final section presents the summary of the chapter.

4.2 Research Question #1 Findings and Analysis

Two qualitative data collection instruments were used in this section to explore the implementation of positive education within Dubai's K-12 private schools. The first instrument involved document analysis of international, UAE national, and Dubai's local government educational authority (KHDA) policies/initiatives related to positive education and wellbeing; participating schools' KHDA reports, mission, vision, and statements; strategic plans, wellbeing and positive education policies, and lesson plans. The second instrument outlines findings from interviews with schools' senior leadership members, middle leadership members, positive education/wellbeing officers, and focus groups of key stakeholders: teacher focus group, student focus group, and parent focus group.

4.2.1 Implementation of Positive Education

The implementation of positive education is new in at least two schools (BITJ and DITM) and the other schools stated that prior to introducing and infusing positive education into the school and curriculum, they have always offered Character Education and/or Value Education. Most of the schools in this study adopted positive education as a whole school approach, infusing it within curriculum, initiatives, and activities. BITJ mostly taught it in some grades and did not teach it across the whole school but trained senior leadership and middle leadership and some teachers on the use of positive education. These trained members used it in dealing with teachers, especially because middle leadership members and teachers were counsellors. DITM was the only school that taught positive education as a separate stand-alone half course offered to grade 9 and grade 12 students. Table (4.1) summarises how positive education was implemented within the schools.

School	Overall Implementation Practices
AJA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prior to introducing positive education, AJA had Character Education implemented - Whole school approach through wellbeing initiatives/Character Education/positive education initiatives - Embedded within Moral Education Programme/Cultural Studies/ Character Education lessons and as part of IB profile, which encompasses positive education character strengths - Taught by many staff, teachers, counsellors, and pastoral care staff
BITJ	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Started in 2017 - No specific subject dedicated for positive education, but specific teachers/ counsellors who have done the positive education course implement PPI in their classrooms and sections - Embedded through the curriculum of other subjects such as math, Arabic, science etc. in some classes, not across the school, supported mainly in Moral Education Programme lessons - Use PERMA model in planning and development
CGS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Value Education has always been part of school ethos since the start of the school; more recently the focus has been more on positive education - Practices are embedded in the educational programme; now, it is referred to as positive education - Value Education/positive education standalone lessons - Wellbeing/positive education initiatives and activities across the school - Use PERMA model in planning and development - PPI are led by counselling department, grade supervisors and all teachers - Primary classes have life skill lessons in grades 6 -12, one period a week dedicated to Value Education/positive education with an assigned teacher, not necessarily the class teacher - Have a standalone curriculum, but also, they try to instill as much as they can into the curriculum, for example in psychology
DITM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Half credit course offered currently only to grades 9 and 12 students, they have lesson plans and take assessments - Take themes and concepts and embed them in all activities/initiatives/day-to-day interactions, for example, wellbeing committees - Course is offered four times a week as a standalone lesson - Sometimes it is also embedded as part of the Moral Education Programme - Sometimes reinforced concepts through the religious education lessons - Taught by counsellors, teachers, supervisors, career counselors

Table (4. 1): Positive Education Implementation Description Across Schools (AJA, BITJ, CGS, DITM)

Table (4.2) provides detailed examples of the character strengths and other positive education-associated subjects being taught in each school. It also identifies whether these topics are taught as standalone within the positive education, Moral Education Programme, Character Education, Value Education, or as an activity or initiative across the school. As evident from the table, DITM is teaching the positive education topics mostly as a separate course. Teachers during focus groups stated:

“Positive education was introduced to high school students so we can introduce these students to positive education prior to going to college, because they need to know basic knowledge of how to take care of themselves and their mental health ... prior to positive education we did some forms of PPI/Wellbeing initiative implicitly throughout the curriculum; now, we have an explicit positive education course and have dedicated time for it in the curriculum.” (DITM-Teacher Focus Group)

DITM teachers also expressed that in addition to teaching character strengths, they had to add psychology-related topics. DITM teachers have discussed the need to first provide students with theories and definitions related to positive education prior to teaching the character strengths which are embedded in the positive education curriculum. According to the teachers, the curriculum is mainly activity-based, and they felt that they needed to embed more theories. For example, one teacher in DITM stated,

“We’ve added to the curriculum, we are discussing topics related to Cognitive Behaviour Theory /Albert’s ELLIS ABC model...how to manage negative emotions, we’ve added topics of multiple intelligences and the Theory of Howard Gardner.” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

School	Character Strengths/ Topics Related to Positive Education	Taught Part of Moral Education /Character Education /Value Education/ Positive Education/ Activity/ Initiative
AJA	Equity, Fairness, Justice, Respect, Tolerance, Social-Emotional Intelligence, Appreciation of Beauty, and Excellence	Part of the Moral Education Programme under “Character & Morality” Pillar
	Judgement	Part of the Moral Education Programme under “The Individual and the Community (Dealing with Conflict)” Pillar
	Leadership and Teamwork	Part of Moral Education Programme under “Civic Studies” Pillar
	Emotional Intelligence, Kindness, Self-regulation, Gratitude	Standalone Positive Education Lesson
BITJ	Growth Mindset, Resilience, Perseverance, Love/Love of Learning, Exploring Character Strength, Humour, Forgiveness, Bravery, Kindness, Gratitude	Standalone Positive Education Lesson
	Mindfulness, Wellbeing Check-in Survey	Activity
	Mental Health Awareness Drive (Student Led)	Initiative
CGS	Creativity	Initiative
	Emotional Intelligence, Love, Self-acceptance, Self-compassion, Self-esteem, Self-management, Compassion, Responsible decisions, Grit, Empathy, Digital Empathy, and Gratitude	Part of the Value Education and Positive Education Lesson (In primary this is called Life Skills Lesson)
	Exploring Character Strengths, and Mindfulness	Activity, Assemblies
	Wellbeing Drive for Teachers (Student Led)	Initiative
DITM	Self-control, Motivation, Love, Honesty, Passion, Risk-taking, Emotional Intelligence, Healthy and Unhealthy Ways of Coping, Gratitude, Positive Psychology, CBT, Albert Ellis ABC model, and Resilience	Standalone Positive Education Lesson
	Mindfulness	Activity / Assemblies
Assessments Used Across All Schools		E-Portfolio/Presentations/ Interviews

Table (4. 2): Positive Education Implementation Within Lessons (AJA, BITJ, CGS, DITM)

4.2.2 Positive Education Implementation Science Constructs Exploration

In general, implementation involves a multileveled complex nature which leads to variations across different settings. Findings from document analysis, interviews and focus groups are assessed and clustered within each implementation construct, previously discussed and presented by Halliday et al. (2020) within the literature review and shown in Figure (4.1).



Figure (4. 1): Positive Education Implementation Science Constructs

1. Contextual Construct

Contextual Construct is associated with positive education implementation, it revolves around four subconstructs, which are:

- A. political and systemic support**
- B. school political and systemic support**
- C. engagement of internal with key external school community stakeholders**
- D. home environment**

A. Political and systemic support

The political and systemic support examines subconstructs related to policies at the international, national, local, and educational authority levels. Policies impacting and driving positive education implementation were examined in this section. The researcher reviewed and analysed international, national, local government, and educational authority policies/initiatives by reviewing these documents and using codes and themes of words associated with positive education and wellbeing. Also, the researcher examined international policies/initiatives since these policies would play a role in driving the implementation process of positive education, due to the international context of Dubai's private schools. The criteria that were used to review each policy document included a) categorising themes codes

identifying the policy as an international/national/local/educational policy/initiative, b) discussion of education in terms of social, emotional, psychological learning, c) discussion of education in terms of wellbeing/positivity/happiness, and c) level of promotion of positive education practices within schools. The next few sections below provide the detailed findings related to each policy/initiative examined at each level.

International Policies

The findings presented in this section result from the document review of four international policies and initiatives. These are the ‘UNESCO Strategy on Education for Health and Well-being’, ‘International Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC)’, ‘Development of Health Promoting Schools: A Framework of Action (WHO), and The International Positive Education Network (IPEN)’.

1) UNESCO Strategy on Education for Health and Well-being: Contributing to the Sustainable Development Goals (Established 2016)

This was launched in 2016, and it aims to promote through education the wellbeing and health of children. It is aligned with UNAIDS 2016-2021 Strategy and contributes to Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), SGD 3 ‘Good Health and Well-being’ and SDG4 ‘Quality Education (UNESCO, 2016). It helps in achieving UNESCO’s Education Strategy 2014–2021 which promotes overall wellbeing and good quality education. It discusses investment in adolescents’ education, health, psychological and emotional development.

It constitutes two strategic priorities:

Strategic Priority 1:

“All Children and young people benefit from good quality comprehensive sexuality Education.” (UNESCO, 2016)

Strategic Priority 2:

“All children and young people have access to safe, inclusive health promoting learning

Environments.” (UNESCO, 2016)

This strategy aims to reduce bullying and its adverse impact from physical and mental health standpoints. It targets improvements in learning and psychological wellbeing by providing a school environment that is safe and provides good-quality education, which in turn improves social and psychological wellbeing. It inspires schools to adopt education components that minimise the effects of bullying, violence, and other social and environment factors on wellbeing, and students’ mental health. It outlines methods of implementing the strategy, identifying key agencies that will help in capacity-building, technical support, curriculum development, good practice, and resource development. It also identifies monitoring and evaluation techniques, leadership and advocacy promotion, development of well-rounded students, guidance, and capacity building. It aims to work with educational ministries to ensure evidence-based policy development associated with education and health.

2) International Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC) (Established 1989)

The International Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC) was established in 1989. It consists of 54 articles. Its main aim is to ensure the human rights of children and highlights their entitlement to assistance and special care. It also highlights the importance of family as being an essential component of the society and sets the responsibility on the society for ensuring the wellbeing of children. It recognises the child’s right to develop their personality within a harmonious, happy family environment. It ensures the importance of children’s protection against any forms of punishment and discrimination. It recognises governmental institutions’ responsibility towards the protection, care, and establishment of wellbeing of children under their supervision. It encourages international co-operation on promotion of the physical, child spiritual, social, moral wellbeing, and mental health. It highlights the importance of having access and the right to education and to a high standard of living, ensuring moral, spiritual, mental, physical, and social development.

3) Development of Health Promoting Schools: A Framework of Action (WHO) **(Established in 1996)**

This framework was launched by the World Health Organisation (WHO) in 1996 with the sole purpose of providing guidelines of developing 'Health Promoting Schools'. It stems from an evidence-based approach where research has shown that young individuals' health has a major effect on their learning capacity and emphasises the influence and role education has when it comes to a person's health. This framework identifies the role governments play in establishing 'Health Promoting Schools'. One of these roles is the 'preparation for life'. Within this theme, there is a focus on the establishment of 'Health Promoting Schools' which focus on children's wellbeing and health and its role in preparing them for the future and having a healthy lifestyle. The framework identifies the importance of cooperation that needs to be developed between education and health sectors, local, parent communities, and the range of national and local entities concerned with the development of young adults and children. 'Health Promoting Schools' ensure positive activities among individuals, through the development practices and policies and structures which infuse the fundamental of holistic education, encouraging social, mental, and physical aspects of health. It stresses the school's social ethos and its role in supporting a positive learning environment and emotional wellbeing. The framework proposes checkpoints and components for 'Health Promoting Schools', development of a charter for each school, setting up an award system, development of networks for the school, and an action plan for five years, with details of action.

4) The International Positive Education Network (IPEN) (Established 2014)

The International Positive Education Network (IPEN) was established in 2014 through a meeting of 16 positive psychology and education leaders. It was seen that there was no global organisation that provides ideas, projects and policy associated with positive education. It promotes positive education through supporting educational stakeholders,

governments and companies. It promotes wellbeing, resilience, and character education throughout the global education ecosystem. Its goals are to reform education and governmental policy, change practices within education, and support collaboration. It uses the teaching from positive education and positive psychology to enhance wellbeing and improve character development among students, teachers and within the learning ecosystem to help all stakeholders flourish. The first meeting about Positive Education was held in Dallas, Texas, USA. During this meeting, researchers, educators, philanthropists, academics and parents came from different countries to share knowledge and learn about positive education. The IPEN MENA network is affiliated with KHDA.

Table (4.3) presents the summary findings associated with the international policies/initiatives discussing social, emotional learning, wellbeing, and positive education. The four policies/initiatives and legislation analysed show that social, emotional wellbeing are presented in the documents; however, wellbeing may not be explicitly mentioned. Only one policy/initiative explicitly promotes positive education. This policy/initiative is the establishment of The International Positive Education Network (IPEN). The ‘UNESCO Strategy on Education for Health and Wellbeing’ views education as a catalyst and identifies the promotion of wellbeing as being a key drive for quality education. It calls on governments to promote investments in psychological and emotional development through health and education. It promotes wellbeing; however, it does not present key themes associated with positive education and positivity/happiness. ‘The International Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC)’ discusses the rights of every child and discusses education as a key right for each child. It also states that international entities, society, and state organisations are responsible for promoting social and moral wellbeing, but it does not discuss positive education. The ‘Development of Health Promoting Schools: A Framework of Action (WHO)’ discusses health promotion and the importance of health in promoting health. It highlights the establishment of

‘Health Promoting Schools’ which should develop a Framework that includes the school’s social ethos that support positive, emotional, social, learning, and mental and physical wellbeing, but does not explicitly discuss the adoption of positive education. Finally, ‘The International Positive Education Network (IPEN)’ is the only policy that highlights the teaching of positive education, resilience, and key character strengths associated with positive education. It discusses the importance of flourishing and improvement of wellbeing of the community through positive education.

No.	Policy Name	Social, Emotional, Psychological Learning Wellbeing/ Positive Education/Positivity/Happiness
1	UNESCO Strategy on Education for Health and Wellbeing (2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Views education as ‘Catalyst for development’ - Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG) “Quality Education” - Promotes wellbeing with alignment to the UNAIDS 2016 -2021 Strategy which contribute Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). - Promotes investment in health, education especially psychological and emotional development. <p>SDG 3 “Good Health and Wellbeing” through skills-based education, counselling services and health.</p> <p>Does not explicitly promote positive education.</p>
2	International Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC) (1989)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highlights the importance of education as a right for every child. - Sets the responsibility on the society and state organisations on ensuring the wellbeing of children. - Encourages international co-operation on promotion of social and moral wellbeing. <p>Does not explicitly promote positive education.</p>
3	Development of Health Promoting Schools: A Framework of Action (WHO) (1996)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highlights the importance of education in terms of promoting health - Discusses the establishment of a network of ‘Health Promoting Schools’ that propose the development of a framework. - Framework includes school’s social ethos that support positive learning environment and emotional, social, physical, and mental wellbeing. <p>Does not explicitly promote positive education</p>
4	The International Positive Education Network (IPEN) (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highlights the importance of teaching wellbeing, resilience, and character within Education Ecosystem - Support global educational institutions to ensure that societies, communities, and individuals’ flourish - Aim of promoting positive education to ensure all individuals within the community improve their wellbeing. <p>KHDA acts as the IPEN representatives within the MENA region</p> <p>Explicitly promotes positive education.</p>

Table (4. 3): International Policies/Initiatives Document Analysis Findings Associated with Wellbeing & Positive Education

National/Local Dubai Government/ Dubai Educational Authority (KHDA) Policies and Initiatives

The findings presented in this section result from the document review of 11 national, local, and educational authority policies and initiatives. Figure (4.2) outlines all relevant UAE national, local Dubai government, and Dubai educational authority (KHDA) policies/initiatives' timeline that have played a key role in driving the introduction of positive education/PPI and wellbeing initiatives into Dubai K-12 private schools. The figure shows that policies/initiatives considered in this research were launched at different timeframe within a specific timeframe from 2014–2020; this facilitates comparison within its content.

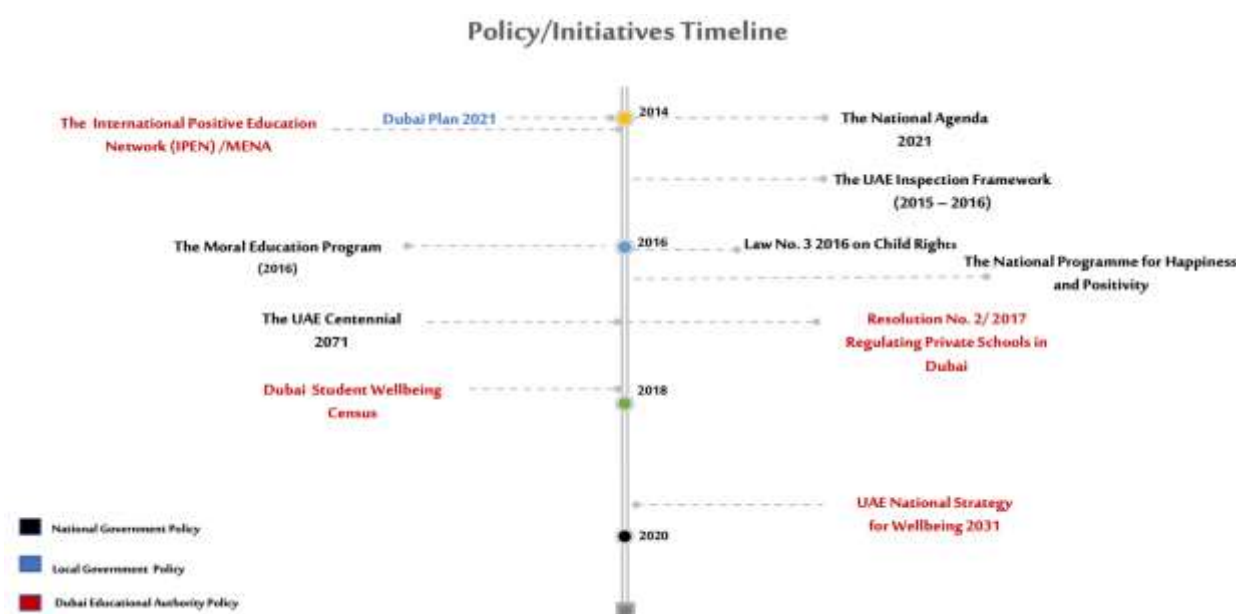


Figure (4. 2): UAE and Dubai Government/Educational Authority Policy Documents Summary and Timeline

National Policies

1) The National Agenda 2021

This was issued during the year 2014 to outline national criteria toward the realisation of the UAE Vision 2021. It consists of 6 priority areas, identifying key indicators to be measured and monitored. These six priority areas are outlined below:

1. Cohesive society and preserved identity.
2. Safe public and fair judiciary.

3. Competitive Knowledge economy.
4. First-rate education system.
5. World-class healthcare.
6. Sustainable environment and infrastructure.

The ‘National Agenda 2021’ highlights Education as a key priority associated with the nation’s development, thus setting the tone for key improvements to be taken up within the education sector to realise this priority.

2) The UAE Inspection Framework (2015-2016)

The ‘UAE School Inspection Framework’ was introduced to set educational accountability measures for public and private schools. It started to be implemented within all UAE schools from the start of 2015 by all educational entities within the UAE. It consists of a set of key standards outlining quality assurance measures and standards in educational provisions. The standards include the following:

1. Students’ achievement.
2. Students’ personal and social development and their innovation skills.
3. Teaching and assessment.
4. Curriculum.
5. The protection, care guidance, and support of students.
6. Leadership and management.

Although the framework centres on teaching the whole child and promoting the engagement of students through provision in the learning environment, the curriculum, safeguarding, counselling, guidance, and excellent leadership provision, Standard No. 2 is concerned with wellbeing and is mostly where positive education may be implemented and present impact. It outlines the non-academic aspects associated with the social, emotional development of students. This descriptor examines students’ levels related to attitudes, relationships,

behaviours, attendance, health and safety, and punctuality. Outstanding schools are expected to develop responsible and positive, self-reliant students. Inspectors associate exemplary behaviour with renunciation of bullying and self-discipline. Schools are encouraged to endorse the development of sensitive relationships, where students consider each other's needs, and respect differences among each other, staff, and peers. Another aspect associated with positive education is having student develop social responsibility through volunteering.

3) The Moral Education Programme (2016)

In 2016, the UAE launched a national Moral Education Programme with the purpose of achieving UAE's aspiration of becoming a global leader on the social and economic level, through the development of future generations of leaders with a 'holistic' education. The MEP targets the development of the character-building contributing to global wellbeing and health. It is grounded in three areas, 'happiness, wellness and social well-being'. (Moral Education 2021, Section 5). MEP encompasses four pillars:

- Character and morality: build tolerance, honesty, perseverance, and resilience among students.
- The individual and the community: build students' abilities of thriving in various contexts and challenging situations.
- Civic studies: develop students' knowledge of cultural, historical, and political aspects and teach students about their civic duties as UAE residents.
- Cultural studies: creates knowledge about the world culture and UAE culture.

The MEP website (<https://moraleducation.ae/>) guides schools and raises awareness among private and public schools on issues related to MEP curriculum and training. The MoE mandates that all schools teach at least one lesson (40 minutes long) per week of moral education, or as part of other subjects. Formative assessment methods are used to assess students.

4) Law No.3/2016 on Child Rights

In 2016, Law No. 3/ 2016 on Child Rights/ ‘Wadeema Law’ presents the regulations associated with children’s legal rights. In terms of content, the law aligns with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). Both the CRC and ‘Wadeema Law’ discuss aspects contributing to children’s wellbeing (UNICEF, 2007) implicitly. These aspects are defined in the below six factors:

- a. Material wellbeing: ‘Wadeema’ guarantees supporting children with an adequate standard of living associated with their social, mental, physical, and psychological development.
- b. Health and safety: ‘Wadeema’ guarantees children’s access to health services and protection against abusive and infectious substances.
- c. Educational wellbeing: ‘Wadeema’ grants equal access to all children to educational services and promotes parents’ and children’s voices across the educational sector.
- d. Relationships: ‘Wadeema’ promotes protective and secure family structure provisions for children.
- e. Protection against violence and risky behaviors: ‘Wadeema’ protects children from neglect and abuse.
- f. Child involvement and participation: ‘Wadeema’ realises children’s rights to voice their opinion in matter related to them.

5) The National Programme for Happiness and Positivity

The National Programme for Happiness and Positivity was launched in 2016 to promote wellbeing and happiness within the UAE. This Programme aims to outline initiatives that help raise the happiness and wellbeing culture among communities and align governmental entities, policies, and programmes to maximise happiness and positivity (UAE Government

Portal, 2021). One initiative included the introduction of the Global Happiness Council. The main role of the Council is to showcase best policy practices and concepts associated with wellbeing and happiness. The Council periodically shares positive education reports (Seligman & Adler, 2019).

In 2017, the National Programme for Happiness and Positivity partnered with MoE and local educational authorities to start the initiative titled ‘100 Days of Positivity’ among all stakeholders to spread positivity and happiness and bring out best teaching and learning practices that embed positive education intervention and practices across all UAE schools. Schools learned about this initiative through reading and signing this declaration, which outlined the UAE government aspiration of becoming a key global destination for infusing positivity and happiness and assist in achieving global wellbeing.

6) The UAE Centennial 2071

The ‘UAE Centennial 2071’ was launched in 2017 as a long-term vision aspiring to prepare the young generation of Emiratis for the future (National Media Council, 2017). The ‘UAE Centennial 2071’ Plan consists of four axes: Community, Economy, Government, and Education. Within the Education axis the aspiration of having a first-rate system of education is evident. Dubai’s plan focuses on many areas of education with great emphasis on embedding values and ethical principles into students. Another key focus associated with the drive to infuse the teaching of wellbeing and positive education is that given to the teaching of optimism, positivity, ethical values, and happiness, which are encouraged to foster diversity and co-existence. Positivity and happiness values are also embedded within the Community axis, Figure (4.3) outlines how Education and Community axes promote positivity and happiness.

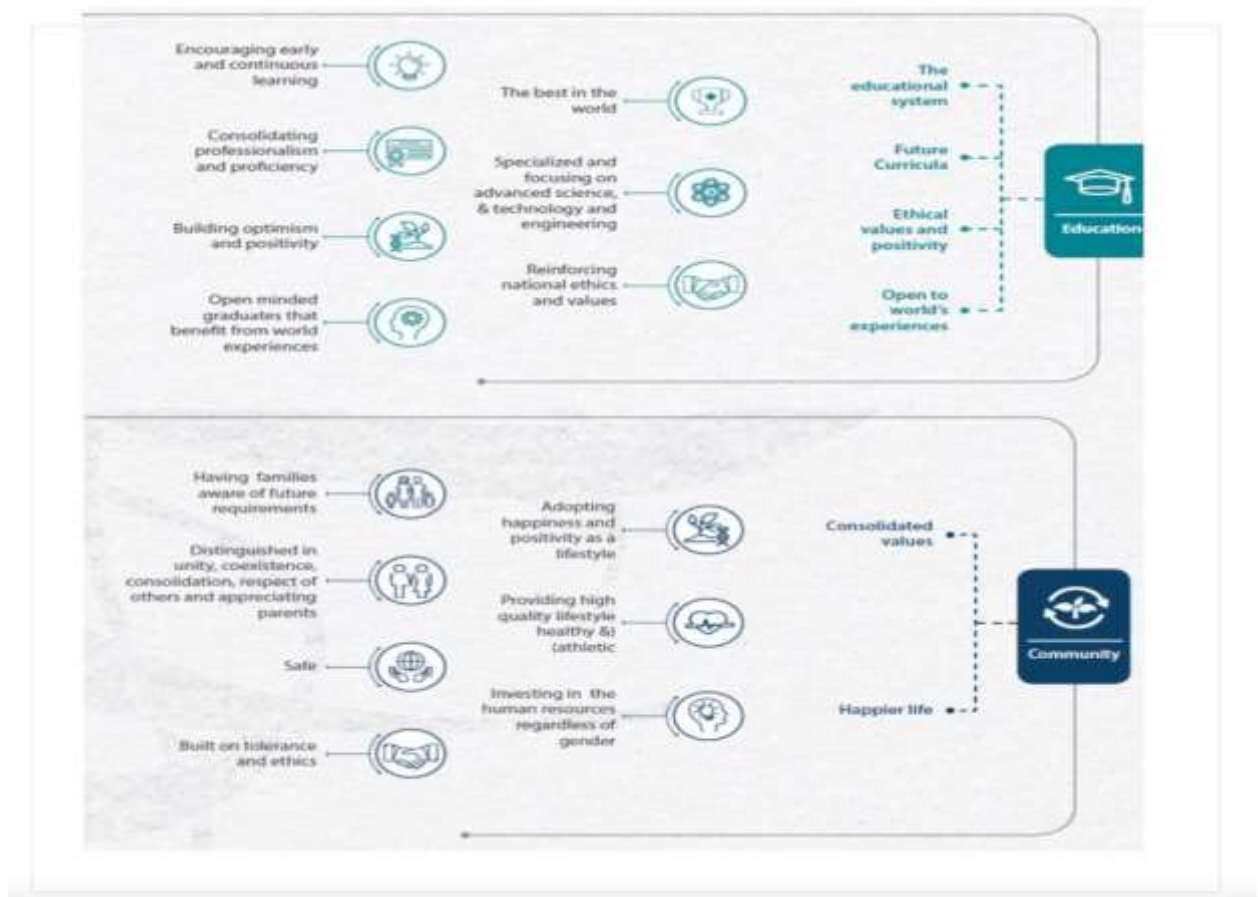


Figure (4. 3): UAE Centennial Plan 2071 Community and Education Axes (Adopted from National Media Council, 2017)

7) UAE National Strategy for Wellbeing 2031

The ‘UAE National Strategy for Wellbeing 2031’ was introduced in 2019 with the sole aim of organising and reinforcing several government entities’ efforts towards the promotion of wellbeing. The strategy targets areas related to mental and physical health, education, and social wellbeing along with other wellbeing areas. Its main scope is to shift the national/local government’s initiatives toward wellbeing. A key strategic initiative that was launched in partnership with the MoE and the National Programme for Happiness and Wellbeing was the ‘Well Schools Network’. This initiative has a key relevance to this thesis, although registration with this network is optional. The initiative provides information to schools to adopt positive education. The Well School Network focuses on areas related to community, school

environment, teachers, families, and students, as shown in Figure (4.4). The Well School Network includes more than 250 schools, as of March 2019.



Figure (4. 4): Well Schools Network Wellbeing Initiatives Area (Adopted from MoE, 2021b)

Local Government

8) Dubai Plan 2021

Dubai 2021 as a continuation of Dubai Plan 2015 focuses on the people and society (The Executive Council, 2018). Figure (4.5) summarises the key aspirations of Dubai's government. The plan targets individuals as being central to drive the aspiration of the Emirate. On the level of individuals, education is seen as shaping and enhancing wellbeing and ensuring happy, confident individuals.

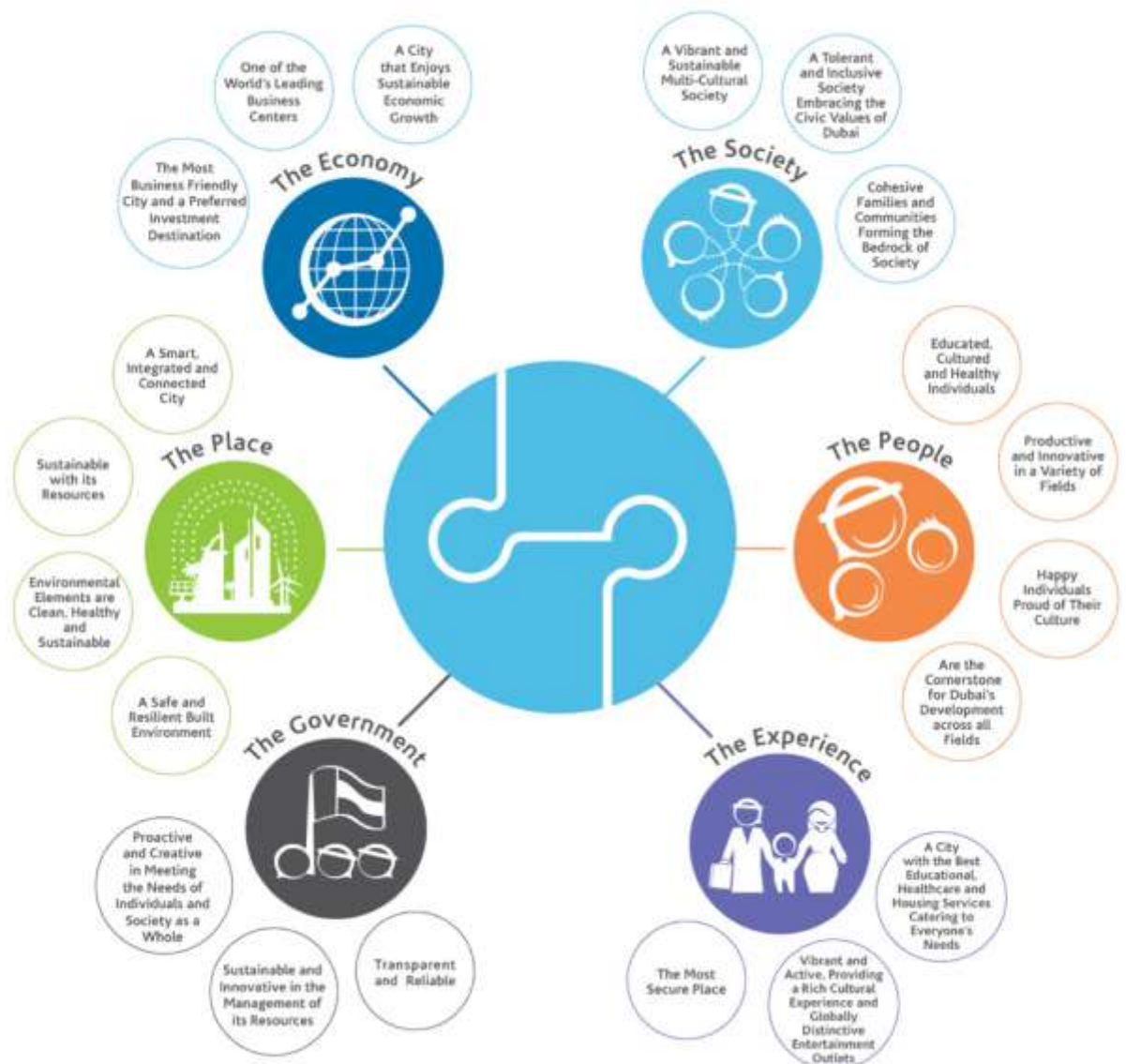


Figure (4. 5): Dubai 2021 Plan Aspirations Focusing on Individuals

The World Government Summit was hosted in Dubai in the years 2017-2019 and happiness as a theme has been shown as being central to government advancement. Positive education was presented as part of the policy topics and was annually reviewed during these years (Seligman & Adler, 2019).

Educational Authority - KHDA

9) Resolution No.2/ 2017 Regulating Private Schools in Dubai (Established in 2017)

This legislation consisting of 39 articles was issued in 2017. It aims to regulate the private education sector encouraging international best practices. Although it highlights schools' obligations on providing psychological and social programmes to students, it does not mention positive education or use the term 'wellbeing' within the legislation.

10) Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) (Established with in 2017)

DSWC was launched in 2017 targeting Grades 6 – 9. In 2018, it was extended to Grades 10 – 12. The reason behind the survey was to explore students' wellbeing feelings and thoughts. It mainly entails social and emotional wellbeing. Details of the DSWC were introduced in chapter 3. KHDA developed the tool in partnership with the South Australian Government and it was contextualised to Dubai's school environment. It is built on the PERMA models.

Table (4.4) provides a brief overview of the document analysis of each relevant policy/initiative on the national, local, and educational authority level. 'The National Agenda 2021' highlights education as a key priority to achieve UAE vision 2021's aspiration for becoming first-rate education. Indicators set to achieve UAE vision 2021 are mainly related to academic attainment, assessments, enrollment rate, quality of school leadership, graduation rate and enrollment rate. In summary, 'The UAE Inspection Framework' assesses schools on many indicators. One indicator related to wellbeing is Standard 2, 'Students' personal and social development and their innovation'. The third national policy is the 'Moral Education Programme' highlighting the importance of holistic education, discussing the importance of building students' character, and ensuring students' wellbeing. The Moral Education Programme aligns with the UAE's vision, grounded in happiness, wellness, and social wellbeing. The 'Law No.3 2016 on Child Rights' highlights regulations related to children's legal rights and discusses aspects associated with wellbeing. None of the latter policies and

initiatives explicitly include themes related to positive education; they mainly include themes related to wellbeing. The ‘National Programme for Happiness’ discusses the introduction of positive education, wellbeing, and happiness programmes. It introduces practices and concepts associated with wellbeing and happiness. In the ‘UAE Centennial 2017’ two of its four axes are ‘Education’ and ‘Community’ which emphasise the teaching of wellbeing, positive education, positivity, ethical values, happiness, and optimism. The ‘UAE National Strategy for Wellbeing’ discusses wellbeing through the ‘Well School Network’ and is a key initiative for the promotion of positive education. The ‘Dubai Plan 2021’ summarises Dubai government aspirations to drive happiness and wellbeing and discusses the hosting of World Government Summit between the years 2017-2019 which had happiness and positive education as the central theme. The ‘International Positive Education Network’ can also be viewed as a local authority initiative/policy because KHDA is affiliated with the IPEN network and acts as the representative within the MENA region; this is a key initiative because it identifies positive education as key in promoting wellbeing in communities. ‘Resolution No.2/107 Regulating Private Schools in Dubai’ highlights schools’ obligations for provision of psychological and social programmes but does not discuss positive education. Finally, the ‘Dubai Student Wellbeing Census’ explores students’ thoughts and feelings about their own wellbeing. It examines social and emotional wellbeing and is built on the PERMA model. The Dubai Student Wellbeing Census is a key driving force behind the adoption of positive education within Dubai K-12 private schools.

No.	Policy/ Initiative	National/ Local/ Educational Authority	Social, Emotional, Psychological Learning Wellbeing/ PE/Positivity/Happiness
1	The National Agenda 2021 (Launched 2014)	National	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Includes education as a key priority area to achieve UAE Vision 2021. - Discusses the key importance of education and aspires of having first-rate education - All the set indicators discuss international and national assessments, school leadership, enrollment rate, quality of teachers and graduation rate - Does not explicitly discuss wellbeing and positive education
2	The UAE Inspection Framework (2015-2016) (Launched 2015)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Accountability tool for education used to assess both private and public schools - Constitutes a set of key standards - Standard 2 ‘Students’ personal and social development and their innovation’ is concerned with wellbeing - There is no explicit reference to positive education.
3	The Moral Education Programme (2016)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Targets to develop ‘holistic approach’ to education - It does not only focus on ethics and moral cognition; but it also aims to build students’ character and contribute to the wellbeing and health of students. - It was grounded in UAE’s vision of ‘building sustainable, society, grounded in the happiness, wellness and social wellbeing of its people’ (Moral Education 2021, Section 5). - Does not explicitly promote positive education.
4	Law No. 3 2016 on Child Rights (2016)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Presents the regulations associated with children’s legal rights. - Discuss aspects contributing to children’s wellbeing - Does not explicitly promote positive education.
5	The National Programme for Happiness (2016)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promotes wellbeing and happiness with the UAE through the promotion of initiatives within the educational community. - Introduced the Global Happiness Council to showcase best policy practices and concepts associated with wellbeing and happiness. - Explicitly promotes positive education through sharing of reports, and initiatives such as ‘100 Days of Positivity’
6	The UAE Centennial 2071 (2017)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consists of four axes. Within the Education axis the aspiration of having first-rate system is evident. - Emphasis with the Education axis is to infuse teaching of wellbeing. - Promotes positive education by focusing on embedding teaching of optimism, positivity, happiness, and ethical values to foster diversity and co-existence within both the Education and Community axes.
7	UAE National Strategy for Wellbeing 2031 (2019)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sole aim of organising and reinforcing several government entities towards the promotion of wellbeing. - Key strategic initiative is the ‘Well School Network’ which initiates partnership between MoE and the

			National Programme for Happiness and Wellbeing. As of March 2019, this network included 250 schools (Key initiative for this thesis) - Explicitly promotes positive education.
8	Dubai Plan 2021 (2014)	Local Dubai Government	- Summarises the key aspirations of the Dubai government - The plan targets individuals as being central to drive aspirations of the Emirate mainly through education and enhancement of wellbeing and happiness - Dubai has been hosting the World Government Summit between 2017-2019 with happiness as the theme for central government advancement. Positive education as a policy topic has been reviewed annually during these years. (Seligman & Adler, 2019) (Key event for this thesis) - Explicitly promotes positive education.
9	The International Positive Education Network (IPEN) (MENA) (2014)		- KHDA is affiliated with IPEN and acts as a representative within the MENA region - Aim of promoting positive education to ensure all individuals within the community improve their wellbeing. - Explicitly promotes positive education.
10	Resolution No. 2/ 2017 Regulating Private Schools in Dubai (2017)	Dubai Educational Authority (KHDA)	- Regulates Dubai's private schools sector encouraging international best practice - Highlights schools' obligations for provision of psychological and social programmes. - Does not explicitly promote positive education.
11	Dubai Student Wellbeing Census (DSWC) (2017)		- Explores students' feelings and thoughts about their own wellbeing - Explores social and emotional wellbeing - Builds on the PERMA model, which is promoted by IPEN and positive education - Although it does not explicitly promote positive education, its introduction acted as a driving force behind adoption of positive education within Dubai K-12 private schools.

Table (4. 4): National, Local Government and KHDA Document Analysis of Policies/Initiatives Associated with Wellbeing and Positive Education

From the 11 policies/initiatives, six explicitly promote positive education. These six policies highlight the role of education in achieving the right happiness and positivity skills and the right to equip the students with this. Initially, policies/initiatives such as those the National Agenda introduced were paving the way to making education central to the country's prosperity and emphasising the development of the child's social, and psychological development. The UAE School Inspection Framework, developed in accordance with the National Agenda, does

not refer to positive education and student wellbeing; however, it highlights students' personal and social development as part of expected students' outcomes. A unified and clear student wellbeing/positive education definition is not present throughout the framework. However, several dimensions capture wellbeing within the framework. To look at the impact from the inspection framework, the researcher reviewed and analysed KHDA reports for the four participating schools from the years 2016-2019 since this was when DSWC-mandated to be implemented within Dubai schools. The year 2016 was chosen to examine whether wellbeing/positive education were reported prior to the mandate of DSWC. Analysis of KHDA reports during 2016 mainly revolved around emotional, social, and intellectual development, and reference to the presence of positive relationships among school members and students. Only the school (CGS) report discussed wellbeing as being part of its ethos and values and emphasised wellbeing among students. Later reports written between 2017-2018 continued to reference emotional, social, and academic development among the other three schools; however, greater reference to wellbeing was more evident within the school reports, and data from DSWC was being used and discussed. The KHDA reports include only a short section on the personal development of students. Both the inspection framework and KHDA reports prioritise academic achievement vs. non-academic achievement because rating on the KHDA report is linked directly to three limiting factors: teaching, leadership effectiveness, and students' academic progress.

The introduction of MEP started the journey to the acquisition of ethical values through character-building and mentions wellbeing. It highlights the development of resilience as a character strength to live with others and develop relationships. MEP curriculum, mandated to be taught across the schools, had strengthened the practices and concepts embedding the understanding of positive education. MEP overlaps in some instances with positive education character strengths. The MEP classes have given the schools the opportunity to implement

positive education and embed it as part of the whole-school curriculum. All senior leaders discussed positive education and Moral Education Programme overlap with positive education and the fact that the four schools incorporated positive education mostly within the Moral Education lessons. This is best captured by one senior leadership member from AJA:

“Positive education is taught sometimes through Moral Education Programme; we teach that through the KHDA booklet ... it is quite prescribed of what we need to do. But we do try and implement different types of learning opportunities to present positive education character strengths.” (Senior Leadership Member 2-AJA)

Post-Moral Education Programme, more recent policies/ initiatives started in 2016 to explicitly promote positive education, specifically the introduction of the ‘The National Programme for Happiness’ which further initiated a combination of governmental cooperation on promotion of happiness through positive education, and the ‘UAE National Strategy for Wellbeing 2031’ introduced in 2019. It provides a unified long-term strategic roadmap engaging various segments of the society. Aspects of positive education and wellbeing are highlighted to include positive relationships with teachers, friends, and family, and reinforce positivity and character strengths. The latter strategy is a key initiative to the drive of positive education implementation within schools. It introduced a key strategic initiative, the ‘Well School Network’, to promote positive education implementation. One senior leadership member discussed the emphasis national requirements had on the introduction of positive education implementation within the school and how the national focus on external exams and the school results led to positive education being introduced in BITJ.

“National requirement started four years back to focus on happiness, happiness indicators... students’ engagement and external exam results highlighted gaps among genders especially in middle and high school and from there teaching and learning policies, curriculum practices of differentiation were introduced and we as a school started to focus on positive education.” (Senior Leadership Member1-BITJ)

The voluntary nature of participation in the initiative ‘The Well Schools Network’ within the ‘UAE Wellbeing Strategy 2031’, although it encourages schools to commit, it does

not ensure the programme's benefit is felt by most students. Also, since this initiative presents a note to schools to endorse student wellbeing, schools are not obliged to adhere to this initiative. The latter will not definitely lead many schools to adopt a whole-school implementation approach to positive education.

Within the UAE Centennial 2071, education is stated as a force that allows individuals to develop positivity, professionalism, and optimism. The 'Community' axis presents expectations of happiness among its members who achieve healthy lifestyles through development of strong ties with family member, friends, and respect to one another.

On the local Dubai government level, Dubai Plan 2021 (The Executive Council, 2018) sign posts the early language shift used to describe wellbeing; this shift involves happiness and satisfaction at the individuals' level. Education is seen as providing students with the key skills to attain highlighted outcomes. Dubai Plan 2021 paved the way for hosting the World Government Summit for the past three years (pre-pandemic). Happiness and its ties to positive education were discussed during the summit (Seligman & Adler, 2019). The latter shows the increased contextual subconstruct support of having political system support from the local Dubai government; most importantly on the KHDA level and the affiliation of KHDA with the IPEN/MENA network that mainly promotes positive education practices within schools. The first meeting by the IPEN was held in Dallas, Texas, USA in 2016. Interviews with two senior leadership members revealed that their schools attended these meetings, where it was stated that this event was a driving force for adoption/enhancement of positive education within their schools. Both schools had character education and value education being implemented at their school. Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA stated that there were at the time debates about the overlap between character education already implemented in their school and positive education.

“...I attended the IPEN conference in USA where I was introduced to positive education, and implementation. Among other topics, positive education was

discussed during the conference...when I came back, I started discussing it with my team and think of ways of adopting it and use it to improve our already implemented Character Education...” (Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA)

“We always had Value Education in our school, our principal and senior members attended a conference in USA with IPEN about positive education and after coming back, they shared the knowledge with us and we started improving positive education practices around the school.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-CGS)

Lastly, the last policy/initiative is the DSWC. Based on the analysis, it has a broad defined scope, which covers aspects of students’ lives outside and inside the school. These aspects were introduced in Chapter 3. The introduction of the KHDA DSWC set a key political and systemic support for positive education implementation in Dubai K-12 private schools. It reflects Dubai’s and KHDA’s commitment to highlighting wellbeing and bringing positive education practice to the radar. Three schools participating in this study were part of the pilot for the DSWC, as stated by the senior leadership members. These schools stated they were introduced to positive education and saw that their school would benefit from positive implementation through the participation in this DSWC pilot. They also discuss support from KHDA on sharing knowledge and hosting events where best practice among schools are shared.

“We were part of the pilot for DSWC and within a meeting with local authority we became introduced to positive education which made me interested because the data of the school was good but the relationships between students and teachers were not where we wanted it and there is definitely room for improvement.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA)

“In 2017 we piloted DSWC in school, local authority helped understand the data through wellbeing champion workshop with local authority; we learned about positive education and started implementing it.” (Senior Leadership Member 2-BITJ)

“KHDA has been our partner through it all, our introduction came by KHDA, it has been a constant feeder of right information, key information as well as expertise into whatever we’re doing, connecting us with the right people [with the] What Works Programme.” (Senior Leadership Member 2-CGS)

“Support from the local education authority has created events for school to share knowledge about the implementation of positive education and share practices.” (Senior Leadership Member 2-AJA)

“The local authority opened a communication channel with schools to share best practices, and positive education has recently been featured and we are constantly asking the positive education Head and she communicates with local authority and other schools and share best practices from other schools.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-BITJ)

Dubai legislation which organises private schools’ activities and establishment is empty of any mention of positive education adoption to support the wellbeing of concerned students and other stakeholders in the context of the school, and they do not use positive education/wellbeing terminology.

Table (4. 5) presents a summary of contextual findings related to political and systemic support. It highlights that positive education was promoted with the introduction of the IPEN on the global and local Dubai level. Also, the establishment of the Well School Network and the mandate associated with DSWC helped in the promotion of positive education.

Positive Education Implementation			
Contextual Findings – Political and Systemic Support			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	Promotion of education and wellbeing	International and National Policies	Related
2.	Highlights on the relevance of non-academic competencies	International and National Policies	Related
3.	Highlight social and personal development outcomes	International and National Policies	Related
4.	Prioritise achievement over other non-academic outcomes	International and National Policies	Irrelevant
5.	School ratings are linked to academic outcomes	National Policies	Irrelevant
6.	Positivity and happiness have become a national lifestyle incorporated at the community, individual, government level in the UAE	National Policies	Relevant
7.	Positive education implementation promoted by the IPEN on the global and local Dubai level.	International and National Policies/ School Leadership Interviews	Relevant
8.	Establishment of the Well School Network, promoting voluntary positive education teaching	National Policies	Relevant
9.	DSWC mandated promoted positive education	National Policies/ School Leaders interviews	Relevant

Table (4. 5): Positive Education Implementation Contextual Findings – Political and Systemic Support

B. School political and systemic support

Another contextual subconstruct is concerned with the support the school provides for positive education implementation in terms of a strategic plan, policy-driven support, and financial support. To answer this part, document revisions of available school strategic plans, and positive education/wellbeing policy were assessed. Strategic plans highlighted the importance of achieving wellbeing through the introduction of positive education as a strategic goal. Some of the key enhancements identified within the strategic plans included:

- Embedding positive character strengths within their ethos, vision, mission, and school culture.
- Development of standalone or integrated positive education and choosing appropriate curriculum content.
- Hiring positive education/wellbeing coordinators.
- Use analysis from PASS/DSWC to support programme development.
- Link positive education development to assembly topic, homeroom programmes, themed days.
- Offering positive education Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for teachers/staff.
- Improvements in the school environment to include character strengths on displays (introduction of wellbeing room, friendship benches, etc.).
- Build positive relationships with all stakeholders through the introduction of Parent Wellbeing Groups.
- Parents information sessions to improve understanding of character strengths.
- Wellbeing checks throughout the year.

As can be seen from the statements above, those strategic goals identified within the plans included hiring of positive education/wellbeing officers, CPD, improvements to the school environment etc., and all of this requires budget and board buy-ins. Senior and middle leadership members from all four schools stated that school boards were supportive of all the strategic goals associated with the adoption of positive education.

“After doing strategic goals which included the inclusion of positive education as a goal, it was approved, and they provided us the budget for positive education training and were very supportive.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-BITJ)

“Yes, absolutely they (the board) were definitely on board. They approved the idea, they got the curriculum for us which needed to be paid for and they also paid for

the training and now the app as well, they have been cooperative and supportive of this initiative.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-DITM)

“From my perspective the school management is very encouraging about it, and they’re very enthusiastic about the programme, and I see that they are very much aware of the importance of such topics with the students, so I’m optimistic they will adopt it.” (Middle Leadership Member 1-DITM)

CGS explained the support from the community and board members since they are very well connected with key community members and externally and internally supported, which helped them in moving forward with positive education implementation. A senior leadership member stated:

“We have the support both internally and externally.... CGS is a well-connected school with good community partners who really help us take this forward.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-CGS)

Table (4.6) presents the positive education implementation contextual findings summary for the school political and systemic support highlighting key support based on revision of strategic plans and interviews. These findings include embedding positive education as part of the strategic goals and ethos of the school. Also, providing financial support for CPD and administration of assessment tools.

Positive Education Implementation			
Contextual Findings – School Political and Systemic Support			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	Embedding positive education character strengths within ethos, vision, mission and school culture and environment	Strategic plans/ revision of websites/ vision/ mission statement	Relevant
2.	Development of positive education curriculum aligned with school needs	Strategic plans	Relevant
3.	Hiring positive education and wellbeing coordinators	Strategic plans	Relevant
4.	Use of PASS/DSWC to support positive education development	Strategic plans/ school leadership/ teachers	Relevant
5.	Offering positive education CPD to teachers and staff	Strategic plans/ school leadership/ teachers	Relevant
6.	Partnerships with community and parents	Strategic plans/ school leadership/ teachers	Relevant
7.	Establishing wellbeing checks throughout the year	Strategic plans/ school leadership/ teachers	Relevant

Table (4. 6): Positive Education Implementation Contextual Findings – School Political and Systemic Support

C. Engagement of internal with key external community stakeholders in implementation

Well-identified needs should be presented within universal and targeted implementation programmes and initiatives, which must involve internal and external stakeholders (teachers, parents, and students): senior leadership and middle leadership member, teachers, parents, and students should collectively be involved in the implementation process (Schalock, Loon & Mostert, 2018). The third subconstruct involves the engagement of the school's internal and external community stakeholders: senior leadership, middle leadership, teachers, parents, and students, in the process of implementation. Although this involves parents, teachers, and students, findings from interviews with senior and middle leadership members, as well as focus groups with teachers, parents and students were reviewed and analysed to obtain evidence of this type of engagement. Below are some excerpts and comments that were stated by these stakeholders.

“We started a parent wellbeing group to talk about student wellbeing and they too felt that we needed to introduce different things to improve student wellbeing, and I also worked with a group of students in which I introduced both parents and student group, to positive education, which led to the adoption of positive education” (Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA)

“We sent a proper email from the principal to introduce parents to the positive education terminology and we use this now and when we do parent council meeting, we do regular meetings and discuss the positive programme.” (Teacher Focus Group-BITG)/ (Confirmed by Senior Leadership Member 1 & Senior Leadership Member 2)

“... involvement of students through the student council representative called the wellbeing champions who help us with wellbeing/positive education/character strengths and happiness and this year we are focusing on involving them more... This is a whole-school approach when looking at data of involving parents, students, and staff and all are involved in the action plan, including parents.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-BITG)/ (Confirmed by Parent Focus Group)

“Students and parents were also on board, in fact we have a wellbeing committee for parents, students and faculty and we use those committees to develop initiatives for school... developing surveys, activities... definitely it is an entire learning community.” (Senior Leadership Member 1 – AJA)

“We included parents, staff, and students in wellbeing planning.... parents because we believe that they are role models to their children.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-DITM)

D. Home Environment

It is not only important to give parents a voice, but also to improve their attitudes, knowledge, and practices towards their child's schooling. The fourth subconstruct discusses the schools' focus on the home environment and the role this plays in the implementation of positive education. Comments below shows that the parents' point of view centres around having a common understanding of the development of the whole child and mirroring a similar ethos and values at home to those being taught at school. Both school leadership and parents share the common understanding given on ensuring shared common home and school environment values for the success of positive education. AJA parents, teachers, senior and middle leadership connected IB philosophy and the IB learner profile with the character strengths and virtues associated with positive education. Parents discussed that once they took the decision to be part of the IB curriculum, they adopted the focus on the character of the

child. They viewed that positive education adoption by the school enhanced character and therefore aligned with the values they promote at home. For example, parents in the focus groups stated the following:

“I think once we agree to put our children in IB school, it is philosophy of the family and we share principles and perspectives of education to develop the character of the child as parents ... What I consider being the development of character for my children and the other way around, so whatever happens in school should be mirrored at home, and the other way around.” (Parent Focus Group-AJA)

Senior leadership discussed working with parents to ensure that values taught by positive education at school are being reinforced at home. Senior leadership developed parents’ councils and parents worked with the school to reinforce the character strengths developed at school. The following was stated to support the latter:

“This year we’re going to work very closely with the parent council because students are spending more time at home and there are many characteristics and habits that students need; understanding in life comes from the home so we need the parents to be educated as well about wellbeing, we need them to help us and support their kid in different areas of Positive Education/Wellbeing.” (Senior Leadership Member 2-BITJ)

“My kids shared their experience about character strengths, and they imitate it, and we try to implement it at home.” (Parent Focus Group -BITJ)

“We always involve the parents and have parents on board, so they know whatever we are doing and they’re speaking the same language at home, and this has helped.” (Senior Leadership Member 1-CGS)

“We need to have parents really understand what is character strengths and to make a whole positive education programme in which we value the same character strengths and we are not going to get a situation which is conflicting with the school...” (Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA)

“My children have become happier at school, they state that they become happy when they go to school because they are able to make friends easier, they like the communication with their teachers, and the discussions they have with their teachers and friends are making them happier and feel safer.” (Parent Focus Group- AJA)

Table (4.7) highlights the summary of positive education implementation contextual findings associated with engagement of internal and external stakeholders and home

environment. Findings from interviews of stakeholders identify that parents, teachers, and students were engaged as part of parents groups, students council and teachers committees. School leaders interview findings highlight the importance of home environment and engagement of parents to ensure that positive education character strengths and virtues are mirrored in school and at home.

Positive Education Implementation			
Contextual Findings – Engagement of Internal and External Stakeholders/Home Environment			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	School leaders established parent, teacher and student wellbeing groups and involved them in the action plans and planning for positive education	Interviews and focus group with school leadership, teachers, parents, and students	Relevant
2.	School leaders communicated and held workshops for parents to introduce positive education		Relevant
3.	School leaders established students' councils and student representatives to support development of positive education (wellbeing champions)		Relevant
4.	Parents, students, and teachers expressed their enthusiasm of the implementation of positive education		Relevant
5.	Students expressed the desire to be more involved in the development and implementation		Relevant
6.	School leaders discussed working with parents to ensure values taught are reinforced at home		Relevant

Table (4. 7): Positive Education Implementation Contextual Findings – Engagement of Internal and External Stakeholders/Home Environment

2. Intervention Construct

Intervention Construct associated with positive education implementation revolves around five subconstructs:

A. Fitness of positive education/PPI

B. Compatibility with recipients

C. Fidelity vs. adaptability

D. Dosage effects

E. Socio-cultural expectations

A. Fitness of positive education/PPI

This subconstruct investigates how the positive education/PPI content fits with the schools' mission/vision/values, and policies. The schools' websites containing mission/vision/values were reviewed and analysed. One of the criteria used for the revision was to see if positive education/happiness-associated words, character strengths, and wellbeing were part of the mission/vision/values. Identification of the presence of these words provides an indication of the school's commitment to positive education and wellbeing implementation within the school. The summary of the related words from all four schools are presented in Table (4.5). The table shows that all four schools have included a lot of the key words associated with positive education, character strengths and wellbeing. Interviews with senior and middle leadership revealed that positive education and wellbeing are fed into the school's ethos/mission to make students happy in AJA. The parent focus group discussed at an IB school (AJA) that positive education character strengths are part of the learner profile and they play a big part across the whole curriculum. Senior leadership members from CGS stated, *"they see that every child is a positive change maker"* and within their vision they stress infusing *"positivity and positive education within their initiatives, pastoral, academic and extracurricular activities"*. BITJ senior and middle leadership expressed that the adoption of positive education was a priority because they wanted to develop *"wellbeing literacy and positive education understanding"*.

Positive Education Associated Words Presented in the Mission of Schools	Positive Education Character Strengths in the Vision of Schools	Positive Education Character Strengths Presented in the Values of Schools
Wellbeing Happiness Flourish Positive	Self-awareness Kindness Courage Respect Integrity Tolerance Perseverance	Compassion Resilience Honesty Self-discipline Self-confidence Self-esteem

Table (4. 8): Summary of Key Positive Education Character Strengths and Associated Words Presented in Mission, Vision and Values

All schools expressed equipping their students with the skills to take care of themselves now and in the future and they value positive education in providing these skills necessary to be successful in life and be able to deal with their mental health. They also stressed the importance of teaching the holistic child and not concentrating on academics. DITM had just introduced positive education to prepare students for life and to provide them with the life-skills to deal with their future. The latter was echoed across all interviews and focus groups from all four schools. DITM also stated that positive education was added because of the Covid pandemic to help students cope.

“This was introduced to high school students so we can introduce the students to positive education prior to going to college because they need to know basic knowledge of how to take care of themselves and their mental health...” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

“We introduced positive education this year in grades 9 and 12 and the main idea for introducing positive education was prompted because of the current global pandemic and the impact of the Covid-19.... We knew the social, emotional wellbeing would definitely be a big area of concern and we wanted to provide additional support.” (Senior Leadership Member 1- DITM) (Confirmed by Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

“Part of our mission is to make sure students nurtured and inclusive and part of our vision to develop students socially and emotionally to ensure positive environment and culture... and positive education is kind of the vehicle to make sure of that... We also are evolving as a school, and reimagining with education and through research, experience we know that all learning is social and emotional, you cannot separate learning and education; social, emotional development, they’re inextricable...” (Senior Leadership Member 1-DITM) (confirmed by other Senior Leadership Members from AJA/BITJ/CGS)

B. Compatibility with recipients

This ‘Compatibility with recipients’ subconstruct examines positive education’s congruence/match with the students’ needs. The findings associated with this construct were based on interviews and focus groups. Most of the teachers who taught positive education were also counsellors and held pastoral care positions within the four schools. Many participants interviewed in the four schools expressed that positive education equipped them *“with a lot of tips and was useful because it allowed them to deal with teenagers which is the most critical and difficult age and help parents handle kids with attitudes/stubborn kids....”* (Teacher Focus Group-BITJ). The character strengths were used to reinforce good, positive behaviour across the school and among teachers, family and friends, as stated by senior and middle leadership members, teachers, and parent focus groups in all four schools, and many expressed that it is just as important as teaching any other curriculum within the school.

“In school like teaching students to memorise multiplication tables, same as we memorise lines of story, learning positive character strengths and focusing on core values and instilling these in students fits with the school and making students feel respect, kindness, cheerfulness.” (Senior Leadership Member 1- AJA)

Another statement that was echoed by many teachers within the focus group is that positive education/PPI let them reflect about their own feelings and helped them to become resilient and positive. It equipped teachers with ways to cope and become positive, which reflected on many students. Senior leadership members in CGS felt that positive education provided optimal learning to happen because it helps in *“providing a safe environment and a sense of belonging”* and they stated that this is the main principle behind positive education in their school. Senior leadership members in BITG stated that prior to Covid-19, the school environment became more positive, you could see it across the school and hear it in discussions among teachers and students. Senior leadership even commented that the accreditation team when they visited the

school, stated that they felt that the school had become more positive, and this is evidenced in the relationships among staff and students which reflected the implementation of positive education. Parents echoed similar impacts seen in their children's behaviour at home. Discussions became more focused on the wellbeing of the student and less focused on the academic activities and achievements. The evidence can be shown from the following:

"We saw positive education impact on the school environment around on the walls and in activities within classes prior to the pandemic, which made the students happy and become more engaged." (Senior Leadership Member - BITJ)

Before the pandemic when we started implementing positive education, kids in school started talking about positive education, you could hear them, and many activities were present and at the time you can see it in their work on the wall... we had an accreditation visit who commented that they see positive education and it just started to show [a] kind of impact on students." (Senior Leadership Member - BITJ)

"The level of conversation now with teachers and leaders and the school, it is not focused only on academic... we are talking about psychological factors, engagement, positive attitude ...so now it is not purely academic/behavioural issues issues are raised on maintaining positive attitude.... This is new at our school; these types of conversation are usually heard from the principal and not from the class teacher trying to resolve psychological factors.... Teachers became more positive, and this reflected somehow on the students and the class environment, and if you observe a class, you can see that." (Senior Leadership Member - BITJ)

"We find positive education is a very holistic approach to education and it has become part of our daily conversation. I have three kids at the school and I see the values ingrained in them." (Parent Focus Group - AJA)

Table (4.9) summarises positive education implementation intervention findings related to fitness of positive education/ PPI and compatability with recipients. It highlights that positive education character strengths align with school's ethos. Stakeholders discussed that positive education equipped students with skills to deal with stress, mental health issues, teenage problems, and reinforced positive behaviour.

Positive Education Implementation			
Intervention Findings – Fitness of Positive Education/PPI / Compatibility with Recipients			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	Positive education is fed into school's ethos, vision, and mission to develop wellbeing literacy	Websites (vision, mission, ethos) Interviews with school leadership	Relevant
2.	Leaders stressed equipping students with skills to be successful in life to deal with mental health	Interviews with school leadership and focus group with teachers	Relevant
3.	Stakeholders discussed positive education helped them deal with teenagers	Interviews and focus group with school leadership, teachers, parents, and students	Relevant
4.	Stakeholders expressed that character strengths help reinforce positive behaviour and is important		Relevant
5.	Teachers expressed that positive education helped them in reflecting on their own feelings and become resilient and positive		Relevant
6.	Stakeholders expressed that optimal learning was promoted through positive education and environment across the school		Relevant
7.	School leaders and teachers discussed holistic education and discussions among themselves, where they focused less on achievements		Relevant

Table (4. 9): Positive Education Implementation Intervention Findings – Fitness of Positive Education / PPI/ Compatibility with Recipients

C. Fidelity vs. adaptability

This subconstruct discusses changes to the implementation process of positive education, and if it is needed to be adapted to fit the school's needs. It also discusses standardisation of teaching resources. One key adaptation that all four schools discussed was first standardisation of the positive education curriculum and development of positive education interventions to fit the schools' values and mission. For example, in AJA they found that positive education overlaps with the Character Education/Moral Education Programme which they had already taught in past years and the IB learner profile and they felt that the aim was the same: *“to prepare students to live a flourishing life and give them the tools to do that.”* (Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA). Therefore, they needed to identify areas of overlap and streamline core values adopted by the school to align with IB profile, Moral Education Programme,

Character Education, and the positive education character strengths to make sure that they fit their students' needs and the school's values. DITM felt that positive education overlapped with Moral Education Programme and Religious studies and having purchased the IPEN positive education curriculum, they felt that some topics needed to be modified to fit the context and culture of the school and the UAE.

"I wanted to integrate Islamic concepts to the PERMA model and relate it to the context of the school, our culture and beliefs... there are many things in common between the positive education curriculum purchased by the school, but it needs to be adapted to our students and culture." (Teacher Focus Group - DITM)

CGS stated that they have an in-house built homegrown curriculum they have started and would like to continue tweaking their activities and curriculum to fit with the PERMA model. They wanted to teach positive education throughout the curriculum, gradually across grades and increase the complexity with the grades. In addition to modification within the curriculum, all four schools expressed the desire of embedding the positive education character strengths and curriculum to be adopted as a whole-school approach in assemblies, activities, initiatives, and across all subjects. In BITJ, student and teacher focus groups and senior and middle leadership members all were very excited about the programme but felt the current implementation was being limited to certain classrooms and subjects, therefore it did not provide the full benefit to all students, and they would like to have it expanded across other subjects and become part of the school culture and within the students' daily life at school, to obtain a more enhanced impact. In terms of including positive education as part of the assembly, most students in all four schools were open for the idea and strongly expressed their desire for the whole-school approach and inclusion of assemblies that discuss positive education character strengths. However, students in BITJ did not feel that it should be included in assembly, and would be better implemented within the classroom, so they can share freely with their colleagues and teachers. One student stated:

“....in class it is more interactive and includes activities ...students are able to express themselves without other people scaring them and so we can hear other people’s opinion, like expressing activities that express a specific goal in one word.... these activities are sweet ways that make students feel happy about themselves and positive, and getting a positive perspective without actually getting to know who was the person who wrote those words. So I feel like activities get the message directly, more than assemblies.” (Student Focus Group-BITG)

In AJA, a senior leadership member wanted *“to make it explicit across homerooms, classes, and throughout the whole school and the curriculum, which will make it easier to implement.” (Senior Leadership Member 2-AJA)*. Another adaptation that was mentioned in all four schools was to include more real-life experiences; this was reiterated across all teachers focus groups and middle leadership members’ interviews, who expressed that given the current situation with the Covid pandemic, it is hard to teach certain topics such as mindfulness without having the students be physically in the classroom. They felt that there is very little room for social interaction and outdoor activities due to the pandemic and the current situation.

“Having the students with us will surely improve activities big time. I think we’re making great efforts in terms of delivery of such concepts online for the very first time, it’s a new phase, it’s a new era of Covid and all of that and it’s challenging. to be honest. We wish that we have the students with us...because when you’re talking about happiness, resilience, gratitude you want to hear students and you want to see the students and you want to look and see. It’s a very different combination - having students back will improve the activities big time, absolutely.” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM) (Expressed by Teacher Focus Groups in all four schools)

Two schools discussed the need to identify a *“more measurable and tangible assessment that can help in digging more into the wellbeing of each individual” (Senior Leadership Member-BITJ)/(Teacher Focus Group-DITM)*. Teachers had difficulties creating quizzes and exams and they were only able to use e-portfolios and videos as assessment tools within DITM.

In terms of standardisation of teaching resources, across the four schools, three discussed the use of resources from the Positive Education Enhanced Curriculum (PEEC) programme and the IPEN positive education curriculum training; one school (DITM) had purchased the curriculum and was using it. One school (AJA) relied on both IPEN online resources and the Jubilee center online resources. Teacher focus groups discussed the latter resources; however,

they did not explain how these resources were standardised across classrooms. BITJ teachers discussed the use of the IPEN online resources and resources provided during the training. They discussed meeting regularly to standardise the resources but expressed teachers' differences in the implementation to fit their students' needs, specifically when teaching male students vs. female students. CGS, as stated earlier, had standardisation of an in-house developed programme. They had a wellbeing officer who worked on and designed the programme and standardised it across the school. Finally, DITM purchased the positive education curriculum and activities, and teachers worked together on adapting the programme to the students' needs. Teachers found *"the programme activities-based and there were no concepts' definitions."* (Teacher Focus Group-DITM). They worked as part of group to fit the activities to the needs of the students and incorporated a lot of theoretical knowledge from psychology to introduce students to the positive education. In DITM they did not use the curriculum as it is and tried to standardise the resources across all grades. Teachers stated:

"In terms of standardisation of resources, we were trying as much as we can to have the same concepts across all the grades, we worked in Professional Learning Communities (PLC) to ensure that we planned the concepts and revised the positive education curriculum together, and we integrated elements from Positive Psychology and Social, Emotional Learning (SEL) curriculum, and we use what is more suitable for our culture...but sometimes we've girls and boys; we need to adapt to the gender and different grade level... we've to adapt on the spot and use our personal touch based on students' responses to the topic." (DITM- Teacher Focus Group)

D. Dosage effects

This subconstruct refers to the timing, frequency, and types of activities within positive education/PPI. As discussed earlier, AJA wanted to introduce PPI to be done through the homeroom where character strengths can be emphasised and become more frequently used during the year. BITJ senior leadership members and teachers stated that the frequency of the PPI is left as an option to the teacher, but they have asked the teachers to use it at least once or twice per week and incorporate it into classes. However, more senior leadership members stated that more teachers see the benefit of the PPI, they have started to introduce it more often.

But in her opinion the implementation is still slow and needs to be faster. DITM stated that the *“timing of implementation of course was extremely crucial and important because of everything that the world is currently going through with the pandemic.”* (Teacher Focus Group-DITM). However, students at DITM saw that two lessons per week is the *“average time and perfect number of lessons and that by adding more we do not see value.”* (Student Focus Group-DITM). Students felt that having four periods is slightly too much. One student in the focus group stated that a half credit course is better than a full credit and it should be made compulsory rather than optional because it is important. With school AJA, students did not find it a problem to have it taught often and feel it is part of the whole school and learning profile in the IB, and they did not mind it; it has become natural to them.

E. Socio-cultural expectations

This subconstruct examines limitations to implementation due to the socio-cultural impact. AJA senior and middle leadership members discussed the expectation from the point of view of universities and employers who have changed their expectations of graduates, and that *“they no longer concentrate on the academics but the whole personality of the child.”* (Middle Leadership Member-AJA). These employers view positive education character strengths as providing extrinsic value for students. In terms of implementation, AJA’s teacher focus group members discussed the multicultural nature of Dubai and how the multitude of personalities within the school culture impacts the values and beliefs which are needed to be taught through positive education. AJA- senior leadership members stated that homogeneous school populations of students and teachers might find positive education implementation easier because they have common values, and so *“less tension in schools; international schools have it harder due to having many different heterogenous student and teacher groups with different values and virtues.”* The latter was only stated by senior leadership members in AJA; however, senior members in other schools discussed the nature of values and virtues to be aligned with

the moral ethos of the school community and the importance of identifying key values that need to be enhanced and align these with the character strengths and values of positive education. One problem faced by some teachers included aligning the values with religious culture. For example, one teacher stated, *“I wanted to integrate Islamic concepts to the PERMA model and relate it to the context of the school culture.”* DITM teachers expressed that implementation problems faced due to socio-cultural factors included cultural issues when it comes to gender, especially when dealing with boys. One teacher stated:

“We have a cultural issue here when it comes to boys speaking up about their emotions and talking about things that are so personal, let alone speaking about that in front of their classmates and teacher, but I think practice makes perfect encouragement.... Now my students who at first did not talk are now able to express themselves better.” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

Table (4.10) summarises positive implementation findings associated with intervention findings in terms of fidelity vs. adaptability, dosage effects and socio-cultural expectations. Stakeholders stated that positive education needs to be adapted to align with school ethos, learner profile, moral education and religious education, and introduction of psychological theories. In terms of dosage times, stakeholders identify the need for inclusion of positive education course early and to include positive education as part of the school subject and to implement a whole school approach to positive education. Also, stakeholders present the need to adapt the positive education to fit the socio-cultural aspect of the school and the school culture.

Positive Education Implementation			
Intervention Findings – Fidelity vs. adaptability/ Dosage effects/ Socio-cultural Expectations			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	Adaptation of the curriculum to align with school ethos, learner profile	Interviews with school leadership and focus group with teachers, parents and students	Relevant
2.	Streamlining of positive education since it overlapped with Moral Education Programme and religious studies		Relevant
3.	Development of standalone positive education aligned with the PERMA model		Relevant
4.	Discussion of embedding positive education as a whole school programme rather than standalone subject (homerooms, assemblies, more real life examples)		Relevant
5.	Development more tangible assessment methods		Relevant
6.	Resources used included PEEC/ Jubilee Center		Relevant
7.	Discussion of embedding psychology topics prior to introducing positive education		Relevant
8.	Some students expressed mandatory half course positive education class taught twice a week		Relevant

Table (4. 10): Positive Education Implementation Intervention Findings – Fidelity vs. Adaptability/ Dosage Effects/ Socio-cultural Expectations

3. Organisational Construct

Organisational Construct associated with positive education implementation revolves around four subfactors:

- A. Staff efficacy and staff buy-in**
- B. Organisations’ evidence-based evaluation and resource readiness**
- C. Collaboration/communication**
- D. Students’ rewards**

A. Staff efficacy and staff buy-in

This organisational subconstruct investigates perceptions of senior leadership members, middle leadership members and teachers, related to how staff felt about the PPI and positive education implementation, the buy-in of the staff, and the stability of personnel in the

organisation encompassing the work climate related to staff efficacy and vision. In terms of personnel stability during the implementation, none of the schools faced the loss of any teachers or staff. All teachers interviewed from the four schools showed a high level of buy-in and saw the benefits of implementing positive education in terms of supporting the school curriculum of *“developing the holistic aspect of student, not only the academic side”* (Teacher Focus Group-AJA). Teachers from AJA/BITJ/DITM stated that they bought into positive education implementation because they were frustrated with the emphasis on academics, and felt that *“teaching is a calling, finding positive, a breath of fresh air, and this is why we went into teaching, it removed obsession with achievement results”* (Senior Leadership Member 1-AJA).

BITJ senior leaders stated it helped *“the school focus on creating a positive professional culture”* (Senior Leadership Member 1-BITJ). CGS senior leadership members stated that a buy-in was natural, due to the clear purpose presented by the school. Teachers in AJA had full buy-in and felt that positive education should be started to be taught at an early age to develop the moral characteristic of students. They saw that *“developing personality traits such as perseverance.... will be needed by kids to face the ever-changing world”* Teacher Focus Group-AJA.

DITM-SLM stated the following:

“Our teachers/career guidance counsellors/social workers/supervisors/staff were excited and wanted to learn more about positive education because not only our students [are] impacted by Covid-19, but also staff, so mindfulness and wellbeing is something that they are struggling with, and they kind of jumped at the opportunity to understand what is the situation and they embraced it” (Senior Leadership Member 1-DITM).

B. Organisations’ evidence-based evaluation and resource readiness

This subconstruct discusses the schools’ use of evidence-based evaluation to carry out improvements in the implementation process and the resource readiness of the institution. Since the adoption of positive education at the country level is new, most of the schools in this study

initially relied on results of DSWC and PASS to start the implementation process. They used these results to adopt positive character strengths relevant to the schools' needs. The results from these tests are used to build strategies and interventions, whole school assemblies, external speakers, and events. Teachers meet weekly/bi-weekly and plan together and decide on improvements to be done to positive education interventions to revamp the programme. Senior and middle leaders stated that they constantly meet with teachers who provide continuous feedback. BITJ- Senior Leadership Member 1 stated that *"there is a link, so every teacher filled the link to reflect on areas that are beneficial, targets extra support, changes needed, kind of training, and we also built a new action plan"*. A BITJ senior leadership member asserted that internal/external visitors from inspection and accreditation visits pointed out the

"differences among grades and across genders in terms of motivation and engagement... this triggered evaluation of the curriculum and improvement plan to incorporate positive education, where discussion with positive education leaders from Australian schools started... Based on this conversation, positive education training was started to upskill the staff.... We also decided to do PASS every two years to help us monitor our progress."

In terms of resource readiness of the schools, among all four, teachers were satisfied with resource readiness at the schools' levels. Most of the teachers discussed obtaining the resources from the training and from the online website, either Jubilee (AJA), IPEN, (BITJ/DITM) or from the in-house developed curriculum in the case of CGS which was developed in collaboration with the University of Melbourne, and they have plenty of resources on their website. Although DITM purchased the positive education curriculum, teachers stated:

"Definitely we need additional resources because the curriculum is very activities-based and doesn't have knowledge and theoretical knowledge...so we need to embed this in the training to help students... Therefore, we've used multiple resources; primarily, positive psychology resources, cognitive behavioral therapy, rational and multiple behaviors resources."

C. Collaboration/ Communication

This subconstruct discusses collaboration at the senior, middle and teacher level in schools. It examines the communication within the organisation and support from leadership. In terms of collaboration, senior leadership members, middle leadership members and teachers all agreed that all staff at all levels have supported the positive education implementation and development process. There are partnerships between leadership, different groups of teachers, and middle leadership members. In BITJ, senior leadership members regularly meet with middle leadership members and teachers after receiving their results from DSWC, and identify the training needs, priorities related to planning, development, and implementation of positive education. DITM-teachers stated that they have formed Professional Learning Communities (PLC) where they collaborate on designing material, in-house training, and refinement of topics. Most teachers expressed satisfaction with the level of support the organisations have provided them with in terms of positive education implementation and development. One teacher from AJA stated:

“I am given the opportunity to go to my head say, ‘I’m really interested in this... Can I do this?’ I’m being given the green light and yeah... I feel very happy with how I can move forward with it...The principal sits with us and we are able to feed things back and she’s very interested.”

CGS discussed the presence of a teacher induction programme and a teacher buddy system where teachers at the whole school and phase wise have an experienced teacher guiding another novice teacher.

D. Teachers’/Students’ Rewards

This subconstruct assesses teachers’ and students’ incentives that have been achieved due to positive education implementation from the perceptions of senior leadership members, middle leadership members, teacher focus group, student focus group and parent focus group. Parents from three schools mentioned rewards from positive education in terms of improving students’ mental health, reduction in bullying and respect for others. Some parents from the

BITJ-parent focus group stated they saw that their *“children’s personality, confidence, responsibility level, happiness, safety, increased... they have become more cooperative and their communication with friends and family improved”*. One parent in the BITJ parent focus group attributed the latter to the ‘Zoom’ technology which allowed them to communicate more, and to the home atmosphere in terms of encouraging cooperation. Teachers in BITJ/DITM stated benefits to students in terms of allowing them to become aware of psychological mental health, presenting preventative ways with dealing with problems, self-regulate, set goals, attend school, reduce behaviour issues, develop growth mindset, make smart choices, and allow teachers to build rapport with students, narrowing the gap between students and teachers. All four schools’ senior leadership members, middle leadership members and teachers agreed that one of the benefits to students is providing them with positive education’s language of virtues and equipping them with the knowledge and confidence be able to converse about their feelings to others which will help them in the future. They also expressed that this benefit may not be seen short term but rather long term when students are not in school.

In terms of the school level and teachers, senior leadership members from all four schools stated improvement in the school environment, increase of positive education/wellbeing literacy among staff, teachers, and students. Senior leadership member 1-BITJ stated, *“We had accreditation visitors who commented that they see positive education and it just started to show a kind of impact on the school as a whole.”* In all four schools, senior leadership and middle leadership, members and teachers stated that the level of conversation is *“not focused only on academic... we are talking about psychological factors, engagement, positive attitude ...so it is not purely academic/behavioural issues... Issues are raised on maintaining positive attitude.... this is new at our school; these types of conversation are usually heard from the principal and not from the class teacher trying to resolve psychological factors.”*. Senior leadership members, middle leadership members and teachers in all four schools expressed that

teachers have become more positive, which reflected on the students and class environment. A teacher in AJA-Teacher Focus Group stated that,

“Positive education training did not only see the benefits on students; it was very personal to the teaching and my own character as a teacher, changing my way of thinking to be more positive and applying some of the character strength, and in turn, mirroring that to my students... It made me realise how best we can get into our own frame of positive mind and how we can transfer that to the students.” (AJA-Teacher Focus Group)

Table (4.11) presents summary of positive education organisational findings in terms of staff efficacy and buy-in/ evidence-based evaluation and resource readiness/ collaboration and communication and rewards for teachers and students. The summary shows that schools leaders and teachers viewed that positive education allowed for positive professional culture and school environment. They viewed that collaboration and communication has been maintained among teachers and leaders to develop the curriculum based on evidence-based evaluation using the DSWC and PASS results.

Positive Education Implementation			
Organisational Findings – Staff efficacy and Buy-in/ Evidence-Based Evaluation and Resource Readiness / Collaboration and Communication/ Rewards for Teachers and Students			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	Schools did not face loss of staff during the implementation	Interviews with school leadership and focus group with teachers, parents and students	Relevant
2.	Teachers discussed the holistic benefits of positive education		Relevant
3.	Leaders discussed that positive education created ‘a positive professional culture’ and improvement in the school environment		Relevant
4.	Leaders discussed the use of DSWC and PASS results to adapt positive education curriculum to schools’ needs		Relevant
5.	Teachers worked as part of committees to plan the curriculum and expressed that leader were very supportive providing them with resources and training		Relevant
6.	Parents expressed that positive education helped in improving students’ mental health, safety, happiness, cooperation, and reduction of bullying		Relevant
7.	Teachers discussed providing students with preventative ways to deal with problems, self-regulate and attend school, develop growth mindset and providing theme with the language to express their feelings in the short term and long term		Relevant

Table (4. 11): Positive Education Implementation Organisational Findings – Staff Efficacy and Buy-in/ Evidence-based Evaluation and Resource Readiness/ Collaboration and Communication/ Rewards for Teachers and Students

4. Provider Construct

Provider Construct associated with positive education implementation revolves around two subfactors:

A. Perceived beliefs and motivation

B. Teachers’ experience and training

A. Perceived beliefs and motivation

This subconstruct aims to explore teachers' perceptions about the relevance, motivation, and beliefs of positive education within the schools. All senior leadership members, middle leadership members and teachers in the four schools saw the relevance of positive education and its alignment with their goal of holistic education, where they plan to teach the whole child and not only concentrate on academics. In terms of motivation of teachers, one in AJA stated that it has always been part of their teaching style to be positive; as an IB school it always was part of the school culture but there was no name to it. She stated: *"Now with having positive education, we have a name to it, we can go to other staff and parents and say, well, this is what're doing... Having a positive education curriculum embeds it in the school and gives it more extrinsic value. Really this made the intrinsic motivation very high."* Teachers, senior leadership, and middle leadership members believe in positive education and its relevance because it has helped them as teachers to reflect on and develop their own sense of mental health and they are now more able to discuss this topic with their students.

B. Teachers' experience and training

This subconstruct examines the practitioner's understanding of underlying PPI/positive education intervention theories (how and why it should be implemented), teachers' experience, and frequency of training. Interviews and discussions with teachers, senior leadership members, and middle leadership members discussed the PERMA model and how it was used to instill character strengths in the students. AJA-teacher focus group and senior leadership member 1 discussed in-house and external training in Jubilee programmes. All four schools' senior leadership member, middle leadership member and teachers discussed receiving the eight-week positive education course from the Geelong School Course offered by IPEN. Three schools' (AJA/BITJ/DITM) teachers and leaders stated that in the initial stage, not the whole

staff was trained, and more training will be carried out in the future. Both CGS and BITJ discussed the development of a coaching/buddy programme where teachers support and train each other in positive education development and implementation. Teachers expressed the need for more training and that it would be beneficial. DITM teachers wanted to obtain training on theoretical knowledge associated with positive education rather than on activities, which is offered in the curriculum purchased. CGS staff participated in the eight-week course, but senior leadership members stressed the development of in-house curriculum for positive education and training teachers on this, with emphasis on the PERMA model. In terms of experience, all four schools mostly used counsellors who had backgrounds in psychology and pastoral care to support in the implementation, along with psychology teachers and other subject teachers. Two teachers in DITM-teacher focus group stated that as counsellors they would like to obtain more knowledge on teaching practices rather than subject knowledge. Both DITM-teacher focus group and CGS-teacher focus group stressed the importance of learning new methods of assessment associated with positive education to assist teachers in assessing the impact.

Table (4.12) summarises positive education implementation provider findings related to perceived beliefs and motivation / teachers' experience and training. All teachers and leaders have identified the relevance of positive education to the holistic teaching of students. They have discussed attending training with most teachers and leaders. The training was mainly the Geelong Grammar School Training. Teachers have reflected that positive education training supported them to become more positive and develop their own sense of their wellbeing. More training related to positive education, psychology and pedagogy has been suggested by teachers.

Positive Education Implementation			
Provider (teacher) Findings – Perceived Beliefs and Motivation/ Teachers’ Experience and Training			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	All leaders and teachers discussed the relevance of positive education and the teaching of the whole child and not only concentrate on the academics	Interviews with school leadership and focus group with teachers	Relevant
2.	Teachers discussed that positive education helped them reflect on and develop their own sense of mental health		Relevant
3.	Training of teachers across schools was the 8-week Geelong Grammar School		Relevant
	Two school discussed the establishment of coaching/ buddy programme for teachers support and training		Relevant
4.	Teachers expressed the need to obtain training on the theories underpinning positive education and psychology		Relevant
5.	Counsellors teaching positive education discussed the need to be trained on teaching and pedagogical practices		Relevant
6.	Teachers discussed the importance of learning new methods of assessment associated with positive education to assist teachers in seeing the results and impact		Relevant

Table (4. 12): Positive Education Implementation Provider Findings – Perceived Beliefs and Motivation/ Teachers’ Experience and Training

5. Recipients’ Construct

Recipients’ Construct associated with positive education implementation revolves around two subfactors:

A. Recipients’ attitudes

B. Buy-in and motivation

A. Recipients’ attitudes

This subconstruct discusses students' feelings and attitudes related to positive education implementation and benefits. Students interviewed from the schools expressed enjoyment with positive education/PPI. Students stated that it was *"a nice change of atmosphere from the regular academics/tests/exams/assignments"* (AJA-Student Focus Group). In BITJ-student focus group, students stated that it was not implemented in every subject, and they would like to see it implemented across the whole school within assemblies, activities and across other subjects. DITM students felt it should be introduced in earlier classes because it has many benefits. Many benefits were expressed by students such as: it allowed them to reconnect, engage, and develop relationships with other people in their life, understand their own personalities, deal with online learning, provided an enjoyable school environment, and how to deal with negative thoughts and associate them with positive feelings. Students stated:

"It [positive education] made my mind open up to real world cases and it made my viewpoint of life different, and it gave me opportunities to make me understand how to act upon hearing bad news, or if something bad happened how to deal with it; not only mentally but also, it helps me get closer with people around me." (BITJ-Student Focus Group)

"I am happy and proud that I got to study positive education; it changed my perspectives and the way I think, my performance, and how I feel about myself." (DITM-Student Focus Group)

B. Buy-in and motivation

This subconstruct discusses the buy-in/motivation of students. AJA-students and teachers stated that since positive education and character training has been part of the school in terms of the IB profile, it was easy to get students' buy-in and motivate them to learn positive education character strengths. In BITJ, some senior leadership members, middle leadership members and teachers stated that at the beginning, students were not motivated and there was some pushback, but later it was observed that their level of engagement with positive education improved. BITJ-students were motivated because they like the fact that the school cares about their mental state and they are more aware about their own mental health. Similarly, DITM-

students expressed that at the start they felt the course would add more work, but they see the benefits and welcome the idea. Students felt that some of their colleagues are still sceptical about the course, but they think the school should become more aware of it and hear from them on how to improve it and develop it. For example, the following was stated by senior leadership members in DITM and echoed throughout the four schools:

“Students sent messages to guidance counsellors and basically shared that they were so happy to have the course, it is inspiring them and making them happy. They’re able to use some strategies and apply them in their lives.” (Senior Leadership Member-DITM)

Table (4.13) presents a summary of positive education implementation recipients’ findings related recipients’ attitudes, buy-in and motivation. Students have expressed enjoyment of positive education activities and have stated that they would like the school to present it earlier because it benefits them in dealing with their feeling and presents enjoyable school environments. They also have stated that they feel by introducing positive education the school shows that it cares about their mental health. They have stated being engaged in the development and wanted to be more engaged in planning and execution of positive education interventions.

Positive Education Implementation			
Recipients' (Students) Findings - Recipients' Attitudes / Buy-in and Motivation			
No.	Findings	Source of Evidence	Relevance
1.	Students expressed enjoyment of positive education activities	Senior leadership interviews and Focus group with students	Relevant
2.	Students expressed their desire for positive education to be implemented in most subjects and across the school		Relevant
3.	Students in DITM felt that it should be introduced earlier because it has many benefits		Relevant
4.	Students discussed benefits related to allowing them be more engaged, develop relationships, understand their own personalities, deal with online learning, deal with negative feelings and provide enjoyable school environment		Relevant
5.	AJA students discussed positive education as being embedded as part of the IB-profile		Relevant
6.	Leaders discussed although initially there was push-back, later, students became more engaged and motivated		Relevant
7.	BITJ- students liked that the school cares about their mental health		Relevant

Table (4. 13): Positive Education Implementation Recipients' Findings – Recipients' Attitudes/ Buy-in and Motivation

4.3 Research Question #1 Summary of Results

Document analysis of policies and initiatives documents, lesson plans, strategic plans triangulated by interviews with school leaders, teachers, parents and students, produced a clear picture of positive education implementation practices and status in Dubai's K-12 private schools. Initially, international, and national policies identified the role of education and wellbeing. Some of these initiatives included 'UNESCO Strategy on Education for Health and Wellbeing', 'Development of Health Promoting Schools: A Framework of Action', 'The International Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC)', 'Law on Child's Rights (2016)', 'UAE National Agenda and 'The UAE Centennial 2071'. Few of these policies explicitly mention

positive education and wellbeing. They mainly drive for education and a first-rate education system. They do not identify key indicators related to student wellbeing enhancement. The ‘UAE School Inspection Framework’ does not explicitly identify the teaching of positive education; it focuses on personal development through students’ behaviours, relationships, and attitudes. More recent international, national, and local educational policy documents and initiatives have increasingly become driving forces in the promotion of positive education with the introduction of the IPEN in 2014. On the national level the introduction of ‘The National Programme for Happiness, ‘The UAE Centennial 2071’, and ‘The National Wellbeing Strategy 2031’ show forward thinking toward positive education. On the local Dubai level, the launch of Dubai Plan 2021 and affiliation of KHDA with IPEN in the MENA region has shown Dubai’s and UAE’s governments shift towards achieving happiness and positivity for their citizens.

On the local level, the introduction of the DSWC has played a key role in introducing positive education within Dubai’s private schools. However, there is a lack of mandate of policies related to direct implementation of positive education which has left the adoption of positive education as a voluntary option for schools. At the schools’ level, policies were absent, and positive education implementation is still in its initial stage. Schools have identified the need to embed character strengths in their ethos; to set up improvement in the school environment to align with positive education implementation. Positive education is being taught along with other subjects such as character education, value education, Religious education, and moral education programmes. Teachers discussed adaptations related to character strengths, values, alignment with schools’ ethos and school needs, learning material adjustments and adjustments with cultural aspects of the school.

School leaders, teachers, parents, and students are engaged in the implementation process and decision-making process. Parent councils have been set up across schools; all

stakeholders are involved in the promotion and planning of positive education implementation in the school, and ensuring that it becomes part of the home environment. Teachers, parents, and students helped in driving the school's strategy to promote positive education implementation within school, home, and community. Parents worked closely with the school to promote positive education character strengths at home. Teachers discussed collaborative working environments where leaders listened to their suggestions and supported them with their ideas when it comes to implementation.

In terms of rewards to school leaders, teachers and students, teachers voiced that they also benefited from positive education training and implementation because it equipped them with ways to cope and become positive which was reflected onto their students. School leaders stated that the school environment has changed and become more positive. They stated that conversations among teachers and leaders have changed and have focused less on the academic, and more on the holistic development of the students. Some positive education character strengths were embedded within ethos, mission, and vision of schools. Leaders in schools expressed that the adoption of positive education is a priority. It has helped develop wellbeing and positive education understanding among their students and they discussed the importance of infusing these virtues and character strengths in students to equip them with necessary skills for flourishing and successful lives. Teachers were very enthusiastic about the implementation of positive education. They used key tests such as DSWC and PASS results to plan and evaluate the success of positive education implementation and carry out improvements. School leaders provided the necessary training and resources. Training of teachers was carried out, and most schools used the eight-week positive education course from Geelong Grammar School, although some in-house training was done by one school. Most schools did not train all teachers; however, teachers who were trained felt that the training was sufficient, but more training would benefit in making the implementation more successful.

The next sections, 4.4 and 4.5, present the findings and analysis to answer questions two and three. For section 4.4 the data generated from document analysis of DSWC and PASS is quantitative, and it addresses question two which examines the extent of the impact of positive education on students' social/emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Section 4.5 presents findings from the analysis of quantitative data associated with teachers, parents, and students' questionnaires to address their perceptions about the impact of positive education on social/emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Two types of analysis were utilised in these sections to address the research questions; these include mainly descriptive and some inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are the basis of quantitative analysis. It has many advantages: it helps the researcher summarise, describe, and make sense of the specific set of data analysed (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Therefore, it is applied to summarise the fundamental highlights and represent information associated with two main variables (students' results in DSWC and PASS assessment tools, and perceptions of the impact of positive education). Descriptive statistics analysis include frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviation. The inferential statistical analysis includes paired t-test, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test, Chi square test, One-Way Anova, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis, which were utilised to conduct the required quantitative data analysis (Muijs, 2011). This analysis that was applied included information associated with mean scores, standard deviation and percentage of change among various groups and shows the differences between the demographic variables in the questionnaires.

4.4 Research Question #2 Findings and Analysis

The current section addresses the second question of the study, which examines the extent of the effects of positive education on students' Social Emotional Wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. To answer this question document analysis of the DSWC and PASS assessment reports were reviewed. These two assessment tools were administered by the

schools. Details of the administered assessment tools can be found in Chapter 3. The data that was extracted from the DSWC and PASS assessment tools were quantitative data. The DSWC was mainly used to answer the extent of change in SEWB, while PASS was mainly used to examine the extent of change in academic self-efficacy. The next few paragraphs present the results from the following two assessment tools.

Schools providing the DSWC assessment results had participated since 2017 and provided the full results for the academic years 2017-2018 and 2018-2019 for Grades 6-9. As stated earlier, Grades' 10-12 DSWC survey was only administered in the AY 2018-2019. The results for AY 2017-2018 (referred to from this point as 2017) and AY 2018-2019 (referred to from this point as 2018) were used to show the impact after one year of implementation only. Using the results of DSWC the author used two main aspects from the DSWC school reports to measure wellbeing and academic self-efficacy: (1) 'Relationships and Learning in School and at Home', and (2) 'Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB)'; for which each aspect was measured by several indicators on three levels. Both aspects encompassed the SEWB of students in all its indicators. When examining DSWC data, to examine the academic self-efficacy construct of the current study, the main indicators from the DSWC that will be of focus are 'Academic Self-Concept', 'Cognitive Engagement', and 'Engagement (Flow)'. The rest of the indicators of DSWC will examine the 'Wellbeing'. The data is presented for each indicator and level for the overall sample.

4.4.1 DSWC Analysis: Social and Emotional Wellbeing Overview from 2017 to 2018

Quantitative data from DSWC were analysed here to find if the number in each indicator and level has significantly changed, to answer the second question and examine the extent of the change in wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Therefore, paired-samples t-tests were performed to compare the number of students in 2017 to the number of students in 2018

in each indicator and SEWB category and level. Paired-samples t-tests is a parametric test that determines if there is a statistical difference between paired observations (Ross & Willson, 2017). The paired t-test was used because the researcher is interested in finding the difference between variables for participants which are separated by time. In this case the variable is associated with wellbeing and academic self-efficacy using indicators from the DSWC from AY 2017 to AY 2018. The test results and effect size reported using Cohen's d are presented in Table (4.14). The results showed few significant changes, using the significance criterion $\alpha = 0.05$. There was a significant increase in SEWB in the overall medium level, $t = -4.278$, $p < 0.001$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges correction = 0.403, meaning that the SEWB level in AY 2018 was statistically higher in the medium level than in 2017. By indicator, there was a significant increase in 'Life Satisfaction' in the medium level, $t = -2.616$, $p = 0.019$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges correction = 0.638, meaning that 'Life Satisfaction' level was statistically higher among students in the medium level than in 2017. Also, there was a significant increase in 'Perseverance' in the low level, $t = -2.289$, $p = 0.037$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges correction = 0.558, meaning that the 'Perseverance' low level was statistically higher in 2018 than in 2017. All other changes in the SEWB from 2017 to 2018 were only random and due to chance, as the significance value exceeded the 0.05 level.

For Relationships and Learning in School and at Home, overall, there was a significant increase in the low and medium levels, ($t = -2.523$, $p = 0.012$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges correction = 0.182) and ($t = -3.501$, $p = 0.001$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges correction = 0.252), respectively, meaning that it was statistically significant higher in the low and medium levels among students in 2018 than in 2017. By indicator, there was a significant increase from 2017 to 2018 in the number of students for 'Safe at School' and 'School Belonging', ($t = -2.167$, $p = 0.047$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges

correction = 0.528) and ($t = -2.201$, $p = 0.044$, Cohen's d (based on differences) with Hedges correction = 0.536) respectively, meaning that there was a statistically higher number of students feeling safe and belonging to school in 2018 than 2017. No other significant changes were found.

The effect size for each paired t test was calculated using SPSS v. 28, and reported in Table (4.14) as Cohen's d . Cohen's d is used to measure effect size when comparing between two means and it accompanies t -test results (Sawilowsky, 2009). It is a quantitative measure that tells the magnitude of the experimental effect, the larger the size the stronger the relationship among the variables (Cohen, 1988). In this study the researcher discusses the effect size for the DSWC indicators that showed significant change, these are 'SEWB', 'Life Satisfaction', 'Relationships and Learning in School and at Home', 'School Belonging', and 'Safe at School', Table (4.14) shows the effect size (Cohen d) for the other indicators that show nonsignificant change. A Cohen d equal to 0.2 represents small effect size, while 0.5 shows a medium effect size and 0.8 is considered to have a large effect size (Sawilowsky, 2009). Results shown in Table (4.14) shows that Cohen d for 'SEWB' was 0.403 which is considered a weak effect size, Cohen d for 'Life Satisfaction' is 0.638 which is considered medium effect size, Cohen d for 'Perseverance' is 0.558 which is considered medium effect size, Cohen d for 'Relationships and Learning in School and at Home' is 0.252 which represents a weak effect size, while Cohen d for 'School Belonging' is 0.528 which shows a medium effect size, and Cohen d for 'Safe at School' is 0.536 which is also considered a medium effect size.

Wellbeing Overview Indicators	Low			Medium			High		
	M	t(Sig.)	Cohen's d	M	t(Sig.)	Cohen's d	M	t(Sig.)	Cohen's d
Social and emotional wellbeing	-.920	-1.529(.129)	-.144(-.144)	-2.098	- 4.278(<.001)**	-.404(-.403)	1.268	1.480(.142)	.140(.139)
Emotion regulation	-1.500	-1.121(.280)	-.280(-.273)	-2.375	-1.864(.082)	-.466(-.454)	2.125	.921(.372)	.230(.224)
Happiness	-1.437	-1.052(.309)	-.263(-.256)	-3.125	-1.929(.073)	-.482(-.470)	3.000	1.101(.288)	.275(.268)
Life satisfaction	-1.187	-.793(.440)	-.198(-.193)	-2.375	-2.616(.019)*	-.654(-.638)	1.813	.664(.517)	.166(.162)
Optimism	-2.375	-1.751(.100)	-.438(-.427)	-1.875	-1.499(.155)	-.375(-.365)	2.313	.956(.354)	.239(.233)
Perseverance	-2.625	- 2.289(.037)*	-.572(-.558)	-2.187	-1.429(.174)	-.357(-.348)	3.000	1.311(.209)	.328(.320)
Sadness	2.188	1.002(.332)	.250(.244)	-2.125	-1.407(.180)	-.352(-.343)	- 1.750	- 1.288(.217)	-.322(-.314)
Worries	.500	.258(.800)	.064(.063)	-.625	-.636(.534)	-.159(-.155)	- 1.625	-.909(.378)	-.227(-.221)
Relationships and learning in school and at home	-.635	- 2.523(.012)*	-.182(-.182)	-1.318	-3.501(.001)**	-.253(-.252)	.536	.759(.449)	.055(.055)
Academic self-concept	-.812	-1.157(.266)	-.289(-.282)	-.437	-.343(.736)	-.086(-.084)	-.312	-.128(.900)	-.032(-.031)
Cognitive engagement	-.687	-1.126(.278)	-.282(-.274)	-2.062	-1.620(.126)	-.405(-.395)	1.688	.694(.498)	.174(.169)
Connectedness with adults at home	-1.187	-1.393(.184)	-.348(-.339)	.188	.187(.855)	.047(.045)	.063	.022(.983)	.006(.005)
Connectedness with adults at school	-.750	-1.074(.300)	-.269(-.262)	-.562	-.510(.617)	-.128(-.124)	-.125	-.051(.960)	-.013(-.013)
Emotional engagement with teacher	-.812	-1.282(.219)	-.320(-.312)	-2.000	-1.208(.246)	-.302(-.294)	1.125	.535(.601)	.134(.130)
Engagement (Flow)	-1.375	-1.068(.302)	-.267(-.260)	-.875	-.569(.578)	-.142(-.139)	1.000	.558(.585)	.139(.136)
Friendship intimacy	.500	.669(.514)	.167(.163)	-1.500	-1.342(.200)	-.335(-.327)	-.562	-.185(.856)	-.046(-.045)
Peer belonging	-.812	-1.269(.224)	-.317(-.309)	-1.250	-1.098(.289)	-.275(-.268)	.563	.202(.843)	.050(.049)
Safe at school	-.750	-1.015(.326)	-.254(-.247)	-1.875	-2.167(.047)*	-.542(-.528)	1.063	.395(.698)	.099(.096)

Wellbeing Overview Indicators	Low			Medium			High		
	M	t(Sig.)	Cohen's d	M	t(Sig.)	Cohen's d	M	t(Sig.)	Cohen's d
School belonging	.938	.706(.491)	.177(.172)	-2.125	-2.201(.044)*	-.550(-.536)	-.687	-.295(.772)	-.074(-.072)
School Climate	-1.437	-1.125(.278)	-.281(-.274)	-2.375	-1.284(.219)	-.321(-.313)	2.375	1.005(.331)	.251(.245)
School work	-.437	-.822(.424)	-.206(-.200)	-.937	-.547(.592)	-.137(-.133)	.250	.094(.926)	.024(.023)

Table (4. 14): Paired t Test and Effect Size Results for SEWB Overview Indicators by Level

*, Significant at .05. **, Significant at .01)

The percentage changes in the number of students for all indicators of SEWB and ‘Relationships and Learning in School and at Home’ were plotted on bar charts in Figure (4.6) and Figure (4.7), respectively. Note that, in the bar charts below, the significant changes were outlined by a thick red line. Although not statistically significant, the following changes were observed.

The number of students in the ‘low’ level of the “Emotion Regulation”, “Happiness”, and “Optimism” has increased in 2018 by 20%, 18%, 15%, and 38%, respectively, from the year 2017. Finally, the number of students in the ‘high’ level of ‘Emotion Regulation’, ‘Happiness’, and ‘Optimism’ has decreased by 14%, 12%, and 8%, respectively; meaning that there were fewer students being able to emotionally regulate their feelings, feel happy and optimistic. It is worth remembering that these changes were not statistically significant, indicating that these changes may be only due to chance.

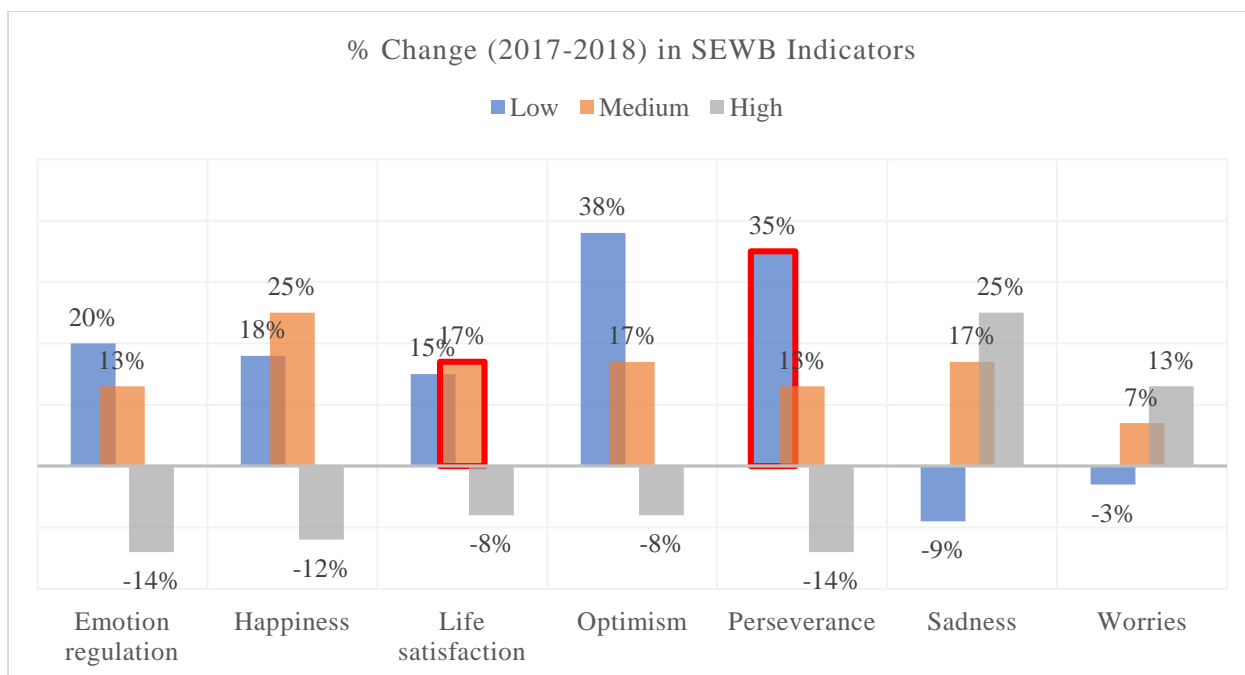


Figure (4. 6): Percent Change in SEWB Indicators Within DSWC

In Figure (4.7), the percent changes of 2017 to 2018 for ‘Relationships and Learning in School and at Home’ indicators are shown. From the chart, we can see there was an increase from the year 2017 to the year 2018 in the number of students in level ‘low’ of ‘Academic Self-Concept’, ‘Cognitive Engagement’, ‘Connectedness with Adults at Home’, ‘Connectedness with Adults at School’, ‘Emotional Engagement with Teacher’, ‘Engagement (Flow)’, ‘Peer Belonging’, ‘Safe at School’, ‘School Climate’, and ‘School Work’, with percentage values ranging from 8% to 35%. On the other hand, for the same level, the number of students had decreased for ‘Friendship Intimacy’ and ‘School Belonging’ by 9% for both indicators. For the ‘medium’ level, the number of students had increased for ‘Cognitive Engagement’, ‘Emotional Engagement with Teacher’, ‘Engagement (flow)’, ‘Friendship Intimacy’, ‘Peer Belonging’, ‘Safe at School’, ‘School Belonging’, ‘School Climate’, and ‘School Work’ by percentages ranging from 7% to 33%. For other indicators, there was no change. In the ‘high’ level of ‘Academic Self-Concept’ and ‘School Belonging’, there was an increase by 4% and 5%, respectively. On the other hand, for ‘Cognitive Engagement’, ‘Emotional Engagement with Teacher’, ‘Engagement (flow)’, ‘Peer Belonging’, ‘Safe at School’, ‘School Climate’, and

‘School Work’, there was a decrease in the number of students by a percentage ranging from a minimum of 3% to a maximum of 10%, see Figure (4.7). Both Figure (4.6) and Figure (4.7) show varying degrees of changes between 2017 and 2018 in terms of SEWB and academic self-efficacy; some are statistically significant, and most are statistically not significant. The increase of ‘Academic Self-Concept’ in the low level and high level, ‘Cognitive Engagement’ low and medium, and ‘Engagement Flow’ in the low is of interest and decrease in high level for the latter two indicators is of interest when examining academic self-efficacy.

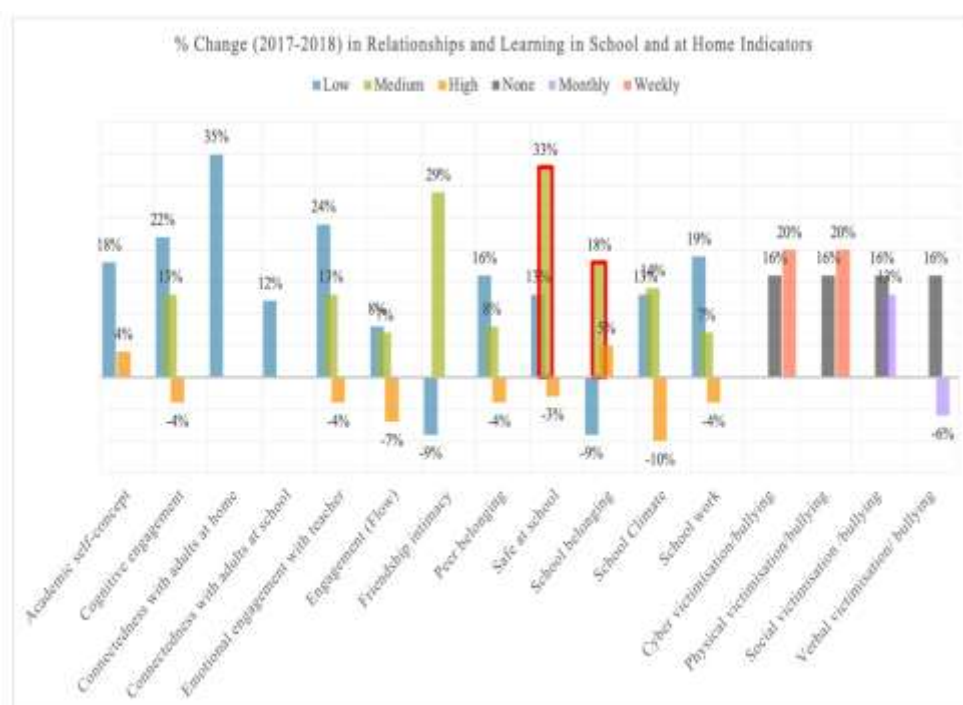


Figure (4. 7): Percent Change in Relationships and Learning in School and at Home Indicators Within DSWC

In terms of life satisfaction, teachers and senior/middle leadership stated that the extent of the impact of positive education implementation during the pandemic “*is not easy to judge because students are learning online, it’s not easy to know if they are satisfied or not with the current situation*” (Teacher Focus Group – BITJ). In terms of feeling safe and belonging to school, teachers and senior and middle leadership members discussed students have developed

a sense of belonging and have felt safer than before, post the implementation of positive education which will lead to optimal learning and higher academic self-concept:

“For optimal academic improvements and confidence and self-regard, children need to feel they are in a safe environment and develop a sense of belonging, and this is the principle behind positive education in our school.” (Senior Leadership Member – BITJ).

Parents also confirmed that their children have developed a sense of belonging in school and have felt safer now with the introduction of positive education, and there is less bullying witnessed in school. Parents and senior leadership members discussed that after the implementation of positive education, they sensed that there was a decrease in bullying and that their children were more positive, using positive words when describing the school and their relationships with the students and the teachers. For example, specifically this point was brought up by parents in BITJ and AJA:

“I think the kids feel safe, and when things like bullying is addressed through positive education and many other things along the years and school has improved, kids feel secure, comfortable with their peers and volunteer to help them.” (Parent Focus Group-AJA)

4.4.2 PASS Assessment Test Analysis

To measure the extent of the impact of positive education on academic self-efficacy, the PASS assessment tool results were examined. Two schools’ results were obtained for the AY 2018-2019 and compared to the AY 2020-2021 for schools AJA and BITJ. In this section, the scores of the PASS tests for the same students from AJA and BITJ schools were analysed to find significant changes between the AY 2018-2019 and the AY 2020-2021.

Sample Characteristics

The scores of 1,006 students were collected and the descriptive summary of their demographic characteristics is presented in Table (4.15). The students sample included 51.6% of total sample as females (44.5% from AJA and 52.8% from BITJ), while males represented 48.4% (55.5% from AJA and 47.2% from BITJ). In 2018, students’ grades in AJA ranged from

grade 6 to grade 10, while in BITJ grades ranged from grade 3 to grade 11. In 2020, the same students moved two years in grades: grades of AJA students ranged from grade 8 to grade 12, while grades of BITJ students ranged from grade 5 to grade 12.

	2018							2020							
	AJA		BITJ		Total			AJA		BITJ		Total			
	N	%	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	N	%		
Gender 2018							Nationality 2020								
	Female	65	44.5%	449	52.8%	514	51.6%		Emirati	59	40.4%	801	93.1%	860	85.5%
	Male	81	55.5%	402	47.2%	483	48.4%		Other	87	59.6%	59	6.9%	146	14.5%
Grade 2018							Grade 2020								
	3	-	-	107	12.4%	107	10.6%		5	-	-	107	12.4%	107	10.6%
	4	-	-	104	12.1%	104	10.3%		6	-	-	104	12.1%	104	10.3%
	5	-	-	103	12.0%	103	10.2%		7	-	-	103	12.0%	103	10.2%
	6	51	34.9%	98	11.4%	149	14.8%		8	51	34.9%	98	11.4%	149	14.8%
	7	23	15.8%	105	12.2%	128	12.7%		9	23	15.8%	105	12.2%	128	12.7%
	8	28	19.2%	122	14.2%	150	14.9%		10	28	19.2%	122	14.2%	150	14.9%
	9	27	18.5%	118	13.7%	145	14.4%		11	27	18.5%	118	13.7%	145	14.4%
	10	17	11.6%	80	9.3%	97	9.6%		12	17	11.6%	103	12.0%	120	11.9%
	11	-	-	23	2.7%	23	2.3%								

Table (4. 15): PASS Test Sample Descriptive Summary [N = 1,006] for the AY 2018 and 2020

Academic Year 2018/19 vs. Academic Year 2020/21 using PASS Assessment Test Scores

Paired samples t-tests were conducted to find statistically significant differences between AY 2018-19 and 2020-21 in terms of PASS test scores. The test results are presented in Table (4.16), showing the mean (M), standard deviation (SD), MD (difference between means), the t-value and the p-value for each single PASS test. The results indicated that there was a significant increase in ‘Feelings about School’ scores, $t = -8.272$, $p < 0.001$, meaning that students in 2020 felt significantly higher levels of feelings about school than in 2018. There was a significant decrease in ‘Self-regard as a Learner’ scores, $t = 4.897$, $p < 0.001$, meaning that students in 2020 felt significantly lower levels of self-regard as learners in 2020 than in

2018. There was a significant increase in 'Preparedness for Learning' scores, $t = -5.477$, $p < 0.001$, meaning students felt significantly higher levels of preparedness for learning in 2020 than in 2018. There was a significant increase in 'Attitudes to Teachers' scores, $t = -4.280$, $p < 0.001$, meaning that students had stronger attitudes towards their teacher in 2020 than 2018. There was a significant decrease in 'Confidence in Learning' scores, $t = 3.862$, $p < 0.001$, meaning that fewer students felt confident in learning in 2020 than 2018. There was a significant increase in 'Attitudes to Attendance' scores, $t = -7.216$, $p < 0.001$, meaning that significantly higher number of students had stronger attitudes towards attendance in 2020 than in 2018. Finally, there was a significant decrease in 'Response to Curriculum Demands' scores, $t = 2.785$, $p = 0.005$, meaning that students responded less to curriculum demands in 2020 than in 2018.

	2018/19		2020/21		Paired Test		
	M	SD	M	SD	MD	t	Sig.
Feelings about school	47.48	32.083	57.38	31.604	-9.90	-8.272	<.001**
Perceived learning capability	58.05	29.154	57.54	29.975	.51	.482	.630
Self-regard as a learner	50.94	29.671	45.42	30.594	5.52	4.897	<.001**
Preparedness for learning	57.77	30.157	63.62	29.316	-5.85	-5.477	<.001**
Attitudes to teachers	55.05	31.653	61.12	30.687	-5.07	-4.280	<.001**
General work ethic	46.89	29.443	47.11	30.881	-.22	-.188	.851
Confidence in learning	54.83	28.882	50.84	31.346	3.99	3.862	<.001**
Attitudes to attendance	48.50	30.582	56.77	30.460	-8.27	-7.216	<.001**
Response to curriculum demands	45.13	28.294	42.10	29.721	3.03	2.785	.005**

***. Significant at .01.*

Table (4. 16): Paired t Test Results for PASS Test Scores [Year 2018-19 vs. Year 2020-21]

The effect size for each paired t test was calculated using SPSS v. 28 and reported in Table (4.17). Cohen's d is used to measure effect size when comparing between two means and it accompanies t-test results (Sawilowsky, 2009). It is a quantitative measure that tells the magnitude of the experimental effect, the larger the size the stronger the relationship among the variables (Cohen, 1988). A Cohen d equal to 0.2 represents small effect size, while 0.5 is medium effect size and 0.8 is considered to have a large effect size (Sawilowsky, 2009). Results of Cohen d for the factors associated with PASS factors range from 0.006 to 0.228 as represented in Table (4.17) which are according to Cohen (1988) and Sawliowsky (2009), very weak or weak.

	Effect Size	
	Cohen's d	Hedges' correction
Feelings about school	-.261	-.261
Perceived learning capability	.015	.015
Self-regard as a learner	.154	.154
Preparedness for learning	-.173	-.173
Attitudes to teachers	-.153	-.153
General work ethic	-.006	-.006
Confidence in learning	.122	.122
Attitudes to attendance	-.228	-.228
Response to curriculum demands	.088	.088

Table (4. 17): Effect Size of the PASS Test Factor Paired T Test Calculations

Academic Year 2018-19 vs. Academic Year 2020-21 using Satisfaction Level

As there are four satisfaction levels, a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used because the data being analysed is ordinal variable. The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks is used when the data is ordinal and as a non-parametric alternative to paired t-test, which is used to find significant changes in satisfaction levels between the AY 2018-19 and 2020-21. The test results are presented in Table (4.18), showing the number of negative ranks (Level in 2020 < Level in 2018), positive ranks (Level in 2020 > Level in 2018), and Ties (Level in 2020 = Level in 2018). The table also shows the test statistics including the Z value and the p-value (asymptotic significance for 2-tailed test). The results revealed that there was a significant rise in Satisfaction Level of 'Feelings about School' in 2020, $Z = -6.139$, $p < 0.001$. There was a significant decrease in Satisfaction Level of 'Self-regard as a Learner' in 2020, $Z = -4.893$, $p < 0.001$. There was a significant increase in satisfaction level of 'Preparedness for Learning', $Z = -3.566$, $p < 0.001$. There was a significant increase in satisfaction level of 'Attitudes to

Teachers', $Z = -2.257$, $p = 0.024$. There was a significant decrease in satisfaction level of 'Confidence in Learning', $Z = -4.838$, $p < 0.001$. There was a significant increase in satisfaction level of 'Attitudes to attendance', $Z = -5.628$, $p < 0.001$. Finally, there was a significant decrease in satisfaction level of 'Response to Curriculum Demands', $Z = 3.880$, $p < 0.001$.

	N			Mean Rank		Test Statistics	
	-ve Rank s	+ve Rank s	Ties	-ve Ranks	+ve Ranks	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Feelings about school	167	294	545	215.76	239.65	-6.139	<.001**
Perceived learning capability	172	140	694	159.60	152.70	-1.946	.052
Self-regard as a learner	277	180	549	237.90	215.30	-4.893	<.001**
Preparedness for learning	127	188	691	151.50	162.39	-3.566	<.001**
Attitudes to teachers	152	198	656	174.50	176.27	-2.257	.024*
General work ethic	247	233	526	253.73	226.48	-1.662	.096
Confidence in learning	234	142	630	194.04	179.36	-4.838	<.001**
Attitudes to attendance	170	282	554	211.18	235.73	-5.628	<.001**
Response to curriculum demands	304	237	465	286.55	251.05	-3.880	<.001**

*, Significant at .05.

**, Significant at .01.

Table (4. 18): Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for PASS Test – Indicator 'Satisfaction Level' [AY 2018-19 vs. AY 2020-21]

According to Figure (4.8), factors associated with self-efficacy for academic success have decreased. For example, taking only Moderate and High indicators 'Learner Self-regard' decreased from 78% to 74%, 'Perceived Learning Capability' decreased from 87% to 84%, 'Confidence in Learning' decreased from 83% to 77%; while factors associated with self-efficacy for self-regulation measured through 'Preparedness for Learning' increased from 85% to 89%. While other factors that impact 'love of learning, positive wellbeing, increased motivation, and mental health' had mixed results, 'Attitudes to Attendance' increased from 73% to 83%, 'General Work Ethics' decreased from 77% to 74%, and 'Response to Curriculum

Demands’ decreased from 72% to 66%. While ‘Attitudes to teachers’ increased from 83% to 85% and ‘Feelings about School’ increased from 72% to 81%, the ‘engagement of student’ increase and increase in their attitude to attendance was echoed by all senior and middle leadership and teacher focus group interviews across all four schools.

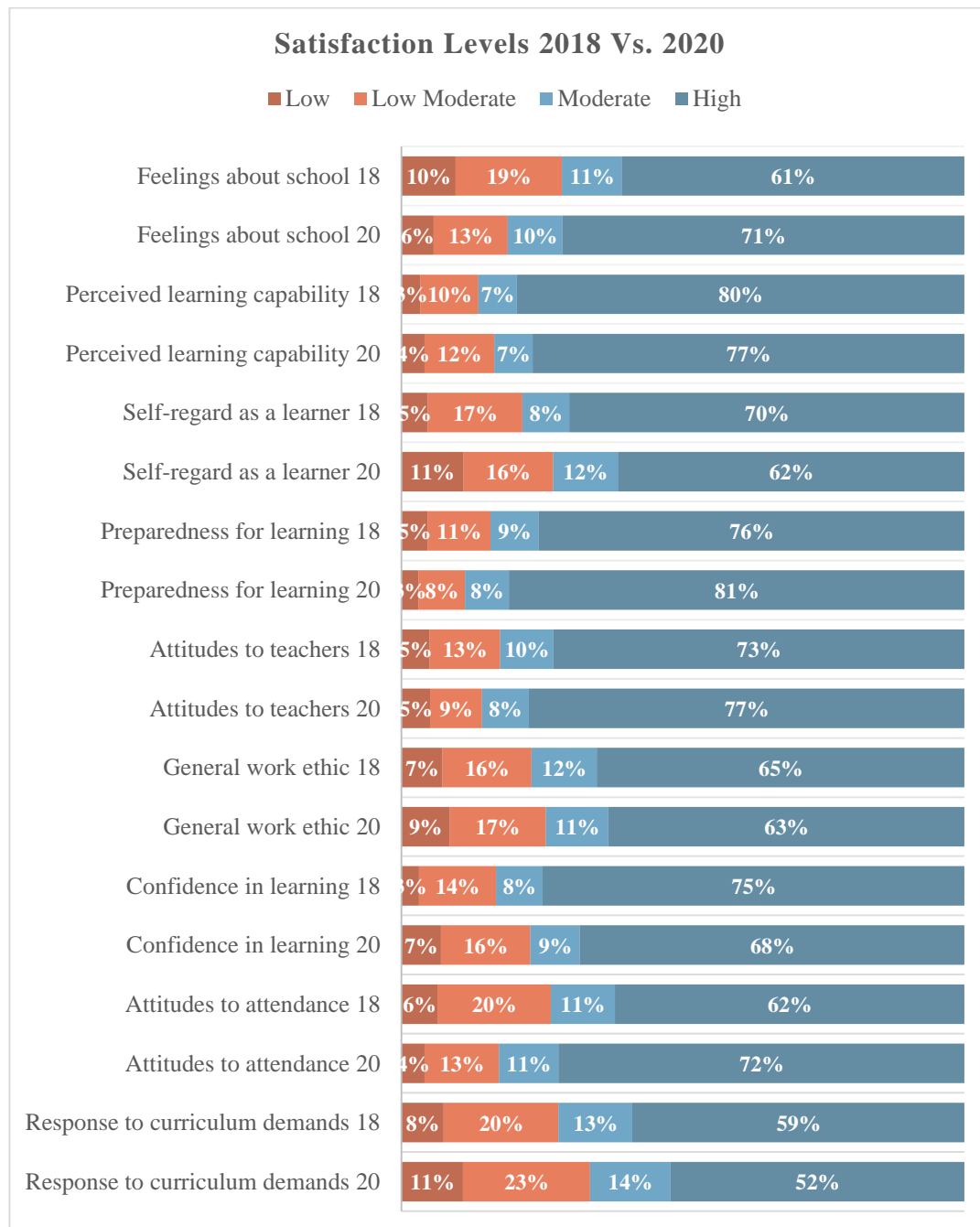


Figure (4. 8): Satisfaction Levels for PASS Tests [2018 vs. 2020]

The data above is triangulated by evidence from interview. Teachers and parents stated that students post the introduction of positive education felt better about going to school and were more prepared to learn and felt happier to attend school. Some parents stated that because kids feel safe due to low bullying and having a secure environment, they feel better about school, want to go to school and are more ready to learn.

‘I think the kids feel safe and when things like bullying is addressed and many things along the years have improved, kids feel secure, comfortable with their peers and volunteer to help them. They have become more ready to learn, feel good to attend school.’ (Parent focus group- AJA)

Students even discussed that their attitudes and preparedness for learning were better; they expressed that the teachers and school administration became more interested in them as individuals and cared about their mental health. The latter has encouraged them to become more engaged in learning and more prepared to face challenges. Student expressed that they have developed relationships with teachers. Senior leadership and middle leadership stated that teachers and students felt easy about approaching each other more often now, and discuss personal issues and have stronger relationships. For example, one senior leadership member and teacher stated:

“We have seen that through positive education the relationships between teachers and students have indeed improved.” (Senior Leadership Member- BITJ)

“Approachability... these kids find you a lot more approachable and trusted due to positive education”. (Teacher Focus Group-AJA)

Factors associated with self-efficacy for academic success have decreased. Such factors include: ‘Learner Self-regard’, ‘Perceived Learning Capability’, and ‘Confidence in Learning’. While factors associated with self-efficacy for self-regulation measured through ‘Preparedness for Learning’ increased. While other factors that impact ‘love of learning, positive wellbeing increased motivation, and mental health’ had mixed results ‘Attitudes to Attendance’ increased, ‘General Work Ethics’ decreased, and ‘Response to Curriculum Demands’ decreased. While

‘Attitudes to teachers’ increased and ‘Feelings about School’ increased. The latter two show that engagement has increased. The engagement of student increase and increase in their attitude to attendance was echoed by all senior and middle leadership and teachers interviews across all four schools. Similarly attitude towards school and teachers has improved and this was echoed by students. For example, the following was stated:

‘The relations between staff and students are based on aspects of positive education such as respect and so on and this has been improving...but you cannot confirm without data to back this up’ (Teacher Focus Group-AJA)

‘If you look at behaviour it’s improving so we have less incidents in school, attendance is up and this feels like a happy place where kids like to be.’ (Senior Leadership Members-AJA)

4.5 Summary of RQ#2 Findings

In terms of the extent of impact after one year of implementation between AY2017 and AY2018 of positive education using results from the DSWC, findings show there was a significant increase in the overall level of SEWB, life satisfaction at medium level, and low level of perseverance. It also showed that there were significant changes in overall level of relationships and learning in school and at home, and significant increase in the level of feeling safe at school and school belonging. Meaning that students felt a significant higher level of SEWB and life satisfaction, higher level of feeling safe at school and belonging to school and lower level of perseverance. The results were triangulated by evidence from interviews with teachers and students. There was insignificant negative change associated with emotional regulation, happiness, and optimism. Also, insignificant changes in indicators associated with academic self-concept, cognitive engagement, and engagement (flow, peer belonging and school climate). Results from the PASS assessment tool after two years of implementation between AY 2018 and AY 2020 show increase in factors associated with wellbeing, motivation and self-efficacy for regulation and decrease in factors associated with academic self-efficacy.

The previous section presents the findings and analysis to answer question two. The data examined the extent of the impact of positive education on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy using quantitative students results obtained from the documents analysis of DSWC and PASS tests. Section 4.6 presents findings from the analysis of quantitative data associated with teachers, parents, and students' questionnaires to address their perceptions about the impact of positive education on SEWB and academic self-efficacy. As presented earlier, two types of analysis were utilised in these sections to address the research questions, which include mainly descriptive and some inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were applied to summarise the fundamental highlights and represent information associated with the variable associated with the perceptions of the impact of positive education. Descriptive statistics analysis include frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviation. The inferential statistical analysis includes Chi square test, One-Way Anova, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis which were utilised to conduct the required quantitative data analysis (Muijs, 2011). This analysis includes information associated with mean scores, standard deviation and percentage change among various groups and showing the differences among the demographic variables in the questionnaires.

4.6 Research Question #3 -Questionnaires' Findings and Analysis

This section presents the results from all three questionnaires: teachers, parents, and students. It aims to elicit teachers', parents', and students' perceptions about the impact of positive education on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy. All three questionnaires' data was analysed using SPSS 26.0 which presents the descriptive analysis statistics summary for each data type. AMOS 24.0 was used to assess the validity and reliability of questionnaires.

The reliability test for the questionnaires was carried out using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the teachers, parents, and the students for the three sections of the questionnaire. These sections consist of three clusters; the first cluster is associated with the impact of positive

education activities on emotional wellbeing (EW) and includes 10 items. The second cluster is associated with the impact of positive education activities on social wellbeing (SW) and include 10 items, while the third cluster is linked to 10 items related to the impact of positive education activities on academic self-efficacy (ASE). The reliability test is seen as an essential method that is required to be applied to evaluate the stability and accuracy of parents, teachers, and students' responses (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). To investigate the structures identified by the components of the three clusters, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used. CFA evaluates constructed items as tools or models. It usually tests around potential tools or models (Gorsuch, 1983). CFA assesses the latent factors reliability and validity (Hair et al., 2017; Kline, 2015). In the current study, CFA aims to measure the study factors' dimensionality. There are 30 factors clustered within three clusters: emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. In this study, CFA was conducted using the program AMOS; the model fit was tested through discriminant, and convergent validity, and reliability was tested through composite reliability (CR) (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2013).

Section 4.6.1 presents the reliability and measurement validation of the three questionnaires of the teachers, parents, and students.

4.6.1 Questionnaire Reliability and Measurement Validation

4.6.1.1 Teacher Questionnaire Reliability

The sample size for the teachers' questionnaire was $N = 43$. There is no shortage of recommendations regarding the appropriate sample size to use when conducting a factor analysis. Suggested minimums for sample size include from three to 20 times the number of variables, and absolute ranges from 100 to over 1,000 (Mundfrom, Shaw, & Ke, 2005). The sample size here makes the dataset not adequate for factor analysis. Hence, the researcher only performed Reliability and Correlation Analysis to measure internal consistency of the questionnaire items. Table (4.19) presents the correlation coefficients between the three

questionnaire constructs, as well as Cronbach's Alpha value for each construct. Cronbach's Alpha values ranged between 0.917 and 0.943 for the three constructs, indicating that the three constructs were highly reliable. The acceptable range of Cronbach's Alpha is a value of 0.70 or above (Nunnally, 1978); here the overall Cronbach's Alpha value was equal to 0.971, which is excellent (George & Mallery, 2003).

	EW	SW	ASE	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
EW	1			10	.931
SW	.846**	1		10	.917
ASE	.809**	.836**	1	10	.943
Overall	.931**	.948**	.945**	30	.971

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

Table (4. 19): Correlation and Reliability Statistics for Teachers Questionnaire

Pearson's r correlation coefficient was used to measure the relationship between the 30 questionnaire items and between the three main constructs: EW, SW, and ASE. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used as a measure of reliability (internal consistency) in the questionnaire items. The analysis revealed that there were strong positive correlations between the questionnaire constructs, as r ranged from 0.809 to 0.846. In addition, the correlation between each construct and the overall mean score of the 30 items was very strong, $r > 0.9$ (Ratner, 2009). Appendix C.1 provides the correlation details for all 30 items associated with EW/SW and ASE.

4.6.1.2 Parents' Questionnaire Measurement Validation

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess the parents' questionnaire for validity and reliability, conducted in AMOS 24.0. CFA is a type of structural equation modelling (SEM) that deals specifically with measurement models (Brown, 2006). Two CFA measurement models were assessed. The first measurement model is the first order CFA model, which includes the three latent variables (constructs): EW, SW, and ASE, plotted and linked

by two-headed arrows to represent covariance among them, shown in Figure (4.9). The second order model includes the main latent variable: Positive Education Implementation (PEI), plotted and linked to the three latent variables by one-headed arrows to represent its impact on them, as shown in Figure (4.10).

Before evaluating the model fit, psychometric (validity and reliability) checks of the instrument using the measurement model are presented, including Convergent Validity, Discriminant Validity, and Composite Reliability (Akgül, 2019).

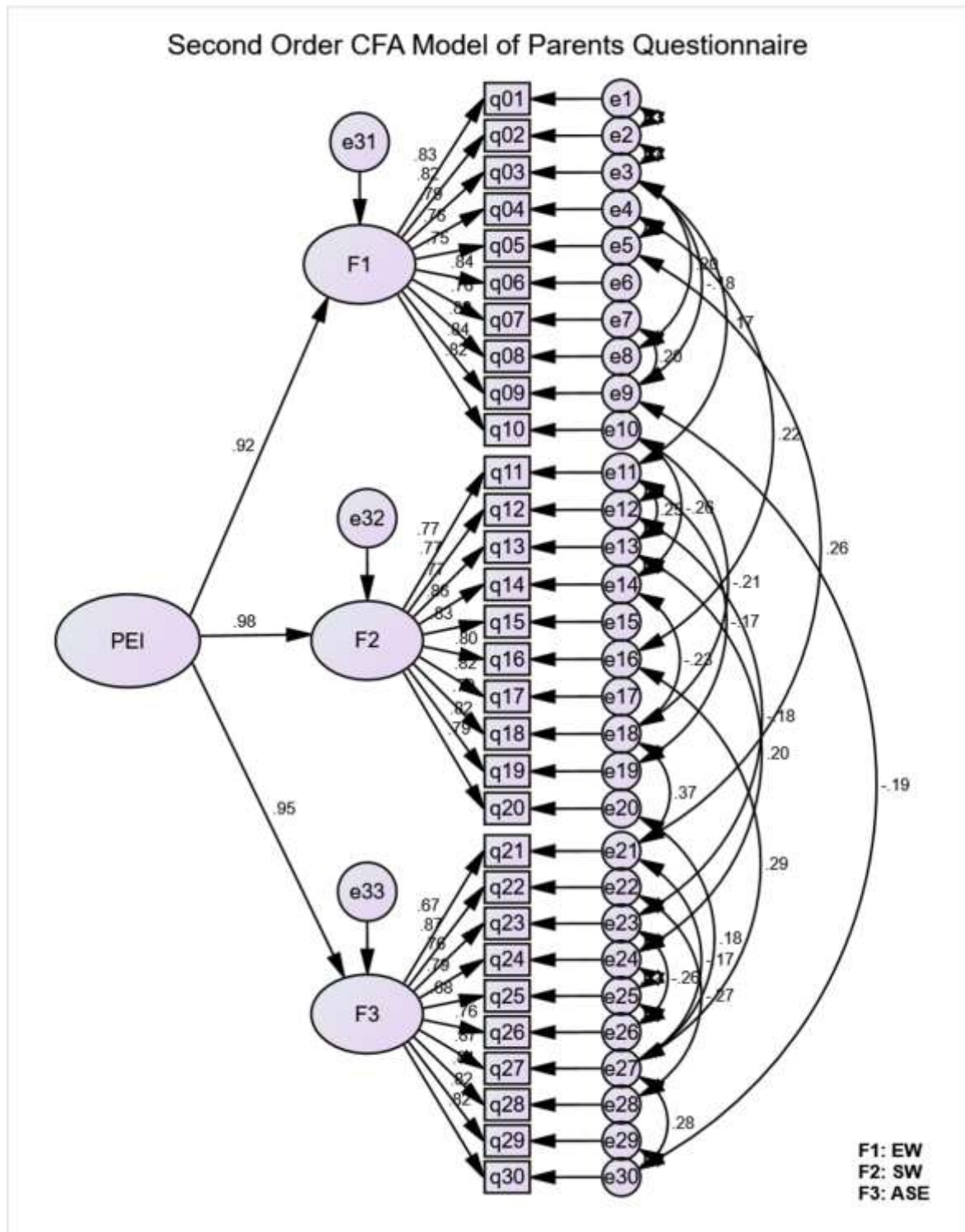


Figure (4. 10): Second Order CFA Model for Parents Perceptions

Psychometric Evaluation of TAM Measurement Model

Convergent validity was evaluated through an assessment of item factor loadings (given as Regression Weights in AMOS) and their statistical significance, followed by an assessment

of the factors' average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliabilities (CRs). Convergent validity was indicated by an item factor loading ≥ 0.5 and $p < .05$ (Hair et al., 2010), $AVE \geq 0.5$, and $CR \geq 0.7$ (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE and CR values were calculated according to the following equations given by Fornell and Larcker (1981):

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma^2) + (\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i^2)}$$

$$CR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i^2}$$

where γ is the standardized factor loading for item i under a particular construct, while δ is indicator measurement error. Table (4.11) shows factor loadings for PEI factors (latent variables), with corresponding items. The results demonstrate convergent validity, as factor loading values of all observed variables are significant and above 0.5.

Cronbach's Alpha was used as a measure of construct reliability. The results in Table (4.20) indicated that alpha values range between 0.943 and 0.949, which satisfies the minimum threshold of 0.6 for exploratory research (Yusoff et al., 2011). Composite reliability (CR) was used to test the internal reliability of measurement models (Fornells, 1981). All CR values reported in Table (4.11) were above 0.7, which shows adequate internal consistency of data (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE values ranged between 0.617 to 0.644, demonstrating convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Construct/Item	FL
Positive Education Implementation ($\alpha = .977$, $CR = .964$, $AVE = .899$)	
Emotional Wellbeing ($\alpha = .949$, $CR = .948$, $AVE = .644$)	.917
1. Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy.	.830
2. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school.	.819
3. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school.	.786

Construct/Item	FL
4. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings.	.757
5. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.	.754
6. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties.	.836
7. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	.759
8. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person.	.816
9. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas.	.839
10. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	.822
Social Wellbeing ($\alpha = .949$, CR = .947, AVE = .643)	.980
11. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	.770
12. Positive education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.	.769
13. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.	.770
14. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.	.863
15. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	.834
16. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	.797
17. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.	.820
18. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	.786
19. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	.817
20. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school).	.785
Academic Self-efficacy ($\alpha = .943$, CR = .941, AVE = .617)	.946

Construct/Item	FL
21. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community.	.669
22. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	.865
23. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	.762
24. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can complete their assignments and tests.	.785
25. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	.681
26. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.	.756
27. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.	.867
28. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	.810
29. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in analysing the concepts taught.	.817
30. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.	.816

Table (4. 20): Factor Loadings (Standardised Regression Weights), Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Explained from CFA of Parents' Perceptions

Discriminant validity of latent factors (the three constructs) was assessed by comparing the square correlation between constructs to the square root of AVE; that is, the square correlation between constructs must be smaller than the square root of AVE (Cooper & Zmud, 1990; Hair et al., 1998). The factor correlation matrix in Table (4.21) shows the inter-factor correlations located above the diagonal, while the squared inter-factor correlation values (also known as shared variance) are presented below the diagonal. The results showed that the squared correlation values between constructs were higher than the values of the square root of AVEs, which does not support discriminant validity. The factors' AVEs are presented along the diagonal. The inter-factor correlation values of the dimensions were below 0.85 with a

minimum value of 0.812 and a maximum value of 0.844, excepting the correlation between SW and ASE with value of 0.855, which is slightly above 0.85, hence providing evidence for the model's discriminant validity. However, the model's AVE and SV did not meet the requirement. Yet, the inter-factor correlations provided sufficient evidence for the model's discriminant validity.

	EW	SW	ASE
Emotional Wellbeing (EW)	.802	.844**	.812**
Social Wellbeing (SW)	.806	.802	.855**
Academic Self-efficacy (ASE)	.753	.859	.785

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

Table (4. 21): Factor Matrix showing Discriminant Validity of PEI Constructs

The confirmatory factor analysis model shows PEI achieved a good fit to the data associated with emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, and all items were significant reflective indicators.

MODEL FIT

The model parameters were estimated using maximum likelihood. The proposed three-factor model manifested an adequate fit outcome. Both models indicated good model fit measures. Therefore, we can conclude that the overall model fit indices in Table (4.22) are within the acceptable recommended values as proposed by the researchers, and hence the proposed model fits with the sample data. To test the model's acceptability with the sample, the normed Chi-square was utilised. If the $X^2/df < 3$ or $3 < X^2/df < 5$, the model is considered acceptable. The model fit was assessed using discriminant and convergent validity as well as construct reliability through testing CR (Byrne 2016; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2013). The author used the suggestions proposed by Schumacker and Lomax (2010) related to acceptable values of indices. Each factor of this study during the model fit procedures was measured individually. Chi-square was used to test the model's acceptability. The model is acceptable if the calculated

value X^2/df value falls within $3 < X^2/df < 5$. Furthermore, the Comparative Fit Indices (CFIs) is used as an important fit index; the value of >0.90 is seen as a good fit. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) values/thresholds should be in the range of (.05) and (.08) (Hair et al., 2017; Kline, 2015). The Chi square X^2 value was 721.931, degree of freedom is 371 and $p < .001$. The RMSEA value is .059 which is below <0.08 recommended value. The CFI value and TLI value are 0.956 and 0.948 which are greater than 0.90. Therefore, the results show that the measurement model shows satisfactory results for positive education implementation's impact on emotional, social wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy in terms of parents' perceptions.

Index	Criterion	Model	
		1 st Order	2 nd Order
Chi-square (χ^2)	Low	721.931	721.931
Degrees of freedom (df)	≥ 0	371	371
Probability (p-value)	$\geq .05$	$< .001$	$< .001$
Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df)	< 3.0 (Byrne, 2016)	1.946	1.946
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$> .90$ (Hu and Bentler, 1999)	.956	.956
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	$> .90$ (Hu and Bentler, 1999)	.948	.948
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$\leq .08$ (MacCallum et al, 1996)	.059	.059

Table (4. 22): Fit Indices for Measurement Model of Parents' Perceptions Questionnaire

4.6.1.3 Students' Questionnaire Measurement Validation

The students' questionnaire was assessed for validity and reliability using the same criteria previously used in assessing the parents' questionnaire. Therefore, in this section, the results of the CFA are presented directly.

Psychometric Evaluation of TAM Measurement Model

In Table (4.23), factor loadings for PEI factors, with corresponding items, are presented. The results indicated convergent validity as factor loading values of all observed variables were significant and above 0.5. Alpha values ranged between 0.930 and 0.934, which satisfies the minimum threshold of 0.6 for exploratory research (Yusoff et al., 2011). All CR values reported were above 0.7, which shows adequate internal consistency of data (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE values ranged between 0.567 and 0.588, demonstrating convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Construct/Item		FL
Positive Education Implementation ($\alpha = .972$, CR = .961, AVE = .892)		
Emotional Wellbeing ($\alpha = .930$, CR = .929, AVE = .567)		.921
1. Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making me happy.		.747
2. Positive education activities have made me enjoy my life in school.		.737
3. Positive education activities have made me feel safe at school.		.689
4. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing control over my negative feelings.		.750
5. Positive education activities have helped me like myself more.		.771
6. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing my strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties.		.751
7. Positive education activities have made me become more trusted in school among my teachers and friends.		.775
8. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of becoming a better person.		.784
9. Positive education activities have helped me become surer (confident) to talk about my opinions and ideas.		.730
10. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.		.790
Social Wellbeing ($\alpha = .934$, CR = .934, AVE = .588)		.968
11. Positive education activities have made me feel that I am at the same level as my friends in school.		.724
12. Positive education activities have allowed me to feel included by others in school.		.785

Construct/Item		FL
	13. Positive education activities have made me become more respected by others in school.	.780
	14. Positive education activities have made me more listened to in school.	.812
	15. Positive education activities have made me have more chances to contribute to my school and community.	.725
	16. Positive education activities have helped me have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	.772
	17. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of being appreciated by others.	.795
	18. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my friends.	.780
	19. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my teachers.	.698
	20. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my community (inside and outside the school).	.788
Academic Self-efficacy ($\alpha = .932$, CR = .932, AVE = .577)		.943
	21. Positive education activities helped me become less isolated from the school community.	.723
	22. Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can apply what I have learned.	.773
	23. Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can understand the most complex material presented by my teachers.	.762
	24. Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	.732
	25. Positive education activities have helped me become more interested in getting good marks in my tests and assignments.	.738
	26. Positive education activities have helped me become more interested in attending my classes.	.758
	27. Positive education activities have made me more confident in solving real-life problems.	.748
	28. Positive education activities have made me more confident in arguing my point of view respectfully.	.755
	29. Positive education activities have made me more confident in analysing the concepts taught.	.792
	30. Positive education activities have made me more confident in reflecting on my learning to know the strengths and weaknesses I have.	.809

Table (4. 23): Factor Loadings (Standardised Regression Weights), Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Explained from CFA of Students' Perceptions

The factor correlation matrix in Table (4.24) **Error! Reference source not found.** showed that the squared correlation values between constructs were higher than the values of the square root of AVEs, which does not support discriminant validity. The inter-factor correlation values of the dimensions were below 0.85 with a minimum value of 0.812 and a maximum value of 0.844 except the correlation between SW and ASE with value of 0.858, which is slightly above 0.85, hence providing evidence for the model's discriminant validity. However, the model's AVE and SV did not meet the requirement. Yet, the inter-factor correlations provided sufficient evidence for the model's discriminant validity.

	EPW	SW	ASE
Emotional/ Psychological Wellbeing (EPW)	.753	.834**	.813**
Social Wellbeing (SW)	.794	.767	.858**
Academic Self-efficacy (ASE)	.753	.834	.759

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

Table (4. 24): Factor Matrix showing Discriminant Validity of PEI Constructs for Students' Perceptions

Two CFA measurement models were assessed. The first measurement model is the first order CFA model, which includes the three latent variables (constructs): EW, SW, and ASE, plotted and linked by two-headed arrows to represent covariance among them, shown in Figure (4.11). The second order model includes the main latent variable: Positive Education Implementation (PEI) plotted and linked to the three latent variables by one-headed arrows to represent its impact on them, as shown in Figure (4.12)

First Order CFA Model for Students' Perceptions

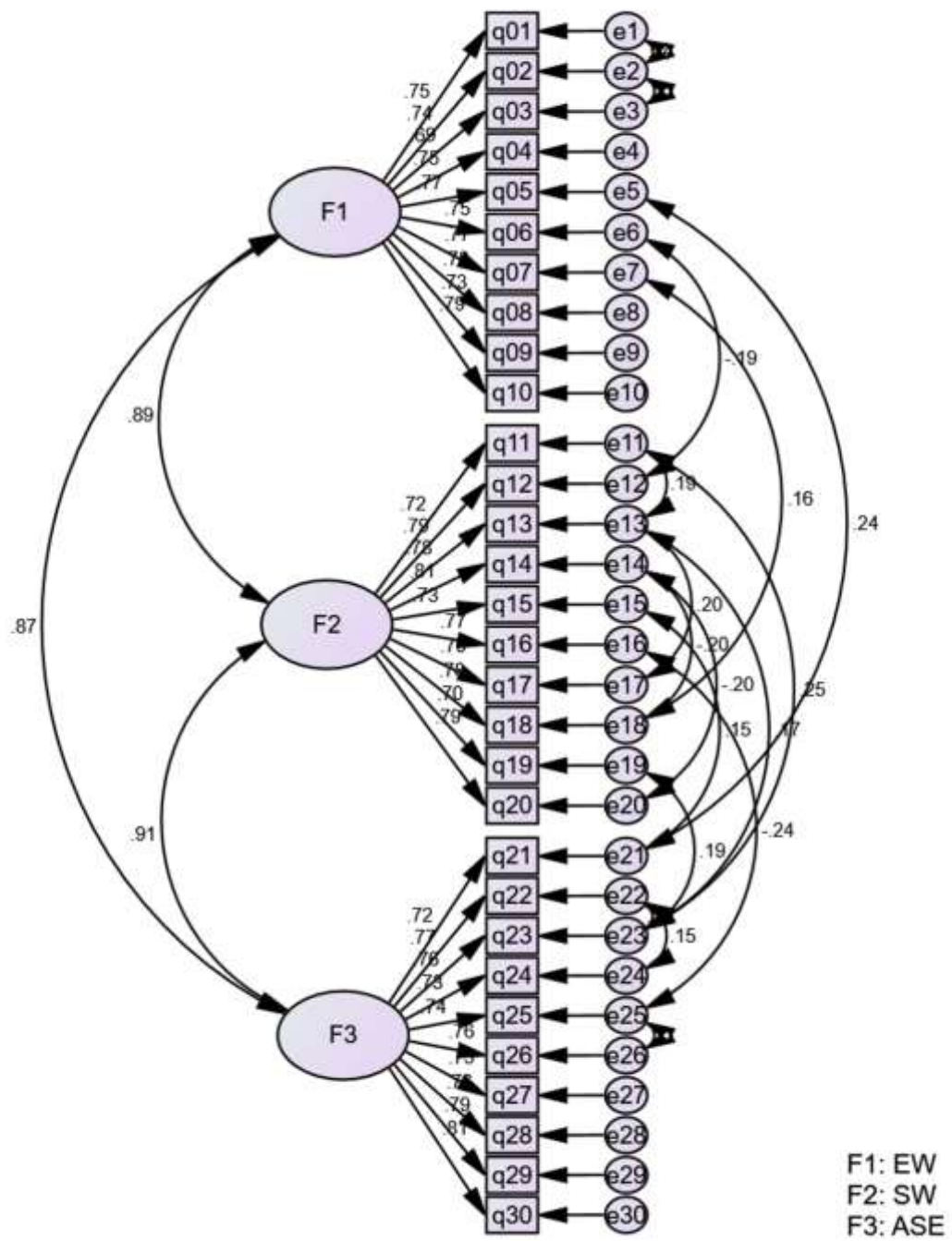


Figure (4. 11): First Order CFA Model for Students' Perceptions

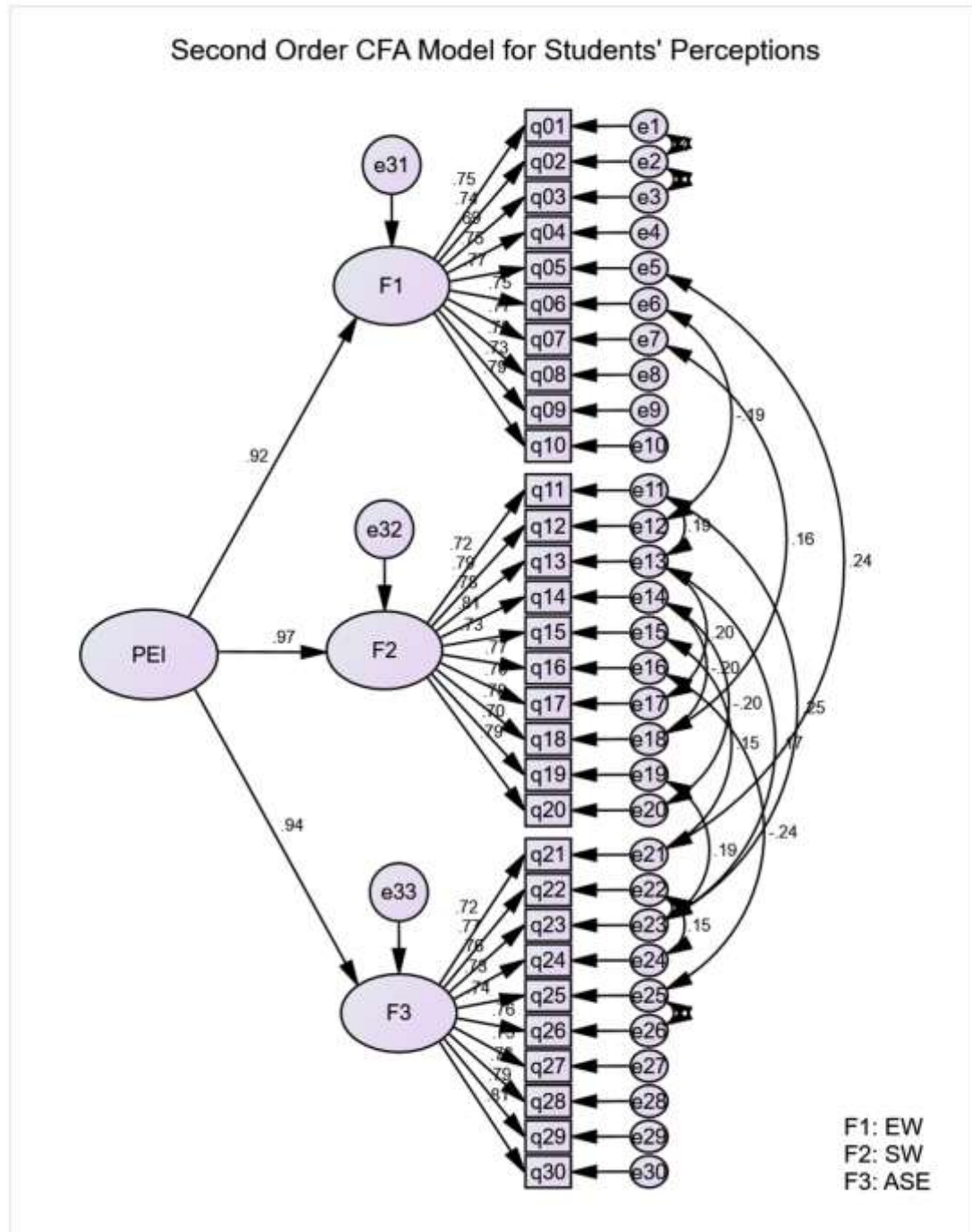


Figure (4. 12): Second Order CFA Model for Students' Perceptions

MODEL FIT

The CFA model parameters were estimated using maximum likelihood, as presented in Table (4.25). The proposed three-factor model indicated an adequate fit outcome. Both models indicated good model fit measures. Therefore, we can conclude that the overall model fit indices are within the acceptable recommended values as proposed by the researchers, and

hence the proposed model fits with the sample data. The Chi square χ^2 value was 759.504, degree of freedom is 385 and $p < .001$. The RMSEA value is .059 which is below <0.08 the recommended value. The CFI value and TLI value are 0.964 and 0.960 which are greater than 0.90. Therefore, the results show that the measurement model shows satisfactory results for positive education implementation's impact on emotional, social wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy in terms of students' perceptions.

Index	Criterion	Model	
		1 st Order	2 nd Order
Chi-square (χ^2)	Low	759.504	759.504
Degrees of freedom (df)	≥ 0	385	385
Probability (p-value)	$\geq .05$	$< .001$	$< .001$
Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df)	< 3.0 (Byrne, 2016)	1.973	1.973
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$> .90$ (Hu and Bentler, 1999)	.964	.964
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	$> .90$ (Hu and Bentler, 1999)	.960	.960
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$\leq .08$ (MacCallum et al, 1996)	.045	.045

Table (4. 25): Fit Indices for Measurement Model of Students' Perceptions Questionnaire

4.6.1.4 Overall Reliability

To measure questionnaires' reliability, Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis using SPSS was used, measuring internal consistency of the questionnaires (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2009; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018) and to ensure that the multi-question likert scale questionnaires were reliable. The researcher conducted a reliability analysis on all three questionnaires to measure the internal reliability/consistency level of the thirty

questionnaires' items using the Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient. Table (4. 26) shows the Cronbach alpha for the overall teachers', parents', and students' questionnaire, which reported overall reliability levels $\alpha = .971$, $\alpha = .977$, and $\alpha = .972$ respectively.

Questionnaire	Total No. of Participants	Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha
Teachers	43	Emotional Wellbeing	0.931
		Social Wellbeing	0.917
		Academic Self-Efficacy	0.943
		Overall Teachers' Reliability	0.971
Parents	277	Emotional Wellbeing	0.949
		Social Wellbeing	0.949
		Academic Self-Efficacy	0.943
		Overall Parents' Reliability	0.977
Students	480	Emotional Wellbeing	0.930
		Social Wellbeing	0.934
		Academic Self-Efficacy	0.932
		Overall Students' Reliability	0.972

Table (4. 26): Whole Study Reliability Statistics for Teachers', Parents', and Students' Questionnaire

4.6.2 Results of the Teacher Questionnaire

4.6.2.1 Teachers' Demographics

Chi-square test coefficient (Cramer's V) for each demographic was reported, as evidence of significant or insignificant differences between schools. Teachers' perceptions data was collected from 43 teachers from three schools in Dubai: AJA (46.5%), BITJ (41.9%), and DITM (11.6%). Teachers mainly were British (23.3%), Canadian (20.9%), and Jordanian (14.0%). Table (4.27) presents the Chi-square test coefficient (Cramer's V) for Nationality; the results revealed strong significant differences between the three schools, Cramer's V = 0.799, $p = 0.002$. The differences were that all five teachers from DITM school were Jordanian, while the majority of teachers in AJA school were British (35.0%), Canadian (25.0%), and Dutch

(10.0%); while teachers in BITJ school were mostly Canadian (22.2%), British (16.7%), Lebanese (16.7%), and Palestinian (16.7%); see Figure (4.13).

		School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DITM (n=5)	Cramer's V .799**
Nationality	Total				

*. Significant at .05.

**. Significant at .01

Table (4. 27): Chi-square test coefficient (Cramer's V) for Teachers' Nationalities

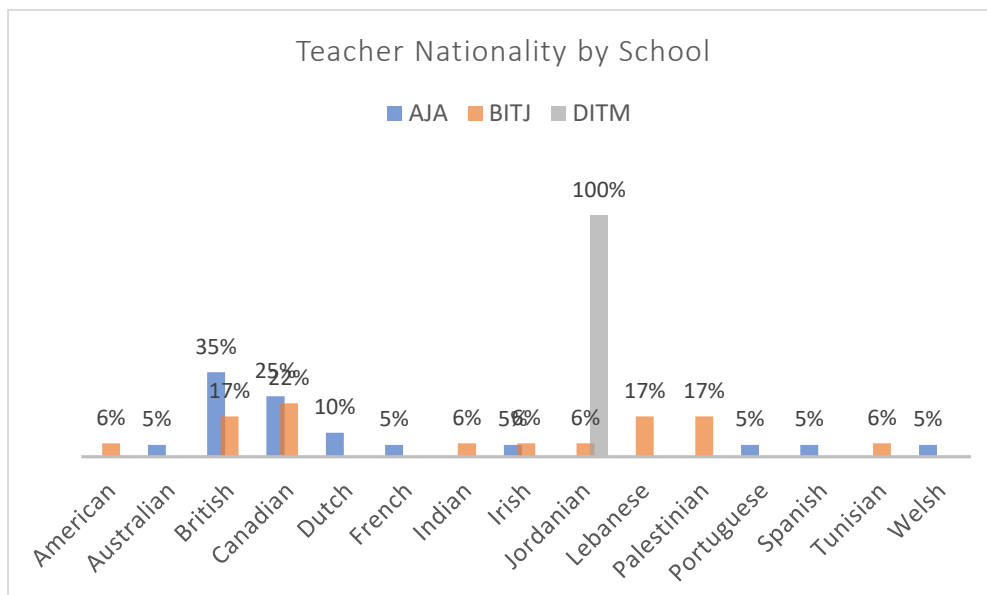


Figure (4. 13): Teachers' Nationality broken down by School

Table (4.28) below presents the descriptive summary of teachers' gender broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. Female teachers represented the majority (72.1%) of the total sample, while male teachers represented 27.9%. In terms of gender distribution in the three schools, based on the chi-square test results, there was no significant difference between schools; Cramer's V = 0.068, p = 0.905.

Demographics	Total	School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DITM (n=5)	Cramer's V
Gender					.068
Female	31	14	13	4	
	72.1%	70.0%	72.2%	80.0%	
Male	12	6	5	1	
	27.9%	30.0%	27.8%	20.0%	

*. Significant at .05.

**. Significant at .01.

Table (4. 28): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Gender [N = 43], broken down by School

Table (4.29) below presents the descriptive summary of teachers' position at school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. Most participants were either head of department (37.2%) or teachers (34.9%). There was no significant difference between schools about teachers' current positions; Cramer's V = 0.313, p = 0.391.

Demographics	Total	School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DIT M (n=5)	Cramer's V
Current Position at School					.313
Teacher	15	8	6	1	
	34.9%	40.0%	33.3%	20.0%	
Lead teacher	3	-	3	-	
	7.0%		16.7%		
Head of department/ Coordinator	16	6	7	3	
	37.2%	30.0%	38.9%	60.0%	
Director General/ Section Principal	2	2	-	-	
	4.7%	10.0%			
Other	7	4	2	1	
	16.3%	20.0%	11.1%	20.0%	

*. Significant at .05.

**. Significant at .01.

Table (4. 29): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Position at School [N = 43], broken down by School

The participants seemed very experienced as the majority (74.4%) of participants had at least 11 years of experience; with 39.5% having at least 16 years of experience. Table (4.30) shows the chi-square test which revealed significant differences among schools in terms of years of experience, Cramer's V = 0.426, p = 0.049. An investigation of percentages in Figure (4.14) revealed that AJA school seemed to have the most experienced teachers, as 40.0% had more than 20 years of experience, 50.0% had at least 16 years of experience, and 80.0% had at least 11 years of experience. BITJ school seemed to have younger (or less experienced) teachers, since 16.7% had less than six years of experience, while no one in the other two schools had less than six years of experience.

Demographics	Total	School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DITM (n=5)	Cramer's V
Years of Experience					.426*

*. Significant at .05.

**. Significant at .01.

Table (4. 30): Chi Square Test (Cramer's V) of Teachers' Years of Experience [N = 43]

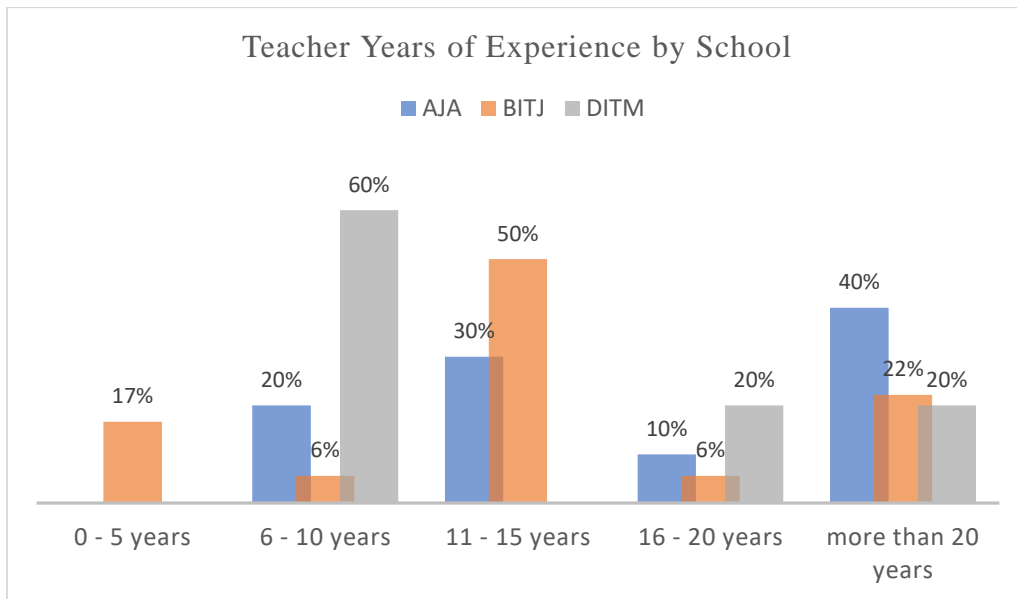


Figure (4. 14): Teachers Years of Experience by School

The sample seemed well-educated as 51.2% of participants had at least a Master's degree, and 74.5% had at least a postgraduate professional degree/teaching diploma. Table (4.31) shows significant differences found among schools in terms of highest education level completed, Cramer's V = 0.393, p = 0.038. That is, AJA school seemed to have higher educated teachers as 25.0% held doctorate degrees, 60.0% held at least Master's degrees, 90.0% held at least postgraduate professional degrees/teaching diplomas, and 10.0% held only Bachelor's degrees. BITJ school comes next, as 50.0% held at least Master's degrees, 72.2% held at least postgraduate professional degrees/teaching diplomas, and 27.8% held only Bachelor's degrees. In DITM school 20.0% held Master's degrees, and 80.0% held only Bachelor's degrees, see Figure (4.15).

		School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DITM (n=5)	Cramer's V
Demographics	Total				
Highest Education Level Completed					.393*

*. Significant at .05.

**. Significant at .01

Table (4. 31): Chi Square Test (Cramer's V) Teachers' Highest Education Level Completed [N = 43]

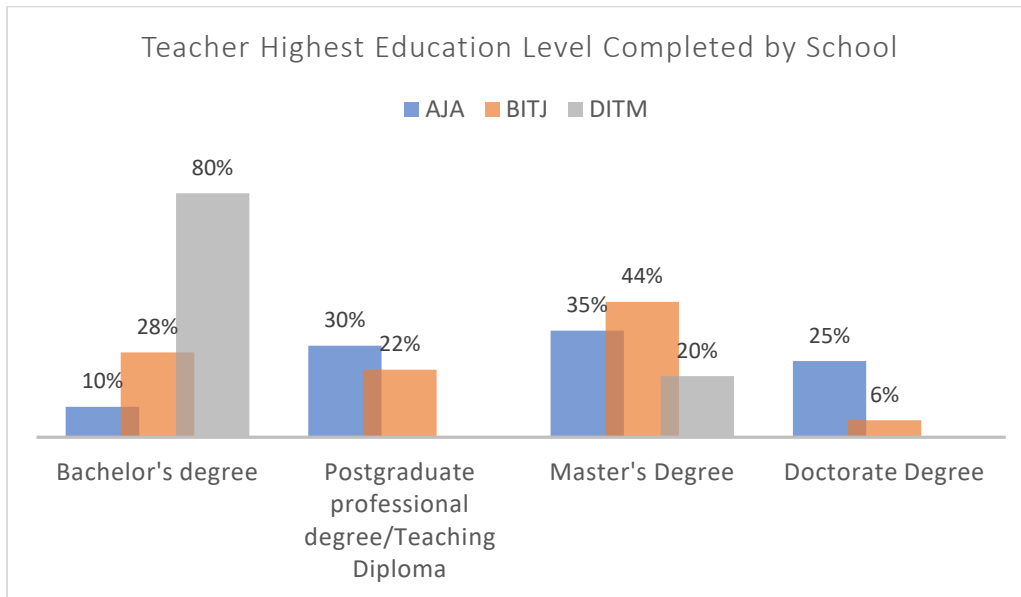


Figure (4. 15): Teachers' Highest Education Level Completed by School

Table (4.32) below presents the descriptive summary of teachers' subject of specialisation, in terms of frequencies and percentages. The majority of teachers were specialised in mathematics and science (18.6% for both subjects), and English (16.3%). There were no significant differences between the three schools in terms of subject of specialisation, $p > 0.05$.

Demographics	Total	School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DITM (n=5)	Cramer's V
Subject of Specialisation					.432
English	7	-	6	1	
	16.3%		33.3%	20.0%	
Mathematics	8	4	4	-	
	18.6%	20.0%	22.2%		
Moral Education	2	1	1	-	
	4.7%	5.0%	5.6%		
Science	8	4	4	-	
	18.6%	20.0%	22.2%		
Social Studies	2	2	-	-	
	4.7%	10.0%			
Other	16	9	3	4	
	37.2%	45.0%	16.7%	80.0%	

*. Significant at .05.

**. Significant at .01.

Table (4. 32): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Subject of Specialization [N = 43], broken down by School

Table (4.33) below presents the descriptive summary of teachers' professional development (PD) sessions related to positive education in the last five years, in terms of frequencies and percentages. The majority (74.4%) of teachers had attended 1-5 sessions of PD related to positive education in the last five years. There were no significant differences among the three schools in PD: 'Sessions Related to Positive Education a Teacher Attended in the Last 5 Years', $p > 0.05$.

Demographics	Total	School			χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=20)	BITJ (n=18)	DITM (n=5)	Cramer's V
PD Sessions Related to Positive Education a Teacher Attended in the last 5 years					.202
None	5	3	1	1	
	11.6%	15.0%	5.6%	20.0%	
1 - 5 sessions	32	15	13	4	
	74.4%	75.0%	72.2%	80.0%	
6 - 10 sessions	1	-	1	-	
	2.3%		5.6%		
more than 10 sessions	5	2	3	-	
	11.6%	10.0%	16.7%		

* Significant at .05.

** Significant at .01.

Table (4. 33): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Positive Education PD Sessions [N = 43], broken down by School

4.6.2.2 Teachers' Perceptions

The current section presents statistical analysis of teachers' perceptions associated with positive education's impact on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy in terms of frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and relative agreement percentages; which graphically represented by stacked bar charts. The analysis presents the findings under the three constructs 'Emotional Wellbeing' (EW), 'Social Wellbeing' (SW), and 'Academic Self-efficacy' (ASE).

4.6.2.2.1 Teachers' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Emotional Wellbeing

Table (4.34) below presents the descriptive summary for the EW items. It shows the overall relative agreement (RA%) for EW was 83.9% with a mean score of 4.19 and standard deviation of 0.50, which indicates a high agreement level. The RA for the ten items ranged from 81.0% to 87.0% with mean scores ranging from 4.05 to 4.35, indicating that for the ten

items, teachers were more likely to score 4 as ‘Agree’ or 5 as ‘Strongly Agree’. No one scored 1 as ‘Strongly Disagree’, and only one teacher scored 2 as ‘Disagree’, for item 9.

Emotional Wellbeing (EW)	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
1. Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making my students happy.	-	-	4	29	10	4.14	.560	82.8%
			9.3%	67.4%	23.3%			
2. Positive education activities have made my students enjoy their life in school.	-	-	4	29	10	4.14	.560	82.8%
			9.3%	67.4%	23.3%			
3. Positive education activities have made my students feel safe at school.	-	-	7	27	9	4.05	.615	81.0%
			16.3%	62.8%	20.9%			
4. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings.	-	-	5	22	16	4.26	.658	85.2%
			11.6%	51.2%	37.2%			
5. Positive education activities have helped my students like themselves more.	-	-	9	19	15	4.14	.743	82.8%
			20.9%	44.2%	34.9%			
6. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties.	-	-	4	23	16	4.28	.630	85.6%
			9.3%	53.5%	37.2%			
7. Positive education activities have made my student become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	-	-	6	29	8	4.05	.575	81.0%
			14.0%	67.4%	18.6%			
	-	-	2	24	17	4.35	.573	87.0%

Emotional Wellbeing (EW)	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
8. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of becoming a better person.			4.7%	55.8%	39.5%			
9. Positive education activities have helped my students become confident to talk about their opinions and ideas.	-	1	3	22	17	4.28	.701	85.6%
		2.3 %	7.0%	51.2%	39.5%			
10. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	-	-	7	18	18	4.26	.727	85.2%
			16.3%	41.9%	41.9%			
Overall EW	-	.2%	11.9 %	56.3 %	31.6 %	4.19	.500	83.9%

Note: M = Mean, SDv = Standard Deviation, RA% = Relative Agreement Percent, calculated as mean/5.

Table (4. 34): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on EW Indicators

Figure (4.16) shows how teachers' responses were distributed as percentages in relation to EW. It shows that 96% of teachers agree/strongly agree that positive education activities (PEA) have helped students become better persons; 91% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students become confident to talk about their opinions and ideas, and 90% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped make students happy/enjoy their life in school/ develop their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties. While 89% of teachers agree/strongly agree that students like themselves more because of PEA, 88% agree/strongly that students have developed control over their negative feelings. Finally, 86% and 84% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students become more trusted in school among teachers and friends, feel safer, and develop a positive goal and purpose in life respectively.

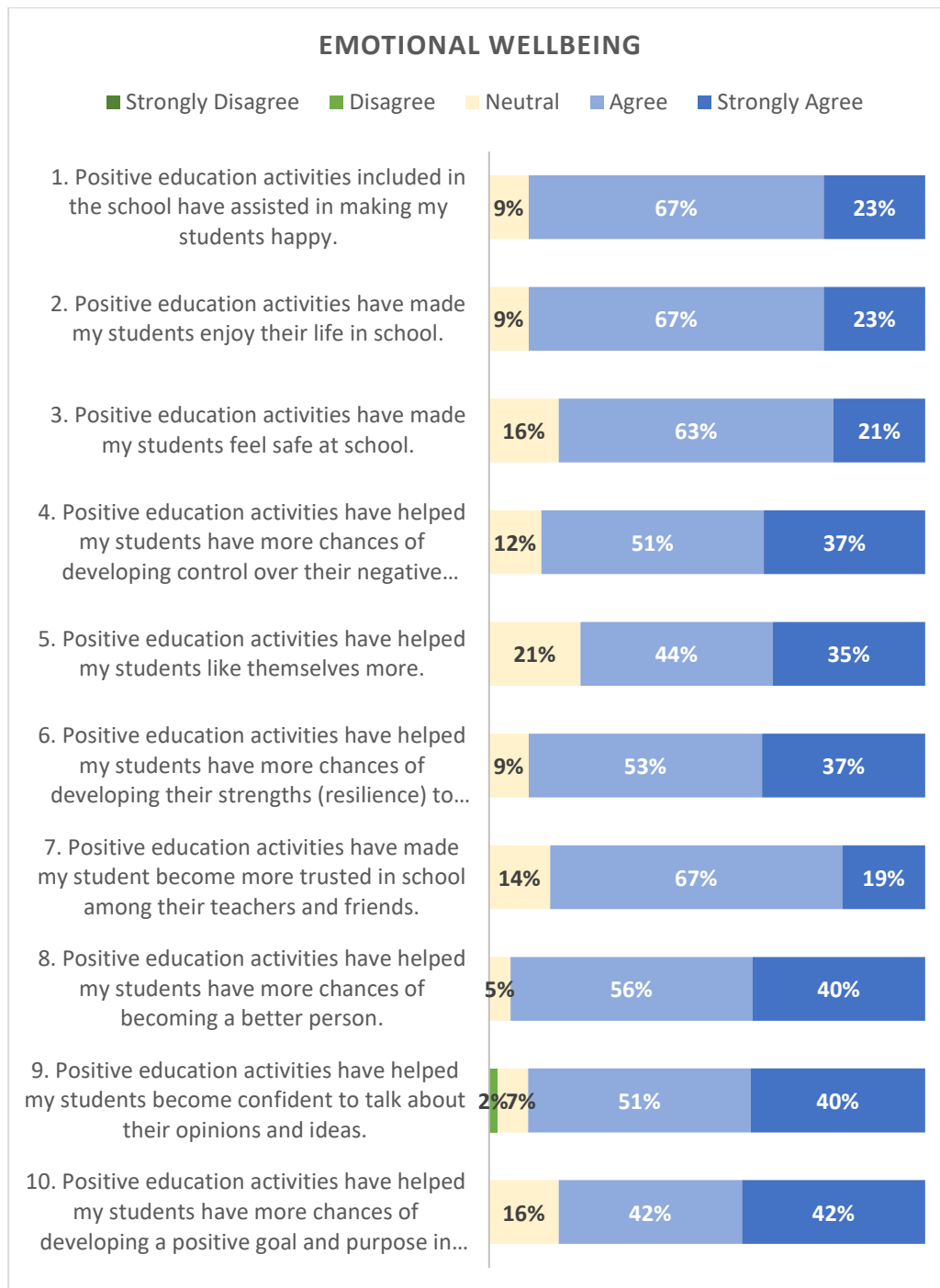


Figure (4. 16): Bar Chart of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on EW Indicators

Senior and middle leadership members and teachers stated students felt happier and more resilient. Teachers in all four schools talked about students having more control of their negative feelings, feeling more resilient, and the school environment and students seemed happy. The findings associated with resilience, controlling their negative feelings, and being

happier were substantiated by evidence from interviews. For example, the following was stated:

“Positive education has helped students become more happy, resilient, and have control over their negative feeling levels.” (Senior Leadership Members -AJA)

“Definitely, the children have certain tools to deal with the negative feelings and they are able to identify it. Then they have the tools to get through the feeling and make some choice in terms of resilience and positive goals.” (Teacher Focus Group-CGS)

“When we talk about gratitude, mindfulness, resilience, even rational and irrational thinking, they really start to record their thoughts and recognise they have negative thoughts and they start to think how to replace it and control it, and I feel positive education has impacted them dealing with their thoughts, behaviours, the way they express themselves and talking about their opinions.” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

Also, all teachers and senior/middle leadership from the schools stated that after the start of the implementation of positive education, students enjoyed the lessons more and had become more engaged in the activities. Teachers stated that students shared *“personal feelings about themselves they have gotten to get to know themselves better and have improved their ability of becoming better individuals” (Teacher Focus Group-BITJ)*. Teachers shared that *“during lessons the trust among students improved and they have become better friends since they share personal stories which has eased their communication” (Teacher Focus Group – CGS/DITM)*. Teachers shared that, students now after PEA *“shared their opinions and ideas, were more engaged and felt more confident about talking in front of the whole class”*. Senior leaders from all three schools reiterated that positive education activities helped students improve overall happiness, resilience, goal setting, confidence, and engagement. Senior leadership during the interviews stated that:

“We just got DSWC and PASS results and the interesting thing is that during pandemic and considering the pressures, especially kids, living and facing, I consider this a positive thing certain indicators in DSWC like engagement flow, and cognitive engagement fields have improved based on almost two years of implementation and 64% of students studying remotely so considering all of this you would assume that they will lose engagement, but it’s not the case, this increase in

engagement may be due to positive education programme.” (Senior Leadership Members-BITJ) confirmed by Teacher Focus Group

Teachers and senior leadership discussed that students have become good at goal setting and identifying their strengths and weaknesses *“So when they think about themselves, and think about their goals, their strengths and weaknesses. How they define themselves, it’s an opportunity for them to reflect about themselves.” (DITM-Teacher Focus Group)*

4.6.2.2.2 Teachers’ Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Social Wellbeing (SW)

Social Wellbeing (SW) was found to be in the same agreement level as EW, as it had an overall RA of 81.8% and a mean score of 4.09 (SD = 0.571). Detailed descriptive summary is presented in Table (4.35). The RA values for the ten items of SW ranged between 76.2% and 86.6% with mean scores ranging between 3.81 and 4.33, which indicated that the majority of participants were more likely to score items above 3 as ‘Neutral’; i.e., either 4 as ‘Agree’ or 5 as ‘Strongly Agree’. No one scored 1 as ‘Strongly Disagree’ to any of the items. Meanwhile, few participants scored 2 as ‘Disagree’ for items 11, 12, 13, 14, and 19. The percentages of teachers’ responses for the ten items are graphically represented in Figure (4.17).

	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	S D (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
Social Wellbeing (SW)								
11. Positive education activities have made my students feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	-	1	11	16	15	4.05	.844	81.0%
		2.3%	25.6%	37.2%	34.9%			
12. Positive education activities have allowed my students feel included by others in school.	-	2	7	16	18	4.16	.871	83.2%
		4.7%	16.3%	37.2%	41.9%			
13. Positive education activities have made my students become more respected by others in school.	-	2	11	23	7	3.81	.764	76.2%
		4.7%	25.6%	53.5%	16.3%			
14. Positive education activities have made my students more listened to in school.	-	2	11	21	9	3.86	.804	77.2%
		4.7%	25.6%	48.8%	20.9%			
15. Positive education activities have made my students have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	-	-	6	24	13	4.16	.652	83.2%
			14.0%	55.8%	30.2%			
16. Positive education activities have helped my students have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	-	-	4	21	18	4.33	.644	86.6%
			9.3%	48.8%	41.9%			
17. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of being appreciated by others.	-	-	8	20	15	4.16	.721	83.2%
			18.6%	46.5%	34.9%			
18. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	-	-	5	25	13	4.19	.627	83.8%
			11.6%	58.1%	30.2%			
19. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	-	2	4	22	15	4.16	.785	83.2%
		4.7%	9.3%	51.2%	34.9%			
20. Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school).	-	-	13	17	13	4.00	.787	80.0%
			30.2%	39.5%	30.2%			
Overall SW	-	2.1 %	18.6 %	47.7 %	31.6 %	4.09	.571	81.8 %

Note: M = Mean, SDv = Standard Deviation, RA% = Relative Agreement Percent, calculated as mean/5.

Table (4. 35): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on Social Wellbeing (SW) Indicators.

Figure (4.17) shows that 91% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students have more social skills like dealing with others and decision making. 88% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students develop active friendships with their friends. 86% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students have more chances to contribute to school and community/ develop active friendships with their teachers. 82% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students feel appreciated by others. While 79% of teachers agree/strongly agree that students feel included by others, 72% agree/strongly that students have felt as being at the same level as their friends. Finally, 70% and 69% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students feel more listened to in school/ develop active friendship with their community and become more respected by others, respectively.

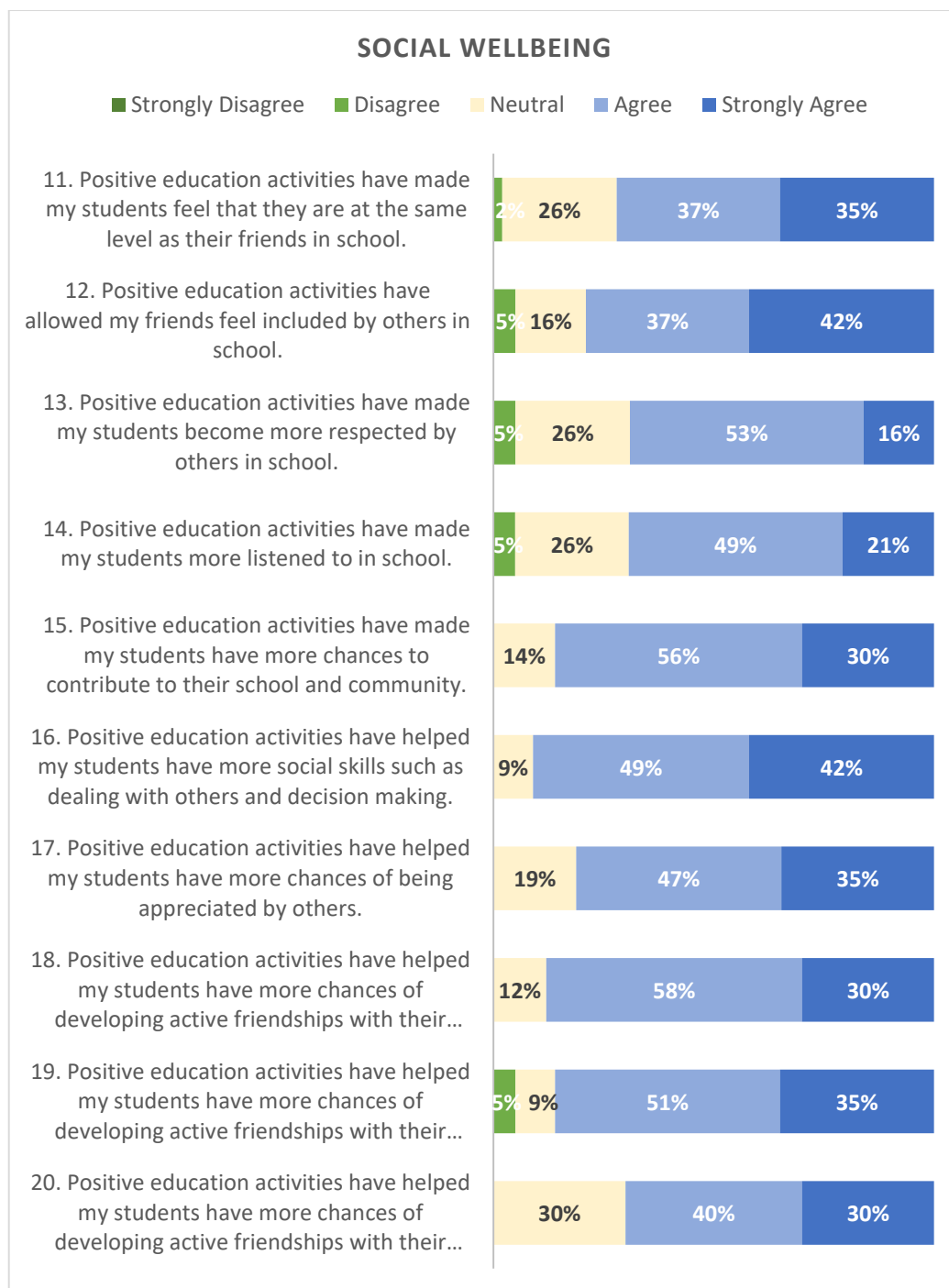


Figure (4. 17): Bar Chart of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on SW Indicators

Senior/middle leadership members expressed students developed strong relationships with teachers due to PEA. Teachers stated they felt that students felt easy approaching them and trusted them with personal feelings. They stated that discussions among them became more personal and open. Teachers discussed being more approachable, students expressing their feelings and feeling that they are all at the same level. Teachers talked about how students felt

more included and respected in school The following statements were stated by the different participants within the focus groups and interviews:

“Approachability has improved... these kids find you a lot more approachable and trusted due to positive education and feel they are more listened to, included and at the same level as their friends.” (Teacher Focus Group-AJA)

“We have seen that through positive education that the relationships between teachers and students have indeed improved, they have developed a sense of respect for each other and their teachers and for themselves.” (Senior Leadership Member-AJA)

“I had a blended class, and I did at least four PPI with them, and the response was tremendous actually, it was marvelous, the spirit in the classroom was changed totally, the relationship with my students totally changed. Now they send me messages, they ask me issues in life: I’m not their teacher any more, I am like their mentorthis was the effect of the start of positive education ..there is a special relationship between me and this class and they have expressed feeling easy to share with their friends and parents.” (Teacher Focus Group-BITJ)

Teachers also discussed that impact on students’ social skills, they start wanting to improve their social skills and improve their skills with their family, friends, teachers, and community. They have started expressing wanting to contribute to schools’ decision making through councils, school, and the community through volunteering *“students talked about activities that they can do to help and contribute to the community.” (Teacher Focus Group-AJA/BITJ/DITM).*

“With positive education, students expressed that they start to think about their social, emotional, academic wise life, family, friends and community.” (DITM-Teacher Focus Group)

“If you look at the kind of interaction we have in the class, not just during Value Education/Positive Education, but I think every class, then the relationship with teachers increased and in Value Education/Positive Education there is more interaction, more than any other class. They volunteer to support their teachers, their school and their community” (Teacher Focus Group-CGS)

“Students ask question when they’re comfortable, or rather they ask uncomfortable questions to people who they feel comfortable with, so we have had a lot of discussions, we’ve heard a lot of teachers come back and say you know they asked us this, they’ve spoken to us about this, so I think they do know that this is a

safe zone and they feel included, listened too and respected and appreciated.” (Senior Leadership Member-CGS)

“I feel their relationship with teachers improved, in terms of family and friends, it’s improved also during Corona, maybe because they spend all the time with family. Students appreciate the activities they do during positive education and have stated that they have developed a sense of respect and appreciation for everything including themselves.” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

4.6.2.2.3 Teachers’ Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Academic Self-Efficacy

Table (4.36) shows the descriptive summary of ASE items. The overall RA was 79.9% with a mean score of 4.00 and SD of 0.658. This indicates that the responses of participants were relatively high; yet lower than EW and SW. RA values for the ten items measuring ASE ranged from 76.8% to 84.2%, with mean scores ranging from 3.84 to 4.21. This indicates that the majority of teachers’ responses ranged between 4 as ‘Agree’ and 5 as ‘Strongly Agree’, while no one scored 1 as ‘Strongly Disagree’. The percentages were graphically illustrated in Figure (4.18).

	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	S D (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
21. Positive education activities helped my students become less isolated from the school community.	-	-	7	24	12	4.12	.662	82.4%
			16.3%	55.8%	27.9%			
22. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	-	2	8	22	11	3.98	.801	79.6%
		4.7%	18.6%	51.2%	25.6%			
23. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	-	6	5	22	10	3.84	.949	76.8%
		14.0%	11.6%	51.2%	23.3%			

	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	S D (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
Academic Self-efficacy (ASE)								
24. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in the way they can complete their assignments and tests.	-	2	9	22	10	3.93	.799	78.6%
		4.7%	20.9%	51.2%	23.3%			
25. Positive education activities have helped my students become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	-	4	10	18	11	3.84	.924	76.8%
		9.3%	23.3%	41.9%	25.6%			
26. Positive education activities have helped my students become more interested in attending their classes.	-	3	9	19	12	3.93	.884	78.6%
		7.0%	20.9%	44.2%	27.9%			
27. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in solving real-life problems.	-	-	9	22	12	4.07	.704	81.4%
			20.9%	51.2%	27.9%			
28. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	-	1	5	21	16	4.21	.742	84.2%
		2.3%	11.6%	48.8%	37.2%			
29. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in analysing the concepts taught.	-	3	9	21	10	3.88	.851	77.6%
		7.0%	20.9%	48.8%	23.3%			
30. Positive education activities have made my students more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.	-	1	5	23	14	4.16	.721	83.2%
		2.3%	11.6%	53.5%	32.6%			
Overall ASE	-	5.1%	17.7%	49.8%	27.4%	4.00	.658	79.9%

Note: M = Mean, SDv = Standard Deviation, RA% = Relative Agreement Percent, calculated as mean/5.

Table (4. 36): Descriptive Summary of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators

Figure (4.18) shows that 86% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students become more confident in arguing their point of view and identifying their strengths and weaknesses. 84% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students feel less isolated from the school community. 79% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped students become more confident in solving real-life problems. 77% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped student feel more confident in the way they apply what they have learned. While 74% of teachers agree/strongly agree that students feel more interested in understanding complex material presented and more confident in the way they complete assignments and tests, 72% agree/strongly that students have felt more interested in attending their classes and more confident in analyzing concepts taught. Finally, 68% of teachers agree/strongly agree that PEA have become more interested in getting good marks.

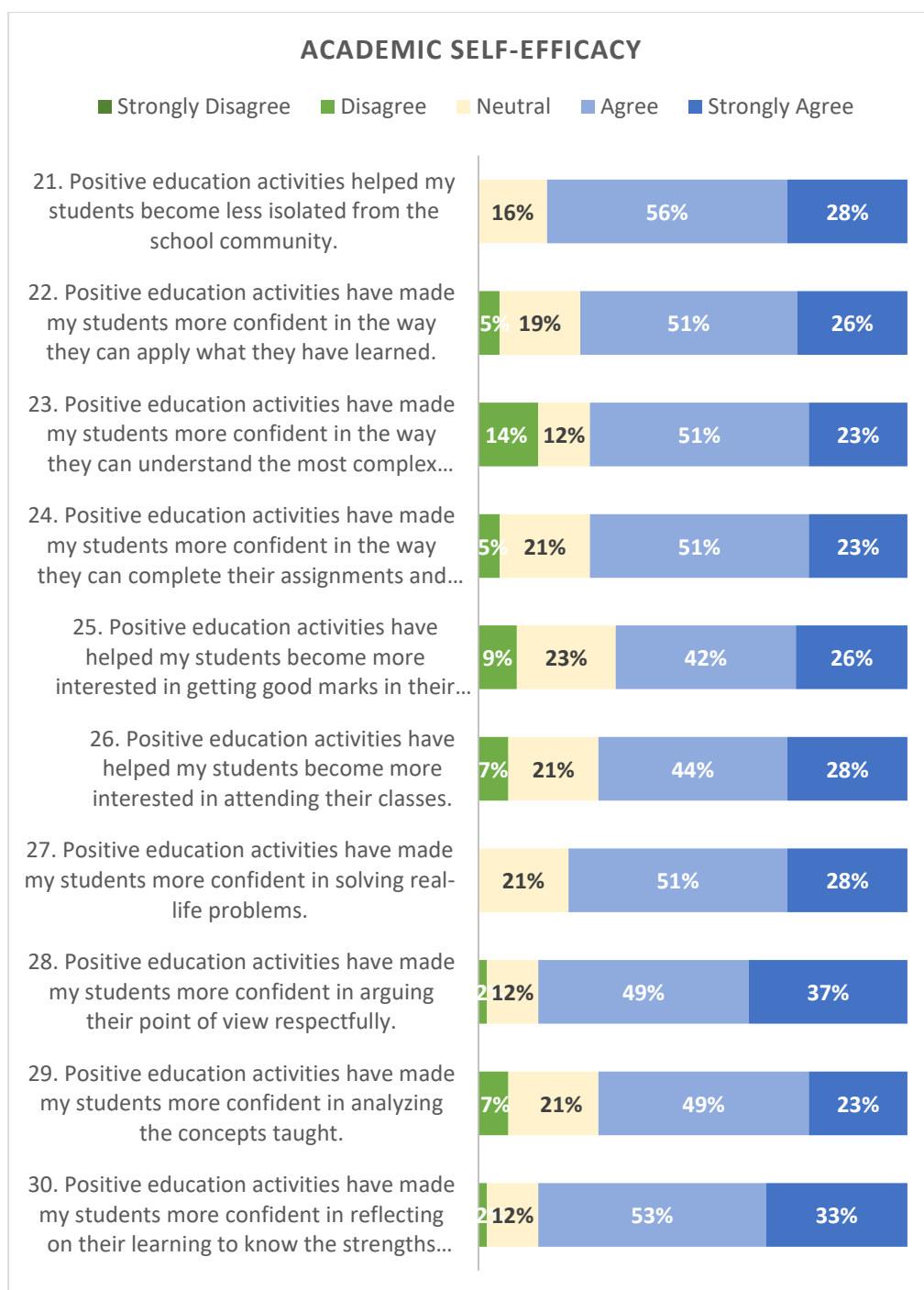


Figure (4. 18): Bar Chart of Teachers' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators

In terms of ASE, senior/middle leadership and teachers were not as confident to confirm the positive impact of PEA on ASE; however, they did agree that there was some impact. Discussions during focus groups and interviews with teachers and senior/middle leadership members mentioned that during classroom conversations and doing PEA, students worked as

part of a school community, there was less isolation among students, and they became more open about discussing issues. During conversations, teachers discussed students' academics and talked about their confidence levels in the way they apply things that they are taught and understand complex material.

"I found more noticeable the conversation that I'm able to have with students when we have positive relationship established is much more beneficial because it leads to very open and honest conversations, and I think this is part of the process of seeing the improvement in academic attainment, progress in academic self-efficacy and improvement in the ability to learn and understand complex material." (Teacher Focus Group-AJA)

Teachers stated that although they lack concrete evidence, students seemed to become more motivated to finish their assignments and interested in improving their performance and grades on tests and exams and assignments. Senior leadership in all schools pointed that evidence had shown that attendance has improved after the implementation of positive education and the motivation level has improved. They have developed skills to persevere and work harder and willing to put more efforts in finishing their assignments and studying.

"I don't have concrete evidence, but I think like covering topic like growth mindset or limiting beliefs or like learning pathways or your plasticity has got the students to think about their performance and their motivation and there is no evidence to show there has been improvement in grades, I think problem solving, creativity, critical thinking in my perception has been improved but I don't have concrete evidence" (Teacher Focus Group-BITJ)

In terms of learning, teachers said that students had improved their ability to tackle hard questions and solve real-life problems. Math teachers and science teachers in BITJ discussed that students persevered to solve complex problems and used vocabulary related to positive education and character strengths, which identified how students were using positive education to help them become more confident in solving real-life and complex problems. During positive education students learned PEA, which taught them how to identify their weaknesses and strengths and use these strengths and weaknesses in goal setting.

“I feel yes because students learned not to label themselves as failures and learned that they can persevere and work harder and try to achieve what they want... they expressed the ability to tackle problems and solve real-life problems.” (Senior Leadership Member-BITJ) (Triangulated by DITM and AJA)

“Although we don’t have data from the feedback of students in their stories, yes, they start to even to share that they wanted and finished their assignments and about setting goals and using self-control to achieve, set targets, analysing concepts taught and identify their strengths and weaknesses.” (Teacher Focus Group-DITM)

4.6.3 Results of the Parent Questionnaire

4.6.3.1 Parents’ Demographics

The total number of parent participants from the four schools was 277. A Chi-square test (using Cramer’s V coefficient of independence) was performed for each demographic combination with schools to find whether parents’ distributions based on their demographics were similar across schools or significantly different.

Table (4.37) below presents the descriptive summary of parents’ gender broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. Overall, female parents represented the majority (71.8%) of the sample, while male parents represented 28.2%. For Gender, Cramer’s $V = 0.139$, $p = 0.148$, indicating that the four schools had similar distributions of females and males.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer’s V
Gender						.139
Female	199 71.8%	97 66.0%	42 79.2%	34 77.3%	26 78.8%	
Male	78 28.2%	50 34.0%	11 20.8%	10 22.7%	7 21.2%	

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 37): Descriptive Summary of Parents’ Gender [N = 277], broken down by School

Table (4.38) below shows that each school had its own age group distribution, Cramer’s $V = 0.186$, $p = 0.017$, indicating a significant weak relationship (or difference). That is, as seen

in Figure (4.19), the difference between schools was that AJA and CGS seemed to have younger parents (35-44 years).

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Age Group						.186*

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 38): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' Age Group [N = 277]

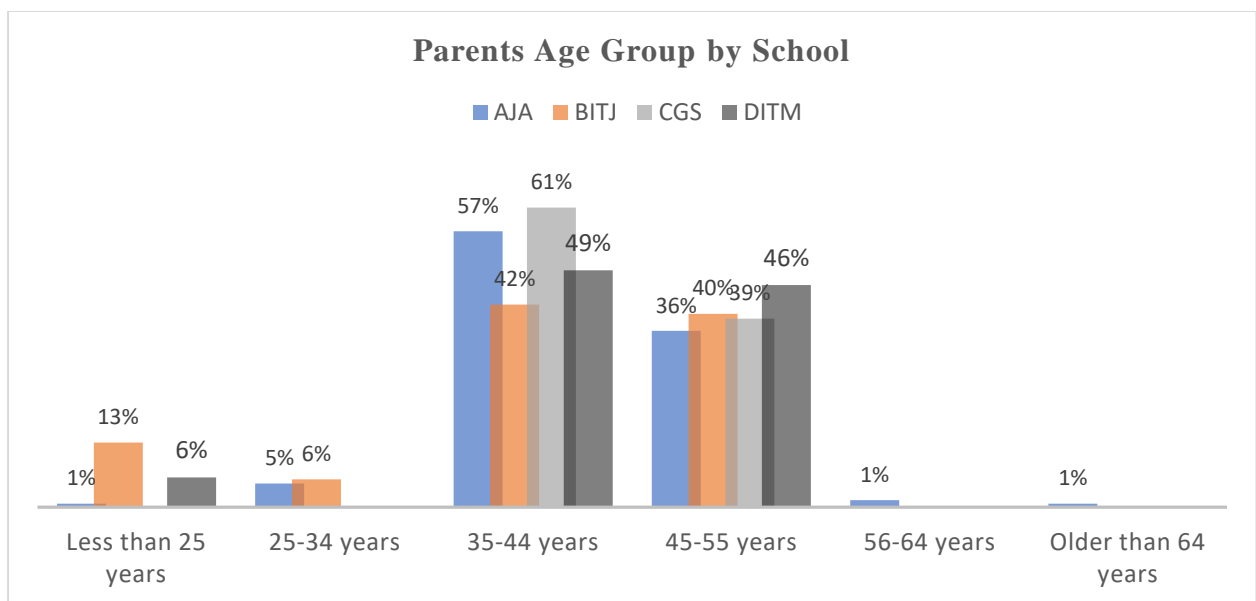


Figure (4. 19): Parents Age Group by School

Table (4.39) below shows that there was a significant difference between schools in terms of parents' education level, Cramer's V = 0.301, $p < 0.001$. As shown in Figure (4.20), the majority (69.8%) of parents in BITJ school and 54.5% of parents in DITM school have Bachelor's degrees or equivalent. On the other hand, 79.6% of parents in CGS have at least post-graduate degree/diploma or equivalent, with 45.5% having Master's degrees.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Education Level						.301**

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 39): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' Educational Level [N = 277]

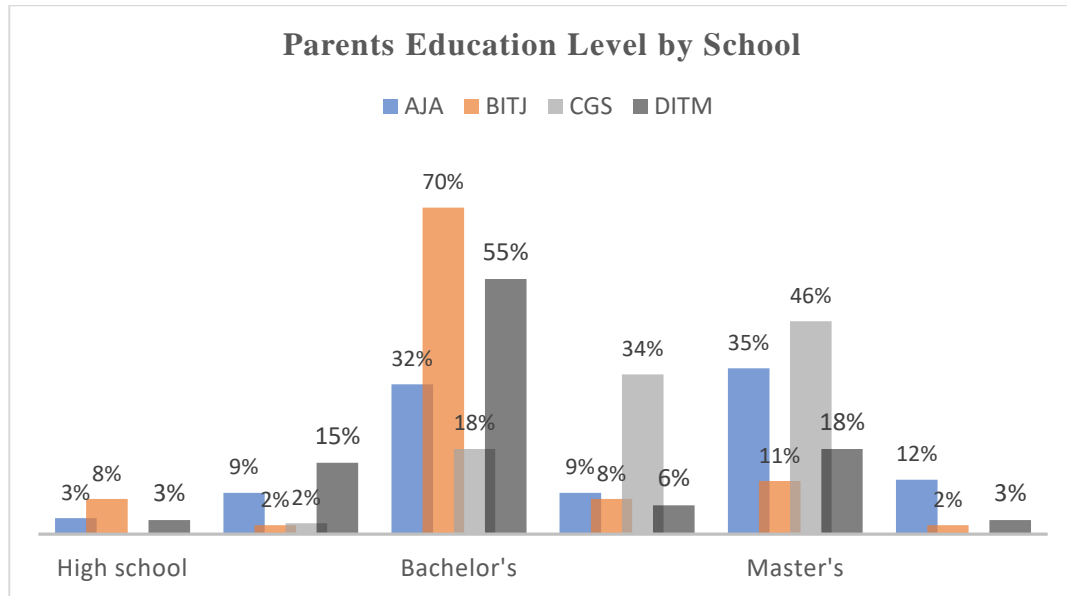


Figure (4. 20): Parents' Education Level by School

A significant difference was found, Cramer's V = 0.177, p = 0.008, in Table (4.40). As in Figure (4.21) the majority 71.4% of AJA parents were working. In BITJ, only 47.2% of parents were working. In CGS, 63.7% of parents were working, and in DITM only 48.5% were working.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Work Status						.177**

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 40): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' Work Status [N = 277]

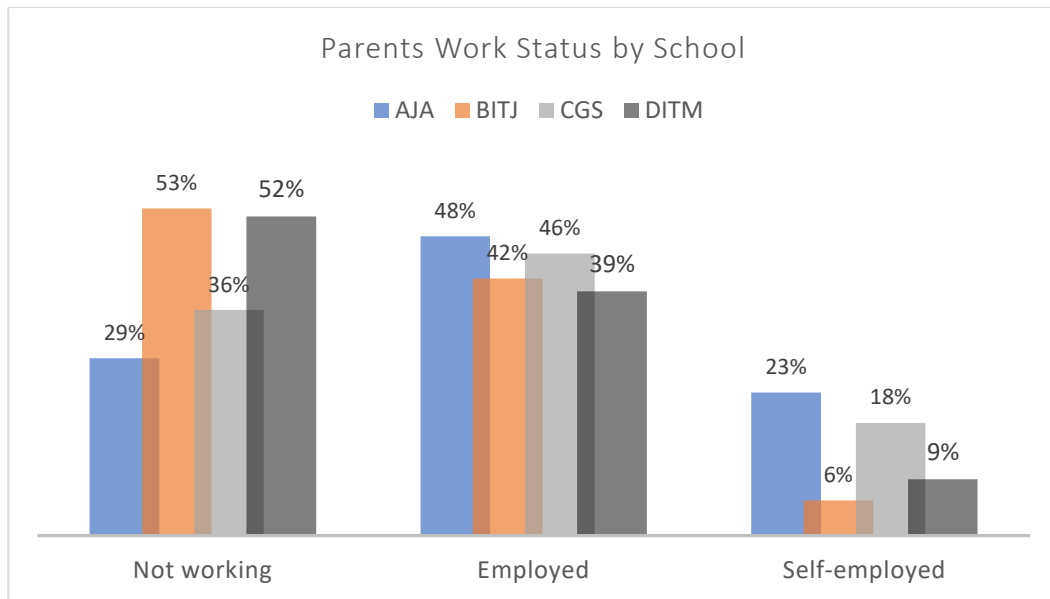


Figure (4. 21): Parents' Work Status by School

Table (4.41)'s Chi square (Cramer's V) of parents' total number of children attending school, broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. The majority (80.3%) of AJA parents had a lower number of children (below four). In BITJ, 60.4% of parents had more than three children. The vast majority 88.6% of CGS parents had less than three children. Finally, the majority 69.7% of DITM parents had less than four children.

Figure (4.22) shows all percentages.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Parent Total No. of Children Attending School						.320**

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 41): Chi square test (Cramer's V) for Parents' No. of Children Attending School [N = 277]

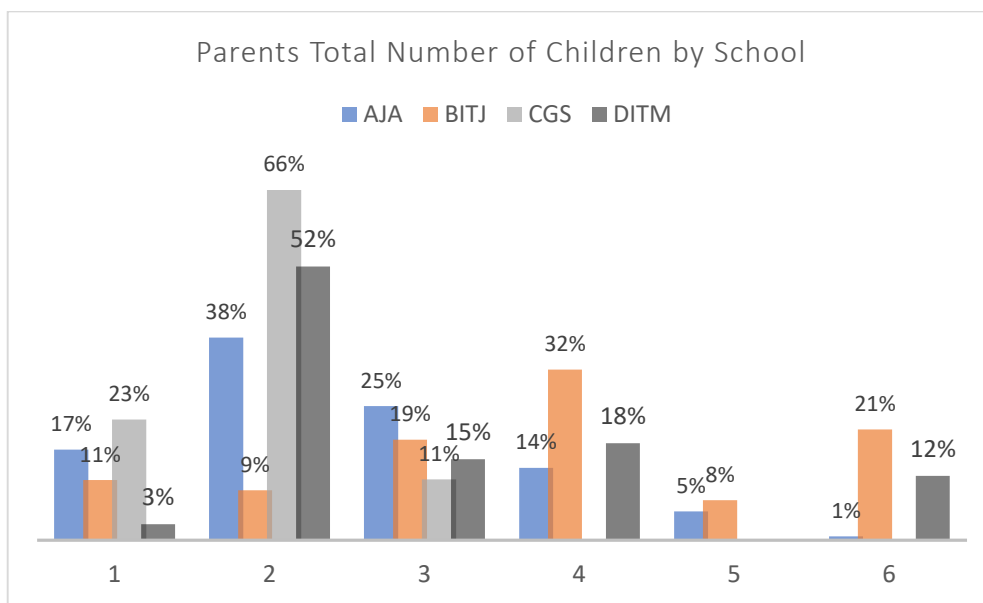


Figure (4. 22): Parents Total Number of Children Attending School by School

Table (4.42) below presents the descriptive summary of the grades of children parents have across schools, broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. There was a significant difference between schools. AJA parents had more children in lower than Grade 8, BITJ and CGS parents had more children between Grade 5 and Grade 10, while DITM parents had more children above Grade 7.

Demographics		Total	School				χ^2 Test
			AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Grade of Parent Child/Children							
	Lower than Grade 4	85 30.7%	63 42.9%	11 20.8%	5 11.4%	6 18.2%	.287**
	Grade 5	82 29.6%	42 28.6%	16 30.2%	18 40.9%	6 18.2%	.132
	Grade 7	82 29.6%	42 28.6%	16 30.2%	18 40.9%	6 18.2%	.132
	Grade 8	74 26.7%	30 20.4%	15 28.3%	18 40.9%	11 33.3%	.173*
	Grade 10	74 26.7%	30 20.4%	15 28.3%	18 40.9%	11 33.3%	.173*
	Grade 11	36 13.0%	12 8.2%	11 20.8%	3 6.8%	10 30.3%	.241**
	Grade 12	36 13.0%	12 8.2%	11 20.8%	3 6.8%	10 30.3%	.241**

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 42): Descriptive Summary of Grades of Children Parents Have Attending School by School [N = 277], broken down by School

Table (4.43) below presents the descriptive summary of the parents' sample representing their children's curriculum being studied at school, broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. All parents' children of BITJ and DITM study the American curriculum, while 90.9% of CGS parents' children study the Indian Certificate of Secondary Education (ICSE), and 93.2% of AJA parents' children study the International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum.

Demographics		Total	School				χ^2 Test
			AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Curriculum Parents' Child/Children Studying in School							
	American Curriculum	90 32.5%	4 2.7%	53 100.0%	-	33 100.0%	.967**
	ICSE	40 14.4%	-	-	40 90.9%	-	.945**
	International Baccalaureate (IB) Curriculum	141 50.9%	137 93.2%	-	4 9.1%	-	.902**
	UK/British Curriculum	10 3.6%	10 6.8%	-	-	-	.182*
	Other	3 1.1%	1 .7%	-	2 4.5%	-	.148

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 43): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Sample and the Curriculum their Children Studied in School [N = 277], broken down by School

Table (4.44) below presents the descriptive summary of parents' sample representing years of child/ren present in school, broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. For the variable 'Years Child has been in School', a one-way ANOVA was conducted instead of Chi-square since it is a scale variable, while all others demographics were categorical, therefore a Chi-square was used. On average, parents' children in BITJ and DITM schools have been studying for 10.70 and 10.15 years, respectively. Being significantly different, parents' children in AJA have been studying for 4.27 years, on average. While, CGS parents' children have been studying for 7.07 years, on average.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Years Child has been in School (ANOVA), (range from 1 to 14 years)	6.64 4.146	4.27 3.197	10.70 2.893	7.07 3.136	10.15 2.938	73.329**

Note: One-way ANOVA was performed to find significant differences between school in terms of 'Years Child has been in School' as it is a scale variable.

**. Significant at 0.05.*

***. Significant at 0.01.*

Table (4. 44): Descriptive Summary of Parents' – Years of Child Presence in School [N = 277], broken-down by School

Table (4.45) below presents the descriptive summary of parents' sample representing children participating in extracurricular activities, broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. Parents in AJA and CGS showed that their children have participated in extracurricular activities in school or outside school in this year or previous years, more than parents in BITJ and DITM.

		Total	School				χ^2 Test
			AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Demographics							
Child/ren Participation in Extracurricular Activity							
	Yes	224 80.9%	126 85.7%	35 66.0%	41 93.2%	22 66.7%	.258**

**. Significant at 0.05.*

***. Significant at 0.01.*

Table (4. 45): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Children Participating in Extracurricular Activity [N = 277], broken down by School

Table (4.46) below presents the descriptive summary of the parents' sample representing how often parents talk to their child/ren about their school day activities, broken down by school, in terms of frequencies and percentages. AJA and CGS parents are more likely to sit with their children to talk about their school day activities, more often than parents with children in BITJ and DITM schools.

Demographics		Total	School				χ^2 Test
			AJA (n=147)	BITJ (n=53)	CGS (n=44)	DITM (n=33)	Cramer's V
Talking with Child/ren about their School Day Activities							.193**
	Few times a month	24 8.7%	6 4.1%	11 20.8%	1 2.3%	6 18.2%	
	Few times a week	87 31.4%	49 33.3%	12 22.6%	16 36.4%	10 30.3%	
	Every day	166 59.9%	92 62.6%	30 56.6%	27 61.4%	17 51.5%	

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 46): Descriptive Summary of Parents Frequency of Talking to their Child/ren about their School Activities

4.6.3.2 Parents' Perceptions

The current section presents statistical analysis of parents' perceptions associated with positive education's impact on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy in terms of frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and relative agreement percentages; and graphically represented by stacked bar charts. The analysis presents the findings under the three constructs EW, SW, and ASE.

4.6.3.2.1 Parents' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Emotional Wellbeing

Table (4.47) below presents the descriptive summary for the EW items. It shows the overall (RA%) for EW was 82.2% with a mean score of 4.11 and standard deviation of 0.61, which indicates a high agreement level. RA for the ten items ranged from 79.2% to 85.4% with mean scores ranging from 3.96 to 4.27, indicating that for the ten items, parents were more likely to score 4 as 'Agree' or 5 as 'Strongly Agree'; parents' perceptions were graphically represented in Figure (4.23).

Emotional Wellbeing (EW)	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
1. Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy.	-	-	37	129	111	4.27	.682	85.4%
			13.4%	46.6%	40.1%			
2. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school.	-	2	47	127	101	4.18	.730	83.6%
		.7%	17.0%	45.8%	36.5%			
3. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school.	-	-	37	136	104	4.24	.672	84.8%
			13.4%	49.1%	37.5%			
4. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings.	-	6	70	130	71	3.96	.772	79.2%
		2.2%	25.3%	46.9%	25.6%			
5. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.	1	3	72	127	74	3.97	.777	79.4%
	.4%	1.1%	26.0%	45.8%	26.7%			
6. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties.	-	5	51	145	76	4.05	.728	81.0%
		1.8%	18.4%	52.3%	27.4%			
7. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	-	9	57	130	81	4.02	.794	80.4%
		3.2%	20.6%	46.9%	29.2%			
8. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person.	-	-	42	143	92	4.18	.673	83.6%
			15.2%	51.6%	33.2%			
9. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas.	-	5	47	121	104	4.17	.769	83.4%
		1.8%	17.0%	43.7%	37.5%			
10. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	-	7	56	138	76	4.02	.761	80.4%
		2.5%	20.2%	49.8%	27.4%			
Total	< .0 %	1.3 %	18.6 %	47.9 %	32.1 %	4.11	.610	82.2 %

Note: M = Mean, SDv = Standard Deviation, RA% = Relative Agreement Percent, calculated as mean/5.

Table (4. 47): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on EW Indicators

Figure (4.23) below shows that 87% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have made their child/ren happier and feeling safer at school. 85% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren have more chance of becoming better people. 82% parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped make their child/ren enjoy their life in school and become surer at expressing their opinions and ideas. 79% of parents agree/strongly agree that child/ren have become more resilient; while 77% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have made child/ren have more chances of developing goals/purpose in life. Finally, 76% and 73% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren become more trusted in school among teachers and friends, develop control over negative feelings, and like themselves, respectively.

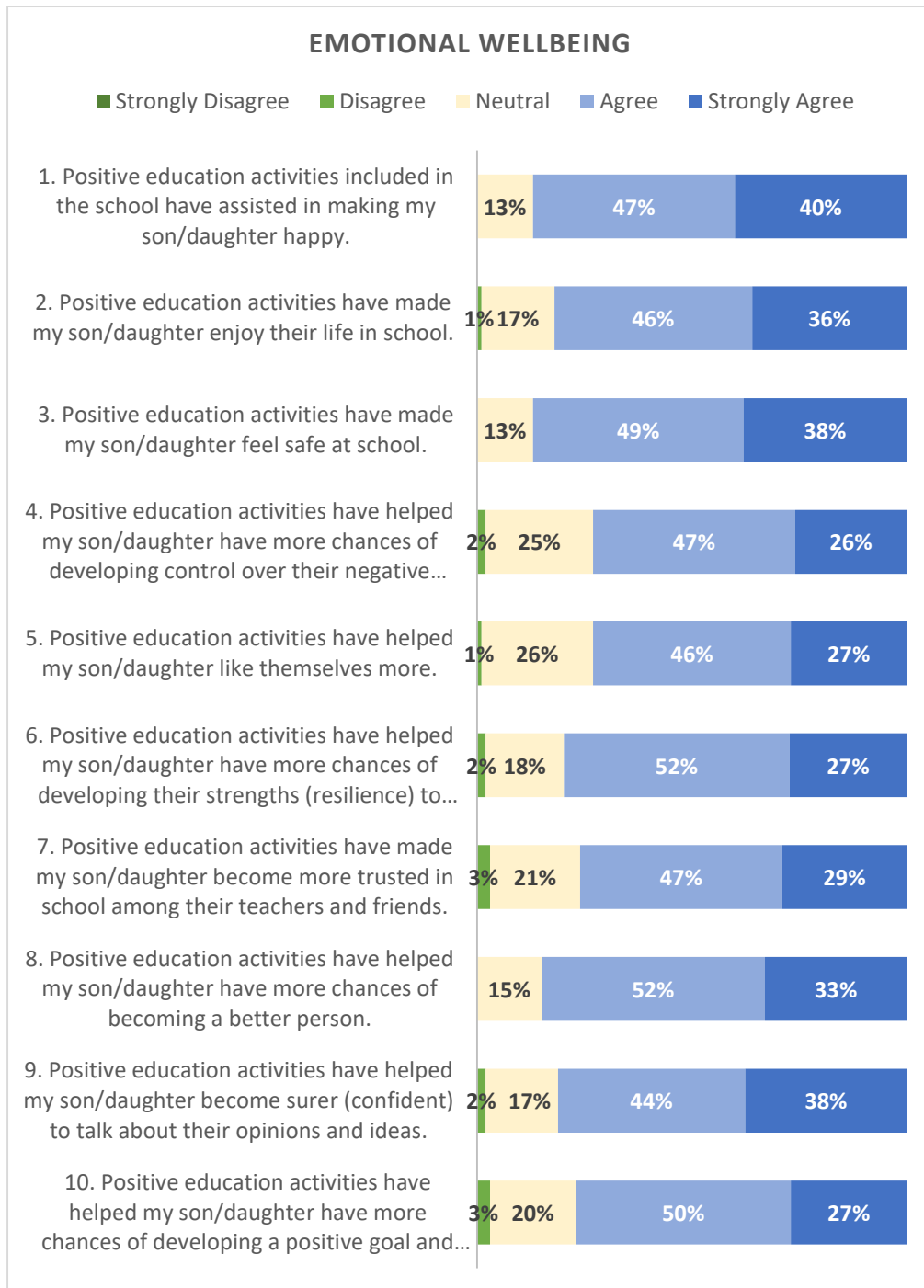


Figure (4. 23): Bar Chart of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on EW Indicators

Parents expressed that students felt safe at school, they discussed the campaign against bullying schools held as part of PEA and how this has helped them feel safe at supporting each other. Parents in schools discussed reduction in bullying due to introduction of positive education and positive education campaigns. They talked about the secure environment which

has made their children feel safer and happier at school. Parents also talked about how their children felt better about themselves after attending school due to the positive environment and relationships developed in school. They also said their kids have become more resilient and have talked about perseverance and resilience.

“I think the kids feel safe and many things have improved after positive education, kids feel secure, comfortable with their peers and volunteer to help them” (Parent Focus Group -AJA)

“In terms of resilience, it depends on child, my older son had learning difficulties but school through positive education have supported his mental health which supported him succeed academically and become resilient... he always comes and talks how he feels safe at school and how the school is a happy place...” (Parent Focus Group -AJA)

Parent of students discussed that students felt happy about the relationship they are building with teachers and their friends which is making them happy. Some parents expressed that they felt less stressed and have discussed how they trust their friends more after PEA introduction.

“I definitely feel my kids are happier than before with the emphasis the school puts on positive education” (Parent Focus Group-AJA/BITJ)

Some parents talked about how the positive school implementation has led to having their children discuss and share their feelings and how they have become better individuals. Parents stated that students come home and try to implement some of the character strengths. Parents expressed that PEA they have learned, have helped them control their negative feelings: *“my son has talked about counting to ten before taking action”*. Parents stated that *“my kids have become better at sharing their ideas and opinions... my children have now started to talk about goal setting and purpose in life after doing activities in class related to positive education” (Parent Focus Group- BITJ)*

4.6.3.2.2 Parents' Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Social Wellbeing

Table (4.48) below presents the descriptive summary for the SW items. It shows the overall SW RA is 80.2% with a mean score of 4.01 (SD = 0.601), which indicates a high agreement level. The RA values for the ten items of SW ranged between 78.4% and 82.6% with mean scores ranging between 3.92 and 4.13, which indicated that the majority of participating parents were more likely to score items either 4 as 'Agree' or 5 as 'Strongly Agree'. The percentages of parents' perceptions were graphically represented in Figure (4.24).

Social Wellbeing	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
11. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	-	9	63	147	58	3.92	.750	78.4%
		3.2%	22.7%	53.1%	20.9%			
12. Positive education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.	-	5	50	145	77	4.06	.727	81.2%
		1.8%	18.1%	52.3%	27.8%			
13. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.	-	4	66	133	74	4.00	.752	80.0%
		1.4%	23.8%	48.0%	26.7%			
14. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.	-	4	66	147	60	3.95	.715	79.0%
		1.4%	23.8%	53.1%	21.7%			
15. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	-	4	55	150	68	4.02	.709	80.4%
		1.4%	19.9%	54.2%	24.5%			
16. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	-	3	49	156	69	4.05	.684	81.0%
		1.1%	17.7%	56.3%	24.9%			
	1	-	67	147	62			79.4%

Social Wellbeing	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
17. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.	.4%		24.2%	53.1%	22.4%	3.97	.707	
18. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	-	5	53	139	80	4.06	.742	81.2%
		1.8%	19.1%	50.2%	28.9%			
19. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	-	8	38	140	91	4.13	.752	82.6%
		2.9%	13.7%	50.5%	32.9%			
20. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school).	-	5	66	149	57	3.93	.717	78.6%
		1.8%	23.8%	53.8%	20.6%			
Total	< .0%	1.7 %	20.7 %	52.5 %	25.1 %	4.01	.601	80.2 %

Note: M = Mean, SDv = Standard Deviation, RA% = Relative Agreement Percent, calculated as mean/5.

Table (4. 48): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on SW Indicators

Figure (4.24) below shows that 84% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have made their child/ren have more chances of developing friendships with their teacher. 81% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren have more social skills to deal with others and decision making. 80% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have allowed their child/ren feel included, and 79% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA given their child/ren more chances to contribute to school and community/develop friendships with friends. 75% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren become more respected by others/listened to/appreciated by others and have more chances of developing

friendship within the community. Finally, 74% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren feel at the same level as their friends.

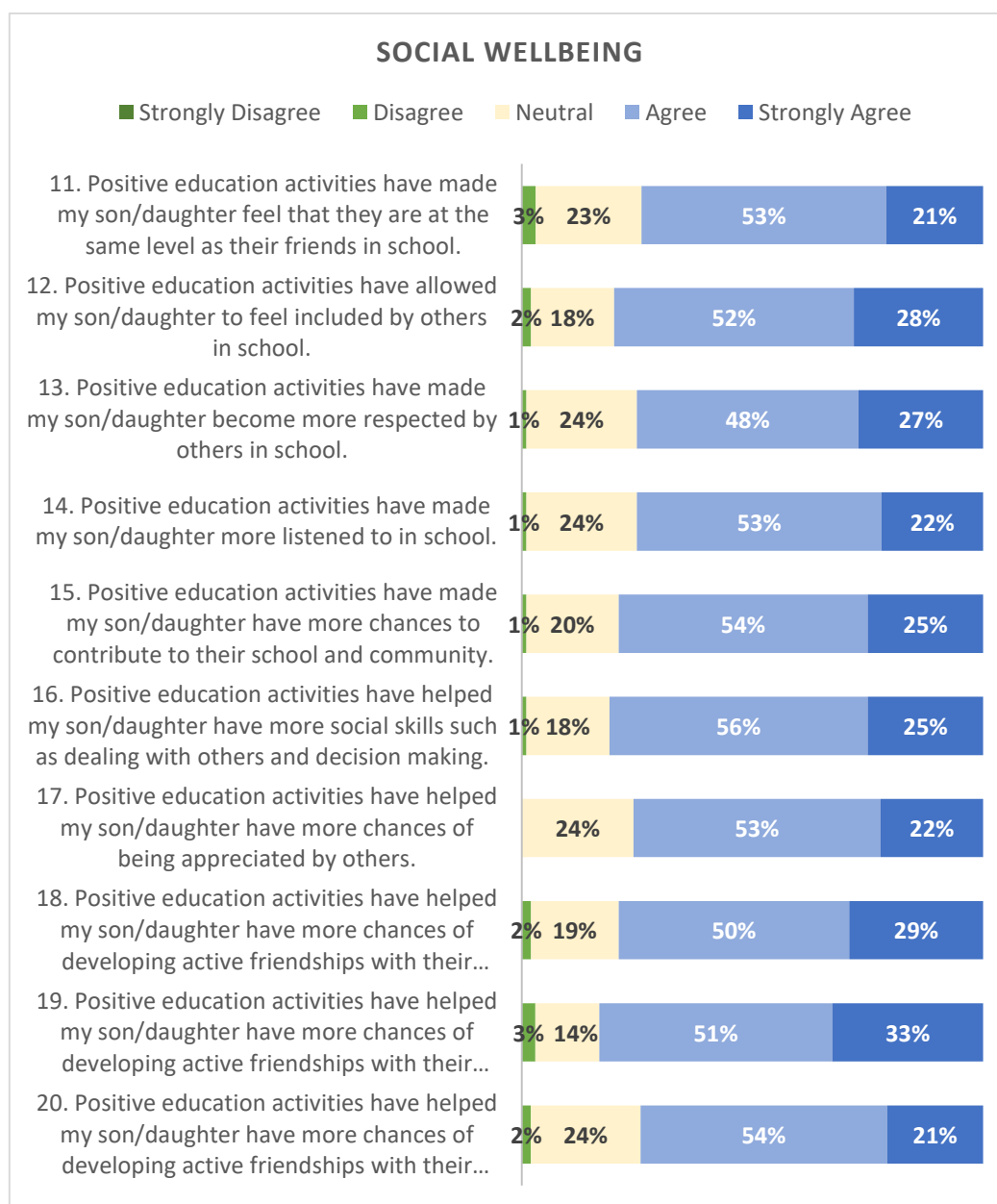


Figure (4. 24): Bar Chart of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on SW Indicators

Parents discussed how they felt that their children's overall social skills have improved. They said that students have developed strong relationship with their friends and teachers which has made them feel more confident, more accepted and listened to. One stated:

“My son has better social skills, I can see that he uses some of what he has learned in positive education to build his relationships with people around him and when dealing with us as family... he talks about respect and being respected and included. I listen to his conversations with his teacher and see that they have developed a strong relationship where he feels listened to.” (Parent Focus Group-AJA).

Parents also talked about how volunteering workshops held by the schools supported students in developing a strong urge to support the community; students had developed a group to support the school community of students, where

“students from the student community can approach any of these anonymous volunteers so the community does not know who they are. They give guidance to children facing a range of self-management and emotional and social issues [and]when it is beyond their level, adults step in.” (Parent Focus Group-AJA)

4.6.3.2.3 Parents’ Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Academic Self-Efficacy

Table (4.49) below presents the descriptive summary for ASE items. It shows the overall ASE (RA%) was 78.7% with a mean score of 3.94 and SD of 0.625, indicating high agreement of parents to ASE items; yet lower than EW and SW. RA values for the ten items measuring ASE ranged from 76.0% to 80.8%, with mean scores ranging from 3.80 to 4.04. This indicates that the majority of parents’ responses ranged between 4 as ‘Agree’ and 5 as ‘Strongly Agree’. The percentages of parents’ perceptions were graphically illustrated in Figure (4.25).

Academic Self-efficacy (ASE)	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
21. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community.	1 .4%	5 1.8%	57 20.6%	138 49.8%	76 27.4%	4.0 2	.76 6	80.4%
22. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	- 	3 1.1%	51 18.4%	154 55.6%	69 24.9%	4.0 4	.69 0	80.8%
23. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	- 	13 4.7%	80 28.9%	133 48.0%	51 18.4%	3.8 0	.79 0	76.0%
24. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can complete their assignments and tests.	1 .4%	12 4.3%	65 23.5%	143 51.6%	56 20.2%	3.8 7	.79 2	77.4%
25. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	2 .7%	10 3.6%	70 25.3%	137 49.5%	58 20.9%	3.8 6	.80 9	77.2%
26. Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.	1 .4%	9 3.2%	53 19.1%	142 51.3%	72 26.0%	3.9 9	.78 5	79.8%
27. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.	- 	9 3.2%	75 27.1%	133 48.0%	60 21.7%	3.8 8	.77 8	77.6%
28. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	- 	8 2.9%	54 19.5%	136 49.1%	79 28.5%	4.0 3	.77 3	80.6%
29. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in analysing the concepts taught.	- 	6 2.2%	71 25.6%	146 52.7%	54 19.5%	3.9 0	.72 7	78.0%
	-	9	64	136	68			79.0%

Academic Self-efficacy (ASE)	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SD v	RA%
30. Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.		3.2%	23.1%	49.1%	24.5%	3.95	.779	
Total	.2 %	3.0 %	23.1 %	50.5 %	23.2 %	3.9 4	.62 5	78.7 %

Note: M = Mean, SDv = Standard Deviation, RA% = Relative Agreement Percent, calculated as mean/5.

Table (4. 49): Table (4.39): Descriptive Summary of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators

Figure (4.25) below shows that 81% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren become more confident in how they apply what they have learnt. 78% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren become more confident in arguing their point of view. 77% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren become less isolated in school/interested in getting good grades/interested in attending school. While 74% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren more confident on reflecting on their strengths and weaknesses. 72% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have made child/ren more confident in completing their assignments and analysing concepts taught. 70% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren become more interested in getting good grades and more confident in solving real-life problems. Finally, 66% of parents agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped their child/ren be more confident in understanding complex material.

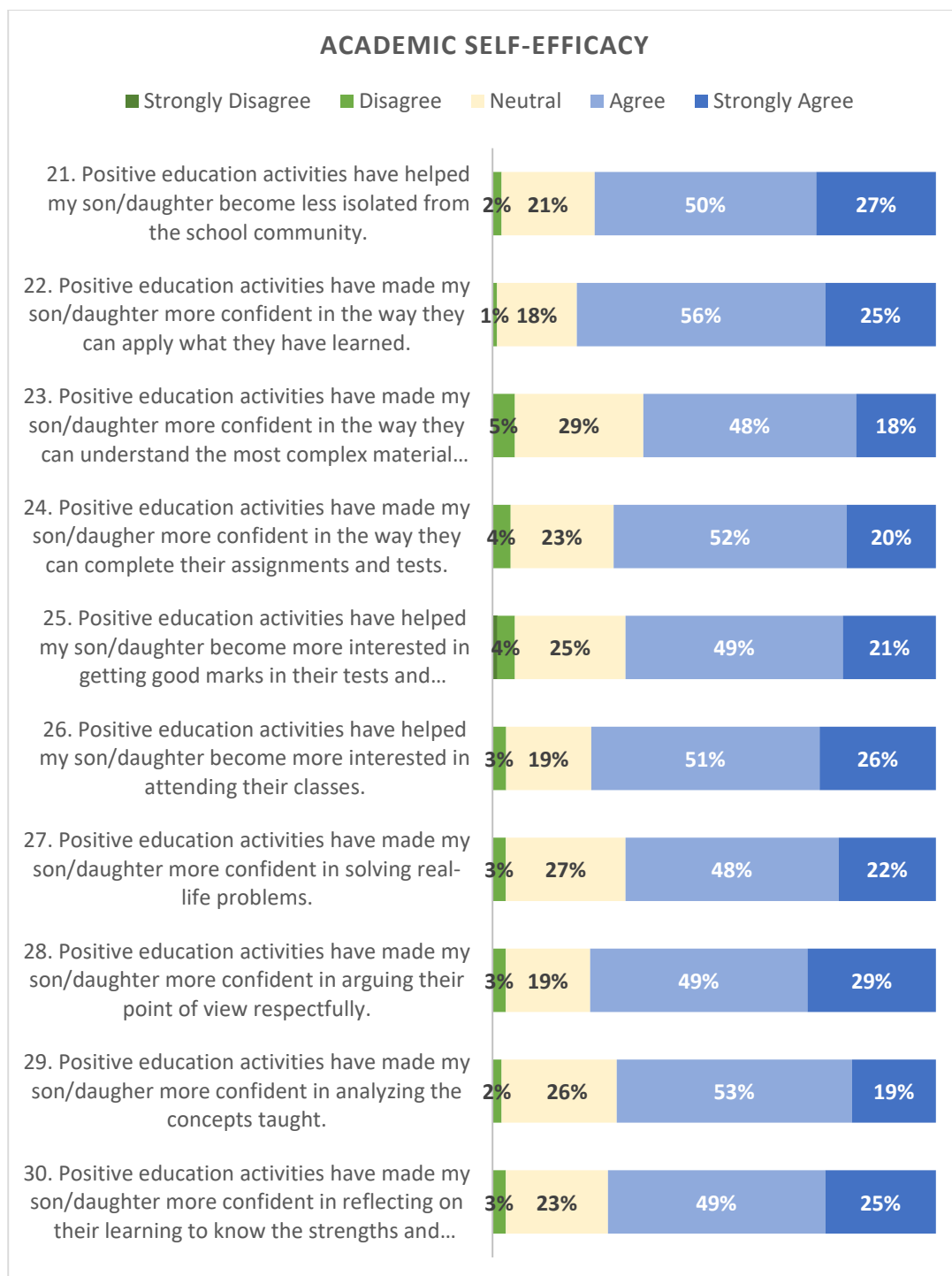


Figure (4. 25): Bar Chart of Parents' Perceptions about the Positive Education Activities Impact on ASE Indicators

Parents shared that after the implementation of positive education, their children became less isolated at home, school, and community. They shared “*their thoughts and had mature conversations about their feelings*” (Parent Focus Group- BITJ). Some parents talked about an increase in the confidence level of their children on how they tackle their academic

work, argue their point and apply what they have learned. Parents talked about their kids having a sense of responsibility and more motivation to handle and analyse complex problems, solve real-life problems.

“I feel it has impacted my kids in terms of their problem-solving skills, analysing question and learning as a whole ... you may not see results right away but the kids actually pick up and learn better when they feel better and happier.” (Parent Focus Group-AJA)

“My daughter talks about her weaknesses and discusses how she will improve, she reflects on her actions and learningshe is more opinionated and can argue her point of view... her confidence level on the personal and academic levels have improved.... she is motivated to improve and get good grades.” (Parent Focus Group – BITJ)

The above quotes show that students’ overall confidence levels, motivation, and determination to improve has improved. Parents stated their children are more motivated and willing to work harder to improve their grades.

4.6.4 Results of the Students Questionnaire

4.6.4.1 Students’ Demographics

Table (4.50) shows the nationalities of the participating students. AJA school had students from 19 countries among which Emirati is the prevailing nationality (38.2%), BITJ had students from eight countries among which Emirati is the prevailing nationality (94.4%), CGS had only Indian students, while DITM had only Emirati (94.9%) and Jordanian students (3.4%). The result of the Chi-square test revealed the significant difference among the four schools in terms of students’ nationality, Cramer’s $V = 0.705$, $p < 0.001$.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer’s V
Nationality						.705**
American	3	3	-	-	-	

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
	.6%	5.5%				
Australian	1 .2%	1 1.8%	-	-	-	
Belgian	2 .4%	2 3.6%	-	-	-	
British	2 .4%	2 3.6%	-	-	-	
Canadian	2 .4%	2 3.6%	-	-	-	
Croatian	1 .2%	1 1.8%	-	-	-	
Egyptian	3 .6%	1 1.8%	2 .6%	-	-	
Emirati	397 82.7%	21 38.2%	320 94.4%	-	56 94.9%	
English	3 .6%	-	3 .9%	-	-	
French	4 .8%	4 7.3%	-	-	-	
Indian	28 5.8%	1 1.8%	-	27 100.0%	-	
Iraqi	1 .2%	-	1 .3%	-	-	
Italian	1 .2%	1 1.8%	-	-	-	
Japanese	1 .2%	1 1.8%	-	-	-	
Jordanian	6 1.3%	4 7.3%	-	-	2 3.4%	
Lebanese	4 .8%	3 5.5%	1 .3%	-	-	
Pakistani	2 .4%	2 3.6%	-	-	-	
Romanian	1 .2%	1 1.8%	-	-	-	
Russian	1 .2%	-	1 .3%	-	-	
South African	1 .2%	1 1.8%	-	-	-	
Spanish	2 .4%	2 3.6%	-	-	-	
Sudanese	4 .8%	-	4 1.2%	-	-	
Swiss	2	2	-	-	-	

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
	.4%	3.6%				
Syrian	8 1.7%	-	7 2.1%	-	1 1.7%	

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 50): Descriptive Summary of Students Participants Nationalities [N = 480], broken down by School

Table (4.51) shows the gender distribution of the participating students. The proportions of girls to boys were not similar across the four schools, Cramer's $V = 0.250$, $p < 0.001$. That is, AJA, BITJ, and CGS had more girls than boys, while the contrary was true in DITM.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
Gender						.250**
Female/Girl	272 56.7%	34 61.8%	206 60.8%	18 66.7%	14 23.7%	
Male/Boy	208 43.3%	21 38.2%	133 39.2%	9 33.3%	45 76.3%	

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 51): Descriptive Summary of Student Participants' Gender [N = 480], broken-down by School

Table (4.52) shows the student participants age groups broken down by school. AJA school had participants from all age groups, and mostly from 9-18 years (94.6%), with one student less than 9 years old, and two students above 18 years. BITJ and CGS schools participated with students only 9-18 years old. DITM school's participating students were only 12-18 years old. These differences were confirmed by the Chi-square test result; where Cramer's $V = 0.183$, $p < 0.001$.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
Age Group						.183**
Less than 9 years	2 .4%	1 1.8%	1 .3%	-	-	
9 - 11 years	88 18.3%	11 20.0%	75 22.1%	2 7.4%	-	
12 - 14 years	237 49.4%	26 47.3%	157 46.3%	22 81.5%	32 54.2%	
15 - 18 years	151 31.5%	15 27.3%	106 31.3%	3 11.1%	27 45.8%	
Older than 18 years	2 .4%	2 3.6%	-	-	-	

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 52): Descriptive Summary of Student Participants' Age Group [N = 480], broken down by School

Table (4.53) shows the student participants' grades broken down by school. Significant differences exist among schools in terms of students' grades, Cramer's V = 0.194, $p < 0.001$. CGS and DITM schools had participating students from higher grades, while AJA and BITJ had participating students from lower grades.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
Grade						.194**
Lower than Grade 4 / Year 5	2 .4%	1 1.8%	1 .3%	-	-	
Grade 5 /Year 6 - Grade 7/ Year 8	182 40.0%	27 49.1%	157 46.3%	8 29.6%	-	
Grade 8/ Year 9 - Grade 10 / Year 11	215 44.8%	20 36.4%	132 38.9%	16 59.3%	47 79.7%	
Grade 11 / Year 12 - Grade 12/ Year 13	71 14.8%	7 12.7%	49 14.5%	3 11.1%	12 20.3%	

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 53): Descriptive Summary of Students Participants Grade [N = 480], broken down by School

Table (4.54) shows significant differences between schools in terms of the curriculum students were studying, Cramer's $V = 0.947$, $p < 0.001$. Students in AJA study only the International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum, BITJ and DITM participating students study the American curriculum, while CGS participating students study the ICSE and the International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum. Figure (4.26) illustrates the percentages of student participants' curriculums being studied.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
Curriculum being studied						.947**

*. Significant at 0.05.

**. Significant at 0.01.

Table (4. 54): Chi Square test (Cramer's V) for Student Participants' Curriculum Being Studied [N = 480], broken down by School

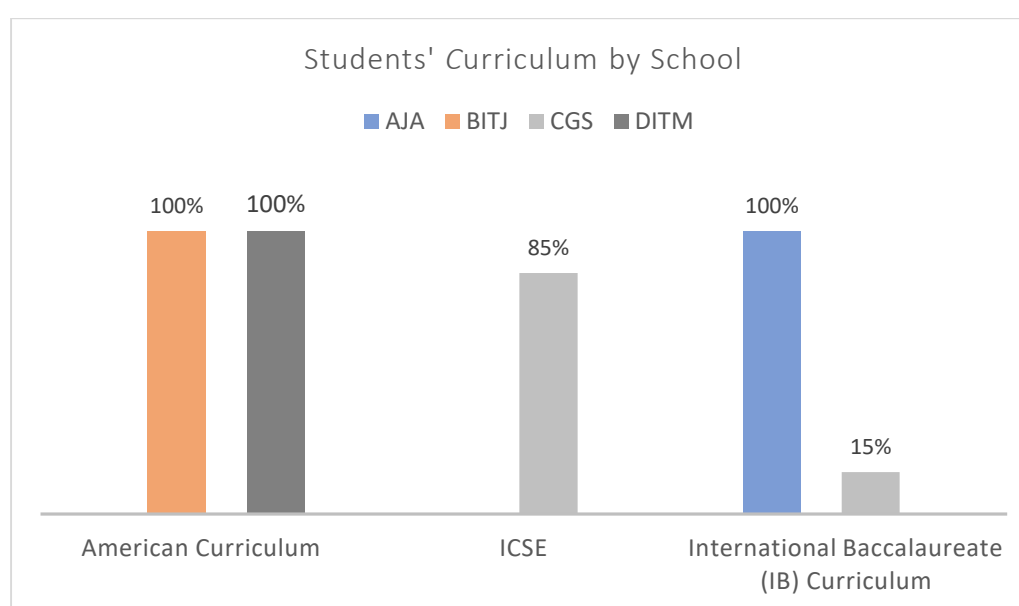


Figure (4. 26): Students' Curriculum by School

Table (4.55) below presents the student participants' number of years registered in school and the family member they are living with. One-way ANOVA was performed instead of the Chi-square test to find significant differences between the four schools in terms of the number of years students had been registered in their schools. The results showed that there

were significant differences between the four schools, $F(3,476) = 23.914$, $p < 0.001$. Post hoc multiple comparisons tests revealed that participating students from AJA had been registered for a significantly lower number of years ($M = 4.51$) than other schools (CGS $M = 7.11$, BITJ $M = 8.66$, and DITM $M = 9.27$). Another significant difference found was between CGS ($M = 7.11$) and DITM ($M = 9.27$). The Chi-square test result revealed that students across schools have significant differences in terms of who they live with, Cramer's $V = 0.125$, $p = 0.020$. More students in BITJ and DITM live with immediate family plus other relatives, more than students in AJA and CGS. However, overall, the majority of students in the four schools live with their immediate families.

Demographics	Total	School				χ^2 Test
		AJA	BITJ	CGS	DITM	Cramer's V
Years registered in current school (ANOVA)	8.17 3.831	4.51 3.138	8.66 3.671	7.11 3.672	9.27 3.398	23.914**
Living with:						.125*
Immediate family - parents and siblings	398 82.9%	53 96.4%	268 79.1%	26 96.3%	51 86.4%	
Immediate family plus other relatives - e.g., uncles, grandparents, etc...	78 16.3%	2 3.6%	67 19.8%	1 3.7%	8 13.6%	
Other	4 .8%	-	4 1.2%	-	-	

Note: One-way ANOVA was performed to find significant differences between school in terms of 'Years registered in current school' as it is a scale variable.

**. Significant at 0.05.*

***. Significant at 0.01.*

Table (4. 55): Descriptive Summary of Students Participants No. of Years in Current School and Family Member They are Living with [N = 480], broken down by School.

4.6.4.2 Student Perceptions

The current section presents statistical analysis of students' perceptions associated with positive education impact on students' SEWB and academic self-efficacy in terms of frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and relative agreement percentages;

graphically represented by stacked bar charts. The analysis presents the findings under the three constructs ‘Emotional Wellbeing’, ‘Social Wellbeing’, and ‘Academic Self-efficacy’.

4.6.4.2.1 Students’ Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Emotional Wellbeing

Table (4.56) below presents the descriptive summary for the students’ perceptions about the impact of PEI on EW. It shows the overall relative agreement (RA%) for EW, which was 73.8% with a mean score of 3.69 and standard deviation of 0.787, which indicates a general tendency of students’ agreement; however, it seems lower than teachers and parents’ agreement. RA for the ten items ranged from 69.2% to 76.4%, with mean scores ranging from 3.46 to 3.82. This may indicate that as some students provided lower scores like 1 as ‘Strongly Disagree’ and 2 as ‘Disagree’, the general agreement is pulled downward. Figure (4.27) shows how students’ responses were distributed as percentages in relation to EW.

	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SDv	RA%
1. Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making me happy.	17	27	118	222	96	3.74	.690	74.8%
	3.5%	5.6%	24.6%	46.3%	20.0%			
2. Positive education activities have made me enjoy my life in school.	15	32	133	180	120	3.75	1.006	75.0%
	3.1%	6.7%	27.7%	37.5%	25.0%			
3. Positive education activities have made me feel safe at school.	12	28	114	208	118	3.82	.954	76.4%
	2.5%	5.8%	23.8%	43.3%	24.6%			
4. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing control over my negative feelings	25	47	137	186	85	3.54	1.055	70.8%
	5.2%	9.8%	28.5%	38.8%	17.7%			
5. Positive education activities have helped me like myself more.	25	58	151	164	82	3.46	1.071	69.2%
	5.2%	12.1%	31.5%	34.2%	17.1%			
6. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing my	15	38	128	197	102	3.69	.993	73.8%
	3.1%	7.9%	26.7%	41.0%	21.3%			

Emotional Wellbeing	Likert Scale					Descriptive		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SDv	RA%
strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties.								
7. Positive education activities have made me become more trusted in school among my teachers and friends.	12	31	121	201	115	3.78	.964	75.6%
	2.5%	6.5%	25.2%	41.9%	24.0%			
8. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of becoming a better person.	17	31	122	199	111	3.74	.999	74.8%
	3.5%	6.5%	25.4%	41.5%	23.1%			
9. Positive education activities have helped me become surer (confident) to talk about my opinions and ideas.	17	46	130	180	107	3.65	1.038	73.0%
	3.5%	9.6%	27.1%	37.5%	22.3%			
10. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	18	27	128	190	117	3.75	1.007	75.0%
	3.8%	5.6%	26.7%	39.6%	24.4%			
Total	3.6%	7.6%	26.7%	40.1%	21.9%	3.69	.787	73.8%

Table (4. 56): Descriptive Summary of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on EW Indicators

Figure (4.27) above shows that 68% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped them feel safer at school. 66% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped them become happier and more trusted among teachers and friends. 64% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped them have more chances of becoming a better person and in setting positive goals. 63% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them enjoy life in school. 62% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them more resilient. 60% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made the become more confident to talk about their opinions. While 57% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped them control their negative feelings, 29% are neutral and 15% disagree/strongly disagree. 51%

of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped them like themselves more, while 31% are neutral, and 17% disagree/strongly disagree.

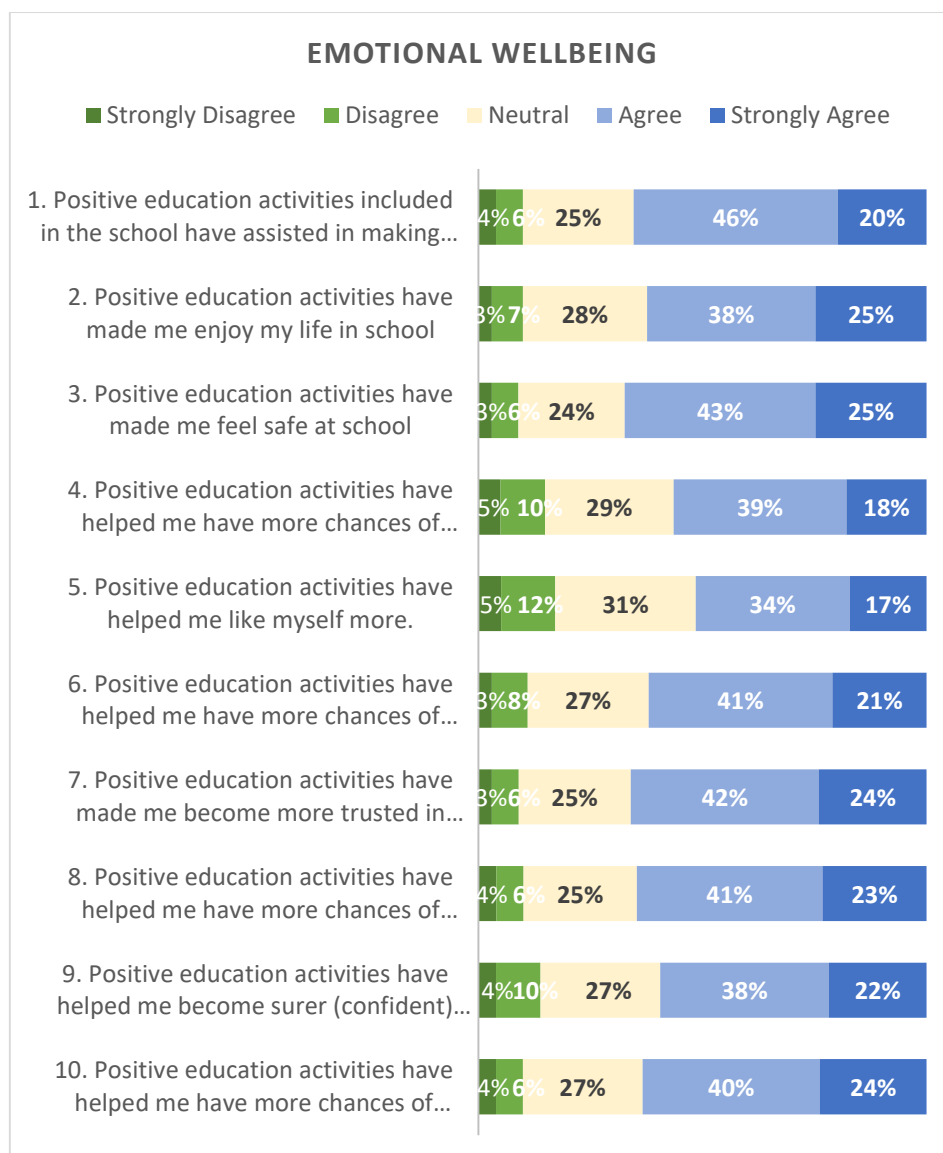


Figure (4. 27): Bar Chart of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on EW Indicators

Students presented a very positive outlook on PEI. Interviews with students confirmed the above findings. Students expressed becoming happier, enjoying school and becoming less stressed and more engaged because they felt their teachers cared about them and felt that the school did not only worry about their studies, but cared about their feelings:

“Teachers and the school talk to us more now, and listen to our opinion, and we feel safe talking to them about our feelings and like ourselves more. The school does not only talk about academics... teachers have become more flexible on the way of dealing with us and care about our feelings.” (Student Focus Group – BITJ/ triangulated by DITM).

Students talked about learning how to control their negative feelings and become resilient, through different activities as part of positive education. For example:

“Positive education has helped me indirectly become happier and to have a skill to make myself think positively.” (Student Focus Group-AJA)

“I mean, positive education helps us enjoy school and like our subject and make it more fun.” (Student Focus Group-AJA)

“We were actually more able to also organise our time with school work and family time.... It helped us feel less stressed because the school online, everyone is feeling panicked and stressed, so with positive education it actually made a difference and made us feel less stressed and even though we took it last term, we still use things that we learned from last term until now and hopefully until we graduate.” (Student Focus Group-DITM)

“Actually, I benefited by becoming more resilient; if I go through problems, I am able to bounce back, we are now able to be resilient with any problem we face, even in exams in school.” (Student Focus Group-BITJ)

Students discussed having done exercises that helped them control their negative feelings and being taught techniques to control their feelings. They felt that they have learned strategies for bouncing back from struggles and for coping with problems. Through sharing their experiences, they became happy about sharing their thoughts and finding solutions. Student stated that through sharing their experiences with others during positive education class, they learned that others may be going through the same problems as them and became less harsh on themselves, which helped them like themselves more, identify their strengths and weakness, develop their strengths, and set goals.

4.6.4.2.2 Students’ Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Social Wellbeing

Table (4.57) below presents the descriptive summary for the students’ perceptions about the impact of PEI on SW. It shows the overall RA% for SW was 73.3% and a mean score of 3.67 (SD = 0.792). The RA values ranged from 71.8% to 75.6% with mean scores ranging between 3.59 and 3.78, which indicated a general tendency of agreement.

	Likert Scale					Descriptives		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SDv	RA%
Social Wellbeing								
11. Positive education activities have made me feel that I am at the same level as my friends in school.	15	56	124	185	100	3.6	1.03	72.4%
	3.1%	11.7%	25.8%	38.5%	20.8%	2	7	
12. Positive education activities have allowed me to feel included by others in school.	12	45	111	207	105	3.7	.988	74.6%
	2.5%	9.4%	23.1%	43.1%	21.9%	3		
13. Positive education activities have made me become more respected by others in school.	23	33	142	186	96	3.6	1.03	72.4%
	4.8%	6.9%	29.6%	38.8%	20.0%	2	1	
14. Positive education activities have made me more listened to in school.	17	37	143	200	83	3.6	.975	72.2%
	3.5%	7.7%	29.8%	41.7%	17.3%	1		
15. Positive education activities have made me have more chances to contribute to my school and community.	14	27	141	217	81	3.6	.920	73.6%
	2.9%	5.6%	29.4%	45.2%	16.9%	8		
16. Positive education activities have helped me have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	21	36	112	219	92	3.6	1.00	73.6%
	4.4%	7.5%	23.3%	45.6%	19.2%	8	8	
17. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of being appreciated by others.	20	38	138	181	103	3.6	1.03	72.8%
	4.2%	7.9%	28.8%	37.7%	21.5%	4	4	
18. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my friends.	15	38	114	185	128	3.7	1.02	75.6%
	3.1%	7.9%	23.8%	38.5%	26.7%	8	7	
19. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my teachers.	16	24	140	195	105	3.7	.968	74.6%
	3.3%	5.0%	29.2%	40.6%	21.9%	3		
20. Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my community (inside and outside the school).	20	43	138	193	86	3.5	1.01	71.8%
	4.2%	9.0%	28.8%	40.2%	17.9%	9	6	
Total	3.6%	7.9%	27.1%	41.0%	20.4%	3.67	.792	73.3%

Table (4. 57): Descriptive Summary of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on SW Indicators

Figure (4.28) below shows that 72% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have given them more chances to contribute to school community. 66% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have given more chances of developing active friendships. 65% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have helped them feel more included by others in school and develop social skills like dealing with others and making decisions. 63% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA has helped them develop relationships with their teachers. 60% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them feel at the same level as their friends in school. 59% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them become more respected by others, while 30% of students are neutral and 12% disagree/strongly disagree. Also, 50% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them become more listened to in school with 30% of students feeling neutral about this and 12% of students disagreeing/strongly disagreeing. Similarly, 59% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have given them more chances of being appreciated by others, with 29% being neutral about the latter and 12% disagree/strongly disagreeing with this statement. Finally, 58% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA provided them more chances to develop active friendships with the community, while 29% were neutral, and 13% disagree/strongly disagree.

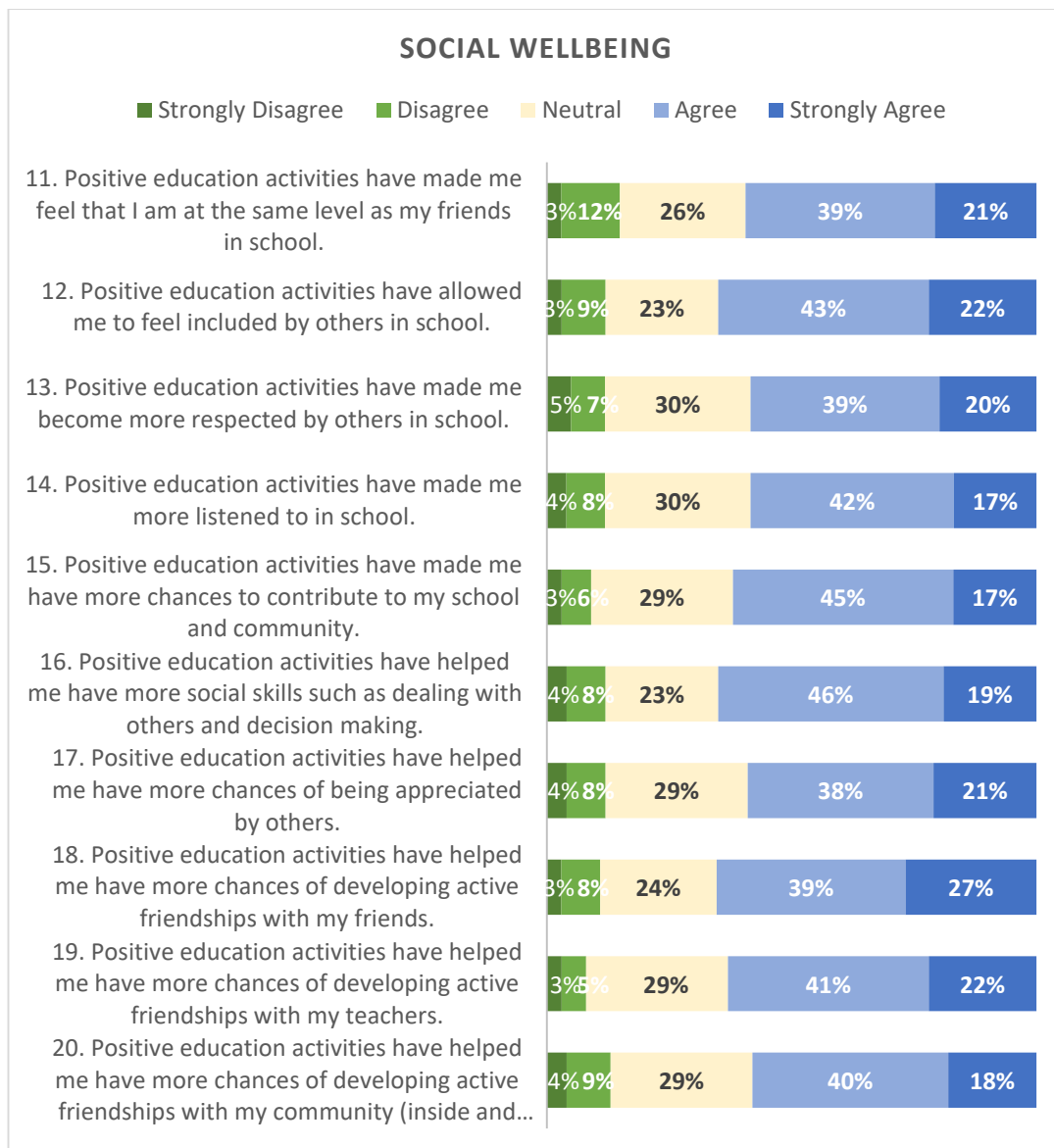


Figure (4. 28): Bar Chart of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on SW Indicators

Students confirmed that positive education implementation has helped in improving their relationships with their teachers, friends, and family. Students expressed an increase in the relationships they have among their teachers and friends due to the new discussions being forced as part of PEA. They share more with their friends and teachers and have more ways in common to deal with similar situations which has caused their relationships to be stronger and to develop more relationships. They feel that their teachers have become more approachable, and that they can discuss openly many issues that they used to struggle with discussing before. This has helped their social skills and communication skills. They also stated that since they

have developed better relationships with their friends they feel at the same level as their friends; included, respected, appreciated and listened to in school. For example:

“My relationship with my teachers has always been good, but since using positive education I feel that it’s much better - it moved from good to almost excellent” (Student Focus Group- AJA)

“Positive education did make me appreciate all my family more and made me appreciate them being around me every minute of being alive, and actually helped us cope with the problems that exist in our family and friends and we were able to cope and find a solution... this has helped me feel included and respected in school.” (Student Focus Group-BITJ)

“I think it also made our relationships with our friends better because we got to hear their experiences and how they cope with everything ...which helped us come [to] listen.” (Student Focus Group-DITM)

Also, students discussed that they want the school to include more positive education activities in the school and that PEA has given them the opportunities to volunteer and become involved in positive education initiatives and decision making:

“When positive education was introduced, I joined the student council and we prepared wellbeing week and workshops in school...I really like that and all my friends wanted to contribute ...I can say this has started to increase because of positive education.” (Student Focus Group- BITJ)

4.6.4.2.3 Students’ Perceptions about Positive Education Impact on Academic Self-Efficacy

Table (4.58) below presents the descriptive summary for the students’ perceptions about the impact of PEI on ASE. It shows the overall relative agreement (RA%) for ASE was 73.6% with a mean score of 3.68 and SD of 0.792, indicating a general tendency of agreement. RA values ranged from 70.8% to 75.4%, with mean scores ranging from 3.54 to 3.77. A graphical illustration is shown in Figure (4.29).

Academic Self-efficacy	Likert Scale					Descriptives		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SDv	RA%
21. Positive education activities helped me become less isolated from the school community.	20	37	144	204	75	3.58	.981	71.6%
	4.2%	7.7%	30.0%	42.5%	15.6%			
22. Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can apply what I have learned.	18	30	139	187	106	3.69	1.003	73.8%
	3.8%	6.3%	29.0%	39.0%	22.1%			
23. Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can understand the most complex material presented by my teachers.	14	40	125	205	96	3.69	.979	73.8%
	2.9%	8.3%	26.0%	42.7%	20.0%			
24. Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	17	43	123	200	97	3.66	1.011	73.2%
	3.5%	9.0%	25.6%	41.7%	20.2%			
25. Positive education activities have helped me become more interested in getting good marks in my tests and assignments.	17	34	121	179	129	3.77	1.035	75.4%
	3.5%	7.1%	25.2%	37.3%	26.9%			
26. Positive education activities have helped me become more interested in attending my classes.	26	32	120	192	110	3.68	1.066	73.6%
	5.4%	6.7%	25.0%	40.0%	22.9%			
27. Positive education activities have made me more confident in solving real-life problems.	23	49	144	176	88	3.54	1.053	70.8%
	4.8%	10.2%	30.0%	36.7%	18.3%			
28. Positive education activities have made me more confident in arguing my point of view respectfully.	16	36	126	201	101	3.70	.992	74.0%
	3.3%	7.5%	26.3%	41.9%	21.0%			
29. Positive education activities have made me more confident in analysing the concepts taught.	16	21	142	209	92	3.71	.938	74.2%
	3.3%	4.4%	29.6%	43.5%	19.2%			
30. Positive education activities have made me more confident in reflecting on my learning to know the strengths and weaknesses I have.	13	36	118	197	116	3.76	.989	75.2%
	2.7%	7.5%	24.6%	41.0%	24.2%			

	Likert Scale					Descriptives		
	SD (1)	D (2)	N (3)	A (4)	SA (5)	M	SDv	RA%
Academic Self-efficacy								
Total	3.8 %	7.5%	27.1 %	40.6 %	21.0 %	3.6 8	.792	73.6 %

Table (4. 58): Descriptive Summary of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on ASE Indicators

Figure (4.29) below shows that 65% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them more confident in reflecting on their learning and knowing their weaknesses and strengths. 64% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them more interested in getting good marks. 63% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them more confident in the way they understand things they are taught/interested in attending classes/confident in arguing their point of view/confident in analysing concepts taught. 62% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made confident in completing their assignments. 61% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned. 59% of students agree/strongly agree that PEA have made them become less isolated from the school community, while 30% of students are neutral and 12% disagree/strongly disagree with the latter statement. Finally, 56% of students agree/disagree that PEA have helped them become more confident in solving real-life problems, 30% are neutral and 15% disagree/strongly disagree.

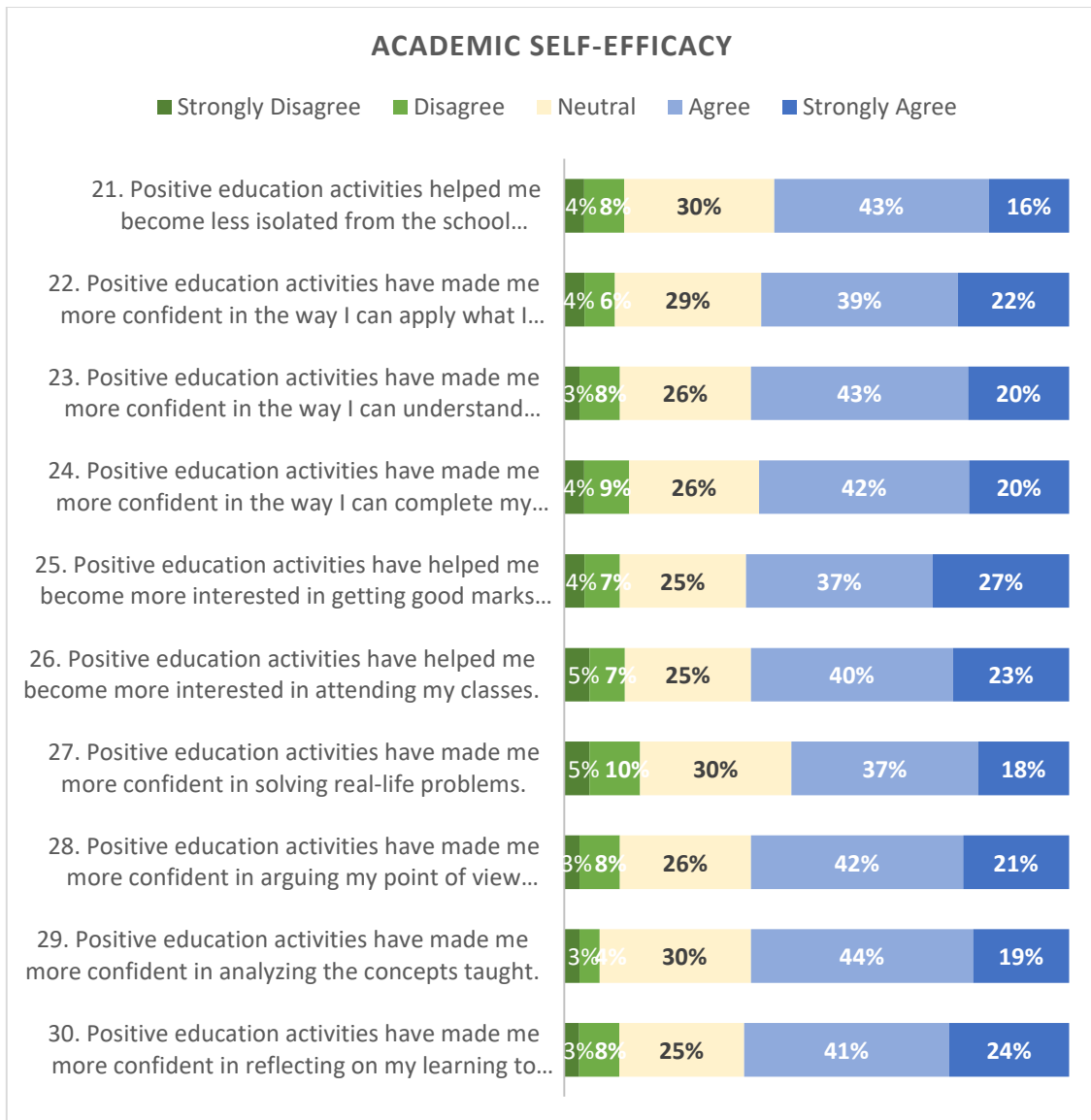


Figure (4. 29): Bar Chart of Students' Perceptions about the Positive Education Impact on ASE Indicators

Students saw that PEA have contributed to improving their study skills. They stated that their state of mental health has improved and has allowed them to become happy, which has led them to concentrate more on finishing their assignments on time and taking the time and putting in the effort to understand their lessons and persevere. They also discussed that PEA have helped them on wanting to do better and improve their grades. They felt that they can do more things than before and felt more self-confidence and self-reliance. They discussed that they have the positivity to improve their grades and finish their assignments, tests and their work.

“After doing positive education we noticed that those small things made a huge difference in our performance and our feelings, and for me personally, I feel like I finish my work real quick, like I have the energy to finish my work. I have the positivity to understand the lessons easily, it stays as a permanent thing and will stay in our future.” (Student Focus Group -BITJ)

“I definitely do not like the positive education class, but it helped me enjoy the school overall because it made me get better grades and like myself, to do my assignments.” (SFG-AJA)

Students talked about improving their confidence, perseverance and resilience and their belief in solving and analysing real-life complex problems. They said they are able to express their opinions and argue their point of view easily because they have more opportunities to discuss freely in positive education classes:

“I feel it helps me in my academic [work]; like perseverance and resilience teach you even if it is tough you should always go on and positive education strengths give you confidence to do better in all aspects of your study and a lot of things in life.” (Student Focus Group-DITM)

“When we talk in class, it gives us the opportunity to practise how to talk freely and express ourselves and argue our points.” (Student Focus Group – DITM)

4.7 Summary of RQ#3 Findings

The questionnaire, interview and focus group results show that teachers, parents and students perceived that positive education implementation had a positive impact on emotional wellbeing in terms of making students feel happy, safe, become more resilient, increase their ability to control their negative feelings, like themselves more, become more trusted among teachers and friends, become better persons, become more confident and develop goals and purpose in life. The impact of positive education implementation on social wellbeing was perceived to be less than the impact on emotional wellbeing. However, overall teachers, parents and students believed that positive education implementation had positive impacts on having students feel the same level as their friends, feel included by others, become more respected by others in school, feel more listened to in school, students feeling that they have more chances

to contribute to their school and community, students having more social skills like dealing with others and becoming better at decision making, helping students have more chances of being appreciated by others and developing active friendships with friends, teachers and community. Finally, in terms of impact on academic self-efficacy, the agreement of the perceived impact was seen to be less than the impact perceived in terms of emotional and social wellbeing. Teachers, parents and students agreed that positive education implementation impacted students in becoming less isolated from the school community, becoming more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned and dealing with the complex material presented by their teachers, students completing their assignments and tests, students becoming more interested in attending their classes, solving real-life problems, arguing their point, analysing the concepts taught, reflecting on their learning, and knowing their weaknesses and their strengths. Teachers had the highest relative agreement with and perception of the relative impact of positive education implementation on emotional and social wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, compared to parents and students.

4.8 Chapter Summary

The current chapter has presented the research findings for all three questions of the research. The first question addressed constructs associated with implementation using qualitative data. The implementation addressed many international, national, local, and educational policies which are associated with wellbeing and positive education. The first question also discussed implementation in terms of five constructs; in all five constructs evidence was presented to support each subconstruct from the document analysis and interviews results. Overall, in terms of PEI, it is evident that on the policy level there is no mandate to teach positive education. PEI has been encouraged on all levels to support the wellbeing initiatives and policies, but it is not clearly mandated within any law. In terms of the school level, it is supported at the strategic level, but policies need to be identified to mandate

its implementation within the school. On the organisational, intervention level, it is supported by all parties, however, implementation is ad hoc and needs adaptation, PD for teachers need to be developed, and the conceptualisation of positive education needs to be more defined. Students and teachers enjoy positive education, and interview data supports PEI.

In terms of question #2 of the study examining the extent of the impact on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, there is variable impact; in terms of wellbeing one year's data post of the impact shows significant increase in medium and low levels associated with 'Life Satisfaction' and 'Perseverance'. In terms of the other indicators there are variable increases and decreases in variables, most of which are not significant. In terms of academic self-concept there is an increase in the DSWC indicators for high/medium level, but for other indicators impacting academic self-efficacy, there is an increase in low/medium levels and a decrease in the high level of indicators pertaining to 'Cognitive Engagement' and 'Engagement to Flow'. In terms of the PASS assessment results, there are also varying significant changes within the indicators. Indicators associated with engagement and feelings towards school and self-efficacy for regulation have increased, while some indicators associated with academic self-efficacy have decreased. In terms of looking at the PEI impact on SEWB and academic self-efficacy using teachers', parents', and students' questionnaire results (RQ#3); findings showed that there was high relative agreement with the impact of PEI on EW. SW and ASE. However, teachers scored higher in their RA compared to parents and students. The findings of the questionnaire were triangulated with evidence from interviews.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations and Limitations of the Study

Introduction

The current chapter presents a discussion of the study's findings outlined in Chapter 4, conclusions, recommendations, and limitations of the study. The chapter's significance lies in outlining the new insights and understandings that emerged from the main findings associated with positive education implementation and impact on SEWB and academic self-efficacy within private K-12 schools in Dubai. The next section provides detailed discussion and synthesis pertinent to each research question.

5.1 Discussion

The following section presents findings related to research questions one, two and three. It also outlines the findings for each research question in line with the study's theoretical framework and relevant literature reviewed.

5.1.1 Research Question #1 Discussion: Implementation of Positive Education

This section discussion addresses findings central to the first research question outlined below:

RQ #1: How is positive education implemented within the school in K-12 private schools in Dubai?

Positive education implementation involves whole institutions which encompass contextual, intervention, organisational, providers, and recipients' constructs. In this section, the researcher discusses the findings related to implementation constructs in line with the literature and theoretical framework. The findings on the implementation constructs level identify many parities and strengths of the implementation of positive education in Dubai's K-12 private school context. The document analysis of the 14 policy and initiatives documents, strategic plans, lesson plans, schools' websites, and KHDA identified many gaps and strengths

associated with the adoption of positive education. Document analysis of policies, strategic plans, lesson plans and initiatives produce a clear picture of the current positive education implementation practices and policy status:

- **Education as a significant indirect enabler for positive education and wellbeing**

Results showed that on the international, national, and local levels, policies and initiatives promoted education as key in the development of countries and encouraged the development of a wellbeing framework as part of the education in schools. Also, these policies did not provide a direct link between child protection, wellbeing, and positive education. The introduction of policies showed that they were mainly promoting education, which has led countries to develop educational systems that has led to the development of holistic education, indirectly enabling positive education and wellbeing. One main idea of the World Culture Theory is the responsive expansion of education due to the ‘contemporary world system’ rather than the individual country’s social, economic, and political characteristics (Carney, Rappleye & Silova, 2012; Keita 2015). The latter shows that various educational policies at the local level were driven by international forces. In the case of positive education, most international policies associated with wellbeing and child protection do not provide a direct link to positive education. These policies stress the importance of education but are not directly linking positive education to wellbeing. Despite having policies and initiatives that promote education, most educational policies did not explicitly mention positive education and wellbeing. For example, ‘The National Agenda’ calls for first-rate education system, however, it fails to identify indicators related to student wellbeing enhancement, ‘The UAE School Inspection Framework does not explicitly identify the teaching of positive education. It focuses on personal development through students’ behaviours, attitudes, relationships, safety, and healthy lifestyles. Students’ attitudes are manifested through self-discipline and self-reliance. Social development encompasses the interaction of students with people in their communities and

other cultures. Therefore, the framework does not provide the multiple understanding of student wellbeing as stated in various theories. These theories include Diener's Subjective Wellbeing Model which depicts that subjective wellbeing reflects the individual's own affective and cognitive evaluations of life satisfaction, and negative and positive emotions (Silva et al., 2015). The framework represents student achievement and social development as two separate sets. However, the current study aims to check the impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, in line with previous studies which emphasise the intertwined nature of wellbeing with life satisfaction in social, emotional, and academic self-efficacy areas (OECD, 2018; Seligman, 2011).

- **Introduction of IPEN has led to an increasing positive education grounding at the international and local levels**

Findings in this study have shown that the introduction of the IPEN in 2014 was a driving force for the promotion of positive education on the global level. From the years 2014-2020, the 11 analysed national and local initiatives and policy documents were created. In earlier policies there was a lack of reference to positive education, however, recently adopted initiatives' policies explicitly reference positive education. On the local Dubai level, the launch of 'Dubai Plan 2021' in 2014 initiated supporting initiatives towards the explicit promotion of positive education. This was followed by KHDA being affiliated with IPEN in the MENA region which played a key role in the promotion of positive education in Dubai and the UAE. Three of the latest national policies that were analysed, 'The National Programme for Happiness', 'The UAE Centennial 2071', and the 'National Wellbeing Strategy 2031', show the forward-thinking towards positive education and ground the notion for its introduction to support the wellbeing of individuals in the society. These policies emphasise the Dubai and UAE governments' shifting role towards achieving happiness and positivity for its citizens. The latter aligns with international initiatives taken by other nations to search for other methods

to assess individuals' quality of life in additions to the use of GDP. The GDP metric which has been historically considered the core cumulative measure of a country's wellbeing, is now being contested by many researchers as being inadequate to inform regulators on how individuals are feeling about their lives from a non-monetary point and how 'well' they are faring (Aitken, 2019). Therefore, alternative methods have been identified to enable people and communities to be more satisfied and happier with their lives (Aitken, 2019). Also, this connects with the World Culture Theory introduced earlier which describes mass policy influence in education due to the global expansion of education, thus, building one educational view based on world society (Carney, Rappleye & Silova, 2012; Keita, 2015). Within the UAE Centennial 2071, the communities' pillar aspires towards communities with happier shared values. In this pillar, wellbeing involves positivity and happiness, work engagement, improvements in relationships towards family and others, productive citizenship, safety, and acceptance and respect. The dimensions related to wellbeing within this policy align to the model wellbeing PERMA (Seligman, 2011), signalling the five happiness building blocks: positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment.

Policies related to 'The National Programme for Happiness' and the 'National Wellbeing Strategy 2031' engage the community of schools through the Well Schools Network. This network aims to enhance skills and good practices in terms of positive education and wellbeing in schools, however, there is no clear direction of how this will be done. Also, this network is voluntary in nature, and there is no guarantee all private schools in Dubai will join this network. Although there has been an increasing support for the implementation of positive education into Dubai K-12, the main driving force for positive education adoption within schools has been the introduction of the DSWC in 2017 by KHDA. This introduction showed Dubai's policy alignment with the global shift towards embracing wellbeing, which drove many private schools to adopt positive education to improve DSWC results, which was confirmed in the

current study by school senior leadership members. The latter aligns with the view that globalisation and global forces impact the design and content of policies, due to the multi-level relationships among countries (Howlett, 2019) associated with the World Culture Theory. The push for DSWC implementation and introduction of the Well School Network aligns with the institutional theory introduced in the literature. Here KHDA's introduction of DSWC and 'The National Programme for Happiness' and the 'National Wellbeing Strategy 2031' engaging the community of schools through Well Schools Network has encouraged schools to adopt positive education. These factors can be considered a 'coercive and mimetic isomorphic' mechanism (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020). It is considered a coercive isomorphic because DSWC originated from regulatory influence of the KHDA for inspection purposes. It is considered a mimetic isomorphism because DSWC is being used to benchmark schools in terms of wellbeing and align their performance with other organisations (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020). Interviews with school leaders and teachers discussed the support from KHDA in sharing best practices related to positive education between schools, which can be seen as a form of 'normative isomorphic' mechanism associated with institutional theory (Aksom & Tymchenko, 2020).

- **Absence of standardised local and school policies related to positive education implementation**

Dubai and the UAE did not mandate a standalone positive education implementation policy. There was no policy like implementation of the Moral Education Programme mandated at the national and local level. The lack of a unified policy and implementation policy leaves it up to each school to adopt the PPI and positive education programme as it sees fit. The lack of mandate of policies related to the direct implementation of positive education, and the voluntary nature of the Well School Network, means there is no guarantee all private schools in Dubai and UAE will adopt the right mechanism for implementing positive education. All

four schools that adopted positive education lacked the presence of a policy associated with the implementation of positive education.

- **Gaps and variation in the implementation of positive education**

The lack of presence of an associated policy has led to gaps in the implementation of positive education and a lack of standardisation in the curriculum. Also, this lack of policy has led to positive education being taught as part of other subjects such as the Moral Education Programme, character education and value education. Stakeholders discussed the variations in the implementation of positive education in the different schools and the adaptation of positive education to fit the schools' needs.

First, strategic plans and interviews with senior and middle leadership and teachers identified that the implementation of positive education was still in the primitive stage and was being adopted in an ad-hoc manner, with different ways in different schools. Schools identified the need to embed more character strengths in their ethos and make improvements in the school environment to align with providing a positive environment. This is like international implementation of positive education, where no defined curriculum has been adopted yet and many schools are using different PPIs and having an ad-hoc nature to implementation (Chodkiewicz, 2018; Powell & Graham, 2017). Strategic plans reviewed included positive education as a key strategic goal. The adoption of positive education involved a reactive pragmatic approach to implementation and revealed a lack of consistency in pedagogy. This was evident among the four different schools who had different conceptualisations of positive education, and each adopted the programme in a different manner; some adopted PPI as standalone, others integrated within the curriculum. Each school had variable dedicated time for the PPI which impacts the success of the implementation (Pinkelman et al., 2015). This lack of consistency in the pedagogy and in the implementation of positive education between

the four schools studied are also evidenced from the results of previous studies (Chodkiewicz & Boyle, 2016; Fabiano et al., 2014; Halliday et al., 2020).

- **Adaptation of positive education implementation and implementation within different subjects**

Positive education implementation involved positive education being implemented within many subjects and adaptation to fit the school's ethos and needs. Document analysis of lesson plans identified positive education being lost as part of other key character education initiatives such as the Moral Education Programme. Senior and middle leadership and teachers consider that positive education is like the Moral Education Programme on many levels and therefore instils similar attributes and values. Senior and middle leadership see that both Moral Education Programme and positive education aim to focus on values and morals associated with resilience and perseverance (Datu & Mateo, 2020), in addition to having students build their capacity in different situations and thriving in their interaction within the larger community. Therefore, all schools adapted the positive education and PPI to ensure that there are no areas of overlap between other subjects such as Moral Education Programme, character education, and value education.

Some also discussed the impact of religious values and sociocultural values on the adoption of the programmes. These included adaptation in terms of embedding more religious values into the character strengths and activities and adapting activities to align with boys' needs. Although there was standardisation in terms of the material taught within the school, across all four schools this did not happen: schools were using different resources and teachers were trained on different programmes. Many teachers identified that adaptation was needed to fit the cultural values and institutional ethos. Similarly, Lambert et al. (2020) identified that positive education programmes mostly come from western models and need to be adapted to the MENA region. Teachers and counsellors stated that they needed to introduce students to

some psychology topics prior to teaching PPI. This has been echoed by other researchers who stated that PPIs stem from psychology, and the use of PPI within the school environment presents a challenge for educators (Birrell, 2016; Halliday et al., 2020).

- **Strong support for the adoption of positive education**

In terms of school support on the financial aspect and training sessions, there was no lack of support at the school level, as presented by many senior leadership, middle leadership, and teachers. The interviews with teachers and school leaders discussed the training on different programmes. This support assisted in the implementation process and the success of implementation which has been identified by a previous study as key to the success of implementation (Chodkiewicz, 2018). However, schools mostly trained some and not all their teachers on the Geelong Grammar School approach, while one school (CGS) was using its in-house training and design of the curriculum related to positive education. The logistical and financial burden of the Geelong Grammar School approach could be why some schools first decided to train some and not all their teachers, and why some teachers have searched for shorter and less resource-intensive PPIs (Chodkiewicz, 2018) to incorporate during the implementation process. In terms of time and frequency of implementation, a lot of senior leadership, middle leadership, teachers, students, and parents felt that it was needed for students at a younger age to help them adopt skills needed for the future, but it has been going slow and it needs to be more frequently taught. The need for adoption at a younger age has been echoed by educationalists and positive psychologists who identify PPIs' introduction at early adolescence, where there is greater neural plasticity, result in a greater impact on students (Kanwal, Jung, & Zhang, 2016).

- **Strong engagement of the internal school community with external school community**

Senior and middle leadership members and teachers discussed the involvement of the internal and external school community (parents, teachers, and students) in the promotion and planning of positive education implementation in the school and ensuring that it becomes part of the home environment. Coulombe, Hardy and Goldfarb (2020) stressed the importance of positive education in promoting wellbeing and adoption by parents of positive education character strengths and teaching it to emphasise these strengths at home. Parents, teachers, and students helped in driving the schools' strategies to promote positive education implementation within school. Parents, teachers, and students focus groups expressed that they played a proactive role in promoting positive education within the school, home, and community. Parents discussed that they worked closely with the school and emulated some of the character strengths to secure the successful implementation of positive education. Students stated that they were involved but expected more involvement in the implementation and that the school should take their opinions into account to avail of specific initiatives and programmes to promote positive education. Parents emanate from various social, cultural, and economic backgrounds and rely on support networks from the community. Schools assist parents by providing training, guidance, and information (Park & Holloway, 2016). Parental engagement in school and their meaningful participation supports children emotionally, socially, and academically (Park & Holloway, 2016). Parents are best suited to cooperate with school personnel and teachers to consider appropriate decisions and actions concerning their children because they know them best (Noble & McGrath, 2016). Biggeri and Sanit (2012) assert that involving students in decisions can be beneficial because they think differently from adults. When students' perspectives are included in matters impacting their wellbeing, they develop a sense of agency (Biggeri & Sanit, 2012). Kellock (2020) encourages the inclusion of students in promoting programmes that benefit their wellbeing, which is seen as a significant reflection

on the social and cultural context and elements (Domínguez-Serrano, Moral-Espin & Galvez Munoz, 2019).

The implementation of positive education needs to consider teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards positive education in general and towards how positive education aligns with their everyday responsibilities (Noble & McGrath, 2016). Teachers discussed the collaborative working environment where leaders listened to their suggestions, supported them presenting new ideas related to the implementation, and provided them with the necessary training and resources. Teachers felt that being involved in positive education supported them and helped them become more positive and resilient. It equipped teachers with ways to cope and become positive, which reflected on the students. Also, the reward has been seen at the entire school environment level, where senior leaders discussed that the school environment and discussion has changed and more emphasis through the conversation among teachers and leaders has been initiated towards wellbeing, positive education virtues and character strengths.

The multitude of engagement of the various stakeholders, indicated above, illustrates the support layers within the students' environment. This is depicted and illustrated by the Bronfenbrenner's Bio-ecological Systems Theory which explains the importance of various stakeholders in ensuring stable relationships, security, safety and understanding from individuals belonging to the microsystem layer or closest layer to children. This rapport among school leaders, parents, and teacher reflects the layer associated with the mesosystem. Context plays a pivotal role in shaping an individual's wellbeing; thus, Lomas (2015) argued that PPI must increase efforts to engage the students' micro- and meso-systems. Parents' involvement and familiarity with the positive education implementation and impact, and interventions associated with positive education, illustrates the effect of the exosystemic layer.

- **Presence of positive education character strengths as part of the schools' ethos**

Positive education character strengths and virtues were found to be embedded within the ethos, mission, and vision of the schools. School leaders expressed that the adoption of positive education is a priority to develop wellbeing literacy and positive education understanding among their students. Senior and middle leadership members and teachers expressed that infusing these virtues and character strengths would equip students with the skills necessary for successful and flourishing lives. The point of view of these stakeholders has been supported by Judice (2018), who states that individuals thrive by cultivating human virtues and character strengths associated with positive education. The introduction of these character strengths and virtues across the school ethos, vision and mission aligns with the PERMA Model, which identifies the key proactive role positive education plays in cultivating strengths and virtues in individuals (Kern et al., 2015).

- **Compatibility, rewards, and benefits of positive education**

In terms of the compatibility of positive education, students, teachers, parents and leaders expressed that instilling positive education character strengths was as important to students' learning as instilling other facts within other subjects. The character strengths were used to reinforce good, positive behaviour across the school and among teachers, family, and friends. This is supported by the Social Constructionism Theory which identifies that those positive emotions should become a knowledge formation process and examines wellbeing as culturally and socially constructed. Parents, students, and teachers expressed that their children's happiness levels have increased, they have become more cooperative and communication with friends and family had improved. Teachers stressed that students have benefited because they have become more aware of their psychological mental health, allowing self-regulation and acceptance, goal setting, having a purpose and development of growth mindset. These distinct dimensions are aligned with wellbeing dimensions identified with Ryff's Six-factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing. This benefit related to the psychological wellbeing has been seen as

a long-term effect by many stakeholders, which is echoed in the literature (Carr et al., 2020; Judice, 2018; Seligman, 2011).

- **Enhancement and collaboration were evidenced among school leaders and teachers**

Teachers were very enthusiastic in all four participating schools about the ‘need for’ positive education implementation. They expressed their support for the need to develop the holistic aspect of students and not only focusing on the academic side. They were enthusiastic to collaborate with other teachers and leadership member to ensure the success of the implementation. They felt that leaders provided them with the support needed to evaluate, plan, and develop PPI. Most of the senior and middle leadership talked about the use of the DSWC and PASS results to assist them in improving the implementation process and identifying training needs. In terms of resources, all teachers were satisfied with the resources and support provided by the school. Having teacher buy-in into PPI and positive education implementation is important because there are identified logistical and theoretical advantages when teachers implement PPI (Baker et al., 2012). The use of teachers has reduced the cost associated with PPI implementation, maximised the exposure of students to PPI ideas and increased the sustainability chances of PPI across time, since the teacher is considered to have a consistent classroom presence (Baweja et al., 2015).

- **Teacher efficacy and training associated with positive education**

In terms of maintaining teachers’ efficacy, the most common training programme used to train teachers among three schools was 8-week course positive education course from Geelong Grammar School offered by IPEN. However, as stated earlier, the training did not happen for all the staff, and one school (CGS) discussed in-house training and programme development based on the PERMA Model. Teachers at various schools felt that training was sufficient; however, one argument raised during teacher focus groups was that more training to all

teachers across the school and other staff would benefit the process of implementation and make it more successful. This concern has been raised by previous scholars. Sanetti, Dobey and Gallucci (2014) and Pas and Bradshaw (2012) raised concerns related to the classroom teachers' ability to effectively implement PPI.

- **Students' and teachers' buy-in**

Students enjoyed and were excited about positive education, saying that they wanted positive education to be implemented within each subject. Students said the benefits of positive education included: allowing them to engage, develop, relationships, understanding their emotions, enjoy school, and deal with negative feelings. This is aligned with the PERMA Model factors underpinning positive education. The teachers and students buy-in and support for the intervention is important for the success of the implementation which has been echoed in previous research (Slemp et al., 2017). In terms of the schools studied there was minimal resistance on stakeholders' levels which has been identified by Institutional theory as a factor that hinder the implementation process if it exists on the institution level. However, as is evident from the findings, resistance was minimal in terms of positive education implementation in Dubai private schools.

5.1.2 Research Question #2 Discussion: Extent of the Impact of Positive Education on SEWB and Academic Self-efficacy

This section discussion addresses findings central to the second research question, outlined below:

RQ #2: To what extent does positive education affect students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

- **Significant increase in the overall level of social and emotional wellbeing, life satisfaction, and a decrease in perseverance**

The results from the DSWC after one year of implementation of the positive education programme showed a significant increase in the overall level of SEWB, and increase in life satisfaction, while there was a decrease in perseverance. The results related to SEWB and life satisfaction were triangulated by evidence from students and teachers who expressed an increase in life satisfaction among students post the implementation of positive education. These results are aligned with studies which have showed the efficacy of PPI and their link to SEWB (Lambert et al., 2020), and life satisfaction (Kwok Gu & Kit, 2016; Mather & Hulme, 2013). However, in terms of perseverance the interviews results do not align with DSWC results and previous research results, where perseverance was seen to have increased as a result of positive education implementation (Datu & Mateo, 2020).

The increase in life satisfaction and SEWB were triangulated by teacher and student interviews where there was reference to feeling content, developing relationships between teachers and students, feeling a sense of connectedness, accomplishment, and setting goals. The latter aligns with PERMA Model, where these feelings among teachers and students in terms of connectedness, accomplishment, and goals' setting align with Seligman's PERMA Model parameters referring to positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment. When Seligman (2011) introduced the PERMA Model, he asserted the shift from happiness to life satisfaction because it measures how individuals self-report wellbeing; therefore, the SEWB and life satisfaction increase shown by the results from DSWC provides a good indication of the positive extent of the impact of positive education after one year of implementation. Life satisfaction's significant increase shows that students' cognitive and affective elements have increased, where they have greater significant satisfaction with their own life, particularly in areas related to study. The increase in life satisfaction links with Diener's Tripartite Model of Subjective wellbeing and hedonism, which refers to life satisfaction in terms of the individual's pleasures and cognitive and affective evaluation (Huta

& Ryan, 2009) providing a true measure of subjective wellbeing of students and showing the positive extent of the impact on subjective wellbeing.

Although DSWC showed a decrease in perseverance indicators, parents, teachers and students' interviews asserted that perseverance has improved among students after the introduction of positive education. The latter results show the importance of using an interpretive approach along with the quantitative approach. This suggests that researchers need to investigate students' understanding and interpretation of each indicator within the DSWC using qualitative methods such as interviews. This is echoed by studies related to efficacy and evaluation of PPI, where it has been suggested to use a mixed-method interpretive approach to provide a holistic evaluation to assess the efficacy of PPIs (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

- **Insignificant changes associated with emotional regulation, happiness, and optimism**

There were no significant changes associated with emotional regulation, happiness, and optimism. All changes in the latter indicators were random and due to chance. Although the changes were not significant, results show that the number of students who usually scored in the low/medium level increased for the latter indicators, while for those who scored in the high level it has decreased. These results show that positive education negatively impacted emotional regulation, happiness, and optimism of students. Like the current results, Morrish et al. (2018) did not find a significant impact of positive education programmes on emotional regulation and suggested the need for further studies to determine the extent of the impact of positive education on emotional regulation. Similarly, Ruscio (2018) did not show high correlation between a positive education programme and happiness. Seligman (2011) identified that 'happiness' is narrow in focus and lacks clarity, which leads to problems in the self-reporting aspects of happiness, while Gokcen (2013) stated that happiness lacks multidimensionality and is debatable. Morrish et al. (2018), Seligman (2011) and Gokcen

(2013) identify the need to clearly define measures for emotional regulation and happiness. Senior and middle leadership, teachers and parents stated that students were happier and more optimistic after the introduction of positive education, and there was great discussion about the ability of students to regulate their negative feelings. The latter findings from interviews do not align with findings from the DSWC for happiness, emotional regulation, and optimism. This suggests that there is a need to use a qualitative interpretive approach to look at the indicators associated with the SEWB construct of the DSWC. This is echoed by studies related to efficacy and evaluation of PPI, where it has been suggested to use a mixed-method interpretive approach to provide a holistic evaluation to assess the efficacy of PPIs (Chodkiewicz, 2018). DSWC is a self-reported survey and students have different interpretations of the different indicators and questions. Therefore, when using this assessment tool to assess the impact of positive education programmes on SEWB, an interpretive approach along with the quantitative approach should be adopted. This suggests that researchers need to investigate students' understanding and interpretation of each indicator within the DSWC using qualitative methods such as interviews.

- **Significant increase in indicators associated with feeling safe and belonging to school at the medium level**

The second aspect that was used from DSWC school reports was the 'Relationships and Learning in School and at Home'. This aspect contained several indicators. The results showed significant changes in the overall level for 'Relationships and Learning in School and at Home'; at the indicator level there was a significant increase in the level associated with safety and school belonging, where students expressed feeling safe and belonging to school higher than the previous year. Although it is not significant, the decrease in bullying shown as part of the findings attributes to the significant increase of students feeling safe. Parents and senior leadership confirmed that bullying has decreased across the schools and students felt

safer, and there had been an increase in the use of positive words across the schools since the implementation of positive education. This increase in students' sense of belonging and safety could mean that students have built stronger relationships in school and therefore feel safer and have a greater sense of belonging. Teachers and students discussed the increase in relationships among students and their teachers and among students themselves. Parents stated that their children felt safer going to school and liked going to school, their sense of belonging has increased after the start of the positive education programme. The extent of the impact of positive education and increase in these two indicators can show the indirect impact on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Literature presented by Jiang (2018) and Choi (2018) discussed the impact of context and environment on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, which supports the notion of the indirect impact safety and school belonging could have on student wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The claim cannot be conclusive, but the results support earlier discussion that data-driven quantitative results need to be triangulated with interpretive qualitative methods to provide a holistic view of the efficacy of positive education programmes (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

- **Insignificant changes with other indicators associated with academic self-concept, cognitive engagement, engagement (flow), peer belonging and school climate**

There were no significant changes associated with other indicators associated with 'Relationships and Learning in School and at Home'. Although the changes are not significant, there was an increase in the low/high levels in terms of the academic concept. Also, there was an increase in cognitive engagement, connectedness with adults at home and school, emotional engagement with teachers, and engagement (Flow), peer belonging, and school climate. The increase in academic self-concept is relevant to this study because it can provide insights on whether there was an increase in academic self-efficacy. However, the increase in the low/medium level and high-level decrease in cognitive engagement and engagement (flow) do

not align with the result with academic self-concept. According to GL Education (2018), these three factors can be used to provide an indication about the attainment of students. Ahmad, Azeem and Hussain (2012) discuss that academic self-efficacy plays a mediating role on student success and student attainment. The variation and insignificant findings cannot be used to assert whether there was an impact on academic self-efficacy and academic attainment as a result of positive education programmes. This aligns with previous research, where there was no evidence that positive education programmes impact academic attainment (Ruscio, 2018).

- **PASS assessment factors show increase in wellbeing, motivation, and self-efficacy regulation and decrease in academic self-efficacy**

PASS factors determine two types of self-efficacy: self-efficacy for academic success or academic self-efficacy, and self-efficacy for self-regulation. There was a significant decrease in factors that determine academic self-efficacy; these include self-regard as a learner, confidence in learning and response to curriculum demands. However, there was a significant increase for factors associated with self-efficacy for self-regulation which is measured through preparedness for learning. PASS factors impacting wellbeing and motivation increased. Those factors impacting wellbeing and motivation included love for learning, attitudes to attendance, feelings about school, and attitudes to teachers. Other factors such as general work ethic and response to curriculum demands decreased. The decrease in academic self-efficacy is not in line with previous results associated with PPIs, which positively impacted academic self-efficacy (Shoshani and Steinmetz, 2014). Shoshani and Steinmetz (2014) tested PPIs in an experimental setting using control measures. The current study examines academic self-efficacy using natural non-controlled settings of school conditions. Also, the current study used results of students two years post implementation and was carried out during a time of pandemic, which could impact students' reporting process related to academic self-efficacy. During 2020 the pandemic year, students attended school online, which caused interruptions

to the way they study. The latter must have impacted students' reporting related to academic self-efficacy because of the pandemic situation. Similarly, the decrease in factors associated to work ethic and curriculum demands could be associated with the new adoption of online learning where there was a transition period for students to adapt to it. The fact that academic self-efficacy for self-regulation, wellbeing, motivation and feeling about school, attitude to teacher and attitude towards attendance have increased in the middle of a pandemic shows a big extent of the impact of positive education on wellbeing and self-efficacy for regulation. Parents and senior leadership discussed the engagement of students and that attendance levels have improved post the introduction of positive education within school. Villavicencio and Bernardo (2016) suggested a correlation between self-regulation and academic self-efficacy in Filipino students. This increase in the attitude towards learning, wellbeing and motivation has been seen in previous studies (Wehmeyer, Shogren & Toste, 2018). The combination of the latter three factors satisfies the need for optimal academic self-efficacy as proposed by the Self-determination theory presented earlier. Furthermore, self-efficacy for regulation, motivation, and emotional approaches such as attitudes towards school and teachers exert their impact on academic self-efficacy of the individual. The attitude, motivational and self-regulation factors presented through the PASS assessment tool aligns with the Social-cognitive Learning Theory. Introduction of positive education programmes showed an extent in improving the attitudes of students, their self-regulation, and their motivation, which in turn will impact their learning.

5.1.3 Research Question #3 Discussion: Impact of Positive Education on SEWB and Academic Self-efficacy

This section's discussion addresses integrated findings central to the third research question outlined below. The integrated findings are from teachers, parents and students associated with perceptions related to students' emotional, social wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

RQ#3: What are the teachers', parents', and students' perceptions about the impact of positive education on students' Social and Emotional Wellbeing (SEWB) and academic self-efficacy?

- **Teachers, parents, and students perceived impact students' emotional wellbeing**

Teachers believed that positive education implementation helped improve the overall emotional wellbeing of students. They believed that students have become better persons, confident to talk about their opinions and ideas, happy about their life, resilient, developed control over their negative feelings, became more trusted among each other and among their teachers, felt safer and developed positive goals and purpose in life. Elements related to resilience, controlling negative feelings, and feeling happier were confirmed through interviews with the key stakeholders. Previous research in positive education implementation and activities showed that positive education contributed to students' feeling happier, resilient and developing control of their negative feelings (Carr et al., 2020; Judice, 2018). Positive education is a form of social emotional learning, which focuses on the development of social outcomes and behaviours targeting personal development in terms of self-awareness, assessing one's emotions and weakness and ability to control one's own behaviours, thoughts, relationships and emotions. This is echoed in Seligman's PERMA Model, where Seligman introduced enhancement in positive emotions, relationships, and accomplishments.

Similarly, parents, in the questionnaire and during focus groups, expressed that positive education implementation assisted in the improvement of the overall emotional wellbeing of their child/ren. They felt it made them feel happier and safer. It gave them a chance of becoming better individuals. They also felt that their child/ren became better at expressing their opinions and ideas, more resilient, developed goals and purpose in life, developed control over their negative feelings and liked themselves better. Findings related to resilience, goals setting, control over feelings and developing positive emotions are aligned with the positive education

character strengths and values in action, taught as part of positive education implementation and which have been viewed as being able to be trained (Judice, 2018). Therefore, the findings are expected, because these character strengths and virtues are expected to be taught and thus students are expected to exhibit these virtues and character strengths which align with PERMA Model parameters. The control of negative emotions aligns with the PERMA parameter of development of positive emotion. Developing opinions and ideas aligns with the PERMA parameter of accomplishments.

Students felt that positive education implementation positively impacted their emotional wellbeing, like the perceptions expressed by teachers and parents presented earlier. However, the overall relative agreement of students was much less than those of parents and teachers. Also, the relative agreement with each statement related to the safety, happiness, trust, setting positive goals, enjoyability of life in school, control over negative feelings, and liking themselves was much lower than relative agreement to these items expressed by parents and teachers.

However, during student focus groups, students were very excited about the positive education implementation and expressed their enthusiasm about their school adopting this initiative. They also discussed having the school involve them more in the implementation and made suggestions related to the implementation of the positive education. The results of the interviews with students discussed having them become more involved in the planning process leading to positive education. This is echoed in the literature which identified that to obtain a clear indication of the efficacy of positive education on wellbeing and other factors, it is important to evaluate the opinions of students. This would provide an indication of the success of the implementation (Chodkiewicz, 2018) and have a student voice as a participatory element in the action research associated with the efficacy of positive education (Halliday et al., 2019). This increase in the elements directly associated with emotional wellbeing in the perceptions

of parents, students and teachers shows how positive education implementation has impacted the hedonic viewpoint of subjective wellbeing and emotional wellbeing presented by Diener's Model of Subjective Wellbeing. The items associated with emotions, relationship, accomplishment, managing negative feelings, becoming happy, building relationships with friends and teachers, expressing their own ideas and opinions, setting goals, and becoming resilient, are all underpinned by the PERMA Model. Also, the findings are aligned with previous research which show students' improvement in emotional wellbeing (Belli, 2016) and control of negative feelings (Lambert et al., 2020).

- **Teachers, parents, and students perceived an impact on students' social wellbeing because of positive education**

Teachers expressed through the questionnaire and during interviews that positive education implementation impacted students' social wellbeing. From the integrated results of the questionnaire and interviews, it was evident that teachers, parents and students felt that students developed more social skills like dealing with each other and decision making, developed active friendships with their friends and teachers and contributed to the school community. Teachers, students, and school leaders talked about students feeling and stating that they find that their teachers have become more approachable. They can share personal feelings and discuss personal issues with them. Students discussed that their relationship with their friends improved because they realised through positive education activities that they share similar feelings and issues. Also, their relationship with their siblings and parents improved and they shared some of the learning and character strengths from school and adopted and transferred them to the home. This improvement in students' relationship among their internal and external school community has been confirmed by previous research stressing the connection between these environments (Coulombe, Hardy & Goldfarb, 2020). Teachers, parents, and students

believed that positive education implementation helped students feel appreciated by others, felt as being at the same level as their friends and felt more listened to and respected in school, due to the sharing that took place and the discussions in class where they felt that they were facing similar issues. They also believed that positive education implementation impacted students' social wellbeing. Students became more open, more engaged with their school, home, and community. Similarly, students expressed that they felt that positive education implementation has positively impacted the social aspects of their wellbeing. Students discussed their ability to become more open about their feelings, more open for new relationships with their teachers, and more friendships. However, the relative agreement of students with the impact of positive education implementation on the social wellbeing of students was much less than those of teachers and parents.

The social wellbeing questionnaire items presented in this study align with the Brofenbrenner Biological Theory and Social Constructionism Theory (SCT). Social wellbeing items included the development of relationships with friends, teachers, and the community, contributing to the community, and developing feelings of being listened to, respected, and appreciated. These items emphasise the frame of the social child development context and broadens wellbeing beyond the individual level. It aligns with the micro-system (friends and family) and meso-system (community). It aligns with how SCT examines students' social wellbeing as a socially constructed model. The findings associated with the positive impact of positive education implementation on social wellbeing aligns with findings of previous studies identifying the building of good relationships (Belli, 2012; Spiller, 2017). Coulombe, Hardy and Goldfarb (2020) discussed that positive education assists students in building relationships with their friends and teachers. Also, Judice (2018) discuss the impact of positive education on social relationships, feeling equal and contributing to the social and home environment (Coulombe, Hardy & Goldfarb, 2020)

- **Teachers, parents, and students perceived an impact on students' academic self-efficacy because of positive education**

Teachers, parents, and students perceived that positive education implementation increased students' academic self-efficacy. There was overall high agreement among the parents, teachers and students' perceptions with items associated with academic self-efficacy. Teachers, parents and students viewed that positive education implementation made students more confident in arguing their points of view and more confident in knowing their strengths and weaknesses, more confident in analysing and solving complex problems. Results from teachers, parents, and students' questionnaires showed they believed that positive education implementation helped students feel less isolated from the school community, become more confident in solving real-life problems, helped students feel more confident in the way they apply what they have learned and feel more interested in understanding complex material presented. They also believed that positive education implementation allowed students to become more confident in the way they completed their tests and assignments, more interested in attending their classes, more confident in analysing concepts taught, and getting good marks. The perceptions of parents, teachers, and students showing an increase in academic self-efficacy aligns with the Self-determination Theory which is associated with the individual's enhancement and realisation of one's own optimal competence. In the opinion of teachers, parents, and students stated during interviews, the implementation of positive education has helped improve the social and physical environment of students, which has helped in supporting their motivational and basic psychological needs (Wehmeyer, Shogren & Toste, 2018). The relative agreement with the cognitive tasks such as an increase in confidence towards learning, understanding complex material, analysing concepts taught and increasing

problem solving is supported by Social-cognitive Learning Theory which states that social experiences influence the individual's cognitive behaviours, resulting in reciprocal interaction of behaviour, personal and environmental aspects (Spiller, 2017). This increase in academic self-efficacy expressed by parents, students and teachers aligns with the increase presented in previous research where researchers showed that PPI have improved academic self-efficacy (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014).

5.2 Discussion Summary

The previous section delineates crucial discussions associated with the key findings outlined in Chapter four with respect to the study's relevant literature and theoretical underpinning. Findings answering the research questions show compatibility with all of the study's selected theories. Most of the findings also show significant alignment with relevant literature and research and some of the findings reflect Dubai's private school contextual characteristics.

Research question #1 related to the implementation of positive education within Dubai's K-12 private schools emphasised the relevance of the World Culture Theory and Institutional Theory and agree with the view that policies adopted at the national, local and education level are aligned with international policy. It also shows that these policies are impacted by institutional factors associated with teachers, students, and parents. The findings demonstrated the link between the multi-disciplinary theories presented in the integrated theoretical framework of positive education: Ryff's Six-Factor Psychological Wellbeing Model, Diener's Tripartite Subjective Wellbeing Model, and Social Constructionism Theory. The findings also align with international study research findings that accentuate the importance of examining the science of positive education implementation and studying the effects of intervention, context, organisation, providers, and recipients on the implementation. It accentuates the importance of developing positive education policy and a standardised

framework to allow for consistent implementation of positive education from an educational perspective. This standardised framework would allow for defined promotion and enhancement of positive education implementation and allow for engagement of all stakeholders to guide practice within the school environment, community, and home environment.

Research question #2 highlighted the extent of the impact of positive education in improving DSWC indicators associated with social-emotional wellbeing, life satisfaction, feeling safe at school and belonging to school. It also highlights the extent of the impact of positive education on academic self-efficacy, self-efficacy for regulation, wellbeing, and motivation. As a result, it proved effective in being associated with the Diener's Subjective Wellbeing Model, The PERMA Model, Bronfenbrenner Bio-ecological Theory, Social Constructionism Theory, Self-determination Theory, and Social Cognitive Learning Theory.

Research question #3 presents the perceptions of teachers, students, and parents in terms of the impact of positive education on emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. It accentuates the importance of positive education policy and practice within the UAE context due to the magnitude of the impact presented in the results. It also highlights the importance of further investigating students' views and involving the students' perceptions when looking at the implementation of positive education, due to the findings that students perceived the least impact of positive education on social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. It also stresses the importance of examining implementation, impact, efficacy, and evaluation of positive education using both qualitative and quantitative methods to provide a holistic overview of the extent of the impact. Similarly to RQ#2, it is aligned with the following theories and models presented as part of the integrated theoretical framework: the Diener's Subjective Wellbeing Model, The PERMA Model, Bronfenbrenner

Bio-ecological Theory, Social Constructionism Theory, Self-determination Theory, and Social Cognitive Learning Theory.

5.3 Conclusion

This section summarises the research study's main findings and purpose. It consolidates the study's contribution to the development of knowledge in the fields of positive education implementation and impact, student wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. The first part sums up the main findings of the study. The second part summarises the study's main implications and limitations. The third part presents recommendations on the policy levels associated with positive education and wellbeing, programme development, and further research. Finally, the researcher presents the contribution of the research, along with the concluding notes from the researcher.

The researcher in this study aimed to investigate positive education implementation and its impact on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's K-12 private schools, through the perceptions of teachers, parents, and students. The study of positive education implementation involved examining factors that impact implementation on the contextual, organisational, intervention, provider, and recipient levels. It also involved identifying practices of how positive education operates within schools.

The study was underpinned by a theoretical framework that reflected multidisciplinary and interconnected fields relevant to positive education, wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. From a global, cultural, and institutional policy perspective the World Culture Theory and Institutional theory were referenced to policy associated with positive education and wellbeing at the global, national, local, and institutional levels. From psychology, Ryff's Psychological Wellbeing Model discusses six distinct dimensions, associated with self-acceptance, environmental mastery, autonomy, personal growth, attaining a purpose in life and developing positive relationships with others. Diener's Subjective Wellbeing Model presents an

individual's evaluation of their negative and positive feelings and life satisfaction. Seligman's PERMA Model of Wellbeing stipulates the five building blocks to making individuals thriving, happy and flourishing. The PERMA model's building blocks comprise positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment. From a child's development and learning perspective the study has been underpinned by the Bronfenbrenner Bio-ecological Systems Theory and Social Constructionism Theory. Finally, theories associated with academic self-efficacy included Self-determination Theory (SDT) and Social Cognitive Learning Theory. The theories show how positive education associates learning and teaching and how it could be socially constructed throughout the school at its various inputs, processes, and outputs.

Reviewed literature revealed that positive education implementation science involves many factors at many levels, such as the policy, country, institution, teacher, community, and student level. It indicated that positive education is considered in the national policy agendas to increase positivity and happiness and improve individuals' lives. The process of improving wellbeing has been through the introduction of positive education initiatives. This movement of introducing positive education to improve wellbeing emphasises the holistic teaching of students and the importance of preparing students for future and life. This systematic and whole approach of implementation of positive education has been depicted to promote and enhance student wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Positive education has been shown to be a recent educational movement that emphasises the broader need of values and skills to be incorporated into a holistic education, leading to improved student outcome and preparedness for the future and life. No previous research was found that examines positive education implementation and the impact and extent of its impact from multiple stakeholders' viewpoints and considering tools and policies for examining wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Limited studies related to positive education within the UAE context are available.

A conceptual framework associated with positive education implementation and impact was established. A convergent parallel triangulated mixed-method design was used in the study. Data was collected concurrently and involved document analysis of policies, strategic plans, lesson plans and KHDA school reports. At the same time, questionnaires (43 teachers, 277 parents, and 480 students) and interviews with key stakeholders (12 school leaders, 17 teachers, 10 parents, and 28 students) to check implementation factors and impact were conducted.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The study's aim was centred and multi-fold, examining positive education implementation and impact on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in terms of exploring factors impacting implementation, extent of the impact and perceptions of various stakeholders associated with the impact and implementation. Based on the study's findings, a set of suggestions and implications associated with practice, policy, research, and theory are presented below.

In terms of contribution to the line of research, the current study has presented the status of positive education within Dubai's K-12 private schools. It has reviewed policies and initiatives associated with implementation and has identified the factors that directly impact the success of implementation, taking a holistic design and incorporating perceptions from all school internal community (teachers, school leaders and students) and school external community (parents). The findings have contributed to the field of positive education internationally and the MENA and GCC region due to adding to the literature related to the implementation of positive education and the impact of implementation on emotional and social wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The findings aligned and accentuated previous research and the multi-disciplinary theoretical underpinnings, pointing to how the study of implementation and the impact of positive education implementation are pinned by institutional policy theories,

positive education and wellbeing theories, child development theory, learning and social development theories and academic self-efficacy theories.

Findings related to positive education implementation provide many study implications for the future. First, the ad-hoc implementation due to a lack of policy, positive education conceptualisation and framework show the importance of designing a coherent and clear policy associated with positive education implementation. It also stresses the importance of a standardised, flexible contextual framework which is holistic and adaptable. As part of the development of a positive education framework and programme, sociocultural values need to be taken into consideration to ensure a well-developed curriculum that is adaptable and flexible. The scope of this framework should stress key virtues identified by the character strengths and VIA, where international positive education leaders from different countries share knowledge on virtues important within their culture, to make it as inclusive of as many virtues as possible. Also, the curriculum needs to identify key psychology-related topics that need to be identified in the field of cognitive behavioural therapy associated with positive education. The framework should take into consideration the contextual and cultural differences and provide an adaptable curriculum so schools can implement in accordance with their students' needs and school's ethos. The purpose of the policy and framework is to promote positive education implementation as an educational priority and provide cohesive guidance for schools on how to promote positive education. It can assist in clarifying the responsibilities and roles of the different stakeholders.

Secondly, within the teachers' and school leaders/principals' development and preparation licensing programmes across many countries and recently being implemented in the UAE, it is important to include positive education training courses to help prepare teachers to instill the character strengths promoted by positive education and VIA.

Thirdly, findings from student and parent interviews showed the importance of continuously engaging students and parents in the development, planning, and implementation process of positive education. Also, it is important for schools to develop workshops for parents to teach them about positive education character strengths and VIA so they can help the school in developing the positive education knowledge among their children and instilling positive education literacy at home.

The study's findings captured how results from various assessment tools, such as the DSWC and PASS assessment tools being used within schools to evaluate and develop positive education and wellbeing, need to be further studied and investigated to understand the efficacy of these tools in evaluating positive education and wellbeing. Results from the DSWC and PASS test provide further implications for the current study. First, DSWC and PASS indicators need to be simplified and explained to students and teachers. In other words, students who are administered these assessments should have a clear understanding of the indicators to properly report on their feelings and beliefs. The variation in the findings between the indicators from these tools and the interview and focus group findings showed that students presented some of the findings from the indicators within the DSWC to be different from findings within the interviews. For example, the low level in perseverance was stated by many teachers, parents and students in interviews as being improved, but shown by the DSWC as being low. Secondly, findings from DSWC and PASS stress the importance of having mixed-method research when studying the extent of the impact of positive education on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Thirdly, every school should have a wellbeing officer who is highly skilled in the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods to analyse the DSWC and PASS test results and provide the school the necessary statistical analysis to evaluate positive education and implement the necessary improvements. Lastly, the results varied but they showed that key aspects of students' wellbeing were impacted because of positive education such as improved

attendance, improved feeling of safety, life satisfaction, and school belonging, motivation, self-efficacy for regulation, attitude towards teachers and learning which are key for why positive education was initially introduced into schools to help make students feel better about school.

Finally, the last section's results captured the varying perceptions from school leaders, teachers, parents, and students about the impact of positive education on emotional wellbeing, social wellbeing, and academic self-efficacy. The findings in terms of perception provide an understanding for teachers, leaders, and parents on which positive education character strengths should continue to be highlighted, such as resilience, control of negative feelings, setting goals, improving relationships, and identifying strengths and weaknesses. Also, these findings imply that more positive education activities should be incorporated as part of the positive education programme, to stress the improvement in engagement and perseverance, assisting students in improving academic tasks such as analysing and solving complex problems and being confident in decision making. In terms of academic self-efficacy, positive education activities should incorporate more activities that help in improving academic self-efficacy.

Based on the preceptions of the key stakeholders, it is evident that positive education plays a significant role in the improvement of wellbeing and academic self-efficacy of students. Therefore, the results from the impact of positive education suggests the importance and relevance of introducing positive education subject as part of the curriculum in the schools since students, parents, school leaders and teachers discussed many benefits of positive education on overall students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations for proposed future research are presented:

- Investigation of how key character strengths and virtues impact students and teachers. For example, further investigating impact of positive education on motivation, attitude to learning, attitude towards school and teachers.
- Investigate whether positive education training impacts teachers' and school leaders' wellbeing.
- Results from the DSWC and PASS test identify the importance of further studying of these tools in terms of examining students' interpretation of the different indicators to determine the extent of the usefulness in using these tools to assess wellbeing and academic self-efficacy and the extent of the impact of positive education.
- Findings suggest further studies should be carried out on the extent of the implementation of positive education on academic self-concept, motivation, cognitive engagement, engagement (flow), relationships between students and teachers, and bullying, as direct, moderating or mediating factors.
- Further examining academic self-efficacy using different tools and developing a tool that incorporates positive education and academic self-efficacy.
- Further studies examining positive education, student wellbeing and academic self-efficacy, investigating decision-makers' and other educational professionals' perceptions.

5.6 Limitations of the Study

The researcher considered several limitations while conducting and planning of the study. The researcher used a variety of methods and strategies to mitigate these limitations on the study as much as possible.

First, the schools' lockdown due to the Covid-19 pandemic presented limitations to the implementation process of positive education within schools. Originally some schools that had

agreed to participate in the study struggled with the implementation of positive education at the start of the pandemic. The study was delayed a few months to ensure that schools became more comfortable with the implementation, to ensure that study purpose and scope was not impacted. During the interview process school leaders, teachers and students also discussed implications of the pandemic on the process of implementation and its impact and this was incorporated as part of the findings and interpretations.

Second, the stakeholder perceptions of positive education implementation and impact on SEWB and academic self-efficacy using the questionnaires uses non-probability purposive convenience sampling techniques and therefore target access may not be sufficient. The latter would not allow for generalisability of research findings. Moreover, some of the data that would be collected is self-reported research data, permitting some level of bias from participants related to positive education impact. The schools' different implementation practices of positive education might have provided extreme responses with respect to its impact in the context of each school. The researcher used interviews and focus groups with the different types of participants to ensure that reporting related to impact was better understood and interpreted.

References

- Aarons, G.A., Hurlburt, M. & Horwitz, S.M. (2011). Advancing a conceptual model of evidence-based practice implementation in public service sectors. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, vol. 38 (1), pp. 4-23. doi:10.1007/s10488-010-0327-7
- Adams, N. (2012). Skinner's Walden Two: an anticipation of positive psychology? *Review of General Psychology*, vol. 16 (1), pp. 1-9.
- Adler, A. & Seligman, E.P.M. (2016). Using wellbeing for public policy: Theory, measurement, and recommendations. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 6(1), pp. 1-35.
- Ahmad, S., Azeem, M. & Hussain, A. (2012). Relationship of academic self- efficacy to self-regulated learning, SI, test anxiety and academic achievement. *International Journal of Education*, vol. 4(1), pp. 12-25.
- Aitken, A. (2019). Measuring welfare beyond GDP. *National Institute Economic Review* (249, August), pp. R3-316.
- Akgül, Y. (2019). *Structural equation modeling approaches to e-Service adoption*. Turkey: IGI Global.
- Aksom H. & Tymchenko, I. (2020). How institutional theories explain and fail to explain organizations. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, vol. 33 (7), pp. 1223 – 1252.
- Albert, D. & Steinberg, L. (2011). Judgment and decision making in adolescence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, vol.21 (1), pp. 211-224.
- Ali, S., Al Faisal, W. Hasan Mahdy, N., Hussein, H., El Sawaf, E. & Wasfy, A. (2014). Determinants and prevalence of depressive symptoms in secondary school students in Dubai. *Middle East Journal of Psychiatry and Alzheimer*, vol. 5 (3), pp. 11-18.
- Al Krenawi, A., Graham, J., Dean, Y.Z. & El Taiba, N. (2004). Cross national study of attitudes towards seeking professional help: Jordan, United Arab Emirates, and Arabs in Israel. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, vol. 50 (2), pp. 102-114.
- Allan, B.A., Owens, R.L. & Douglass, R.P. (2019). Character strengths in counselors: relations with meaningful work and burnout. *Journal of Career Assessment*, vol. 27, pp. 151-166. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072717748666>
- Alsaawi, A. (2014). A critical review of qualitative interviews. *The European Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, vol. 3 (4), pp. 149-156.
- Al Shareef, N., Hussein H., Al Faisal W., El Sawaf E., Wasfy A., AlBehandy N. S. & Altheeb A. A. S. (2015). Family and socio-demographic background of violence among adolescent population in Dubai, UAE. *Advances in Applied Psychology*, vol. 1 (2), pp. 120-127.

Anand, P. (2016). *Happiness, well-being and human development: the case for subjective measures*. Human Development Report background paper. United Nations Development Programme, New York, USA. [Accessed 02 March 2020]. Available at: http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/anand_template_rev.pdf

Anderson-Levitt, K., Ed. (2003). *Local Meanings, global schooling: anthropology and world culture theory*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Andrews, T. (2012). What is social constructionism? *Grounded Theory Review: An International Journal* [Online]. Accessed 06 March 2020. Available at: <http://groundedtheoryreview.com/2012/06/01/what-is-social-constructionism/>

Armenta, C. N., Fritz, M.M., Walsh, L.C. & Lyubomirsky, S. (2020). Satisfied yet striving: gratitude fosters life satisfaction and improvement motivation in youth. *Emotion*, Sept 10, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1037/emo0000896>

Askill-Williams, H., Dix, K.L., Lawson, M.J. & Slee, P.T. (2013). Quality of implementation of a school mental health initiative and changes over time in students' social and emotional competencies. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, vol. 24(3), pp. 357-381. doi: 10.1080/09243453.2012.692697.

Atkins, M., Rusch, D., Mehta, T. & Lakind, D. (2016). Future directions for dissemination and implementation science: aligning ecological theory and public health to close the research to practice gap. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, vol. 45 (2), pp. 215-226. doi:10.1080/15374416.2015.1050724

Azeez, A.E. (2015). Positive mental health through life skill education: empowering adolescents having psychosocial problems. *Journal of Psychosocial Research*, vol. 10 (1), pp. 21-31.

Babones, S. (2016). Interpretive quantitative methods for the social sciences. *Sociology*, vol. 50 (3), pp. 453 – 469. doi:10.1177/0038038515583637

Badri, M., Al Nuaimi, A., Guang, Y., Al Sheryani, Y. & Al Rashedi, A. (2018). The effects of home and school on children's happiness: a structural equation model, vol. 12 (17) [Online] [Accessed 02 January 2021] Available at: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s40723-018-0056-z>

Bakadorova, O. & Raufelder, D. (2014). The mediating role of socio-motivational support in the association between individual school self-concept and achievement motivation among adolescent students. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, vol. 29(3), pp. 347-366. doi: 10.1007/s10212-013-0202-5.

Baker, R., Owens, M., Thomas, S., Whittlesea, A., Abbey, G., Gower, P. & Thomas, P.W. (2012). Does CBT facilitate emotional processing? *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, vol. 40 (01), pp. 19-37. doi: 10.1017/S1352465810000895.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioural change.

Psychological Review, vol. 84, pp. 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1994). 'Self-efficacy', in V.S. Ramachaudran (ed). *Encyclopaedia of human behaviour*, vol. 4, pp. 71 – 8, New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman (ed.), *Encyclopedia of mental health*. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998) [Online] [Accessed 02 January 2021] Available at: <https://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Bandura/BanEncy.html>

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (2006). 'Adolescent development from an agentic perspective', in F. Pajares and T. Urdan (eds.). *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents*, IAP- Information Age Publishing, pp. 1-43.

Bauer, M.S., Damschroder, L., Hagedorn, H., Smith, J. & Kilbourne, A.M. (2015). An introduction to implementation science for the non-specialist. *BMC Psychology*, vol. 3(1), pp. 32. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-015-0089-9>.

Baweja, S., Santiago, C.D., Vona, P., Pears, G., Langley, A. & Kataoka, S. (2015). Improving implementation of a school-based program for traumatized students: identifying factors that promote teacher support and collaboration. *School Mental Health*, vol. 8, pp. 120-121. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12310-015-9170-z>

Bearman, S.K., Wadkins, M., Bailin, A. & Doctoroff, G. (2015). Pre-practicum training in professional psychology to close the research-practice gap: changing attitudes toward evidence-based practice. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology*, vol. 9(1), pp. 13-20. doi:10.1037/tep0000052

Beckert, J. (2010). Institutional isomorphism revisited: convergence and divergence in institutional change, *Sociological Theory*, vol. 28(2), pp. 150-66.

Bellani, L. & D'Ambrosio, C. (2011). Deprivation, social exclusion and subjective well-being. *Social Indicators Research*, vol. 104 (1), pp. 67-86.

Belli, J. (2012). *Pedagogies of happiness: what and how self-help, positive psychology, and positive education teach about well-being*. Ph.D. Thesis. The City University of New York.

Belli, J. (2016). *Why Well-Being, why now?: tracing an alternate genealogy of emotion in composition*. Composition Forum 34. Accessed 10 December 2018. Available at: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1113432.pdf>

Bengtsson, M. (2016). How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *Nursing Plus Open*, vol. 2, pp. 8-14.

Bennett, K. & Dorjee, D. (2015). The impact of a mindfulness-based stress reduction course (MBSR) on well-being and academic attainment of sixth-form students. *Mindfulness*, vol. 7 (1), pp. 105-114. doi:10.1007/s12671-015-0430-

Bertram, R., Blasé, K. & Fixsen, D. (2015). Improving programs and outcomes: implementation frameworks and organization change. *Research on Social Work Practice*, vol. 25 (4), pp. 477-487. doi:10.1177/1049731514537687

Betz, N. E. (2007). Career self-efficacy: Exemplary recent research and emerging directions. *Journal of Career Assessment*, vol.5(4), pp. 403-422.

Biggeri, M. & Santi, M. (2012). The missing dimensions of children's well-being and well-becoming in education systems: Capabilities and philosophy for children. *Journal of human development and capabilities*, vol.13(3), pp.373-395. Routledge.

Birrell, A. J. (2016). *Toward a more positive education: positive psychology skills and intentional activities for helping children increase self-efficacy and academic achievement in mathematics*. Master's Thesis. Utah Valley University.

Biswas-Diener, R. (2011). Applied positive psychology: progress and challenges. *European Health Psychologist*, vol. 13 (2), pp. 24-26.

Biswas-Diener, R., Kashdan, T.B. & Minhas, G. (2011). A dynamic approach to psychological strength development and intervention. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 6, pp. 106-118.

Blumenfeld-Jones, D. (1995). Fidelity as a criterion for practicing and evaluating narrative inquiry, *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, vol. 8(1), p. 25

Bluth, K., Campo, R.A., Pruteanu-Malinici, S., Reams, A., Mullarkey, M. & Broderick, P.C. (2016). A school-based mindfulness pilot study for ethnically diverse at-risk adolescents. *Mindfulness*, vol. 7 (1), pp. 90-104. doi:10.1007/s12671-014-0376-1

Bone, K.D. (2015). The bioecological model: applications in holistic workplace well-being management. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, vol. 8 (4), pp. 256-271.

Bonell, C., Humphrey, N., Fletcher, A. & Moore, L. (2014). Why schools should promote students' health and wellbeing. *BMJ (Clinical Research ed.)*, vol. 348, p. 3078.

Boniwell, I. & Ryan, L. (2012). *Personal well-being lessons for secondary schools: positive psychology in action for 11-14-year olds*. Maidenhead, England: Open University Press.

Bothe, D.A., Grignon, J.B. & Olness, K.N. (2014). The effects of a stress management intervention in elementary school children. *Journal of Developmental & Behavioural Pediatrics*, vol. 35 (1), pp. 62-67. doi:10.1097/DBP.0000000000000016

Bourke, B. (2014). Positionality: reflecting on the research process. *The Qualitative Report*, vol. 19 (33), pp. 1-9 [Online]. Accessed 09 September 2021. Available at: <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol19/iss33/3>

Bowen, G.A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, vol. 9 (2), pp. 27-40.

Boyle, C., Topping, K., Jindal-Snape, D. & Norwich, B. (2011). The importance of peer-support for teaching staff when including children with special educational needs. *School Psychology International*, vol. 33 (2), pp. 167-184. doi:10.1177/0143034311415783

- Boyatzis, R. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Brace, N., Kemp, R. & Snelgar, R. (2009). *SPSS for Psychologists*. 4th edn. Hampshire: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Bradshaw, K., Tenant, L. & Lydiatt, S. (2004). Special education in the United Arab Emirates: anxieties, attitudes and aspirations. *International Journal of Special Education*, vol.19 (1), pp. 49-55.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, vol. 3(2), pp. 77-101.
- Brdar, I. & Kashdan, T.B. (2010). Character and well-being in Croatia: an empirical investigation of structure and correlates. *Journal of Research in Personality*, vol. 44, pp. 151-154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2009.12.001>.
- Broderick, P. (2013). *Learning to BREATHE: a mindfulness curriculum for adolescents to cultivate emotion regulation, attention, and performance*. Oakland: New Harbinger Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Browning, B.R., McDermott, R.C., Scaffa, M.E., Booth, N.R. & Carr, N.T. (2018). Character strengths and first-year college students' academic persistence attitudes: an integrative model. *The Counseling Psychologist*, vol. 46, pp. 608-631. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000018786950>
- Brown, T. (2006). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research..* New York: Guilford Press.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. 4th edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burnard, P. (1995). Interpreting text: an alternative to some current forms of textual analysis in qualitative research. *Social Science in Health*, vol. 1 (1995), pp. 236-245.
- Burke, J. & Minton, S.J. (2019). Well-being in post-primary schools in Ireland: the assessment and contribution of character strengths. *Irish Educational Studies*, vol. 38 (2), pp. 177-192.
- Business Dictionary. (2020). *Organization*. [Online] Accessed 29 April 2020. Available at: <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/organization.html>
- Byrne, B. M. (2016). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS basic concepts, applications, and programming* (3rd edn). Routledge.
- Campbell, E. (1997). Connecting the ethics of teaching and moral education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, vol. 48 (4), pp. 255-263.

Carney, S., Rappleye, J. & Silova, I. (2012). Between faith and science: world culture theory and comparative education. *Comparative Education Review*, vol. 56 (3), pp. 366-393.

Carpenter, S. (2018). Ten steps in scale development and reporting: A guide for researchers. *Communication Methods and Measures*, vol.12(1), pp.25-44.

Carr, A., Cullen, K., Keeney, C., Canning, C., Mooney, O., Chinseallaigh, E. & O'Dowd, A. (2020). Effectiveness of positive psychology interventions: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, pp. 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2020.1818807>.

Casserly, A.M. (2013). The socio-emotional needs of children with dyslexia in different educational settings in Ireland. *Journal of Research in Special Education Needs*, vol. 13(1), pp. 79-91. doi:10.1111/j.1471- 3802.2011.01227.x

Castro-Villarreal, F., Rodriguez, B.J. & Moore, S. (2014). Teachers' perceptions and attitudes about Response to Intervention (RTI) in their schools: a qualitative analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, vol. 40, pp. 104-112. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2014.02.004

Cefai, C. & Cavioni, V. (2015). Mental health promotion in school: an integrated, school-based, whole school, in B. Kirkcaldy (ed.). *Promoting Psychological Well-being in Children and Families*, Hampshire: Springer, pp. 52-67. doi:10.1057/9781137479969_4

Chabbott, C. & F. O. Ramirez. (2000). Development and education. In *Handbook of the Sociology of Education*, edited by M. T. Hallinan. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Challen, A.R., Machin, S.J. & Gillham, J.E. (2014). The UK resilience programme: a school-based universal nonrandomized pragmatic controlled trial. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 82(1), pp. 75-89. doi:10.1037/a0034854

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: a practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: Sage Publications.

Chen, C. (2016). The role of resilience and coping styles in subjective well-being among Chinese university students. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, vol. 25 (3), pp. 377-387.

Cheney, G., Schlösser, A., Nash, P. & Glover, L. (2014). Targeted group-based interventions in schools to promote emotional well-being: a systematic review. *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, vol. 19 (3), pp. 412-438. doi:10.1177/1359104513489565

Cho, J., Martin, P., Margrett, J., Macdonald, M., & Poon, L. W. (2011). The relationship between physical health and psychological well-being among oldest-old adults. *Journal of aging research*, vol. 3, pp.1-8.

Chodkiewicz, A. (2018). *School-based positive psychology interventions: the development of a new evaluation process and intervention*. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Exeter.

Chodkiewicz, A.R. & Boyle, C. (2014). Exploring the contribution of attribution retraining to student perceptions and the learning process. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, vol. 30 (1), pp. 78-87. doi:10.1080/02667363.2014.880048

Chodkiewicz, A. & Boyle, C. (2016). Promoting positive learning in Australian students aged 10 -12 years using attribution retraining and cognitive behavioral therapy: a pilot study. *School Psychology International*, vol. 33 (2), pp. 167-184. doi:10.1177/0143034316667114

Chodkiewicz, A.R. & Boyle, C. (2017). Positive psychology school-based intervention: a reflection on current success and future directions. *Review of Education*, vol. 5 (1), pp. 60-86. <https://doi.org/10.1002/rev3.3080>

Choi, A. (2018). *Emotional well-being of children and adolescents: recent trends and relevant factors*. OECD Education Working Papers, no.169. OECD Publishing: Paris.

Ciarrochi, J., Atkins, P.W.B., Hayes, L.L., Sahdra, B.K., & Parker, P. (2016). Contextual positive psychology: policy recommendations for implementing positive psychology into schools. *Frontiers in Psychology* [Online], [Accessed 20 November 2020] Available at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01561/full>

Clarke, K. (2019). Dubai schools' 2019 wellbeing survey launched. *The National* [Online] 3 November. [Accessed 01 June 2021], Available at: <https://www.thenationalnews.com/uae/education/dubai-schools-2019-well-being-survey-launched-1.932586>

Clevenger, A. J. (2018). Non-cognitive attributes: correlations to high ability students' academic achievement. PhD. Thesis. Ball State University.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed). Hillsdale, N.J: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research Methods in Education*. 8th edition. New York: Routledge.

Cole, F.L. (1988). Content analysis: process and application. *Clinical Nurse Specialist*, vol. 2 (1), pp. 53-57

Collins, S., Woolfson, L. M. & Durkin, K. (2014). Effects on coping skills and anxiety of a universal school-based mental health intervention delivered in Scottish primary schools. *School Psychology International*, vol. 35 (10), pp. 85-100. doi:10.1007/s10902-014-9556-x

Colyvas, J.A. (2007). From divergent meanings to common practices: the early institutionalization of technology transfer in the life sciences at Stanford University. *Research Policy*, vol. 36 (4), pp. 456-476.

Conoley, C.W., Conoley, J.C., Spaventa-Vancil, K.Z., & Lee, A.N. (2014). 'Positive psychology in schools: good ideas are never enough', in M.J.Furlong, R.Gilman and E. S. Huebner (eds.). *Handbook of Positive Psychology in Schools (Educational Psychology Handbook Series)*. (2nd edn). New York: Routledge.

- Connelly, L.M. (2008). Pilot Studies. *MEDSURG Nursing*, vol. 17 (6), pp. 411 – 412.
- Cook, B. & Odom, S. (2013). Evidence-based practices and implementation science in special education. *Exceptional Children*, vol. 79(2), pp. 135 – 144.
- Cooper, R.B. & Zmud, R.W. (1990). Information technology implementation research: a technological diffusion approach. *Management Science*, vol. 36 (2), pp. 123 – 139.
- Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. 3rd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Coulombe, S., Hardy, K. & Goldfarb, R. (2020). Promoting wellbeing through positive education: a critical review and proposed social ecological approach. *Theory and Research in Education*, vol. 18(3), pp. 295 – 321.
- Council of Australian Governments (2012). The roadmap for national mental health reform 2012 – 2022 [Online]. [Accessed 26 December 2020] Available at: <https://www.coag.gov.au/sites/default/files/communique/The%20Roadmap%20for%20National%20Mental%20Health%20Reform%202012-2022.pdf>
- Couper, M. (2000). Web surveys: a review of issues and approaches. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, vol. 64, pp. 464-494.
- Creamer, E.G. (2018). *An introduction to fully integrated mixed methods research*. London, Sage Publications.
- Credé, M., Tynan, M.C. & Harms, P.D. (2017). Much ado about grit: a meta-analytic synthesis of the grit literature. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 113 (3), p. 492.
- Crespo, R.F. & Mesurado, B. (2015). Happiness economic, eudaimonia and positive psychology: from happiness economics to flourishing economics. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 16 (4), pp. 931-946.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design, qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (3rd edn). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. 4th edn. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Creswell, J.W. & Creswell, J.D. (2018). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach* (5th edn). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Creswell, J.W. & Plano Clark, V.L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. and Plano Clark, V. L. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. 3rd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Critchley, H. (2010). Enhancing efficacy beliefs within a school community: can positive psychology help? Ph. D. Thesis. Newcastle University.

Cromby, J. (2004). Between constructionism and neuroscience: the societal co-constitution of embodied subjectivity. *Theory & Psychology*, vol. 14(6), pp. 797-821.

Cronbach, L. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*. vol. 16(3), pp. 297-334.

Cross, D., Lester, L. & Barnes, A. (2015). A longitudinal study of the social and emotional predictors and consequences of cyber and traditional bullying victimisation. *International Journal of Public Health*, vol. 60 (2). DOI: 10.1007/s00038-015-0655-1

Dariotis, J.K., Mirabal-Beltran, R., Cluxtion-Keller, F., Gould, L.F., Greenberg, M.T. & Mendelson, T. (2016). A qualitative evaluation of the student learning and skills use in a school-based mindfulness and yoga program. *Mindfulness*, vol. 7(1), pp. 76-89. doi:10.1007/s12671-015-0463-y

Datnow, A., Hubbard, L. & Mehan, H. (2002). *Extending educational reform: from one school to many*. New York: Routledge Falmer.

Datu, J.A.D. & Bernardo, A.B.I. (2020). The blessings of social-oriented virtues: interpersonal character strengths are linked to increased life satisfaction and academic success among Filipino high school students. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, vol. 11 (7), pp. 983-990. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2F1948550620906294>

Datu, J.A.D. & Mateo, N.J. (2020). Character strengths, academic self-efficacy, and well-being outcomes in the Philippines: a longitudinal study, *Children and Youth Services Review*, vol. 119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105649>

Datu, J.A. & Valdez, J.P. (2016). Psychological capital predicts academic engagement and well-being in Filipino high school students. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, vol. 25 (3), pp. 399-405.

Dawood, R. (2013). Positive psychology in school-based psychological intervention: a study of the evidence -base. *The European Journal of Social & Behavioural Sciences*, vol. 5 (2), pp. 954-967. doi:10.15405/ejsbs.70

Dawson, W. (2010). Private tutoring and mass schooling in east Asia: reflections of inequality in Japan, South Korea and Cambodia. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, vol. 11 (1), pp. 4-24.

Deci, E.L & Ryan, R.M. (2008). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and wellbeing: an introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 9, pp.1-11.

- Demir, S.B. & Pismek, N. (2018). A convergent parallel mixed-methods study of controversial issues in social studies classes: a clash of ideologies. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, vol. 18, pp. 119-149.
- Denscombe, M. (2008). Communities of practice: a research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, vol. 2(3), pp. 270-283.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (2013). Introduction. The discipline and practice of qualitative research, in N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (eds). *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage, pp. 1-41.
- Department of Education NSW (2015). The wellbeing for framework [Online]. [Accessed 28 December 2020] Available at: https://education.nsw.gov.au/content/dam/main-education/student-wellbeing/whole-school-approach/Wellbeing_Framework_for_Schools.pdf
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 95, pp. 42-575.
- Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: the science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist*, vol. 55 (1), pp. 34 – 43.
- Diener, E., Wirtz, D. & Tov, W. (2010). New measures of well-being: flourishing and positive and negative feelings. *Social Indicators Research*, vol. 39, pp. 247 – 266.
- Diener, E. & Chan, M. (2011). Happy people live longer: subjective well-being contributes to health and longevity. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, vol. 3, pp.1-43.
- Diener, E. & Tay, L. (2013). A scientific review of the remarkable benefits of happiness for successful and healthy living. *Report to the United Nations General Assembly Well-being and Happiness: A New Development Paradigm*, pp. 90 – 117.
- Dierendonck, D.V., Díaz, D., Rodríguez-Carvajal, R., Blanco, A. & Moreno-Jiménez (2008). Ryff's six-factor model of psychological well-being, a Spanish exploration. *Social Indicators Research*, vol. 87 (3), pp. 473-479.
- Dix, K., Kashfee, S.A., Carslake, T., Sniedze-Gregory, S., O'Grady, E. & Trevitt, J. (2020). *A systematic review of intervention research examining effective student wellbeing in schools and their academic outcomes*. Evidence for Learning: Melbourne.
- Domitrovich, C.E., Durlak, J., Staley, K.C. & Weissberg, R.P. (2017). Social-emotional competence: an essential factor for promoting positive adjustment and reducing risk in school children, *Child Development*, vol. 88 (2), pp. 408-416.
- Domínguez-Serrano, M., del Moral-Espín, L.& Gálvez Muñoz, L. (2018). A well-being of their own: Children's perspectives of well-being from the capabilities approach. *Childhood*, vol 26 (1), pp.22-38.
- Donaldson, S., Dollwet, M. & Rao, M. (2015). Happiness, excellence, and optimal human functioning revisited: examining the peer-reviewed literature linked to positive psychology. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 10 (3), pp. 185-195. doi: 10.1080/17439760.2014.943801

Dorn, D., Fischer, J.A., Kirchgässner, G. & Souza-Poza, A. (2007). Is it culture or democracy? the impact of democracy and culture on happiness. *Social Indicators Research*, vol.82 (3), pp. 505-526.

Downey, C. & Williams, C., (2011). Family SEAL homeschool collaborative programme focusing on the development of children's social and emotional skills. *Journal of Advances in School Mental Health Promotion*, vol. 3(1). doi:10.1080/11754730X.2010.9715672

Dubai Statistics Center. (2018). *Number of Population Estimated by Nationality- Emirate of Dubai (2017 - 2015)* [Online]. Accessed 02 March 2019. Available at: https://www.dsc.gov.ae/Report/DSC_SYB_2017_01%20_%2003.pdf

Durlak, J.A. (2013). *The importance of quality implementation for research, practice, and policy*. Department of Health and Human Services.

Durlak, J.A. (2015). Studying program implementation is not easy but it is essential. *Prevention Science*, vol. 16 (8), pp. 1123-1127. doi:10.1007/s11121- 015-0606-3

Durlak, J. A., Domitrovich, C.E., Weissberg, R.P. & Gullota, T.P. (Eds.). (2015). *Handbook of social and emotional learning: research and practice*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Durlak, J.A., Weissberg, R.P., Dymnicki, A.B., Taylor, R.D. & Schellinger, K.B. (2011). The impact enhancing students' social and emotional learning: a meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions, *Child Development*, vol. 82, pp. 405-432. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2010.01564.x

Ecarius, J. (2018). Wellbeing of adolescents as a requirement for education in late modernity. *Education in Modern Society*, vol. 16, pp.207-212.

Eccles, J.S. & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, vol. 53, pp. 109-132.

Eichas. K., Ferrer-Wreder, L. & Olsson, T.M. (2019). Contributions of positive youth development to intervention science. *Child & Youth Care Forum*, vol. 48 (2), pp. 279-287.

Elo, S. & Kyngäs (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, vol. 62 (1), pp. 107-115.

Engelhardt, D. & Lewkowicz, A. (2019). Dubai student wellbeing census workshop. [online]. Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA). [Accessed 11 October 2019]. Available at: <https://www.khda.gov.ae/CMS/WebParts/TextEditor/Documents/DSWCResultsWorkshopPresentation.pdf>.

Ercikan, K. & Roth, W. (2009). *Generalizing from educational research: Beyond qualitative and quantitative polarization*. New York: Routledge

Etikan, I., Musa, S.A. & AlKassim, R.S. (2015). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling, *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, vol. 5 (1),

pp. 1-4.

Evans, R., Murphy, S. & Scourfield, J. (2015). Implementation of school-based social and emotional learning intervention: understanding diffusion processes within complex systems. *Prevention Science*, vol. 16, pp. 754-764. doi:10.1007/s11121-015-0552-0

Executive Council, The. (2018). *Dubai Strategic Plan 2015*. [Online] [Accessed 02 March 2020]. Available at: <https://www.dubaiplan2021.ae/dsp-2015-2/>

Fabiano, G.A., Chafouleas, S.M., Weist, M.D., Sumi, W.C. & Humphrey, N. (2014). Methodology considerations in school mental health research. *School Mental Health*, vol. 6 (2), pp. 68 – 83. doi:10.1007/s12310-013- 9117-1

Fetters, M.D., Curry, L.A. & Creswell, J.W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs – principles and practices. *Health Services Research*, vol. 48 (6Pt2), pp. 2134 – 2156. doi:10.1111/1475-6773.12117

Fine, G.A. & Sandstrom, K.L. (1988). *Knowing children*. SAGE Publications

Fixsen, D., Naoom, S., Blasé, K., Friedman, R. & Wallace, F. (2005). Implementation research: a synthesis of the literature [Online]. [Accessed 05 December 2020] Available at: <https://nirn.fpg.unc.edu/sites/nirn.fpg.unc.edu/files/resources/NIRN-MonographFull-01-2005.pdf>

Flick, U., Kardoff, E.V. & Steinke, I. (2004). *A companion to qualitative research*. London: SAGE Publications.

Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 18 (1), pp. 39-50.

Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. (1996). *How to design and evaluate research*. USA: McGraw Hill Inc.

Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th edn). Boston: McGraw Hill Higher Education.

Fraenkel, J. & Wallen, N. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. 8th edn. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Fraenkel, J.R., Wallen, N.E & Hyun, H.H. (2015). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. 9th edn. New York: McGraw Hill Education.

Frawley, A. (2015). Happiness research: a review of critiques. *Sociology Compass*, vol. 9(1), pp. 62-77. doi:10.1111/soc4.12236

Friedman, H.L. & Robbins, B. (2012). The negative shadow cast by positive psychology: contrasting views and implications of humanistic and positive psychology on resiliency. *The Humanistic Psychologist*, vol. 40 (1), pp. 87-102.

Gadermann, A. M., Guhn, M. & Zumbo, B. D. (2011). Investigating the substantive aspect of construct validity for the Satisfaction with Life Scale adapted for Children: A focus on cognitive processes. *Social Indicators Research*, vol.100, pp. 7-60.

Gall, M.D., Gall, J.P. & Borg, W.R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th Ed.). New York, NY: Allyn & Bacon.

Gallagher, M.W., Lopez, S.J. & Preacher, K.J. (2009). The hierarchical structure of well-being. *Journal of Personality*, vol. 77(4), pp. 1025-1050.

Ganotice, F. A., Yeung, S.S., Beguina, L.A. & Villarosa, J.B. (2016). The relationship of positive psychological capital and work-related outcomes. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, vol. 25 (3), pp. 407-414.

Gashi, A. & Mojsoska-Blazevski, N. (2016). The Determinants of students' well-being in secondary vocational schools in Kosovo and Macedonia. *European Journal of Education*, vol. 51 (3), pp. 333-344.

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for windows step by step: a simple guide and reference*. (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Gifford, R. (2016). *Research method for environmental Psychology*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. [Online] [Accessed 15 May 2021]. Available at: <http://bit.ly/1Qs3C7S>

GL Assessment (2017). Pupil Attitude Towards School and Self (PASS). [online]. Vantage London: GL-Assessment. [Accessed 12 September 2019] Available at: <https://www.gl-education.com/products/pupil-attitudes-to-self-and-school-pass/>

GL Education (2018). Global perspectives: pupil attitudes to self and school report 2018 [Online]. [Accessed 28 November 2019] Available at: https://www.gl-education.com/media/267620/gl2143_global-perspectives-report_february-2018_final.pdf

GL Education (2019). What students' beliefs and feelings tell you about the quality of education in your school. [Online] [Accessed 06 May 2020]. Available at: <https://www.gl-education.com/news-hub/blogs/what-students-beliefs-and-feelings-tell-you-about-the-quality-of-education-in-your-school/>

Global Council for Happiness and Wellbeing, The. (2019). *Global happiness and wellbeing policy report*. New York: Sustainable Development Solutions Network

Gokcen, N. (2013). *Towards a context-specific theory of flourishing: explorations on the meaning measurement, and policy implications of flourishing in higher education*. Ph.D. Thesis. University of East London.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, vol. 8(4), pp. 597-606.

Goodman, F.R., Disabato, D.J., Kashdan, T.B. & Kauffman, S.B. (2017). Measuring well-

beng: a comparison of subjective well-being and PERMA. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, pp. 1-12. DOI: 10.1080/17439760.2017.1388434

Gorsuch, R. L. (1983). *Factor analysis* (2nd ed.) Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Govorova, E., Benítez, I. & Muñiz, J. (2020). How schools affect student well-being: a cross-cultural approach in 35 OECD countries. *Frontiers In Psychology*, vol. 11, p. 431.

Graham, A., Fitzgerald, R., Powell, M.A., Thomas, N., Anderson, D.L., White, N.E. & Simmons, C.A. (2014). *Wellbeing in schools: research project: improving approaches to wellbeing in schools: what role does recognition play? Final report: volume one*. Centre for Children and Young People, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW [Online]. Accessed 02 March 2020. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.4226/47/58eb0b2e0ea3a>

Gravetter, F.J. & Forzano, L.B. (2012). *Research Methods for the Behavioral Sciences* (4th Ed.). Belmont, California:Wadsworth.

Gray, A., Beamish, P. & Morey, P. (2020). Flourish: the impact of an intergenerational program on third-grade students' social and emotional wellbeing with application to the PERMA Framework. *Teach*, vol. 14 (1), pp. 26-37.

Green, M., & Piel, J. A. (2009). *Theories of human development: A comparative approach* 2nd edition. Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Greene, J.A. (2015). Serious challenges require serious scholarship: integrating implementation science into the scholarly discourse. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, vol. 40, pp. 112-120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2014.10.007>.

Greenwood, R. (2008). *The sage handbook of organizational institutionalism*, Sage, Los Angeles, CA.

Griffin, J. (1986). *Well-being: its meaning, measurement and moral importance*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gronlund, N.E. (1981). *Measurement and evaluation in teaching* (4th edn). New York: Collier-Macmillan.

Guba, E.G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, vol. 29 (2), pp. 75-91.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1989). *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. Sage.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gunther, S. B. (2015). Perceived sense of subjective well-being of highly successful online

college educators: a generic qualitative study. Ph.D. Thesis. Capella University.

Gustems-Carnicer, J. & Caldéron, C. (2016). Virtues and character strengths related to approach coping strategies of college students. *Social Psychology of Education*, vol. 19, pp. 77-95. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-015-9305-y>

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: Pearson*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. *Long Range Planning*, vol.46(1-2), pp.1-12.

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage

Hall, J.N. (2013). Pragmatism, evidence, and mixed methods evaluation. In D.M. Mertens & S. Hesse-Biber (Eds.), *Mixed methods and credibility of evidence in evaluation*, pp. 15-26. Wiley.

Halliday, A. J., Kern, M.L., Garret, D.K. & Turnbull, D.A. (2019). The student voice in well-being: a case study of participatory action research in positive education. *Educational Action Research*, vol. 27 (2), pp. 173-196.

Halliday, A. J., Kern, M.L., Garret, D.K. & Turnbull, D.A. (2020). Understanding factors affecting positive education in practice: an Australian case study. *Contemporary School Psychology*, vol. 24, pp. 128-145. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40688-019-00229-0>

Harré, R. (1985). The language game of self-ascription: a note. in the social construction of the person. Kenneth Gergen and Keith Davis (Eds), New York: Springer-Verlag, pp. 259-263.

Heale, R. & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evidence Based Nursing*, vol. 18(3), pp. 66-67.

Hefferon, K. & Boniwell, I. (2011). *Positive Psychology: theory, research and applications*. Maidenhead, Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill Education.

Helliwell, J.F. (2003). How's life? Combining individual and national variables to explain subjective well-being. *Economic Modelling*, vol. 20, pp. 331-360.

Helliwell, J.F. & Barrington-Leigh, C.P. (2010). Viewpoint: measuring and understanding subjective well-being. *Canadian Journal of Economics*, vol. 43(3), pp. 729-753.

Hernández-Torrano, D., Ibrayeva, L. Sparks, J., Lim, N., Clementi, A., Almukhambetova, A., Nurtayev, Y. & Muratkyzy, A. (2020). Mental health and well-being of university students: a bibliometric mapping of the literature. *Frontiers in Psychology*, vol. 11, 1226. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01226>.

Hendriks, T., Schotanus-Dijkstra, M., Hassankhan, A., Jong, J. & Bohlmeijer, E. (2020). The efficacy of multi-component positive psychology interventions from non-western countries: a systematics review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 8 (1), pp. 71-98.

Herman, K.C., Borden, L.A., Reinke, W.M. & Webster-Stratton, C. (2011). The impact of the incredible years parent, child, and teacher training programs on children's co-occurring internalizing symptoms. *School Psychology Quarterly*, vol. 26 (3), pp. 189-201. doi:10.1037/a0025228

Heydariollah, A.T., Talepasand, S. & Rahimian, B.I. (2019). The effectiveness of positive education intervention on happiness, depression, academic satisfaction, and academic achievement. *Journal of Fundamentals of Mental Health*, vol. 21 (6), pp. 409-415.

Heyvaert, M., Maes, B. & Onghena, P. (2013). Mixed methods research synthesis: definition, framework, and potential. *Quality & Quantity*, vol. 47 (2), pp. 659-676. doi:10.1007/s11135-011-9538-6

Hill, P.C. & Sandage, S.J. (2016). The promising but challenging case of humility as a positive psychology virtue. *Journal of Moral Education*, vol. 45 (2), pp. 132-146.

Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is "enough" in internet survey research? *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century*, vol. 6. pp. 3-4.

Horn, A.B., Pössel, P. & Hautzinger, M. (2011). Promoting adaptive emotion regulation and coping in adolescence a school-based programme. *Journal of Health Psychology*, vol. 16(2), pp. 258-273. doi:10.117/1359105310372814

Howlett, M. (2019). *Designing public policies: principles and instruments* (2nd edn). New York: Routledge.

Hsieh, H.F. & Shannon, S.E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, vol. 15(9), pp. 1277-1288.

Huta, V. & Ryan, R.M. (2009). Pursuing pleasure or virtue: the differential and overlapping well-being benefits of hedonic and eudaimonic motives. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol.11, pp.735-762.

Hu, L.T. & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, vol. 6(1), pp. 1 – 55.

Inglehart, R. & Klingemann, H.D. (2000). Genes, culture, democracy, and happiness. In Diener, E. & Suh, E. M. (Eds.). *Culture and subjective well-being*, pp.165-184. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

- Isaac, S. & Michael, W.B. (1995). *Handbook in Research and Evaluation*. San Diego, CA: Educational and Industrial Testing Services.
- Ivtzan, I. & Lomas, T. (eds.) (2016). *Mindfulness in positive psychology: the science of meditation and wellbeing*. New York: Routledge.
- Ivtzan, I., Lomas, T., Hefferon, K., & Worth, P. (2016). *Second wave positive psychology: embracing the dark side of life*. New York: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Jackson, T. (2011). *Prosperity without growth: economics for a finite planet*. London, Taylor and Francis.
- Jamtsho, S. (2015). Implementing a whole-school approach to student wellbeing: a study examining the implementation experiences of Bhutanese and Australian teachers in wellbeing leadership roles. PhD Thesis. The University of Melbourne.
- Jiang, M. (2018). Chinese students' adjustment to studying in UK higher education: academic self-efficacy and psychological well-being. Ph.D. Thesis. University of York.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2014). Educational research: quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches. 5th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Johnson, R.B. & Christensen, L. (2017). *Educational research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. 6th edition. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications
- Johnson, R.B. & Christensen, L. (2020). *Educational research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. 7th edition. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications
- Johnson, R. B. and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, vol. 33(7), pp.14-26.
- Johnson, R.B. & Stefurak, T. (2013). Dialectical pluralism: a metaparadigm and process philosophy for 'dynamically combining' important differences. *Qualitative Methods in Psychology Bulletin*, vol. 17, pp. 63-69.
- Jones, S.M. & Bouffard, S.M. (2012). Social and emotional learning in schools: from programs to strategies social policy report. *Society for Research in Child Development*, vol. 26 (4), pp. 1 – 13. doi:10.1037/a0025596
- Joseph, S. (2015). Positive therapy: Building bridges between positive psychology and person-centred psychotherapy. 2nd edn. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Judice, M.W. (2018). *A phenomenological study of positive psychology and its use in the two-year college classroom*. Ph.D. Thesis. Lamar University.
- Kanwal, J., Jung, Y. & Zhang, M. (2016). Brain plasticity during adolescence: effects of stress, sleep, sex and sounds on decision making. *Anatomy & Physiology: Current research*,

vol. 6 (1), pp. 1 – 8. doi:10.4172/2161- 0940.1000e135

Karafilis, G. (2012). Some thoughts on John Dewey's ethics and education. *US-China education review*, vol. 4, pp. 445-452.

Kaufman, D., Kraay, A. & Mastruzzi, M. (2003). *Governance matters III: Governance indicators for 1996-2002*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 3106. Washington D.C.:World .

Keita, T. (2015). Provincialising the world culture theory debate: critical insights from margin. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, vol. 13 (1), pp. 34 – 57.

Kelly, B., & Perkins, D.F. (2012). *Handbook of implementation science for psychology in education*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Kelly, L. (1996). The project cycle and the delivery of the aid program. In P. Kilby. (Ed.). *Australia's aid program: Mixed messages and conflicting agendas*. Melbourne: Monash Asia Institute & Community Aid Abroad, pp. 223-241.

Kellock, A. (2020). Children's well-being in the primary school: a capability approach and community psychology perspective. *Child Labour, Education and Participation*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 131-161.

Kellock, A. & Sexton, J. (2017). Whose space it is anyway? Learning about space to make space to learn. *Children's Geographies*, vol. 16 (2), pp. 115-127.

Kenaid, K. (2012). *In Search of Good Education: Why Emirati Parents Choose Private Schools in Dubai*. Knowledge and Human Development Authority, Dubai. [Online] [Accessed 03 March 2020]. Available at: [https://www.khda.gov.ae/CMS/WebParts/TextEditor/Documents/Emiratis%20in%20Dubai%20Private%20Education%20_EN%2031-10-2012%20\(2\).pdf](https://www.khda.gov.ae/CMS/WebParts/TextEditor/Documents/Emiratis%20in%20Dubai%20Private%20Education%20_EN%2031-10-2012%20(2).pdf)

Kern, M.I. & Bowling, D.S. (2015). Character strengths and academic performance in law students. *Journal of Research in Personality*, vol. 55, pp. 25-29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2014.12.003>

Kern, M.L., Mathur, S.R., Albrecht, S. F., Poland, S., Rozalski, M. & Skiba, R.J. (2017). The need for school-based mental health services and recommendations for implementation. *School Mental Health*, vol. 9 (5), pp. 1- 13. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12310-017- 9216-5>.

Kern, M.L., Waters, L.E., Adler, A. & White, M. A. (2015). A multidimensional approach to measuring wellbeing in students: application of the PERMA framework. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 10 (3), pp. 262-271.

Kern, M.L., Williams, P., Spong, C., Colla, R., Sharma, K., Downie, A., Taylor, J.A., Sharp, S., Siokou, C. & Oades, L.G. (2019). Systems informed positive psychology, *The Journal of Positive psychology* [Online]. [Accessed 02 December 2019] Available at: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/17439760.2019.1639799>

Keyes, C. L. M. (1998). Social well-being. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, vol. 61, pp.121-140.

Khansaheb, H, Hussein, A, Hamidi, S, Brown, D & Younis, M.Z. (2016). Quantitative assessment of some preventive health services provided for adolescent individuals in Dubai. *Journal of Health & Human Services Administration*, vol. 39 (1), pp. 95-12.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling* (4th edn). New York: Guilford Publications.

Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA) (2019a). *Inspection Key Findings 2018-2019*. [Online]. [Accessed 03 March 2020]. Available at: https://www.khda.gov.ae/Areas/Administration/Content/FileUploads/Publication/Documents/English/20190526094359_InspectionKeyFindings2018-2019_En.pdf

Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA) (2019b). Dubai Student Wellbeing Census: together with Dubai school, KHDA is working to support and improve the wellbeing and happiness of students to help them flourish at school and in life. [Accessed 1 November 2019] Available at: <https://www.khda.gov.ae/en/dswc>

Klar, M. & Kasser, T. (2009). Some benefits of being an activist: measuring activism and its role in psychological well-being. *Political Psychology*, vol. 30(5), pp.755-777.

Knight, A. & McNaught, A. (2011). *Understanding wellbeing: an introduction for students and practitioners of health and social care*. Banbury, UK: Lantern.

Komarraju, M. & Nadler, D. (2013). Self-efficacy and academic achievement: why do implicit beliefs, goals, and effort regulation matter? *Learning and Individual Differences*, vol. 25, pp. 67-72.

Krakauer, M., Ruscio, D., Froh, J., & Bono, G. (2017). Integrating positive psychology and gratitude to work in schools, in M. Thielking and M.D. Terjesen (eds). *Handbook of Australian School Psychology: integrating international research, practice, and policy*. Switzerland: Springer, pp. 691-706.

Kramer, G. P., Douglas, A., Bernstein, & Vicky P. (2009). *Introduction to Clinical Psychology* (7th Ed.) River Upper Saddle, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Krippendorff, K. (2004). *Content Analysis: An Introduction to its Methodology*. Sage Publications Inc., Thousand Oaks, California.

Kristjánsson, K. (2012). Positive psychology and positive education: old wine in new bottles? *Educational Psychologist*, vol. 47 (2), pp. 86-105.

Kristjánsson, K. (2013). *Virtues and vices in positive psychology: a philosophical critique*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews*. London: Sage.

Kwok, S.Y.C.L., Gu, M. & Kit, K.T.K. (2016). Positive psychology intervention to alleviate child depression and increase life satisfaction: a randomized clinical trial. *Research on Social Work Practice*, vol. 26(4), pp. 350 – 361. doi:10.1177/1049731516629799

Labuschagne, A. (2003). Qualitative research: Airy fairy or fundamental? *The Qualitative Report*, vol. 8 (1), Article 7.

Lam, K. (2016). School-based cognitive mindfulness intervention for internalizing problems: pilot study with Hong Kong elementary students. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, vol. 25(11), pp. 3293-3308. doi:10.1007/s10826-016-0483-9

Lambert, L. & Hussain, H. (2016). Regional news in positive psychology, *Middle East Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 2 (1), pp. 1-8.

Lambert, L., Lomas, T., Van de Weijer, M.P., Passmore, H.A., Joshanloo, M., Harter, J., Ishikawa, Y., Lai, A., Kitagawa, T., Chen, D., Kawakami, T., Miyata, H. & Diener, E. (2020). Towards a greater global understanding of wellbeing: a proposal for a more inclusive measure. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol 10 (2), pp. 1-18.

Lambert, L., Pasha-Zaidi, N., Passmore, H. A. & York Al-Karam, C. (2015). Developing an indigenous positive psychology in the United Arab Emirates. *Middle East Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 1(1), pp. 1-23.

Lambert, L., Passmore, H. & Holder, M.D. (2015). Foundational frameworks for positive psychology: mapping wellbeing orientations. *Canadian Psychology*, vol. 56 (3), pp. 311-321.

Lambert, L. & Pasha-Zaidi, N. (2016). Using the PERMA Model in the United Arab Emirates. *Social Indicators Resources*, vol. 125, pp.905-933.

La Placa, V., McNaught, A. & Knight, A. (2013). Discourse on wellbeing in research and practice. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 3 (1), pp. 116-125.

Lawshe, C.H. (1975). A quantitative approach to content validity. *Personnel Psychology*, vol. 28, pp. 563-575.

Layous, K., Nelson, S.K., Kurtz, J.L. & Lyubomirsky, S. (2017). What triggers prosocial effort? A positive feedback loop between positive activities, kindness, and well-being. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 12(4), pp. 385-398.

Leach, C. & Green, S. (2016). Integrating coaching and positive psychology in education, in C.V. Nieuwerburgh (ed.). *Coaching in Professional Contexts*, pp. 169-186. London, UK: Sage Publications Ltd.

Lerner, R.M., Von Eye, A., Lerner, J.V., Lewin-Bizan, S. & Bowers, E.P. (2010). Special issue introduction: the meaning and measurement of thriving: a view of the issues. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, vol. 39 (7). pp. 707-719. doi:10.1007/s10964-010-9531-8

Lewis, S. (2015). ‘Bringing positive psychology to organizational psychology’, in S. Joseph

(eds). *Positive psychology in practice: promoting human flourishing in work, health, education, and everyday life*. 2nd edn. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 327 – 340.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Linnenbrink, E.A. & Pintrich, P.R. (2002). Motivation as an enabler for academic success. *School Psychology Review*, vol. 31 (3), pp. 313-327.

Littman-Ovadia, H. & Steger, M.S. (2010). Character strengths and well-being among volunteers and employees: toward an integrative model. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 5, pp. 419–430. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2010.516765>

Liu, R., Zhen, R., Ding, Y., Liu, Y., Wang, J., Jiang, R. & Xu, L. (2018). Teacher support and math engagement: roles of academic self-efficacy and positive emotions. *Educational Psychology*, vol. 38 (1), pp. 13-16.

Lomas, T. (2015). Positive social psychology: a multilevel inquiry into sociocultural well-being initiatives. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, vol. 21 (3), pp. 338-347. doi:10.1037/law0000051

Long, A.C.J., Hagermoser Sanetti, L.M., Collier-Meek, M.A., Gallucci, J., Altschaeffl, M. & Kratochwill, T.R. (2016). An exploratory investigation of teachers' intervention planning and perceived implementation barriers. *Journal of School Psychology*, vol. 55, pp. 1-26. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2015.12.002

Luna, R., Lindsey, M. & Van Tongeren, D.R. (2017). Virtue, positive psychology, and religion: consideration of an overarching virtue and an underpinning mechanism. *Psychology of Religion and Spirituality*, vol. 9 (3), pp. 299-302.

Lyubomirsky, S. & Layous, K. (2013). How do simple positive activities increase well-being? *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, vol. 22(1), pp. 57-62.

Macaskill, A. & Denovan, A. (2013). Developing autonomous learning in first-year university students using perspectives from positive psychology. *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 38 (1), pp. 124-142.

Maccagnan, A., Wren-Lewis, S., Brown, H. & Taylor, T. (2019). Wellbeing and society: towards quantification of the co-benefits of wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research*, vol. 141, pp. 217-243.

MacCallum, R.C., Browne, M.W. & Sugawara, H.M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modelling. *Psychological Methods*, vol. 1(2), pp. 130 – 149.

Macdonald, D., Abbott, R., Hunter, L., Hay, P. & McCuaig, L. (2014). Physical activity-academic achievement: Student and teacher perspectives on the 'new' nexus. *Physical*

Education and Sport Pedagogy, vol. 19 (4), pp. 436-449.
doi:10.1080/17408989.2013.769510

Madden, W., Green, S. & Grant, A. M. (2011). A pilot study evaluating strengths-based coaching for primary school students: enhancing engagement and hope. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, vol. 6(1), pp. 71-83.

Majid, R., Ali, M., Salleh, N., Alias, A., Kanapathy, R. & Hashim, K. (2018). The Dynamic holistic development of human potentials and wellbeing: implication on educational policies. *Journal of ICSAR*, vol. 2 (1), pp. 88-93.

Manicavasagar, V., Horswood, D., Burckhardt, R., Lum, A., Hadzi-Pavlovic, D. & Parker, G. (2014). Feasibility and effectiveness of a web-based positive psychology program for youth mental health: randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, vol. 16 (6). doi:10.2196/jmir.3176

Manne, S., Myers-Virtue, S., Kashy, D., Ozga, M., Kissane, D., Heckman, C. & Rosenblum, N. (2015). Resilience, positive coping, and quality of life among women newly diagnosed with gynecological cancers. *Cancer Nursing*, vol. 38 (5), pp. 375-382.

Marin, L. M., & Halpern, D. F. (2011). Pedagogy for developing critical thinking in adolescents: explicit instruction produces greatest gains. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, vol. 6(1), pp.1-13.

Markus, H. & Kitayama, S. (2009). Cultures and selves: A cycle of mutual constitution. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, vol.5, pp. 420-430.

Mather, P.C. & Hulme, E. (2013). *Positive psychology and appreciative inquiry in higher education*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Maulana, R., Helms-Lorenz, M., Irnidayanti, Y. & Grift, W. (2016). Autonomous motivation in the Indonesian classroom: relationship with teacher support through the lens of self-determination theory. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, vol. 25 (3), pp. 441-551.

McCallum, F. & Price, D. (2017). *Teacher wellbeing: A review of the literature*. Sydney, Australia: The Association of Independent Schools of NS

McCormick, M.J. & Martinko, M.J. (2004). Identifying leader social cognitions: integrating the causal reasoning perspective into social cognitive theory. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, vol. 10 (4), pp. 2-11.

McGrath, R.E. (2015). Character strengths in 75 nations: an update. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 10, pp. 41-52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2014.888580>

McGrath, R.E. (2016). Measurement invariance in translations of the VIA inventory of strengths. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, vol. 32, pp. 187-194. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000248>

McGrath, R.E. (2018). Refining our understanding of the VIA classification: reflections on papers by Han, Miller, and Snow. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. [Accessed 10 October 2021] Available at:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/328012948_Refining_our_understanding_of_the_VIA_Classification_Reflections_on_papers_by_Han_Miller_and_Snow

McGrath, R. E., Greenberg, M.J. & Hall-Simmonds, A. (2018). Scare, tin woodsman, and cowardly lion: the three-factor model of virtue, *Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 12, pp. 373-392.

McGregor, J.A. & Pouw, N. (2017). Towards an economics of well-being. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, vol. 41, pp. 1123-1142.

McLellan, R. & Steward, S. (2015). Measuring children and young people's wellbeing in the school context. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, vol. 45 (3), pp. 307-332.

Mears, C.L. (2009). *Interviewing for education and social science research*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mehdinezhad, V. (2012). Relationship between High School teachers' wellbeing and teachers' efficacy. *Acta Scientiarum Education*, vol. 34 (2), pp. 233 – 241.

Merriam, S.B. (2009). *Qualitative Research: A guide to design and implementation*. US: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Mertens, D.M. (2010). Transformative mixed methods research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, vol. 16 (6), pp. 469-474.

Meyer, John W. & Brian, R. (1977). Institutionalized organizations: formal structure as myth and ceremony. *American Journal of Sociology*. vol. 83 pp. 340-363.

Meyer, J. W., Boli, J., Thomas, G.M, & F. O. Ramirez, F.O. (1997). World-society and the nation-state. *American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 103(1), pp.144-181.

Miller, A. (2008). A critique of positive psychology - or “the new science of happiness.” *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, vol. 42, pp. 591-608.

Miller, L.D., Short, C., Garland, E.J. & Clark, S. (2010). The ABCs of CBT (cognitive behaviour therapy): evidence-based approaches to child anxiety in public school settings. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, vol. 88 (4), pp. 432 – 439. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6678.2010.tb00043.x

Ministry of Education (MoE) (2021a). *School statistics 2017-2018*. [Online] [Accessed 03 March 2020]. Available at: <https://www.moe.gov.ae/Ar/OpenData/Documents/2017-2018.pdf>

Ministry of Education (MoE). (2021b). *Well Schools Network*. [Accessed 23 January 2021] Available at: <https://wsn.hw.gov.ae/en>

Monette, D.R., Sullivan, T.J. & DeJong, C.R. (2002). *Applied Social Research*. Orlando, Florida: Harcourt Press.

Moral Education 2018. Moral education curriculum. [Online] [Accessed 04 January 2021] Available at: <https://moraleducation.ae/curriculum/#header>

Moral Education. (2021). *What is Moral Education?* Viewed on 22 February 2021 at: <https://moraleducation.ae/what-is-moral-education/>

Mohammadi, N.K., Rowling, L. & Nutbeam, D. (2010). Acknowledging educational perspectives on health promoting schools. *Health Education*, vol. 110 (4), pp. 240-251. doi:10.1108/09654281011052619

Morgan, D.L. (1993). Qualitative content analysis: a guide to paths not taken. *Qualitative health research*, vol. 3 (1), pp. 112-121.

Morgan, D.L. (2013). Pragmatism as a paradigm for social research, *Qualitative Inquiry*, vol. 20 (8), pp. 1045-1053.

Morrish, L., Rickard, N., Chin, T.C. & Vella-Brodrick, D.A. (2018). Emotion regulation in adolescent well-being and positive education. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 19, pp. 1543-1564.

Morrison, L. & Schoon, G. I. (2013) The impact of non-cognitive skills on outcomes for young people Literature review. [Online] [Accessed 08 March 2020]. Available at: https://v1.educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk/uploads/pdf/Non-cognitive_skills_Exec_summary.pdf

Morse, J. M., & Niehaus, L. (2009). *Mixed method design: Principles and procedures*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press

Moskowitz, J.T., Cheung, E.O., Freedman, M., Fernando, C., Zhang, M.W., Huffman, J.C. & Addington, E.L. (2021). Measuring positive emotion outcomes in positive psychology interventions: a literature. *Emotion Review*. Vol. 13 (1), pp. 60-73.

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological Research Methods*. London, Sage.

Muijs, D. (2011). *Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS*. 1st ed. Los Angeles [Calif.]:

Mundfrom, D. J., Shaw, D. G., & Ke, T. L. (2005). Minimum sample size recommendations for conducting factor analyses. *International Journal of Testing*, vol. 5 (2), pp.159-168.

Nabavi, R.T. (2012). Bandura's social learning theory & social cognitive learning theory [Online]. Accessed 18 March 2020. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Razieh_Tadayon_Nabavi/publication/267750204_Bandura's_Social_Learning_Theory_Social_Cognitive_Learning_Theory/links/545914d90cf26d5090ad007b.pdf

Nakamura, J. & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014). The concept of flow, in M. Csikszentmihalyi. *Flow and the foundations of positive psychology: the collected works of Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi*, pp. 239-263. Netherlands: Springer.

National Media Council. (2017). *United Arab Emirates 2017*[Online]. [Accessed 10 August 2021]. Available at: [https://nmc.gov.ae/en-us/E-Participation/Lists/Publications/Attachments/6/UAE%20Book %20-%20en%20-%20New.pdf](https://nmc.gov.ae/en-us/E-Participation/Lists/Publications/Attachments/6/UAE%20Book%20-%20en%20-%20New.pdf)

Neal, J. W. & Neal, Z. P. (2013). Nested or Networked? *Social Development*, vol. 22, pp. 722-737.

Neuman, W.L. (1997). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Ng, W. (2015). Boosting well-being with positive psychology interventions: moderating role of personality and other factors. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, vol. 45 (2), pp. 79-87. doi:10.1007/s10879-014- 9291-y

Ng, W. (2017). Extending traditional psychological disciplines to positive psychology: a view from subjective well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 18(5), pp. 1553-1571.

Nielsen, L., Meilstrup, C., Nelausen, M.K., Koushede, V., Holstein, B.E., Weare, K. & Weare, K. (2015). Promotion of social and emotional competence: experiences from a mental health intervention applying a whole school approach. *Health Education*, vol. 115 (3/4), pp. 339-356. doi:10.1108/HE-03-2014-0039

Noble, T. & McGrath, H. (2016). *The PROSPER school pathways for student wellbeing: policy and practices*. New York: Springer.

Noble, T., McGrath, H., Wyatt, T., Carbines, R. & Robb, L. (2008). *Scoping study in approaches to student wellbeing - Final report*. Canberra: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. Viewed 7 December 2018. https://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/appendix_1_literature_review.pdf

Norman, K. (2013). Understanding and supporting the flourishing of the exceptional ability: a positive psychology approach to educational psychology practice. *Educational and Child Psychology*, vol. 30 (2), pp. 29-43.

Norrish, J. (2015). *Positive education: the Geelong Grammar school journey*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Norrish, J. M., Williams, P., O'Connor, M. & Robinson, J. (2013). An applied framework for positive education. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 3 (2), pp. 147-161.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd edn). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nunnally, J.C. & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3rd edn.). New York: McGrawHill.

Oadesa, L.G., Robinson, P., Green, S. & Spence, G.B. (2011). Towards a positive university. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 6(6), pp. 432-439.

Oberle, E., Domitrovich, C.E., Meyers, D.C. & Weissberg, R.P. (2016). Establishing systemic social and emotional learning approaches in schools: a framework for schoolwide implementation. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, vol. 46, pp. 277-297. doi: 10.1080/0305764X.2015.1125450

Olswang, L. & Prelock, P. (2015). Bridging the gap between research and practice: implementation science. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*. Vol. 58, pp. 1818-1826.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Bustamante, R.M. & Nelson, N.A. (2010). Mixed research as a tool for developing quantitative instruments. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, vol. 4 (1), pp. 56-78

Oström, E. (2012). Coevolving relationships between political science and economics. *Rationality, Markets and Morals*, vol. 3, pp. 51-65.

Owens, J.S., Lyon, A.R., Brandt, N.E., Masia Warner, C., Nadeem, E., Spiel, C. & Wagner, M. (2014). Implementation science in school mental health: key constructs in a developing research agenda. *School Mental Health*, vol. 6(2), pp. 99-111. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12310-013-9115-3>.

Owens, J. & Patterson, M.M. (2013). Positive psychological interventions for children: a comparison of gratitude and best possible selves approaches. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, vol. 174(4), pp. 403-428. doi:10.1080/00221325.2012.697496

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2013). *How's life?: Measuring well-being*, OECD Publishing: Paris [Online] [Accessed 2 March 2020]. Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/sdd/3013071e.pdf>

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2015). *Skills for social progress: the power of social and emotional skills*. OECD Publishing: Paris <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264226159-en>.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2017). *PISA 2015 results (Volume III): students' well-being*, PISA. OECD Publishing: Paris [Online] [Accessed 29 October 2019] Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264273856-en>.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2018). Trends shaping education spotlight 14: good vibrations: students' well-being [Online]. [Accessed 29 October 2019] Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/education/ceri/Spotlight-14-Good-Vibrations-Students%27-Well-being.pdf>

O'Rourke, J., Cooper, M. & Gray, C. (2012). Is being 'Smart and Well Behaved' a recipe for happiness in western Australian primary schools? *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, vol. 4 (3), pp. 1-15.

Paciello, M., Ghezzi, V., Tramontano, C., Barabaranelli, C. & Fida, R. (2016). Self-efficacy configurations and wellbeing in the academic context: a person-centred approach. *Personality and Individual Difference*, vol. 99, pp. 16-21.

Page, K.M. & Vella-Brodrick, D.A. (2013). The working for wellness program: RCT of an employee well-being intervention. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 14 (3), pp. 1007 -1031.

Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of educational research*, vol. 66 (4), pp. 543-578.

Pajares, F. & Schunk, H.D. (2002). The development of academic self-efficacy, in A. Wigfield and J. Eccles (eds.) *Development of achievement motivation*, pp. 16-20. Elsevier.

Park, S. & Holloway, S.D. (2016). The effects of school-based parental involvement on academic achievement at the child and elementary school level: a longitudinal study. *The Journal Educational Research*, vol. 110 (1), pp. 1 – 16.

Park, N. & Peterson, C. (2009). Strengths of character in schools, in R. Gilman, E. S. Huebner and M.J. Furlong (eds). *Handbook of positive psychology in schools*, pp. 65-76. Routledge, New York.

Pas, E. T. & Bradshaw, C.P. (2012). Examining the association between implementation and outcomes. *The Journal of Behavioral Health Services & Research*, vol. 39 (4), pp. 417-433.

Pasick, R.J., Burke, N.J., Barker, J.C., Joseph, G., Bird, J.A., Otero-Sabogal, R., Tuason, N., Steward, S.L., Rakowski, W., Clark, M.A., Washington, P.K. & Guerra, C. (2009). *Behavioural Theory in a diverse society: like a compass on Mars*. Sage Journals.

Paul, R. (2015). From the editor: an introduction to the JSLHR supplement on implementation science. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, vol. 58, pp. 1717-1718.

Pearson, M., Chilton, R., Wyatt, K., Abraham, C., Ford, T., Woods, H.B. & Anderson, R. (2015). Implementing health promotion programmes in schools: a realist systematic review of research and experience in the United Kingdom. *Implementation Science: IS*, vol. 10, p. 149. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-015-0338-6>.

Peck, R., Olsen, C. & Devore, J.L. (2015). *Introduction to Statistics and Data Analysis*. Cengage learning.

Pernebo, K. & Almqvist, K. (2016). Young children's experiences of participating in group treatment for children expositive education to intimate partner violence: a qualitative study. *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, vol. 21(1), pp. 119-132.
doi:10.1177/1359104514558432

- Pinkelman, S.E., McIntoch, K. Rasplica, C.K., Berg, T. & Strickland-Cohen, M.K. (2015). Perceived enablers and barriers related to sustainability of school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports. *Behavioral Disorders*, vol. 40 (3), pp. 171-183.
- Pintrich, P.R., Smith, D.A., Garcia, T. & McKeachie, W.J. (1993). Reliability and predictive validity of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, vol. 53(3), pp. 801-813.
- Pole, C. & Lampard, R. (2002). *Practical social investigation: Qualitative and quantitative methods in social research*. Harlow, England: Prentice Hall.
- Powell, M.A. & Graham, A. (2017). Wellbeing in schools: examining the policy-practice Nexus. *Australian Educational Researcher*, vol. 44 (2), pp. 213-231.
- Procter, C., Tsukayama, E., Wood, A.M., Maltby, J., Eades, J.F. & Linley, P.A. (2011). Strengths gym: the impact of a character strengths-based intervention on the life satisfaction and well-being of adolescents. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. (6), pp. 377 – 388.
- Proyer, R.T., Wellenzohn, S., Gander, F. & Ruch, W. (2015). Toward a better understanding of what makes positive psychology interventions work: predicting happiness and depression from the person intervention fit in a follow-up after 3.5 years. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-being*, vol. 7 (1), pp. 108-128.
- Quoidbach, J., Mikolajczak, M. & Gross, J.J. (2015). Positive interventions: an emotion regulation perspective [Online]. [Accessed 20 March 2020] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270271500_Positive_Interventions_An_Emotion_Regulation_Perspective
- Ramirez, F.O. (2006). From citizen to person? Rethinking education as incorporation. In D.P. Baker & A.W. Wiseman (eds). *The Impact of comparative education research on institutional theory* (pp. 367-388). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Ratner, B.(2009). The correlation coefficient: ts values range between +1/-1, or do they? *Journal of Target Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, vol. 17, pp. 139 – 142.
<https://doi.org/10.1057/jt.2009.5>
- Reivich, K. & Gilham, J. (2010). Building resilience in youth: the Penn Resiliency Program. *The Newspaper of National Association of School Psychologists*, vol. 38 (6), pp. 16-18.
- Renshaw, T.L. (2015). A replication of the technical adequacy of the Student Subjective Wellbeing Questionnaire. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, vol. 33(8), pp. 757-768.
- Richardson, M., Abraham, C. & Bond, R. (2012). Psychological correlates of university students' academic performance: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 138 (2), pp. 353-387.

Roberts, C.M., Kane, R., Bishop, B., Cross, D., Fenton, J. & Hart, B. (2010). The prevention of anxiety and depression in children from disadvantaged schools. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, vol. 48 (1), pp. 68-73. doi:10.1016/j.brat.2009.09.002

Robson, C. (2011). *Real world research: a resource for users of social research methods in applied settings*. Wiley Chichester

Roffey, S. (2017). The ASPIRE principles and pedagogy for the implementation of social and emotional learning and development of whole school well-being. *International Journal of Emotional Education*, vol. 9 (2), pp. 59-71.

Romm, N.R.A. (2014). Exploration of transformative paradigm with pragmatic twist to contribute to education change. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, vol. 5(2), pp. 134-144.

Ros-Morente, A., Mora, C.A., Nadal, C. T., Blasco-Belled, A. & Berenguer, N.J. (2018). An examination of the relationship between emotional intelligence, positive affect, and character strengths and virtues. *Anales de Psicologia*, vol. 34, pp. 63-67. <https://doi.org/10.6018/analesps.34.1.262891>

Ross, A. & Willson, V.L. (2017). Paired samples t-test: basic and advanced statistical tests. Sense Publishers: Rotterdam.

Ross, K.M. & Tolan, P. (2018). Social and emotional learning in adolescence: testing the CASEL model in a normative sample, *Journal of Early Adolescence*, vol. 38 (8), pp. 1170-1199.

Ross, A. & Willson, V.L. (2017). Basic and advanced statistical tests. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers

Ruch, W., Weber, M., Park, N. & Peterson, C. (2014). Character strengths in children and adolescents: reliability and initial validity of the German values in action inventory of strengths for youth (German VIA-Youth). *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, vol. 30, pp. 57-64.

Ruscio, D.R. (2018). A dual-focused approach of fostering youths' well-being and cultivating academic achievement: experimentally testing a positive education school-wide program. Ph.D. Thesis. Hofstra University.

Ryan, R.M. & Niemiec, C.P. (2009). Self-determination theory in schools of education: can an empirically supported framework also be critical and liberating? *Theory and Research in Education*, vol. 7 (2), pp. 263-272.

Ryff, C.D. & Keyes, C.L.M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 69 (4), pp. 719-727.

Ryff, C.D., Singer, B.H. & Love, G.D. (2004). Positive health: connecting well-being with biology. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal B: Biological Sciences*, vol. 359 (1449), pp. 1383-1394.

- Sawilowsky, S. (2009). New effect size rules of thumb. *Theoretical and Behavioral Foundations of Education Faculty Publications*, 8(2), pp. 597–599.
- Sandelowski, M., Voils, C.I. & Barroso, J. (2006). Defining and designing mixed research synthesis studies. *Research in the Schools*, vol, 13 (1), pp. 29-40.
- Sanetti, L., Dobey, L.M. & Gallucci, J. (2014). Treatment integrity of interventions with children in school psychology international from 1995 – 2010. *School Psychology International*, vol. 35 (4), pp. 370-383. doi:10.1177/0143034313476399
- Samways, M., Teasel, S., Waldrop, R.J., Chiao, E.L. & Warren, M.A. (2019). Short reports: positive education in Dubai: a pilot study of teacher experiences. *Middle East Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 5(1), pp. 97-104.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students* (5th edn.). Harlow, Pearson Education.
- Schalock, R., van Loon, J. & Mostert, R. (2018). A systematic approach to enhancing the personal well-being of children and adolescents. *International Journal of Child Youth & Family Studies*, vol.9(4), pp.188–205.
- Schnitker, S.A. & Emmons, R.A. (2017). The psychology of virtue: integrating positive psychology and the psychology of religion. *Psychology of Religion and Spirituality*, vol. 9(3), pp. 239-241. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/rel0000133>.
- Schonert-Reichl, K. A. (2011). Middle childhood inside and out: The psychological and social worlds of Canadian children ages 9-12, Full Report. Report for the United Way of the Lower Mainland. Vancouver: University of British Columbia.
- Schnoert-Reichl, K.A., Oberle, E., Lawlor, M.S., Abbott, D., Thomson, K., Oberlander, T.F. & Diamond, A. (2015). Enhancing cognitive and social-emotional development through a simple-to-administer mindfulness-based school program for elementary school children: a randomized controlled trial. *Developmental Psychology*, vol. 51 (1), pp. 52-66.
- Schotanus-Dijkstra, M., Pieterse, M. E., Drossaert, C.H., Walburg, J.A. & Bohlmeijer, E.T. (2017). Possible mechanisms in a multicomponent email guided positive psychology intervention to improve mental well-being, anxiety and depression: a multiple mediation model. *The Journal of Positive Psychology* [Online]. [Accessed 28 December 2020] Available at: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/17439760.2017.1388430>
- Schuitema, J., Peetsma, T. & Van der Veen, I. (2014). Enhancing student motivation: a longitudinal intervention study based on future time perspective theory. *The Journal of Educational Research*, vol. 107 (6), pp. 467 – 481. doi:10.1080/00220671.2013.836467
- Schumacker, R. E. & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Schunk, D.H. (2012). *Learning theories: an educational perspective*. 6th edn. Boston, Massachusetts: Pearson Education Inc.

Schutz, Alfred. (1990). *Collected papers I: the problem of social reality*. London: Kluwer Academic Publisher.

Schwartz, H.A., Sap, M., Kern, M.L., Eichstaedt, J.C., Kapelner, A., Agrawal, M. & Kosinski, M. (2016). Predicting individual well-being through the language of social media, in A. K. Dunker, L. Hunter, M.D. Ritchie and T.A. Murray (eds). *Biocomputing 2016: proceedings of the pacific symposium*, pp. 516 – 527. Singapore: World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte. Ltd.

Scoffham, S. & Barnes, J. (2011). Happiness matters: towards a pedagogy of happiness and well-being. *Curriculum Journal*, vol. 22 (4), pp. 535-548.

Scott, W.R. (1998). *Organizations: rational, natural and open systems*. 4th edn. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research (3rd ed.)* New York: Teachers College Press.

Seligman, M.E.P. (2011). *Flourish: a visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. New York: Free Press.

Seligman, M.E.P. & Adler, A. (2018). Positive Education. In J. F. Helliwell, R. Layard, & J. Sachs (Eds.), *Global Happiness Policy Report: 2018*. (Pp. 52 - 73). Global Happiness Council.

Seligman, M.E.P. & Adler, A. (2019). Positive Education, In J.F. Helliwell, R. Layard, & J. Sachs (Eds.), *Global Happiness and Wellbeing Policy Report: 2019*, pp. 52 -71. Global Council for Wellbeing and Happiness.

Seligman, M.E.P. & Csikszentmihalyi (2000). Positive psychology: an introduction. *American Psychologist*, vol. 55 (1), pp. 5-14.

Seligman, M.E. & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014). 'Positive psychology: an introduction', in M. Csikszentmihalyi (eds). *Flow and the foundations of positive psychology*, pp. 279-298. New York: Springer Netherlands.

Seligman, M.E.P., Randal, M.E., Gillham, J., Reivich, K. & Linkins, M. (2009). Positive education: positive psychology and classroom interventions. *Oxford Review of Education*, vol. 35 (3), pp. 293-311.

Seybold, K. S. & Hill, P. C. (2001). The role of religion and spirituality in mental and physical health. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, vol.10 (1), pp.21-24.

Shankland, R. & Rosset, E. (2016). Review of brief school-based positive psychological

interventions: a taster for teachers and educators. *Educational Psychology Review*, vol. 29 (2), pp. 1-30. doi:10.1007/s10648-016-9357-3

Shannon-Baker, P. (2016). Making paradigms meaningful in mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, vol. 10(4), pp. 319-334.

Shernoff, D.J., Csikszentmihalyi, M., Schneider, B. & Shernoff, E. S. (2014). Student engagement in high school classrooms from the perspective of flow theory, in M. Csikszentmihalyi (ed). *Applications of flow in human development and education*. Netherlands: Springer, pp. 475-494.

Shiota, M. N. (2014). The evolutionary perspective in positive emotion research, in M.M. Tugade, M.N.Shiota and L.D. Kirby (eds). *Handbook of positive emotions*. New York: The Guilford Press, pp. 44-59.

Shoshani, A. & Steinmetz (2014). Positive psychology at school: a school-based intervention to promote adolescents' mental health and well-being, *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 15, pp. 1289-1311.

Shoshani, A., Steinmetz, S. & Kanat-Maymon, Y. (2016). Effects of the Maytiv positive psychology school program on early adolescents' well-being, engagement, and achievement. *Journal of School Psychology*, vol. 57, pp. 73-92. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2016.05.003

Silva, A.D., Taveira, M. d., Marques, C. & Gouveia, V. V. (2015). Satisfaction with life scale among adolescents and young adults in Portugal: extending evidence of construct validity. *Social Indicators Research*, vol.120 (1), pp.309-318.

Sin, N., Della Porta, M. & Lyuomirsky, S. (2011). Tailoring positive psychology interventions to treat depressed individuals, in S. Donaldson, M. Csikszentmihalyi & J. Nakamura (eds). *Applied positive psychology: improving everyday life, health, schools, work and society*. New York: Routledge, pp. 79-96.

Slemp, G. R., Chin, T. C., Kern, M. L., Siokou, C., Loton, D., Oades, L. G. & Waters, L. (2017). Positive education in Australia: practice, measurement, and future directions. In E. Fryenberg, A. J. Martin, & R. J. Collie (Eds.), *Social and emotional learning in Australia and the Asia Pacific* (pp. 101-122). Singapore: Springer.

Smithson, J. (2000). Using and analyzing focus groups: limitations and possibilities. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, vol. 3(2), pp. 103-119.

Southam-Gerrow, M. & Dorsey, S. (2014). Qualitative and mixed methods research in dissemination and implementation science: introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, vol. 43(6), pp. 845-850. doi:10.1080/15374416.2014.930690

Soutter, A.K. (2013). *What does it mean to be well in school? An exploration of multiple perspectives on student wellbeing in a New Zealand secondary school context*. PhD thesis. University of Canterbury.

Spence, G.B. & Deci, E.L. (2016). Self-determination theory within coaching contexts:

supporting motives and goals that promote optimal functioning and well-being, in S. David, D. Clutterbuck & D. Megginson (eds). *Beyond goals. Effective strategies for coaching and mentoring*. New York: Routledge, pp. 85-108.

Spiller, K.S. (2017). The effects of positive youth development education on youth minister self-efficacy. Master's Thesis. Mississippi State.

Splitter, L. (2011). Identity, citizenship and moral education. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, vol. 43(5), pp. 484-505.

Stallard, P., Skryabina, E., Taylor, G., Phillips, R., Daniels, H., Anderson, R. & Simpson, N. (2014). Classroom-based cognitive behaviour therapy (FRIENDS): a cluster randomized controlled trial to Prevent Anxiety in Children through Education in Schools (PACES). *The Lancet Psychiatry*, vol. 1 (3), pp. 185-192. doi:10.1016/S2215-0366(14)70244-5

Stanbridge, J.K. & Campbell, L.N. (2016). Case study evaluation of an intervention planning tool to support emotional well-being and behaviour in schools. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, vol. 32 (3), pp. 262-280.

Stice, E., Rohde, P., Gau, J.M. & Wade, E. (2010). Efficacy trial of a brief cognitive-behavioral depression prevention program for high-risk adolescents: effects at 1- and 2- year follow-up. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 78(6), pp. 856-867. doi:10.1037/a0020544

Stichter, M. & Saunders, L. (2019). Positive psychology and virtue: value in action, *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 14 (1), pp. 1-5.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2018.1528381>

Stiglitz, J. E., Sen, A. K. & Fitoussi, J. P. (2009). Measuring economic performance and social progress, Paris, Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress. [Accessed 29 February 2020].
<https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/118025/118123/Fitoussi+Commission+report>

Stockings, E.A., Degenhardt, L., Dobbins, T., Lee, Y.Y., Erskine, H.E., Whiteford, H. A. & Patton, G. (2016). Preventing depression and anxiety in young people: a review of the joint efficacy of universal, selective and indicated prevention. *Psychological Medicine*, vol. 46 (1), pp. 11-26. doi:10.1017/S0033291715001725

Suldo, S.M., Hearon, B.V., Dickson, S., Esposito, E., Wesley, K., Lynn, C. & Lam, G.Y.H. (2015). Adapting positive psychology interventions for use with elementary school children. *Research Based Practice*, vol. 43 (8), pp. 4-8.

Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tashakkori, A., Teddlie, C. & Sines, M. (2012). Utilizing mixed methods in psychological research, in I. Weiner, J.A. Schinka and W.F. Velicer (eds.) *Handbook of psychology, volume 2: research methods in psychology* (2nd edn). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc

Taylor, R.D., Oberle, E., Durlak, J.A. & Weissberg, R.P. (2017). Promoting positive youth

development through school-based social and emotional learning interventions: a meta-analysis of follow-up effects. *Child Development*, vol. 88 (4), pp. 1156-1171. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12864>

Taylor, T. E., (2015). The markers of wellbeing: A basis for a theory-neutral approach. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 5(2), pp.75-90.

Tavakol, M. & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, vol.2, pp53-55.

Tejada-Gallardo, C., Blaso-Belled, A., Torrelles-Nadal, C. & Alsinet, C. (2020). Effects of school-based multicomponent positive psychology interventions on well-being and distress in adolescents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, vol. 49(10), pp. 1943-1960. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-020-01289-9>

The Executive Council. (2018). *Dubai Strategic Plan 2015*. Viewed 05 August 2021. <https://www.dubaipplan2021.ae/dsp-2015-2/>

Thorburn, M. (2018). *Wellbeing, education, and contemporary schooling*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

Titus, C.S. (2017). Aquinas, Seligman, and positive psychology: a christian approach to the use of the virtues in psychology. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 12 (5), pp. 447-458.

Toner, E., Haslam, N., Robinsoin, J. & Williams, P. (2012). Character strengths and wellbeing in adolescence: structure and correlates of the values in action inventory of strengths for children. *Personality and Individual Differences*, vol. 52, pp. 637-642. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.12.014>

Tov, W. & Diener, E. (2007). Culture and subjective well-being. In S. Kitayama & D. Cohen (Eds.), *Handbook of cultural psychology*, pp. 691-713. New York: Guilford.

Treece, E.W. & Treece, J.W. (1982). *Elements of Research in Nursing* (3rd Edn.). St. Louis, Missouri: Mosby.

Tse, D.C., Fung, H.h., Nakamura, J. & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2018). Teamwork and flow proneness mitigate the negative effect of excess challenge on flow state. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol. 13 (3), pp. 284-289.

Turner, N., Barling, J. & Zacharatos, A. (2002). Positive psychology at work. In *Handbook of Positive Psychology*, pp. 715-728.

UAE Official Government Portal (2021). *National Strategy for Wellbeing 2031*. Viewed on 05 August 2021 at: <https://u.ae/en/about-the-uae/strategies-initiatives-and-awards/federal-governments-strategies-and-plans/national-strategy-for-wellbeing-2031>

UNICEF. (2007). *Child poverty in perspective: An overview of child wellbeing in rich countries*. Florence, Italy: Innocenti Research Centre. Viewed 27 November 2018. https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/rc7_eng.pdf

United Kingdom (UK) Government office for Science (2008). *Mental capital and wellbeing: making the most of ourselves in the 21st century* [Online]. [Accessed 23 August 2021] Available at: https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/292453/mental-capital-wellbeing-summary.pdf

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2016). *Education for people and planet: creating sustainable futures for all. Global Education Monitoring Report*. [Accessed 05 August 2021] Available at: <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000245752>

Urhahne, D., Chao, S.H., Florineth, M.L., Luttenberger, S. & Paechter, M. (2011). Academic self-concept, learning motivation, and test anxiety of the underestimated student. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, vol. 81 (1), pp. 161-177. doi:10.1348/000709910X504500

Van Zyl, L. E. (2013). Seligman's flourishing: an appraisal of what lies beyond happiness. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, vol.39 (2), pp. 1-3.

Vélez-Agosto, N.M., Soto-Crespo, J.G., Vizcarrondo-Oppheimer, M., Vega-Molina, S. & García Coll, C. (2017). Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological theory revision: moving culture from the Macro into the Micro. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, vol. 12(5), pp. 900-910.

Vella-Brodrick, D.A. (2011). Positive psychology: reflecting on the past and projecting into the future, *InPsych: The Bulletin of the Australian Psychological Society Ltd*, vol. 33 (2), pp. 10-13.

Vella-Brodrick, D.A. (2013). 'Positive psychology interventions: research evidence, practical utility, and future steps', in L.M.C. Keyes (ed.), *Mental well-being: international contributions to the study of positive mental health*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands, pp. 331-335.

Vickery, C.E. & Dorjee, D. (2016). Mindfulness training in primary schools decreases negative affect and increases meta-cognition in children. *Frontiers in Psychology*, vol. 6 (2025). doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2015.02025

Villavicencio, F.T. & Bernardo, A.B. (2016). Beyond math anxiety: positive emotions predict

mathematics achievement, self-regulation, and self-efficacy. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, vol. 25 (3), pp. 415-422.

Villarreal, V., Ponce, C. & Gutierrez, H. (2015). Treatment acceptability of interventions published in six school psychology journals. *School Psychology International*, vol. 36 (3), pp. 322-332.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Wagenaar, H. (2007). Philosophical hermeneutics and policy analysis: Theory and effectuations. *Critical Policy Analysis*, vol. 1(4), pp. 311-341.

Wagner, L. (2019). Good character is what we look for in a friend: character strengths are positively related to peer acceptance and friendship quality in early adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, vol. 39, pp. 864-903.

Wagner, L., Gander, F., Proyer, R.T. & Ruch, W. (2020). Character strengths and PERMA: investigating the relationships of character strengths with a multidimensional framework of well-being. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, vol. 15, pp. 307-328.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-018-9695-z>

Wagner, L. & Ruch, W. (2015). Good character at school: positive classroom behavior mediates the link between character strengths and school achievement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, vol. 6, p. 610. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00610>

Wang, S.L. & Wu, P.Y. (2008). The role of feedback and self-efficacy on web-based learning: the social cognitive perspective. *Computer & Education*, vol. 51 (4), pp. 1589-1598.

Wang, Y., Kretschmer, R. & Hartman, M. (2010). Teacher as researcher: theory into practice. *American Annals of the Deaf*, vol. 155 (2), pp. 105-109.

Warner, C.M., Colognori, D., Brice, C., Herzig, K., Mufson, L., Lynch, C. Mocer, D.C. (2016). Can school counselors deliver cognitive-behavioral treatment for social anxiety effectively? A randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, vol. 57 (11), pp. 1229-1238. doi:10.1111/jcpp.12550

Warren, M.A., Donaldson, S.I. & Doiron, K. (2015). Positive psychology research in the Middle East and North Africa. *Middle East Journal of Positive Psychology*, vol 1 (76), pp. 60 - 76

Warren, M.A., Donaldson, S.I. & Lee, J.Y. (2018). ‘Applying positive psychology to advance relationship science’, in M.A. Warren & S.I. Donaldson (eds). *Toward a positive psychology of relationships: new directions in theory and research*, pp.9-33. California: ABC-CLIO.

Waterman, A.S. (2013). The humanistic psychology-positive psychology divide: contrasts in philosophical foundations. *American Psychologist*, vol. 68 (3), p.124.

Waters, A.M., Groth, T.A., Sanders, M., O’Brien, R. & Zimmer-Gembeck, M.J. (2015). Developing partnerships in the provision of youth mental health services and clinical

education: a school-based cognitive behavioral intervention targeting anxiety symptoms in children. *Behavior Therapy*, vol. 46 (6), pp. 844-855. doi:10.1016/j.beth.2015.07.003

Waters, L. (2011). A review of school-based positive psychology interventions. *Australian Educational and Developmental Psychologist*, vol. 28 (2), pp. 75-90.

Waters, L. & Loton, D. (2019). SEARCH: a meta-framework and review of the field of positive education. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*, vol. 4, pp. 1-46.

Waters, L. & White, M. (2015). A case study of a school wellbeing initiative: using appreciative inquiry to support positive change, *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 5 (1), pp. 19-32.

Watkins, P.C. (2016). *Positive Psychology 101*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.

Watson, D., Emery, C., Bayliss, P., Boushel, M. & McInnes, K. (2012). *Children's social and emotional wellbeing in schools: a critical perspective*. Bristol: The Policy Press.

Weber, M. & Ruch, W. (2012). The role of a good character in 12-year old school children: do character strengths matter in the classroom? *Child Indicators Research*, vol. 5, pp. 31-334. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-011-9128-0>

Wehmeyer, M. L., Shogren, K.A. & Toste (2018). Self-determination theory [Online]. [Accessed 6 December 2019] Available at: <https://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/view/document/obo-9780199828340/obo-9780199828340-0218.xml>

Western, M. & Tomaszewski, W. (2016). Subjective wellbeing, objective wellbeing and inequality in Australia. *PLoS ONE*, vol.11 (10), pp. 1-20.

White, M.A & Murray, A.S. (2015). *Evidence-based approaches in positive education: implementing a strategic frame-work for well-being in schools*. New York: Springer.

White, M.A., & Kern, M. L., (2018). Positive education: Learning and teaching for wellbeing and academic mastery. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, vol. 8 (1), pp. 1-17.

White, M.D. & Marsh, E.E. (2006). Content analysis: a flexible methodology. *Library Trends*, vol. 55 (1), pp. 22-45.

Whiteside, M., Bould, E., Tsey, K., Venville,A., Cadet-James, Y. & Morris, M.E. (2017). Promoting twenty-first-century student competencies: A wellbeing approach. *Australian Social Work*, vol. 70 (3), pp.324-336.

Wilkinson, R. & Pickett, K. (2010). *The spirit level: why equality is better for everyone*. London: Penguin.

Williams, G., Whittome, B. & Watts, P. (2005). 'Attitude measurement to bridge the post-16 gap', in Y. Hillier and A. Thompson (eds). *Readings in post-compulsory education: research in the learning and skills sector*, pp.189 – 202. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Wong, P.T.P. (2011). Positive psychology 2.0: Towards a balanced interactive model of the good life. *Canadian Psychology*, vol. 52(2), pp.69-81.

Woods, R. & Pooley, J.A. (2015). A review of intervention programs that assist the transition for adolescence into high school and the prevention of mental health problems. *International Journal of Child and Adolescent Health*, vol. 8 (2), pp. 97-108.

World Health Organization WHO. (2006). *Constitution of the World Health Organization*. [Online] [Accessed 01 December 2020] Available at: https://www.who.int/governance/eb/who_constitution_en.pdf

World Health Organization (WHO) (2015). *Beyond bias: exploring the cultural contexts of health and well-being measurement* [Online]. Viewed 23 August 2021 http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0008/284903/Cultural-contexts-health.pdf

World Health Organization WHO. (2017). *Strengthening resilience: a priority shared by Health 2020 and the Sustainable Development Goals*. [Online] [Accessed 02 December 2020] Available at: http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0005/351284/resilience-report-20171004-h1635.pdf

World Government Summit (2017). The state of positive Education. [online]. [Accessed 09 October 2019]. Available at: https://www.worldgovernmentsummit.org/api/publications/document/8f647dc4-e97c-6578-b2f8-ff0000a7ddb6?mc_cid=7ba0f17ca8&mc_eid=7131579056

Worth, P. & Smith, M. (2018). Critical positive psychology: a creative convergence of two disciplines. In N.J.L. Brown, T. Lomas, & F.J. Eiroa-Orosa (Eds.), *The Routledge international handbook of critical positive psychology*, pp. 3-10. Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.



Yusoff, M. S. B., Rahim, A. F. A., Mat Pa, M. N., Mey, S. C., Ja'afar, R., & Esa, A. R. (2011). The validity and reliability of the USM emotional quotient inventory (USMEQ-i): its use to Measure Emotional Quotient (EQ) of future medical students. *International Medical Journal*, vol. 18, pp. 293-299.

Zack, S., Saekow, J., Kelly, M. & Radke, A. (2014). Mindfulness based interventions for youth. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy*, vol. 32 (1), pp. 44-56. doi:10.1007/s10942-014-0179-2

Zhang, Y. (2016). Making student happy with wellbeing-oriented education: case study of a secondary school in China, *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, vol. 25 (3), pp. 463-471.

Appendices

Appendix B.1: School Consent Form

The
British University
in Dubai

Research Consent Form

Thesis Title: The impact of positive education implementation on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools

January 16, 2021.

My name is Rima Abou Khreibi. I am a PhD. student at the British University in Dubai (BUiD) majoring in Educational Leadership Management and Policy. I am planning to investigate "The impact of positive education implementation on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools". I am writing to request your permission to provide me access to collect data for my study. The research study aims to:

- explore the implementation of positive education within Dubai private schools;
- examine the perception of stakeholders about positive education and its impact on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

Positive education implementation within schools has been introduced in the past fifteen years. Although many countries have adopted positive education as part of teaching, as part of its shift of educating the holistic child. There is a gap in international literature about the impact of positive education on various aspects of schools, specifically wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The findings of this proposed research study will help in improving understanding about the implementation of positive education programs and its impact on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy from the perceptions of various stakeholders involved which allow schools and policy makers to device new interventions and enhance positive education within the educational setting. The focus of the study will be Upper Primary and Secondary students, parents, teachers, and head of departments involved in the implementation of positive education.

After obtaining consent the researcher will collect data following the current procedure:

- **Upper Primary and Secondary Students PASS and Wellbeing census data** for students involved in positive education
- **Upper Primary and Secondary Students/teachers and parents** Questionnaires consisting of closed-ended questions
- 2 Classroom observations (Can be recorded positive education interventions/lessons/assemblies along with activity lesson plans)
- 3 Semi-structured interviews – distributed as follows: 1 principal, 1 Head of Department, and 1 Wellbeing/Positive Education Officer

- 3 Focus groups (1 Teachers' Focus group with minimum of 3 teachers /1 Students' Focus group with minimum 3 students /1 Parents' focus group with minimum 3 parents)

Note: Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the researcher understands the pressures schools are under and will cooperate with the school to administer the requested information according to the best time fit for them and best manner suiting their situation. Physical presence in school is not required and online and remote access to the school can be managed and planned with respective personnel.

Please be assured that all information collected in the study will remain confidential and anonymous. All participants including teachers, students, parents participation in the data collection process is totally voluntary and that they can withdraw and not participate in the study where no penalty will be incurred, or any financial, social or psychological harm. Meanwhile, the researcher will present the data obtained in an objective manner without any manipulation or interference.

Please tick (✓) the following boxes to indicate your agreement:

- ☐ I have read the information provided about the purpose of the study.
- ☐ I understand that the data collected will be completely anonymous and that the privacy and confidentiality of the school and all participants from the school will be respected.
- ☐ I understand that the school and/or any participant from the school has the right to withdraw from this study at any time without prejudice.
- ☐ I understand that any report that will result from the data collection will not identify the name of the school or any individual participants within the school.
- ☐ My school is willing to participate in the survey and provide the necessary data to the researcher.
- ☐ My school authorizes access for the researcher to participate in classroom observations, interviews, focus groups and stakeholders' questionnaires.

Please sign the consent form attached to indicate your approval for access to your school. Thank you for participating in this study. Your efforts and time are truly appreciated. For any further questions related to the study

Sincerely;

Rima Abou Khreibi
PhD. Student in Educational
Leadership Management and Policy
The British University in Dubai
Email ID: 20170113@student.buid.ac.ae
Mobile: 0555575803

School Approval/ Signature & Stamp:




Appendix B.2: Principal/Deputy Head Interview Questions (Adapted from Halliday et al., 2020)

A. Implementation of positive education interventions within schools

Intervention Construct (IC) A:

Fitness of the intervention with the organization's policies, mission, values, and priorities

IC- 1A. How does the content of the positive education intervention and the entire intervention fit with the school's values?

Intervention Construct (IC) B:

Fidelity vs. adaptability, this includes the standardization of the teaching resources

IC - 1B. How well do you think the positive education intervention has been adapted to the school setting at School Name?

Organizational Construct (OC) A:

Efficacy, vision and staff's buy-in, norms related to change, and work climate

OC – 1A. How well did the Grade 9 – 12 (Year 10 – 13) teachers “buy-in” to the positive education initiative?

Organizational Construct (OC) B:

Stability of Personnel

OC – 1B. Were there any personnel changes during the initiative?

Organizational Construct (OC) C:

Evidence-based programmes (ongoing evaluation, values, skills, and resources) and Readiness of Organizations

OC – 1C. In retrospect, has the school been ready for this initiative of the implementation of positive education? Regarding resources, skills
Obtain Strategic Plan

Organizational Construct (OC) E:

Ongoing support and Communication – the extent at which problem solving open and frequent communication and encouraged at the start of the implementation, and mechanisms allowing it

OC – 1E. Was there an open communication channel between the school and the Grade 9 – 12 (Year 10 – 13) teachers? Among the Grade 9 – 12 (Year 10 – 13) teachers?

Organizational Construct (OC) F:

Staffing considerations related to administrative and leadership support

OC – 1F. Was there adequate administration and leadership support?

Organizational Construct (OC) G:

Rewards and incentives and reward – for both provider and recipient

OC – 1G. In retrospect, was there adequate incentive and reward for the students?
The teachers?

Organizational Construct (OC) H:

Resources levels

OC– 1H. After the implementation of the initiative, what are your thoughts on the resources level offered and needed for future

Contextual Construct (OC) A:

Political support or lack thereof

OC – 1A. How much did the school receive in the process of implementation of positive education? By the School board? By the KHDA?

B. Impact of positive education interventions on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy?

1. In your opinion, to what extent PE activities helped make students
 - A. feel happy, enjoy their life in school and feel safe? Examples (*Emotional Wellbeing standards 1-3*)
 - B. develop control over their negative feels, like themselves, become resilient and develop positive goals and purpose in life? Examples (*Emotional Wellbeing standards 4-6, 10*)
 - C. become more trusted among their teachers and friends and provided them chances of becoming better and more confident individuals? Examples/Elaborate (*Emotional Wellbeing standards 7-9*)
2. Do you feel that PE activities have made the students:
 - A. feel at the same level, more included and more respected and listened to by others? Examples/Elaborate (*Social Wellbeing standards 11-14*)
 - B. become more appreciated by others and develop active friendships among their friends, teachers, and inside and outside school community? Examples/Elaborate (*Social Wellbeing 15-20*)
3. In your opinion to what extent has PE activities helped students:
 - A. feel less isolated and more interested in attending their classes? Examples/Elaborate (*Self-Efficacy standard 21, 26*)
 - B. Become more confident in the way they apply what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems? Examples/Elaborate (*Self-efficacy standard 22 -23,27*)
 - C. Become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? Examples/ Elaborate (*Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25*)

- D. Become more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught? Examples/Elaborate (*Self-efficacy standard 28 - 29*)
- E. Become more confident in reflecting on their learning and knowing their strengths and weaknesses they have? Examples/Elaborate (*Self-efficacy standard 30*)

Use of PASS/Wellbeing Census

To what extent do you feel that positive education has impacted the results students achieved on the PASS test and Wellbeing Census?

How are the PASS results and Wellbeing census used to develop positive education within the school?

Appendix B.3: Head of Department Interview Questions (Adapted from Halliday et al., 2020)

Intervention Factor (IC) A:

Appropriateness/ fit with recipients (congruence, compatibility, match)

IC- 1A. How appropriate was the content of the positive education intervention? Specifically, for the Grade 9 – 12 (Year 10 – 13) age group?

Intervention Construct (IC) B:

Fidelity vs. adaptability, this includes the standardization of the teaching resources

IC – 1B. How closely were you able to deliver PPI as intended? Were there any adaptations and change you had to adopt ‘on the run’?

IC – 2B. Did the implementation of the initiative involve particular subjects or was it done as an extracurricular activity e.g., as part of workshops and assemblies?

IC - 3B. What type of extra resources were needed for the implementation of positive education?

Intervention Construct (IC) D

Dosage effects: timing

IC- 1D. Was there anything specific that you think would improve the activities used in the PPI? Such as the timing of the activities - more or less frequent, etc...

Provider Construct (PC) A

Perceived benefits, relevance, effectiveness of, and need for the intervention

PC– 1A. Do you understand the rationale behind positive education? Do you feel there is a need for positive education at Name of School?

Provider Construct (PC) B

Training of teachers

PC – 1B. Would have liked to be doing additional specific positive education training before teaching it to my students. What type of training?

Provider Construct (PC) C:

Intervention implementation and motivation

PC – 1C. What ways were used to motivate teachers and students to participate in positive education?

Provider Construct (PC) D:

Self-efficacy – measures the provider’s beliefs with regards to the programme’s potential in terms of bringing about change and the extent to which providers feel they are able to do what is required

PC – 1D. Are you convinced that you are able to successfully teach positive education content to even to the most difficult students? Why/why not?

Provider Construct (PC) E:
Practitioner experience and skill

PC – 1E. How many years of experience do you have in total and how many of these have been teaching positive education?

Provider Construct (PC) F:
Openness to new/changing practices, perceived divergence of research based intervention with usual teaching practices

PC– 1F. Do you find it difficult to continue to implement positive education even when you are opposed by skeptical teachers?

Provider Construct (PC) G
Practitioner’s understanding underlying intervention theories, why and how it should be implemented

PC – 1G. What is rationale behind positive education in your school?

Provider Construct (PC) H:
Intuitive appeal of the intervention to the provider

PC – 1H. Do you believe positive education will help psychological health of your students? Why / Why not?

Provider Construct (PC) I:
Support level and resources

PC– 1I. How satisfied are you with the level of support you received from the teaching materials/ resources and the school for the preparation of positive education implementation in your school?

Organizational Construct (OC) D:
Stakeholders input and decision making

OC – 1D. Are you satisfied with the level of input you had as part of the development, planning and implementation of the positive education intervention?

Organizational Construct (OC) E:

Ongoing support and Communication – the extent at which problem solving open and frequent communication and encouraged at the start of the implementation, and mechanisms allowing it

OC- 1E. Was there open communication with the school about the implementation mechanism and process, and were problem solving mechanisms taught and offered as part of the implementation process?

Questionnaire:

2. In your opinion, to what extent PE activities helped make students feel happy, enjoy their life in school and feel safe? Can you please give examples of what PE activities have been implemented in your teaching practice to make students happy, enjoy their life at school and feel safe?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 1-3)

2. In your opinion, has PE helped students have more develop control over their negative feels, like themselves, become resilient and develop positive goals and purpose in life? Can you please give examples of what and how PE activities have contributed to development of control over negative feelings, liking themselves and becoming resilient, and developing positive goals and purpose in life?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 4-6, 10)

3. In your opinion, has PE activities helped students become more trusted among their teachers and friends and provided them chances of becoming better and more confident individuals? Can you please elaborate on what and how PE activities implemented have helped students become more trusted and better and more confident individuals?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 7-9)

4. Do you feel that PE activities have made the students feel at the same level, more included and more respected and listened to by others? What PE activities have contributed to having students feeling at the same level as other, become more listened to and respected among others and how has this helped you as teachers and students?

(Social Wellbeing standards 11-14)

5. Do you feel that PE has helped students has helped student deal with others, become more appreciated by others and develop active friendships among their friends, teachers, and inside and outside school community? What PE activities and character strengths have contributed to having student become more appreciated by other and develop these active friendships?

(Social Wellbeing 15-20)

6. In your opinion to what extent has PE activities helped students less isolated and more interested in attending their classes? How has PE activities helped students become less isolated from school community and more interested in attending their classes?

(Self-Efficacy standard 21, 26)

7. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they apply what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 22 -23,27)

8. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

9. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

10. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 28 - 29)

11. How has PE helped students become more confident in reflecting on their learning and knowing their strengths and weaknesses they have?

(Self-efficacy standard 30)

Appendix B.4: Positive Education/ Wellbeing Officer Interview Questions (Adapted from Halliday et al., 2020)

Intervention Construct (IC) A:

Appropriateness/ fit with recipients (congruence, compatibility, match)

IC- 1A. How appropriate was the content of the positive education intervention?
Specifically, for the Grade 9 – 12 (Year 10 – 13) age group?

Intervention Construct (IC) B:

Fidelity vs. adaptability, this includes the standardization of the teaching resources

IC – 1C. How closely were you able to deliver PPI as intended? Were there any adaptations and change you had to adopt ‘on the run’?

IC – 2C. Did the implementation of the initiative involve particular subjects or was it done as an extracurricular activity e.g., as part of workshops and assemblies?

IC – 3C. What type of extra resources were needed for the implementation of positive education?

Intervention Construct (IC) D:

Dosage effects: timing

IC- 1D. Was there anything specific that you think would improve the activities used in the PPI? Such as the timing of the activities - more or less frequent, etc...

Provider Construct (PC) A:

Perceived benefits, relevance, effectiveness of, and need for the intervention

PC– 1A. Do you understand the rationale behind positive education. Do you think there is a need for positive education at Name of School

Provider Construct (PC) B:

Training of teachers

PC – 1B. Would you have liked to be doing additional specific positive education training before implementing it. What type of training?

Provider Construct (PC) C:

Intervention implementation and motivation

PC – 1C. What ways were used to motivate teacher and students to participate in positive education?

Provider Construct (PC) D:

Self-efficacy – measures the provider’s beliefs with regards to the programme’s potential in terms of bringing about change and the extent to which providers feel they are able to do what is required

PC – 1D. Are you convinced that you are able to successfully teach positive education content to even to the most difficult students? Why/why not?

Provider Construct (PC) E:
Practitioner experience and skill

PC – 1E. How many years of experience do you have in total and how many of these have been teaching positive education?

Provider Construct (PC) F:
Openness to new/changing practices, perceived divergence of research based intervention with usual teaching practices

PC– 1F. Do you find it difficult to continue to implement positive education even when you are opposed by sceptical teachers?

Provider Factor (PC) G
Practitioner’s understanding underlying intervention theories, why and how it should be implemented

PC – 1G. What is the rationale behind positive education in your school?

Provider Factor (PC) H:
Intuitive appeal of the intervention to the provider

PC – 1H. Do you believe positive education will help psychological health of your students? Why / Why not?

Provider Factor (PC) I:
Support level and resources

PC– 1I. How satisfied are you with the level of support you received from the teaching materials/ resources and the school for the preparation of positive education implementation in your school?

Organizational Constucts (OC) D:
Stakeholders input and decision making

OC – 1D. Are you satisfied with the level of input you had as part of the development, planning and implementation of the positive education intervention?

Organizational Construct (OC) E:

Ongoing support and Communication – the extent at which problem solving open and frequent communication and encouraged at the start of the implementation, and mechanisms allowing it

OC- 1E. Was there open communication with the school about the implementation mechanism and process, and were problem solving mechanisms taught and offered as part of the implementation process?

Questionnaire:

3. In your opinion, to what extent PE activities helped make students feel happy, enjoy their life in school and feel safe? Can you please give examples of what PE activities have been implemented in your teaching practice to make students happy, enjoy their life at school and feel safe?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 1-3)

3. In your opinion, has PE helped students have more develop control over their negative feels, like themselves, become resilient and develop positive goals and purpose in life? Can you please give examples of what and how PE activities have contributed to development of control over negative feelings, liking themselves and becoming resilient, and developing positive goals and purpose in life?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 4-6, 10)

4. In your opinion, has PE activities helped students become more trusted among their teachers and friends and provided them chances of becoming better and more confident individuals? Can you please elaborate on what and how PE activities implemented have helped students become more trusted and better and more confident individuals?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 7-9)

5. Do you feel that PE activities have made the students feel at the same level, more included and more respected and listened to by others? What PE activities have contributed to having students feeling at the same level as other, become more listened to and respected among others and how has this helped you as teachers and students?

(Social Wellbeing standards 11-14)

6. Do you feel that PE has helped students has helped student deal with others, become more appreciated by others and develop active friendships among their friends, teachers, and inside and outside school community? What PE activities and character strengths have contributed to having student become more appreciated by other and develop these active friendships?

(Social Wellbeing 15-20)

7. In your opinion to what extent has PE activities helped students less isolated and more interested in attending their classes? How has PE activities helped students become less isolated from school community and more interested in attending their classes?

(Self-Efficacy standard 21, 26)

7. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they apply what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 22 -23,27)

8. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

9. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

10. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 28 - 29)

11. How has PE helped students become more confident in reflecting on their learning and knowing their strengths and weaknesses they have?

(Self-efficacy standard 30)

Appendix B.5: Teachers' Focus Group Questions (Adapted from Halliday et al., 2020)

Intervention Factor (IF) A:

Appropriateness/ fit with recipients (congruence, compatibility, match)

IC- 1A. How appropriate was the content of the positive education intervention? Specifically, for the Grade 9 – 12 (Year 10 – 13) age group?

Intervention Construct (IC) B:

Fidelity vs. adaptability, this includes the standardization of the teaching resources

IC - 1C. How closely were you able to deliver PPI as intended? Were there any changes/adaptations you made 'on the run'?

IC - 2C. Did all classes reach the same point in the content across all PPI sessions held?

IC - 3C. Were there any privacy issues with doing activities involving the whole class? If so, how were they handled?

Intervention Factor (IC) D:

Dosage effects: timing

IC - 1D. Was there anything specific that you think would improve the activities used in the PPI? Such as the timing of the activities - more or less frequent, etc...

Provider Construct (PC) A

Perceived benefits, relevance, effectiveness of, and need for the intervention

Provider Factor (PC) G

Practitioner's understanding underlying intervention theories, why and how it should be implemented

PC - 1G. Do you understand the rationale behind positive education?

PC– 1A. Do you understand the rationale behind positive education? Do you think there is a need for positive education at Name of School?

Provider Construct (PC) B:

Training of teachers

PC – 1B. Would you have liked to be doing more specific positive education training before teaching it to the students. What type of training?

Provider Construct (PC) C:

Intervention implementation and motivation

PC– 1C. Do you find it difficult to motivate your students to participate in positive education?

Provider Construct (PC) D:

Self-efficacy – measures the provider’s beliefs with regards to the programme’s potential in terms of bringing about change and the extent to which providers feel they are able to do what is required

PC – 1D. Are you convinced that you are able to successfully teach positive education content to even to the most difficult students? Why/why not?

Provider Construct (PC) E:

Practitioner experience and skill

PC – 1E. How many years of experience do you have in total and how many of these have you been teaching positive education?

Provider Construct (PC) F:

Openness to new/changing practices, perceived divergence of research based intervention with usual teaching practices

PC – 1F. Do you think you will be able to teach positive education even when you are opposed by sceptical colleagues?

Provider Factor (PC) H:

Intuitive appeal of the intervention to the provider

PC – 1H. Do you believe positive education will help psychological health of your students? Why / Why not?

Provider Factor (PC) I:

Support level and resources

PC– 1I. How satisfied are you with the level of support you received from the teaching materials/ resources and the school for the preparation of positive education implementation in your school?

Organizational Constructs (OC) D:

Stakeholders input and decision making

OC – 1D. Are you satisfied with the level of input you had as part of the development, planning and implementation of the positive education intervention?

Organizational Construct (OC) E:

Ongoing support and Communication – the extent at which problem solving open and frequent communication and encouraged at the start of the implementation, and mechanisms allowing it

OC- 1E. Was there open communication with the school about the implementation mechanism and process, and were problem solving mechanisms taught and offered as part of the implementation process?

Questionnaire:

4. In your opinion, to what extent PE activities helped make students feel happy, enjoy their life in school and feel safe? Can you please give examples of what PE activities have been implemented in your teaching practice to make students happy, enjoy their life at school and feel safe?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 1-3)

4. In your opinion, has PE helped students have more develop control over their negative feels, like themselves, become resilient and develop positive goals and purpose in life? Can you please give examples of what and how PE activities have contributed to development of control over negative feelings, liking themselves and becoming resilient, and developing positive goals and purpose in life?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 4-6, 10)

5. In your opinion, has PE activities helped students become more trusted among their teachers and friends and provided them chances of becoming better and more confident individuals? Can you please elaborate on what and how PE activities implemented have helped students become more trusted and better and more confident individuals?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 7-9)

6. Do you feel that PE activities have made the students feel at the same level, more included and more respected and listened to by others? What PE activities have contributed to having students feeling at the same level as other, become more listened to and respected among others and how has this helped you as teachers and students?

(Social Wellbeing standards 11-14)

7. Do you feel that PE has helped students has helped student deal with others, become more appreciated by others and develop active friendships among their friends, teachers, and inside and outside school community? What PE activities and character strengths have contributed to having student become more appreciated by other and develop these active friendships?

(Social Wellbeing 15-20)

8. In your opinion to what extent has PE activities helped students less isolated and more interested in attending their classes? How has PE activities helped students become less isolated from school community and more interested in attending their classes?

(Self-Efficacy standard 21, 26)

7. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they apply what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 22 -23,27)

8. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

9. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

10. In your opinion, has PE activities made student more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught? What PE activities has helped student become more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 28 - 29)

11. How has PE helped students become more confident in reflecting on their learning and knowing their strengths and weaknesses they have?

(Self-efficacy standard 30)

Appendix B.6: Students' Focus Group Questions (Adapted from Halliday et al., 2020)

Intervention Factor (IC) A:

Appropriateness/ fit with recipients (congruence, compatibility, match)

IC- 1A. Are you aware of the positive education interventions being used in your school?

IC- 1B. Have you been enjoying the positive education/Wellbeing interventions used in your school? Why/Why not?

Intervention Construct (IC) D:

Dosage effects: timing

IC - 1D. In your opinion what were the best time in which the schools used to carry out positive education interventions e.g., time of day/week/months?

IC - 2D. Would you have liked to spend more time on each exercise? Or would you have liked to do more positive education more frequently than once a week?

Recipient Construct (RC) A:

Recipients, values, feelings, and attitudes related to the intervention, and their perceived need for the intervention

RC– 1A. Why do you believe that your school needs to implement a positive education interventions? (a programme to help your well-being and develop thinking skills) at the school? Why not?

Recipient Factor (RC) B:

Buy-in – to measure recipients believe in the intervention and to what extent it is worthwhile =

RC – 1B. Why do you believe that it is worthwhile to implement positive education programmes in your school?

RC – 2B. How well did your peers and your class accept the positive education interventions implemented thus far in your school?

Recipient Construct (RC) C:

Self-efficacy – recipient's feeling that the intervention will bring about change and to extent will this change take place

RF - 1C. Do you believe that you have a better understanding and knowledge of your own wellbeing and thought after the implementation of positive education interventions in your school?

RF – 2C. Do you think you have become a more and better capable student because of the few skills learned as part of the positive education interventions?

Recipient Construct (RC) – D:

Recipient Motivation to take part in the intervention

RC – 1D. Did you feel motivated to participate in the positive education sessions and Why? Or Why not?

Recipient Construct (RC) – E:

Benefits – Knowledge of the intervention's beneficial outcomes

RC – 1E. How important was it to know possible benefits of positive education interventions ? How many know these possible benefits? Please name some of the benefits.

Recipient Construct (RC) – F:

Collaboration –which contributions of recipients are valued and sought and to what extent

RC – 1F. Were you as students involved in the planning and explaining of positive education? Was this good and if not, would you like to be involved? How were you involved?

Organizational Construct (OC) D:

Stakeholders input and decision making

OC – 1D. Were some of students in the school or you involved in planning and explain positive education. Describe how.

Extra Questions:

1. How would you define wellbeing as a student?
2. Do you feel your school has assisted in improving your wellbeing?
3. What can you school do to improve the wellbeing of the students

Appendix B.7: Parents' Focus Group Questions (Adapted from Halliday et al., 2020)

C. Implementation of positive education interventions within schools

Contextual Construct (Contextual Construct) A: **Engagement of parents and members of the community**

CF – 1A. Have you been made aware as a parent of the positive education initiative your child's school has been implementing? How were you informed?

CF – 2A. What type of interaction did have your son/daughter regarding positive education and how were these interactions? Did you have conversation with your child about their wellbeing and positive education interventions taught in school?

CF – 3A. In what way did the school's positive education interventions impact your son/daughter? What contributions has the positive education contributed to your child's wellbeing?

CF – 4A. How pleased are you with the way the school is implementing positive education interventions at your son's/daughter's grade/year group level?

CF – 5A. How important is it for the school to engages in some programmes adopting social and emotional learning like positive education?

Extra:

1. How has the school involved you as a parent/guardian to improve the wellbeing of your child in school?
2. How do you define student psychological social and emotional wellbeing?
3. How do you define academic self-efficacy?

D. Impact of positive education interventions on wellbeing and academic self-efficacy?

In your opinion, to what extent PE activities helped make your son/daughter feel happy, enjoy their life in school and feel safe? How did you sense this change in feelings happy, enjoying their life and feeling safe in your son and daughter and can you give examples of PE activities that have contributed to this?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 1-3)

5. In your opinion, has PE helped your son/daughter develop control over their negative feels, like themselves, become resilient and develop positive goals and purpose in life? Can you please give examples of what and how PE activities have contributed to development of control over negative feelings, liking themselves and becoming resilient, and developing positive goals and purpose in life?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 4-6, 10)

6. In your opinion, has PE activities helped your son/daughter become more trusted among their teachers and friends and provided them chances of becoming better and more confident individuals? Can you please elaborate on what and how PE activities implemented have helped your son/daughter become more trusted and better and more confident individuals?

(Emotional Wellbeing standards 7-9)

7. Do you feel that PE activities have made your son/daughter feel at the same level, more included and more respected and listened to by others? What PE activities have contributed to having students feeling at the same level as other, become more listened to and respected among others and how has this helped you as teachers and students?

(Social Wellbeing standards 11-14)

8. Do you feel that PE have helped your son/daughter deal with others, become more appreciated by others and develop active friendships among their friends, teachers, and inside and outside school community? What and how PE activities and character strengths have contributed to having son/daughter become more appreciated by other and develop these active friendships?

(Social Wellbeing 15-20)

6. In your opinion to what extent have PE activities helped your son/daughter feel less isolated and more interested in attending their classes? What and how have PE activities helped your son/daughter become less isolated from school community and more interested in attending their classes?

(Self-Efficacy standard 21, 26)

7. In your opinion, have PE activities made your son/daughter more confident in the way they apply what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems? What PE activities have helped your son/daughter become more confident in what they have learned, understanding complex material and solving real-life problems and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 22 -23,27)

8. In your opinion, have PE activities made your son/daughter more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What and how have PE activities helped your son/daughter become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and become more interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

9. In your opinion, have PE activities made your son/daughter more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks? What PE activities have helped student become more confident in the way they complete their assignments and interested in getting good marks and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 24 - 25)

10. In your opinion, have PE activities made your son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught? What PE activities have helped student become more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully and analyzing concepts taught and how?

(Self-efficacy standard 28 - 29)

11. How have PE helped your son/daughter become more confident in reflecting on their learning and knowing their strengths and weaknesses they have?

(Self-efficacy standard 30)

Appendix B.8: Students' Questionnaire and Student Parent's Consent Form

(Adapted from Ruscio, 2018; KHDA, 2019b, Ryff et al., 1998; Keyes, 1998; Bradburn, 1969; Garcia, Pintrich & Smith, 1993)

Students' and Parent's Consent Form

The purpose of the study is to explore 'The impact of positive education implementation on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools'. Participation is voluntary. At any time, you may withdraw and not participate in the study. All information collected in this questionnaire will remain confidential and anonymous.

Student and Parent Consent Form

Dear Student,

Please obtain the consent of your parent prior to completing the below questionnaire. By signing this form I indicate agreement to the following:

1. I have read the information provided about the purpose of the study.
2. I understand that the data collected will be completely anonymous and that the privacy and confidentiality of my son/daughter will be respected.
3. I understand that my son /daughter has the right to withdraw from this study at any time without prejudice.

Student Signature: _____

Parent Signature: _____

Part 1: Demographics Information

1. Nationality?

2. Gender/Are you:

Male/Boy

Female/Girl

3. Age group:

Less than 9 years old
years old

9 – 11 years old
older than 18 years old

12 – 14 years old

15 – 18

4. Which grade do you belong to?

Lower than Grade 4/Year 5

Grade 8/Year9 - Grade 10/ Year 11

Grade 5/ Year 6 - Grade 7/ Year 8

Grade 11/ Year 12 -Grade 12 / Year 13

5. What curriculum do you study in your school?

UK/British Curriculum
American Curriculum
Ministry of Education Curriculum
International Baccalaureate (IB) Curriculum
SABIS Curriculum
Other

6. How long have you been going to this school?

7. Do you live with:

Immediate family - parents and siblings

Immediate family + other relatives – e.g. Uncles, grandparents, etc....

Other

Part 2:

Positive education activities have been used in Dubai schools to improve wellbeing and happiness. These activities include focusing on specific character strengths such as happiness love of learning, perseverance and mindfulness. They also include wellbeing, meditation and pastoral across the school and within classes.

The key below identifies your agreement/disagreement with each statement, please use this key to identify this agreement/disagreement. There are no wrong or right answers in this statements list. It simply requests your opinion. Read every statement carefully and tick the box which most appropriately describes you. Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire.

(5) Strongly agree – (SA) (4) Agree – (A) (3) Neutral – (N)
(2) Disagree – (D) (1) – Strongly disagree (DA)

		5	4	3	2	1
	Emotional Wellbeing	SA	A	N	D	SD
1	Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making me happy					
2	Positive education activities have made me enjoy my life in school					
3	Positive education activities have made me feel safe at school					
4	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing control over my negative feelings					
5	Positive education activities have helped me like myself more.					
6	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing my strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties					

7	Positive education activities have made me become more trusted in school among my teachers and friends					
8	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of becoming a better person.					
9	Positive education activities have helped me become surer (confident) to talk about my opinions and ideas.					
10	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life					
Social Wellbeing						
11	Positive education activities have made me feel that I am at the same level as my friends in school.					
12	Positive education activities have allowed me to feel included by others in school.					
13	Positive education activities have made me become more respected by others in school.					
14	Positive education activities have made me more listened to in school.					
15	Positive education activities have made me have more chances to contribute to my school and community.					
16	Positive education activities have helped me have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.					
17	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of being appreciated by others.					
18	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my friends.					
19	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my teachers.					
20	Positive education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my community (inside and outside the school).					
Academic Self-efficacy						
21	Positive education activities helped me become less isolated from the school community.					
22	Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can apply what I have learned.					
23	Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can understand the most complex material presented by my teachers.					
24	Positive education activities have made me more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.					
25	Positive education activities have helped me become more interested in getting good marks in my tests and assignments.					
26	Positive education activities have helped me become more interested in attending my classes.					
27	Positive education activities have made me more confident in solving real-life problems.					
28	Positive education activities have made me more confident in arguing my point of view respectfully.					

29	Positive education activities have made me more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.					
30	Positive education activities have made me more confident in reflecting on my learning to know the strengths and weaknesses I have.					

Appendix B.9: Teachers' Questionnaire

(Adapted from Ruscio, 2018; KHDA, 2019b, Ryff et al., 1998; Keyes, 1998; Bradburn, 1969; Garcia, Pintrich & Smith, 1993)

Teachers' Consent Form

Dear Teacher;

I am a PhD. student at the British University in Dubai (BUiD). I am planning to investigate "The impact of positive education implementation on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools". The research study aims to examine the perception of positive education, and its impact on students' social and emotional wellbeing. The focus of the study will be Upper Primary and Secondary students involved in the implementation of positive education. Teachers are asked about their perceptions of positive education on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

Your participation in this questionnaire involves answering various questions pertinent to demographics, practices and perceptions and practices in planning and designing positive education interventions and practices. Participation is voluntary. At any time, you may withdraw and not participate in the study where no penalty will be incurred. All information collected in this questionnaire will remain confidential and anonymous.

Thank you for participating in this study. Your efforts and time are truly appreciated. For any further questions related to the study, kindly email me at: 20170113@student.buid.ac.ae.

Sincerely;

Rima Abou Khreibi

20170113@student.buid.ac.ae

[Do you consent to participate in the Questionnaire?](#)

Yes No

Teachers' Questionnaire

Questionnaire's Purpose

This questionnaire aims to investigate the impact of positive education on students social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

Instruction on how to answer each question

The questionnaire is divided into different parts: Part 1 involves demographic information; Part 2 consists of a Likert-scale items measuring perceptions related to impact of positive education on students' social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. Part 3 involves open-ended questions.

This questionnaire will take 10 – 15 minutes. All information collected will be kept confidential and anonymous. Thank you for your participation in this study. Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Part 1: Demographics

1. What is your nationality?
2. What is your gender?
Female Male
3. What is your current position at school?

Teacher Lead teacher Assistant teacher

Coordinator Head of department
4. How many years of experience do you have?

0 – 5 years 6 -10 years 11 -15 years 16 – 20 years

more than 20 years
5. What is the highest education level you have completed?

Bachelor's degree Postgraduate professional degree master's degree
Doctorate degree
6. What is your subject specialization?

Social Studies English Moral Education Arabic
Islamic Studies Science Mathematics
Other (Please specify)
7. How many PD related to positive education have you attended in the last 3 years?

None 1 – 5 6 – 10 more than 10

Part 2:

The key below identifies the extent of your agreement/disagreement with each statement, please use this key to identify this extent.

- (5) Strongly agree – (SA) (4) Agree – (A) (3) Neutral – (N) (2) Disagree – (D)
(1) – Strongly disagree (DA)

Positive Education Implementation Perception at the school level	5	4	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---

To what extent do you agree with the following related to the positive education activities incorporated at the school level – emotional / Psychological wellbeing		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making my students happy					
2	Positive education activities have made my students enjoy their life in school					
3	Positive education activities have made my students feel safe at school					
4	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings					
5	Positive education activities have helped my students like themselves more.					
6	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing their resilience/strengths to recover when facing difficulties					
7	Positive education activities have made my students become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends					
8	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of becoming a better person					
9	Positive education activities have helped my students become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas					
10	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life					
To what extent do you agree with the following related to the positive education activities incorporated at the school level – social wellbeing						
11	Positive education activities have made my students feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.					
12	Positive education activities have allowed my student to feel included by others in school.					
13	Positive education activities have made my students become more respected by others in school.					
14	Positive education activities have made my students more listened to in school.					
15	Positive education activities have made my students have more chances to contribute to their school and community.					
16	Positive education activities have helped my students have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.					
17	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of being appreciated by others.					
18	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.					
19	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.					

20	Positive education activities have helped my students have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school).					
To what extent do you agree with the following related to the positive education activities incorporated at the school level – academic self-efficacy						
21	Positive education activities helped my students become less isolated from the school community.					
22	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.					
23	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.					
24	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in the way they can complete their assignments and tests.					
25	Positive education activities have helped my students become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.					
26	Positive education activities have helped my students become more interested in attending their classes.					
27	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in solving real-life problems.					
28	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.					
29	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.					
30	Positive education activities have made my students more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.					

Appendix B.10: Parents' Questionnaire

(Adapted from Ruscio, 2018; KHDA, 2019b, Ryff et al., 1998; Keyes, 1998; Bradburn, 1969; Garcia, Pintrich & Smith, 1993)

Parents' Consent Form

Dear Parent;

I am a PhD. student at the British University in Dubai (BUiD). I am planning to investigate "The impact of positive education implementation on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools". The research study aims to examine the perception of positive education, and its impact on students' wellbeing. The focus of the study will be Upper Primary and Secondary students involved in the implementation of the positive education. Parents are asked about their perceptions of positive education implementation in the school and whether they feel it has impacted their children's wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

The study's findings will assist in conceptualization and providing better understanding of the common views related to student social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy and how positive education impacts these constructs. The researcher wishes to recommend strategies to assist the schools in supporting their students in improving their social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy.

I assure you that your responses will be anonymous, and your names will not be asked or traced back. The researcher will only see your answers and will use these answers to obtain answers for the purpose of the research. The study will take you 15 minutes to complete questions and you can exit the questionnaire any time.

Thank you for participating in this study. Your efforts and time in are truly appreciated. For any further questions related to the study, kindly email me at: 20170113@student.buid.ac.ae.

Sincerely;

Rima Abou Khreibi

20170113@student.buid.ac.ae

[Do you consent to participate in the Questionnaire?](#)

[Yes](#) [No](#)

Parents' Questionnaire

Part 1a: Demographics

1. What is your relation to the student?

Guardian Parent

2. What is your gender?

Male Female

3. What is your age?

Less than 25
25 – 34
35 -44
45 - 55
56 – 64
65 or older

4. What is your education level?

Below high school
High School
Some university/college education
University bachelor's degree or equivalent
Master's degree
Doctorate degree

5. What is your work status?

Employed Self-employed Not working

6. What is the total number of your children?

7. What is your type of family?

Immediate family (children and parents)
Extended family (other relatives e.g. Grandparents)

Part 1b. General information about the child subject of the survey (oldest child enrolled in a Dubai private school)

1. What is your child's gender?
Male Female
2. What is your child's age?
3. In which grade is your child enrolled in school?
4. Which curriculum is your child studying in this school?
5. For how many years has your child been in this school?
6. Is your child participating in extracurricular activity in school?
Yes No
7. How often do you sit with your child to talk about his/her school day activities?

Every day/evening
Few times a week
Few times a month
Rarely
Never

Part 2:

Positive education is being implemented in Dubai schools to improve wellbeing. Individuals definition of wellbeing and academic self-efficacy differs from one person to another. This questionnaire aims to obtain your opinions on how the positive education interventions contribute to your child's social and emotional wellbeing and academic self-efficacy. The key below identifies the extent of your agreement/disagreement with each statement, please use this key to identify this extent. There are no wrong or right answers in this statements' list. It simply requests your opinion. Read every statement carefully and place an (X) in the box which most appropriately describes you. Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire.

- (5) Strongly agree – (SA) (4) Agree – (A) (3) Neutral – (N)
 (2) Disagree – (D)
 (1) – Strongly disagree (DA)

Positive Education Implementation Perception at the school level		5	4	3	2	1
To what extent do you agree with the following related to the positive education activities incorporated at the school level – emotional / Psychological wellbeing		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	Positive education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy					
2	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school					
3	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school					
4	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings					
5	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.					
6	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties					
7	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among my teachers and friends					
8	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person					
9	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas					
10	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life					
To what extent do you agree with the following related to the positive education activities incorporated at the school level – social wellbeing						
1	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.					
2	Positive education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.					

3	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.					
4	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.					
5	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.					
6	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.					
7	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.					
8	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.					
9	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.					
10	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school).					
To what extent do you agree with the following related to the positive education activities incorporated at the school level – academic self-efficacy						
1	Positive education activities helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community.					
2	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.					
3	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their instructors.					
4	Positive education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can complete their assignments and tests.					
5	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.					
6	Positive education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.					
7	Positive education interventions have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.					
8	Positive education interventions have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing my point of view respectfully.					
9	Positive education interventions have made my son/daughter more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.					
10	Positive education interventions have made my son/daughter more confident in reflecting on my learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.					

Appendix B.11: Pilot Study SPSS Results – Parents’ Questionnaire

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	14	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	14	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.972	.974	30

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Positive Education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy?	1.8571	.86444	14

Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school?	1.6429	.63332	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school	1.6429	.74495	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings?	1.9286	.91687	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.	2.0000	.78446	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties	1.9286	.82874	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	2.0000	.78446	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person.	2.0714	.91687	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas.	1.7143	.72627	14

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	2.1429	.86444	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	2.0000	.78446	14
Positive Education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.	1.7143	.61125	14
Positive Education have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.	2.0714	.91687	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.	2.0714	.82874	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	2.0000	.96077	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	2.0000	.87706	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.	2.0714	.61573	14

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	1.9286	.61573	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	2.0000	.87706	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school)	2.2857	.72627	14
Positive Education activities helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community	2.0714	.73005	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	2.0714	.73005	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	2.2143	.89258	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	2.3571	.84190	14

Postive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	2.4286	.93761	14
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.	1.8571	.77033	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.	2.2857	.91387	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	2.0000	.78446	14
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.	2.0714	.82874	14
Positive Education activities have made mmy son/daughter more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.	1.7857	.69929	14

Item-Total Statistics

Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
-------------------------------------	---	--	------------------------------------	---

Positive Education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy?	58.3571	308.093	.516	.	.973
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school?	58.5714	305.956	.818	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school	58.5714	305.187	.720	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings?	58.2857	299.143	.773	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.	58.2143	301.258	.830	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties	58.2857	303.297	.710	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	58.2143	302.181	.795	.	.971

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person.	58.1429	293.978	.944	.	.970
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas.	58.5000	304.115	.783	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	58.0714	300.225	.785	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	58.2143	302.181	.795	.	.971
Positive Education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.	58.5000	306.731	.812	.	.971
Positive Education have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.	58.1429	304.132	.610	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.	58.1429	298.593	.880	.	.970

Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	58.2143	297.720	.780	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	58.2143	304.489	.628	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.	58.1429	306.593	.812	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	58.2857	305.143	.882	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	58.2143	302.335	.701	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school)	57.9286	304.071	.785	.	.971

Positive Education activities helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community	58.1429	303.978	.785	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	58.1429	303.824	.791	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	58.0000	302.462	.684	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	57.8571	304.747	.648	.	.972
Postive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	57.7857	299.104	.756	.	.971

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.	58.3571	301.170	.850	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.	57.9286	302.533	.664	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	58.2143	315.566	.298	.	.974
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.	58.1429	308.593	.522	.	.973
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.	58.4286	307.802	.660	.	.972

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
60.2143	324.489	18.01358	30

Appendix B.12: Pilot Study SPSS Results – Students' Questionnaire

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	15	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	15	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.949	.951	30

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Positive Education activities included in the school have assisted in making me happy?	1.9333	1.09978	15
Positive Education activities have made me enjoy my life in school?	2.1333	.99043	15

Positive Education activities have made me feel safe at school	1.9333	.96115	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing control over my negative feelings?	2.2667	1.27988	15
Positive Education activities have helped me like myself more.	2.3333	.81650	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing my strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties	2.0667	1.03280	15
Positive Education activities have made me become more trusted in school among my teachers and friends.	2.0667	.88372	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of becoming a better person.	2.0667	.96115	15
Positive Education activities have helped me become surer (confident) to talk about my opinions and ideas.	1.8000	.77460	15
Postive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	2.0000	.65465	15

Positive Education activities have made me feel that I am at the same level as my friends in school.	2.3333	1.04654	15
Positive Education activities have allowed me to feel included by others in school.	2.2667	1.16292	15
Positive Education have made me become more respected by others in school.	2.3333	1.29099	15
Positive Education activities have made me more listened to in school.	2.4667	1.30201	15
Positive Education activities have made me have more chances to contribute to my school and community.	2.1333	1.24595	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	2.0667	1.09978	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of being appreciated by others.	1.8667	.74322	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my friends.	2.0000	.65465	15

Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my teachers.	2.0667	.79881	15
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my community (inside and outside the school)	2.5333	1.06010	15
Positive Education activities helped me become less isolated from the school community	2.0667	.79881	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in the way I can apply what I have learned.	1.8667	.91548	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in the way I can understand the most complex material presented by my teachers.	2.0667	.79881	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	2.1333	.74322	15

Positive Education activities have helped me become more interested in getting good marks in my tests and assignments.	1.8667	.91548	15
Positive Education activities have helped me become more interested in attending my classes.	2.1333	1.30201	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in solving real-life problems.	2.0667	1.09978	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in arguing my point of view respectfully.	1.8667	.83381	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.	2.2000	.86189	15
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in reflecting on my learning to know the strengths and weaknesses I have.	2.0000	.84515	15

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Positive Education activities included in the school have assisted in making me happy?	61.0000	324.000	.696	.	.947
Positive Education activities have made me enjoy my life in school?	60.8000	327.029	.692	.	.947
Positive Education activities have made me feel safe at school	61.0000	338.857	.367	.	.950
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing control over my negative feelings?	60.6667	326.095	.542	.	.949
Positive Education activities have helped me like myself more.	60.6000	340.543	.384	.	.949
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing my strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties	60.8667	325.981	.690	.	.947
Positive Education activities have made me become more trusted in school among my teachers and friends.	60.8667	328.124	.746	.	.946

Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of becoming a better person.	60.8667	321.410	.883	.	.945
Positive Education activities have helped me become surer (confident) to talk about my opinions and ideas.	61.1333	336.552	.550	.	.948
Postive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	60.9333	344.781	.311	.	.950
Positive Education activities have made me feel that I am at the same level as my friends in school.	60.6000	334.829	.440	.	.949
Positive Education activities have allowed me to feel included by others in school.	60.6667	337.810	.319	.	.951
Positive Education have made me become more respected by others in school.	60.6000	332.543	.394	.	.950
Positve Education activities have made me more listened to in school.	60.4667	314.838	.784	.	.946
Positive Education activities have made me have more chances to contribute to my school and community.	60.8000	315.886	.798	.	.945

Positive Education activities have helped me have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	60.8667	320.838	.780	.	.946
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of being appreciated by others.	61.0667	331.495	.766	.	.947
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my friends.	60.9333	340.495	.491	.	.949
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my teachers.	60.8667	338.552	.462	.	.949
Positive Education activities have helped me have more chances of developing active friendships with my community (inside and outside the school)	60.4000	339.400	.314	.	.950
Positive Education activities helped me become less isolated from the school community	60.8667	327.552	.850	.	.946
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in	61.0667	323.495	.864	.	.945

the way I can apply what I have learned.					
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in the way I can understand the most complex material presented by my teachers.	60.8667	333.410	.642	.	.947
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	60.8000	334.886	.638	.	.947
Positive Education activities have helped me become more interested in getting good marks in my tests and assignments.	61.0667	328.352	.711	.	.947
Positive Education activities have helped me become more interested in attending my classes.	60.8000	312.886	.829	.	.945
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in solving real-life problems.	60.8667	326.552	.629	.	.947
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in arguing my point of view respectfully.	61.0667	327.781	.805	.	.946
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in	60.7333	339.210	.404	.	.949

analyzing the concepts taught.					
Positive Education activities have made me more confident in reflecting on my learning to know the strengths and weaknesses I have.	60.9333	332.781	.625	.	.947

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
62.9333	352.781	18.78246	30

Appendix B.13: Pilot Study SPSS Results – Teachers' Questionnaire

Reliability

Warnings

The determinant of the covariance matrix is zero or approximately zero. Statistics based on its inverse matrix cannot be computed and they are displayed as system missing values.

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	24	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	24	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.973	.974	30

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Positive Education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy?	1.5833	.58359	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school?	1.6667	.63702	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school	1.6667	.76139	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings?	1.7083	.75060	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.	1.8333	.81650	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties	1.7083	.69025	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	1.7917	.83297	24

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person.	1.7917	.72106	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas.	1.5833	.58359	24
Postive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	1.7500	.60792	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	1.8750	.89988	24
Positive Education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.	1.7917	.77903	24
Positive Education have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.	1.8333	.91683	24
Positve Education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.	1.7083	.75060	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	1.6667	.76139	24

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	1.5833	.50361	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.	1.7083	.62409	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	1.7083	.55003	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	1.6667	.56466	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school)	1.8750	.85019	24
Positive Education activities helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community	1.7083	.62409	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	1.8750	.89988	24

Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	1.9583	.95458	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	1.9583	.85867	24
Postive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	1.9167	.88055	24
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.	1.7917	.72106	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.	1.7917	.77903	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	1.7917	.88363	24
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.	1.8333	.96309	24

Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.	1.8333	.91683	24
--	--------	--------	----

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Positive Education activities included in the school have assisted in making my son/daughter happy?	51.3750	278.592	.851	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter enjoy their life in school?	51.2917	277.172	.846	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel safe at school	51.2917	276.129	.743	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing control over their negative feelings?	51.2500	273.326	.872	.	.971

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter like themselves more.	51.1250	273.940	.774	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing their strengths (resilience) to recover when facing difficulties	51.2500	276.457	.810	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter become more trusted in school among their teachers and friends.	51.1667	275.449	.701	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of becoming a better person.	51.1667	275.536	.813	.	.971
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become surer (confident) to talk about their opinions and ideas.	51.3750	283.636	.587	.	.973

Postive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing a positive goal and purpose in life.	51.2083	283.563	.566	.	.973
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter feel that they are at the same level as their friends in school.	51.0833	285.297	.310	.	.975
Positive Education activities have allowed my son/daughter to feel included by others in school.	51.1667	277.536	.669	.	.972
Positive Education have made my son/daughter become more respected by others in school.	51.1250	268.288	.879	.	.971
Positve Education activities have made my son/daughter more listened to in school.	51.2500	276.717	.730	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter have more chances to contribute to their school and community.	51.2917	277.085	.704	.	.972

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more social skills such as dealing with others and decision making.	51.3750	282.418	.759	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of being appreciated by others.	51.2500	280.283	.711	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their friends.	51.2500	282.543	.685	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their teachers.	51.2917	281.433	.727	.	.972
Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter have more chances of developing active friendships with their community (inside and outside the school)	51.0833	272.601	.791	.	.971

Positive Education activities helped my son/daughter become less isolated from the school community	51.2500	278.891	.779	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can apply what they have learned.	51.0833	271.732	.775	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way they can understand the most complex material presented by their teachers.	51.0000	268.174	.846	.	.971
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in the way I can complete my assignments and tests.	51.0000	277.130	.617	.	.973
Postive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in getting good marks in their tests and assignments.	51.0417	271.868	.788	.	.971

Positive Education activities have helped my son/daughter become more interested in attending their classes.	51.1667	276.754	.761	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in solving real-life problems.	51.1667	276.580	.708	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in arguing their point of view respectfully.	51.1667	272.493	.763	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in analyzing the concepts taught.	51.1250	270.201	.770	.	.972
Positive Education activities have made my son/daughter more confident in reflecting on their learning to know the strengths and weaknesses they have.	51.1250	270.375	.806	.	.971

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
52.9583	295.520	17.19069	30

Appendix B.14: British University in Dubai (BUiD) Consent Letter



November 15, 2020

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that **Ms. Rima Abou Khreibi** with student ID number **20170113** is a registered student on the **Doctor of Education** programme at **The British University in Dubai** since **September 2017**.

Ms. Khreibi has successfully completed the taught modules and is currently working on her thesis titled **"The impact of positive education implementation on students' wellbeing and academic self-efficacy in Dubai's private schools"**.

She needs your support in conducting surveys, interviews, observations, focus groups and assessment data to complete the research.

This letter is issued on student's request.

Yours sincerely,

Amer Alaya
Head of Student Administration

Appendix C.1: Teachers' Questionnaire Emotional Wellbeing (EW), Social Wellbeing (SW) and Academic Self-efficacy (ASE) Item Reliability Details

Correlation analysis of EW items, shown in (C2.1), showed that the ten items were significantly correlated, i.e., r ranged between 0.312 and 0.848, indicating the internal consistency among the EW items.

Table C2.1: Correlation Matrix for EW

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1									
2	.848**	1								
3	.741**	.741**	1							
4	.482**	.547**	.499**	1						
5	.639**	.582**	.611**	.754**	1					
6	.562**	.495**	.519**	.743**	.831**	1				
7	.645**	.497**	.532**	.471**	.542**	.489**	1			
8	.587**	.513**	.493**	.579**	.555**	.714**	.528**	1		
9	.444**	.444**	.521**	.564**	.701**	.736**	.616**	.701**	1	
10	.378*	.437**	.399**	.507**	.638**	.569**	.312*	.524**	.744**	1
EW	.786**	.760**	.759**	.787**	.881**	.853**	.704**	.782**	.834**	.719**

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Correlation analysis of SW items, shown in (Table C2.2), showed that all items were significantly correlated, i.e., r ranged between 0.319 and 0.789, indicating the internal consistency among the SW items.

Table C2.2: Correlation Matrix for SW

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
11	1									
12	.702**	1								
13	.457**	.297	1							
14	.501**	.339*	.771**	1						
15	.375*	.455**	.349*	.544**	1					
16	.584**	.667**	.319*	.411**	.664**	1				
17	.691**	.677**	.661**	.697**	.701**	.703**	1			
18	.703**	.641**	.521**	.430**	.623**	.671**	.826**	1		
19	.528**	.413**	.409**	.490**	.505**	.505**	.541**	.566**	1	
20	.394**	.382*	.238	.452**	.789**	.470**	.587**	.579**	.463**	1
SW	.787**	.736**	.661**	.743**	.772**	.774**	.923**	.850**	.711**	.694**

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Correlation analysis of ASE items, shown in (Table C2.3), showed that all items were significantly correlated, i.e., r ranged between 0.421 and 0.801, indicating the internal consistency among the ASE items.

Table C2.3: Correlation Matrix for ASE

	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
21	1									
22	.768**	1								
23	.561**	.746**	1							
24	.421**	.593**	.801**	1						
25	.576**	.541**	.675**	.726**	1					
26	.665**	.603**	.582**	.499**	.715**	1				
27	.595**	.763**	.623**	.687**	.604**	.659**	1			

28	.482**	.529**	.624**	.708**	.537**	.568**	.747**	1		
29	.616**	.659**	.713**	.723**	.551**	.686**	.730**	.643**	1	
30	.557**	.666**	.631**	.681**	.434**	.429**	.634**	.691**	.730**	1
ASE	.756**	.836**	.861**	.843**	.790**	.790**	.855**	.793**	.863**	.780**

****.** *Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

*****. *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

