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Education Policy and mental weakness: a response to a mental health crisis

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Education policy and mental weakness: a response to a mental health crisis

Educationalists have been concerned with the labelling and treatment of children with mental health difficulties in the education system in England for some time (Timimi 2002; Jull 2008; Harwood and Allan 2014; Cole 2015). These concerns have centred on the role of policy in ‘othering’ such students as deviant learners. The unprecedented number of children suffering from mental illnesses, has forced policymakers to address children’s mental health difficulties. This has involved the identification of a sub-set of the school population experiencing ‘less-severe’ mental health issues, to be addressed through a suite of policy interventions delivered by whole-school approaches, but targeted towards children situated as mentally ‘weak’. Drawing upon a Foucauldian theory of governmentality that addresses children’s behavioural motivations (Rose 1989; Millar and Rose 1990; Foucault 2001; 2008; Popkewitz 2012) an in-depth analysis of a number of educational policy initiatives related to mental health, is conducted, that it is argued are fundamentally flawed. This analysis is followed by a discussion of the performative culture of High Stakes Testing in contributing to children’s mental health difficulties. Here it is argued that a narrative of mental weakness serves to justify a neoliberal rationality towards the treatment of children for whom the performative logic assumed to motivate all learners, fails.

Keywords: mental health; high stakes testing; Foucault; school children

Introduction

The issue of children’s mental health has become a growing concern in recent decades, with figures indicating that one in four people now experience mental health problems (MIND 2017) and that young people are disproportionately affected, particularly those from lower socio-economic backgrounds. It is now suggested that mental illness starts early in life, with over half of mental health problems emerging by the age of 14, and 75% by age 24 (Kessler et al. 2005; Mental Health Foundation 2017). Three children in

1
2
3 every classroom in England are said to suffer from a diagnosable mental health
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5 condition and the number of hospital admissions for 0-17 year olds who have self-
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7 harmed increased by over 50% from 2009/10 to 2014/15 (Thorley 2016).
8

9
10 The scale of mental illness among young people in the UK has prompted recent
11
12 governments into raising the issue. In her speech on the ‘hidden injustice’ of mental
13
14 illness, Prime Minister Theresa May has recognised the significance of the problem:
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16
17 ‘What I am announcing are the first steps in our plan to transform the way we deal
18
19 with mental illness in this country at every stage of a person’s life: not in our
20
21 hospitals, but in our classrooms, at work and in our communities... This starts with
22
23 ensuring that children and young people get the help and support they need and
24
25 deserve – because we know that mental illness too often starts in childhood and
26
27 that when left untreated, can blight lives, and become entrenched’
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29
30 (May 2017).
31

32
33 The first steps in responding to a mental health crisis in children and young people,
34
35 according to the Prime Minister, is to provide, ‘mental health first aid training and new
36
37 trials to look at how to strengthen the links between schools and local NHS mental
38
39 health staff’ (May 2017). Such a measure is indicative of a broader policy shift towards
40
41 increasing attention devoted to school-based interventions for mental, emotional, and
42
43 behavioural problems (Hoagwood et al., 2007; Reinke et al., 2011; Stormont, Reinke,
44
45 and Herman, 2010; Thorley 2016). It also illustrates a growing emphasis upon **the role**
46
47 **of** teachers and practitioners to identify mental health problems. As Reinke et al. (2011)
48
49 have noted, ‘schools provide excellent settings for targeting children’s mental health,
50
51 their academic performance, and the important connection between them’ (1).
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53
54 This paper addresses the question of whether the policies that the government
55
56 has enacted with respect to mental illness in education, are adequate to the challenges
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58 that we now confront. Central to government policies is a set of assumptions that relate
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1
2
3 to the performative culture of the neo-liberal educational market. Addressing mental
4
5 illness from the government's perspective is to ameliorate the consequences of this
6
7 culture, which it will be argued is a causal factor in triggering and indeed labelling
8
9 mental illness. It will be apparent that the alternative understanding of the policy
10
11 approach to mental illness that we articulate, runs counter to the best interests of
12
13 children. The paper is developed as follows: we start with an outline of government
14
15 policy assumptions with respect to mental illness, and in particular its notion of 'less
16
17 severe' problems, which we argue are deconstructed in terms of mental weakness. We
18
19 then situate these within the context of a performative culture, using the work of Michel
20
21 Foucault as an analytic guide. This is followed by an account of the educational
22
23 practices that seek to ameliorate the risks of mental illness, especially amongst students
24
25 assumed to be mentally weak. These include: policy guidelines with respect to schools'
26
27 assessment and monitoring of children's mental health needs, Circle Time, peer support
28
29 schemes, and Mindfulness training. It is argued that these are flawed. We then turn to
30
31 the key source of anxiety and insecurity that gives expression to the performative
32
33 culture, which it is argued generates mental health problems for some students: high
34
35 stakes testing.
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41 **Policy responses to mental illness: from the exclusionary to the universal**

42
43 The contentious role of mental health discourses within educational policy is not new in
44
45 relation to children identified with Special Educational Needs, in the form of
46
47 Behavioural, Social and Emotional Difficulties (BESD). These are defined in policy
48
49 terms as students who are variously:
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52
53 'withdrawn and isolated, disruptive or disturbing, hyperactive and lacking
54
55 concentration [with] immature social skills, presenting challenging behaviour
56
57 arising from other complex needs' (DfE 2008, 87).
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1
2
3 More recently, the language of behavioural deviance has changed with the new
4
5 SEND Code of Practice (DfEa 2014). Here the categorisation has been revised from
6
7 BESD to ‘Social, Emotional and Mental Health Difficulties’ (SEMHD). The naming
8
9 and labelling of emotional, behavioural and now *mental* states as a form of ill-health, is
10
11 noteworthy for as Engelhardt (1975) first observed, it involves a professional
12
13 commitment to an intervention (137). Accordingly, debates have centred upon the
14
15 possible over-reach of medical diagnoses of problematic behaviour (Timimi 2002; Rose
16
17 2005; Jull 2008, Cole 2015). Examples of behavioural conditions that have incited
18
19 controversy, include that of Disruptive Mood Dysregulation Disorder (DMDD) a new
20
21 addition to the latest diagnostic manual (DSM5) and characterised as ‘temper
22
23 outbursts...that are grossly out of proportion in intensity or duration to the
24
25 situation’(APA 2013, 2). Leading psychiatrist and head of the taskforce for the previous
26
27 diagnostic manual, Allen Frances, has argued that this is an unnecessarily medicalised
28
29 approach towards what is essentially normal childhood behaviour, that effectively,
30
31 ‘turns temper tantrums into a mental disorder’ (Frances 2012). Attention Deficit
32
33 Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), is another controversial behavioural disorder, which is
34
35 characterised by an excessive presentation of hyperactivity, impulsiveness and
36
37 inattentiveness. Researchers have found that the incidence of ADHD has been
38
39 disproportionately concentrated in boys within western societies, with diagnoses steadily
40
41 increasing over time (Singh 2008; Timimi et al. 2004). It is now argued to be the
42
43 leading childhood disorder globally to be medically treated (Scheffler et al. 2007, in
44
45 Harwood and Allan 2014). Critics have argued that such increases in behavioural
46
47 disorders are evidence of the ‘medicalisation of childhood’ in the West (e.g. Rafalovich
48
49 2013; Rose 2005; Timimi 2010) where children whose behaviour doesn’t fit the cultural
50
51 expectations of middle-class schooling are defined as disordered and pathological. One
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3 leading biologist in Britain, Stephen Rose, (2005) has pointed to the dearth of medical
4
5 evidence in support of ADHD, in arguing that it would be better approached, 'not as a
6
7 disorder but as a cultural construct in a society that seeks to relocate problems from the
8
9 social to the individual' (256).

10
11 Some critics have gone so far as to claim that the unprecedented rise in
12
13 diagnoses of behavioural disorders is an 'epidemic', justifying the application of
14
15 medical and behavioural interventions in the name of children's (particularly boys)
16
17 development (Timimi et al. 2004). While the dangers of medicalising **BESD** have been
18
19 widely argued, it has been suggested that such a focus obscures a concern with the way
20
21 that diagnostic labels narrow the normalization of schooling and **childhood** (Harwood
22
23 and Allan 2014). This points towards the implication of schools in constructing and
24
25 validating particular types of learners (Youdell 2011). Educationalists have approached
26
27 this debate from the perspective of educational inclusion, in voicing concern that
28
29 children with BESD diagnoses of mental ill-health risk being excluded (Cole 2015).
30
31 This issue has incited much public and media attention (BBC 2006; Weale 2017) with a
32
33 recent study from the Institute for Public Policy Research highlighting that, 'half of all
34
35 children expelled from school are suffering from a recognised mental health problem'
36
37 (Weale 2017). The educational exclusion of children with mental health difficulties,
38
39 however, is a complex issue, for as Cole (2015) notes:
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44
45 '[I]nclusion is multi-dimensional and multi-layered. A child can experience
46
47 differing degrees and types of inclusion/exclusion while remaining in an
48
49 educational establishment (mainstream or special). The child might be 'excluded'
50
51 in terms of being placed for a time in a special class or on-site exclusion room
52
53 (which might be called an 'Inclusion Room') or part-time in a nurture group.' (12).

54
55 'In-school' forms of exclusion demand particular attention given that the majority of
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2
3 children identified with SEN are within mainstream schooling¹. As a key initiative for
4 responding to **BESD** that involves exclusion from the classroom, ‘nurture groups’
5
6 (Ofsted 2011; DfE 2016) involve the targeted removal of children with behavioural
7
8 ‘difficulties’ from mainstream classes, in order to, ‘provide routines and developmental
9
10 strategies to improve poor personal organisation, self-control and awareness’
11
12 (Ecclestone and Hayes 2009, 36). Critics have argued that such policies are primarily
13
14 motivated by the perceived negative impact upon school/cohort attainment in national
15
16 assessments (Norwich 2014; Slee 2013) and are ultimately concerned, ‘less about
17
18 addressing an identified SEN than about simply getting rid of problem students,¹ which
19
20 the schools find difficult to serve’ (Jull 2008, 14). More recently, Allan and Youdell
21
22 (2017) have provided a convincing account of the policy logic that appears to sanction
23
24 the educational exclusion of children with SEMHD. In their analysis of the latest SEND
25
26 Code of practice (DfEa2014) they identify a shift in policy and governance, in
27
28 constructing what they call an ‘empty architecture’ that ‘mandates a series of required
29
30 systems, actions, practices and timelines but simultaneously ghosts its own content’
31
32 (72). In such a framework, specific directives are sidestepped alongside the medicalised
33
34 or diagnostic labels constitutive of the special educational needs alluded to, but never
35
36 spelled out. Allan and Youdell link this to austerity cuts to public services, in which the
37
38 onus of responsibility is moved from central government to the local authority and those
39
40 charged with delivering the services to meet children’s needs. The vagueness in
41
42 definition of ‘disorders’ fulfils a useful function in mobilising the categorisation of need
43
44 from those of the child (DfEa2014 86-87) to those of other children in mainstream
45
46 education and Further Education (DfEa 2014, 175-177). This accounts for the Code’s
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54 ¹ However, the numbers of children without SEN statements have dropped from 17.9% in Jan
55
56 2014 to 15.4% in Jan 2015 (DfE 2015, 3) following the changes in classificatory criteria
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3 loosening grip on ‘inclusionary’ practices, and legitimises the separation of children
4
5 with SEMHD from their peers within mainstream education.
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7

8 It has been argued that the educational theories of **BESD** are **hard** to
9
10 operationalise given their emphasis upon the complexity of need (Edwards and Biesta
11
12 2014). One theory that has proved an exception is that of ‘Psychopathology’ in exploring
13
14 the role of education in the exclusion of children with **BESD** (Harwood and Allan
15
16 2014). This refers to ‘the range of medical disorders used in schools and education and
17
18 to the discourses and practices tied to psychopathology that allow significant
19
20 proportions of children and young people to be identified and treated as mentally
21
22 ill’ (Harwood and Allan 2014, 1). In discussing the operation of psychopathology,
23
24 Harwood and Allan highlight the way that diagnostic labels have been viewed by
25
26 educators as a rational and legitimate way for parents and schools to acquire educational
27
28 resources, as well as noting the dangers invoked where labels become shorthand for
29
30 associated behaviours that have become inculcated into popular discourse, not least by
31
32 educators themselves.
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37 The theoretical power of ‘psychopathology’ is in foregrounding the early years
38
39 of pre-school and entry into the primary schooling, where nurseries and schools are
40
41 tasked to identify and act upon mental illness as part of their scrutiny of children’s
42
43 school-readiness (Harwood and Allan 2014). As children progress through the
44
45 educational system, however, the policy optimism with which to redress mental illness
46
47 is replaced with a concern over the potential of young people to disrupt further and
48
49 higher education. These analyses are highly instructive in explaining the way that
50
51 medicine has become part of the fabric of schooling.
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55 Our paper is similarly concerned about ways in which a neoliberal ethic has
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2
3 been applied to the mental health crisis in schools. Our argument, however, is that a
4
5 distinct policy approach has emerged, towards children classified as having ‘less severe’
6
7 mental health needs, to be treated through whole-school responsive strategies. Weare
8
9 (2010) has observed the rise in policy approaches that reflect a ‘salutogenic’ (as
10
11 opposed to a ‘pathogenic’) conception, in replacing a focus upon mental health
12
13 problems with one that designs actions to promote wellbeing and health. We argue that
14
15 in so doing, policy positions a sub-set of children with mental health difficulties as
16
17 presenting a fundamentally ‘weak’ mental disposition to learn. This reflects an
18
19 encroachment in the object of schooling beyond merely what children learn, to include
20
21 how they learn and think.
22
23

24 25 **School governmentality and mental illness: recalibrating students’ psyches** 26

27
28 In his first major work *Madness and Civilisation*, Foucault (1961) analysed the evolving
29
30 social and political meaning of mental illness from the middle-ages to the modern
31
32 period starting in the late 18th century. He argued that the latter policy turn in the
33
34 conceptualisation, medicalisation and treatment of mental illness reflected a political
35
36 objective of protecting the rest of society through the confinement and surveillance
37
38 enabled through institutional ‘care’. Understanding mental illness as a disease to be
39
40 cured justified the subjection of those deemed mentally ill to the psychological expertise
41
42 of professionals, and also contained the threat to morality and rationality that they posed
43
44 to the social order and the institutions of the family, forms of state government and law
45
46 enforcement, and the social stratification of the labour market and society. Further
47
48 attempts to use diagnoses of madness for political ends have been observed throughout
49
50 the 20th century. Within Nazi-Germany 300,000 people were sterilised and 100,000
51
52 killed out of purported concern for the ‘burden on the state’ of the mentally ill and
53
54 disabled (Birley 2000, 13). Psychiatry has also been abused in the Soviet Union in the
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3 1970s and 80s where approximately one third of people incarcerated within psychiatric
4 hospitals were political dissidents (Voren 2010, 33). More recently, similar practices
5 have been used to punish members of Falun Gong within the People's Republic of
6 China at the turn of the century (Hausman 2004). While these are all extreme examples
7 of state social control through the pretext of and mechanisms for treating mental illness,
8 we argue that mental illness is also seen as a social problem to be corrected in
9 contemporary English policymaking, because it is a threat to the neoliberal education
10 system. Accordingly, the state mechanisms for treating it have evolved from a strategy
11 of exclusion, with schools now operating on the front line in utilising preventative as
12 well as responsive mechanisms to address children's mental functioning.
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24 In order to understand this policy shift it is helpful to apply a Foucauldian logic
25 with respects to the broader operation of state apparatus, through his concept of
26 *governmentality*. As the name suggests, this form of governance operates upon
27 individual mental functioning. It is a way of achieving behavioural change through the
28 targeting and readjustment of the psyche. Nicolas Rose has argued that this policy
29 strategy first emerged in the post-war period in the UK and reflected a fundamental shift
30 in the relationship between the state and the individual, which he named 'governing at a
31 distance' (1989; Millar and Rose 1990). This confers to 'the actual mechanisms through
32 which authorities of various sorts have sought to shape, normalize and instrumentalise
33 the conduct, thought, decisions and aspirations of others in order to achieve the
34 objectives they consider desirable' (Miller and Rose 1990, 8). This is predicated upon
35 an understanding of the human psyche as the object of state sanctioned methods of
36 social control. Here there are two key assumptions that underpin this policy
37 conceptualisation; firstly that the individual's psychological condition is amenable to
38 alteration, and secondly, that it is an ethical project to attempt such corrective action in
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3 order to align the individual's behaviour with prescribed social goals (Rose 1989, x).
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5 Rose (1989) argues that this has given rise to a 'new form of expertise, an expertise of
6
7 subjectivity...[concerned with] classifying and measuring the psyche, in predicting its
8
9 vicissitudes, in diagnosing the causes of its troubles and prescribing the remedies' (2).
10
11 The use of statistics can be seen to play a vital part here, in rendering the characteristics
12
13 of the population visible. This is necessary in firstly, calculating the parameters of a
14
15 population's distinctiveness on any given behavioural or performative axis, through,
16
17 'transcribing attributes and their codified forms, enabling them to be accumulated,
18
19 summated, averaged and normalised' (Rose 1989, 7).
20
21

22 Thomas Popkewitz (2012) has argued that the seductive power of statistics rests
23
24 on their ability to 'project fairness and impartiality' where numbers are seen as
25
26 'excluding judgement and mitigating subjectivity' (169). This is merely a veneer of
27
28 objectivity, he claims, so far as it justifies what he calls the fabrication of 'human
29
30 kinds'; cultural templates of normative personhood. In the governing of schooling,
31
32 Popkewitz points to 'fabrication' as the key mechanism that directs pedagogic
33
34 intervention, through the creation and 'invention' of idealised versions of teacher and
35
36 learner. These confer the 'rules and standards' by which desired ends can be achieved
37
38 and measured (173). He gives the examples of, 'children's ages and school grades, the
39
40 measuring of children's growth and development, achievement testing [and] league
41
42 tables of schools' (169).
43
44

45 The crucial point that Popkewitz raises is that the **imposition of** numerical
46
47 standards **according** to which children **are** grouped and measured, is not just a process of
48
49 documentation, it is fundamentally programmatic, in order to assert and direct change,
50
51 to set targets, and the machinery to measure progress against these; 'programmes...are
52
53 devised to act on the child, with schemes for remediation and paths of rectification'
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3 (174). This accords with Rose's (1989) account of population measurement as an
4 aspiration, 'to calibrate the individual in relation to that population' (7). We can see this
5 most clearly reflected in the education system through the introduction of mandatory
6 national standardised assessment tests (SATs) following the 1988 Education Reform
7 Act. At its inception, SATs testing was in order to measure the variable achievements of
8 children in the core subjects across the nation. By 1998 national testing became
9 programmatic, in setting benchmark achievement standards to which local authorities,
10 schools, teachers and children have become increasingly accountable.

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20 Intrinsic to the success of 'governing at a distance' is that compliance is not
21 achieved through coercion. It achieves its success through targeting individual
22 subjectivity, in rendering people, 'amenable to having things done to them- and doing
23 things to themselves' (Rose 1989, 8) through willing submission. This is made possible
24 through the individual, 'actively seeking to shape and manage his or her own life in
25 order to maximise its returns in terms of success and achievement' (Millar and Rose
26 1990, 26). *Governmentality* performs the double trick of, firstly, achieving individual
27 accountability for performance outcomes, and secondly, instilling the narrative that the
28 route to changing outcomes is to improve one's psychological approach towards them.
29 Foucault (2008) has termed this model of human rationality, 'homo-economicus' in
30 applying Becker's (1976) work on the economics of human capital theory to an
31 economics of human behaviour that provides part of the intellectual basis for neo-liberal
32 policy formation. As a citizen who operates within a neoliberal economic market,
33 homo-economicus is, 'an entrepreneur of himself' who produces and consumes 'his
34 own satisfaction' (Foucault 2008, 226). This 'production' is pursued for self-interest,
35 which is the fundamental characterisation of human motivation and calculation assumed
36 by policymakers to explain an individual's actions within a market based economy.

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2
3 Rose argues that the self-improvement model continues throughout the lifespan through
4 the normalisation of psychological expertise into everyday functioning, and the
5 naturalisation of the ideology that there will be times in which every person should
6 succumb to the 'expert knowledge' of 'accredited and skilled persons professing
7 neutrality and efficacy' (Millar and Rose 1990, 28). For school children this requires an
8 amenability to the psychological expertise of not only professional psychologists, but
9 also of public sector workers including social workers, probation officers, school
10 counsellors (3) and arguably now, teachers themselves.

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So how is mental functioning deciphered for the 'homo-economicus' school child, as the route to improved learning outcomes? According to Danziger (1997), it is the child's *motivation* to learn, which was first harnessed in the emergence of mass schooling. On this theoretical basis, the child's inner thought and daily learning experiences became the object of administration. Following this logic, the policy architecture relating to education can be understood, in which all significant relationships, including educational outcomes and school rankings, can be quantified and monetised. In this framework a key assumption is that we are 'entrepreneurs' of ourselves (Foucault 2008, 226). This forms the centrepiece of neo-liberal policy with respect to primary and secondary schooling: the state theory of learning (Lauder, Brown, Dillabough and Halsey, 2006; Lauder 2009), which is:

‘A highly regulated system in which performance can be measured quantitatively by test results. The attendant theory of motivation is that teachers and pupils will be driven to improve against the state determined performance targets’

(Lauder 2009, 200).

For the 'homo-economicus' school child, the state theory of learning instils recognition that test and exam results are the key to a positional advantage in higher education and the labour market. Where performance is not in line with state measured targets s/he

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3 will acknowledge personal motivation and approach to learning as the mechanism to
4 improve. Schools, teachers and students are judged by the way they ‘buy in’ to this
5 system: it is when students deviate by not achieving the stipulated outcomes in terms of
6 the behaviour concordant with academic success, that policies designed to induce
7 conformity to the goals defined by the state theory of learning are brought to bear.
8
9 While the incentives and sanctions for schools, teachers and the general student body
10 are different, the approach is one based on the assumption that all pursue financial
11 reward as entrepreneurs of themselves, since schools and teachers stand, in principle, to
12 lose students and income if they perform badly (e.g. Ball 2000; 2003; 2013).
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22 While Foucault’s ideas have been convincingly applied to the performative
23 ideals of contemporary educational policymaking (Ball 2012; 2013), we argue that the
24 current policy treatment of schools’ involvement in the mental health crisis reflect a
25 ratcheting up in state intrusion into psychic functioning, and an extension in the reach of
26 performative metrics in the way we come to know students and what we expect from
27 them. This reflects a narrowed definition of *appropriate* learner against a notion of
28 *inappropriate* learner. As Popkewitz (2012) observes:
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38 ‘The standards of assessment embody cultural theses about who the child is and
39 should be, and who is not that child. The production of human kinds in schools
40 entails a simultaneous process of exclusion and abjection embodied in the impulse
41 for inclusion’ (183).
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45 In this way the ‘object’ or deviant student is rendered through a kind of ‘double
46 gesture’: on the one hand to articulate the threat that obstructs the goals of schooling,
47 and on the other, through engendering public fear towards the deviant ‘human kind’,
48 who is depicted as both endangered and dangerous (185). We see this as clearly evident
49 in the role of schooling for the types of mental **health problems** understood as mental
50 weakness, situated as saveable by the education system. By ‘weak’ we mean those who
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3 are not deemed to have the appropriate psychological condition necessary to achieve in
4 school, according to state metrics of performativity. Schools' treatment of this type of
5 mental functioning is fundamentally different to their approach towards those siphoned
6 off for external intervention, through the application of SEMHD labels (DfE 2014a).

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11 The distinct shift in policy treatment towards those with weak mental dispositions is that
12 schools themselves can provide the apparatus for remediation through the application of
13 universal (as opposed to targeted) interventions. Popkewitz (2012) has argued that while
14 universal policies may project an aspiration of equality, it is not 'all children' who are
15 the focus but rather, 'the child who does not fit into that space and whose characteristics
16 and qualities are feared as dangers and dangerous' (186). We believe that the current
17 education policy approach to mental illness is one in which children's psychological
18 state is identified as harmful to their own learning, as well as that of others. While
19 mental health is rendered in terms of readiness-to-learn, mental illness is presented on a
20 spectrum of severity such that if schools intervene early enough, children's mental
21 functioning can be corrected. This may explain policymakers' weakening faith in the
22 power of schools to ameliorate mental illness, as children progress into further and
23 higher education (Harwood and Allan 2014). We define mental weakness as that point
24 **up to** which schools can enact psychological adjustment, before mental problems
25 become disordered and clinical. To speak of 'weakness' confers a fragility of psyche,
26 but one that is not yet broken. Using Rose's concept of *governmentality* it is possible to
27 identify three components in the ways in which schools are implicated in responding to
28 the mental health needs of these children; firstly in the conceptualisation of mental
29 illness alongside the normative definition of mental health; secondly with respects to the
30 measurement and identification of those students classified as 'weak'; and thirdly with
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3 respects to the interventions that are brought to bear in re-calibrating students in order to
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5 be ready to perform (in tests) in school.
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8 **The policy conception of mental illness as a malleable character weakness**

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10
11 It is important to consider the policy discourse by which mental health and mental
12
13 illness are understood as these form the two key points that are aligned through the
14
15 programmatic direction of sanctioned intervention. The way that mental health is
16
17 conceptualised in policy terms reflects the litmus test by which children are considered
18
19 as deviant in being positioned, ‘outside of the normative centre of subject, learner and
20
21 subject hood’ (Youdell 2006, 126). In the key document *Mental Health and behaviour*
22
23 *in schools* (DfE 2016a) policy guidance distinguishes between, ‘a clinically diagnosed
24
25 mental health disorder’ and ‘less severe problems’ (4). This distinction is important, as
26
27 schools’ role towards the two groups is discrete. For those with more severe needs,
28
29 schools should, ‘identify and support pupils [and] help them make appropriate referrals
30
31 to specialist agencies’. Alternatively, schools should, ‘identify and address those with
32
33 less severe problems at an early stage and build their resilience’ (ibid). Through
34
35 differentiating between those mental health disorders that require specialist support, and
36
37 those which can be addressed in school, we can see the two key principles of Rose’s
38
39 governmentality to operate; the categorisation of a group inside the total population of
40
41 mental illness, and the intention to re-calibrate the mental functioning of children in this
42
43 category, as a key purpose of the educational endeavour. We can also see this
44
45 distinction reflected in the typography provided for the, ‘mental health problems in
46
47 children and young people’ identified in the school guidance document (DfE 2016a).
48
49 These appear in the following order; ‘emotional disorders’, ‘conduct disorders’,
50
51 ‘hyperkinetic disorders’, ‘developmental disorders’, ‘attachment disorders’, and lastly,
52
53 ‘“other mental health problems”...[including] eating disorders, habit disorders, post-
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3 traumatic stress syndromes; somatic disorders and psychotic disorders' (34). This
4
5 references only nine of the nineteen categories listed in the Diagnostic and Statistical
6
7 Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5). The selection and ordering of
8
9 these illnesses may in part reflect the prevalence of different mental illnesses in the UK.
10
11 For example, at the bottom of the list 'Psychotic disorders' account for only 0.7 per cent
12
13 of people (MIND 2017). However, the first category 'emotional disorders' does not
14
15 appear in DSM 5, although the three exemplar problems listed, 'phobia, anxiety states
16
17 and depression' account for about 20 per cent of the population (MIND 2017). We may
18
19 therefore question the logic of collapsing these three illnesses into one non-clinically
20
21 labelled 'mental problem' defined in terms of emotionality. The conflation of a
22
23 psychological problem with an emotional one, signals its transience and amenability to
24
25 personal control and alteration. This is further underlined in the definition of 'less
26
27 severe' mental problems as 'mild and transitory challenges' distinct from 'serious and
28
29 longer lasting' disorders (DfE 2016a, 35):
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31

32
33
34 'When a problem is particularly severe or persistent over time, or when a number
35
36 of these difficulties are experienced at the same time, children are described as
37
38 having mental health disorders' (ibid).
39

40 This analysis highlights that 'less serious' mental health problems are not of a
41
42 fundamentally different order to clinical disorders, but rather that there is a point
43
44 beyond which schools alone cannot remediate.
45

46 The distinction between those mental problems that schools can attempt to
47
48 address and those for which they should not, is also supported in health policy for
49
50 schools carried out by Public Health England (PHE 2015). This report distinguished
51
52 between 'mental disorders' and non-clinically diagnosed problems such as parental
53
54 separation or death, bullying and self-harm (5). The purpose of the guidance for school
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1
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3 leaders is to provide key actions in support of a ‘whole school approach to promoting
4 emotional health and wellbeing’ based on the premise that it ‘influences [children’s]
5 cognitive development and learning as well as their physical and social health and their
6 mental wellbeing in adulthood’ (PHE 2015, 4).
7
8
9

10
11 In isolating a group of ‘less severe’ mental problems that are positioned by
12 policymakers as saveable through schooling, it is necessary to consider the policy
13 formulation of mental health to which children’s mental states are recalibrated. This
14 borrows from the World Health Organisation definition and is deciphered in terms of
15 readiness to learn:
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23 ‘A state of wellbeing in which every individual recognises his or her own potential,
24 can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and
25 is able to make a contribution to his or her own community’ (DfE 2016b, 8).
26
27
28

29 More in-depth scrutiny, however, reveals a particular formulation of well-being
30 that is advanced through the Conservative government’s former Education Secretary
31 Nicky Morgan, in laying out her vision for ‘character education’ or rather, ‘the
32 development of character and mental wellbeing’. Underpinning the conflation of these
33 two concepts is an assumption that mental illness, and its antithesis, ‘wellbeing’, is
34 determined in the relative strength or weakness of individual cognitive processing. In
35 her opening speech for the character symposium at Floreat School, Morgan goes on to
36 define precisely what she means by a ‘developed’ or strong character in school children:
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47 ‘Consider for a moment the student who reads aloud for the first time and gets
48 tongue tied - will they rush to do it again without encouragement? What about
49 another who is asked to recite times tables in front of their class and gets stuck -
50 will they fall over themselves to repeat the exercise? Probably not. But with
51 character comes the confidence and determination not to be beaten. It’s that
52 attitude that says “dust yourself off and try again”
53
54
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56 (Morgan 2016).
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1
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3 Implicit in this account is an understanding that a ‘healthy’ mental approach in the face
4 of stress and anxiety is a hardened or stronger disposition to coping. This is also
5 reflected in a more recent symposium of character education chaired by Morgan, on the
6 importance of, ‘training and development in equipping teachers to help instil
7 characteristics in their pupils such as drive, grit and optimism’ (WEFKS 2017). The
8 more precise policy formulation of ‘good character’ is the term ‘resilience’ as, ‘key to
9 promoting children’s mental health’ (DfE 2016a, 8). There are several components to
10 the policy concept of resilience, each of which can be seen to be self-directed and
11 individually nurtured; ‘Firstly, a sense of self-esteem and confidence; secondly a belief
12 in one’s own self-efficacy and ability to deal with change and adaptation; and thirdly, a
13 repertoire of social problem solving approaches’ (DfE 2016a, 8). We argue that this
14 objective signifies a key policy shift that extends the remit of schooling beyond that of
15 knowledge generation and into the realm of psychological functioning. The character
16 attribute of ‘resilience’ is clearly signalled as a requirement for children’s readiness-to-
17 learn and to achieve academically; ‘in order to help their pupils succeed, schools have a
18 role to play in supporting them to be resilient and mentally healthy’ (DfE 2016a, 6).
19 Indeed, the former Conservative education minister was at pains to highlight this
20 association:
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43 ‘One of the other myths I’m keen to dispel is that character education, and
44 academic attainment are mutually exclusive. Far from it. For me, they are 2 sides
45 of the same coin’
46

47 (Morgan 2016).
48
49

50 In examining the discourse through which school children are guided towards mental
51 wellbeing, it is evident that ‘resilience’ is conceptualised as the route to higher
52 achievement. Indeed this assumption is born out in the literature that considers the
53 circumstances whereby children at risk of school failure achieve success against the
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1
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3 odds (Nettles et al. 2000; Elias 2009). In their review of the literature on childhood
4
5 resilience, Howard et al. (1999) provide a definition concordant with key theorists in the
6
7 field:

8
9
10 ‘[Resilience is the] quality in children who though exposed to significant stress and
11
12 adversity in their lives do not succumb to the school failure, substance abuse,
13
14 mental health and juvenile delinquency problems they are at great risk of
15
16 experiencing’

17 (Liquanti 1992, 2, in Howard et al. 1999, 310).

18
19
20 This further underscores the appropriateness of exploring resilience as a concept that
21
22 supports both academic achievement and mental health. However, while the empirical
23
24 literature accords with the policy *conception* of resilience, it refutes its *treatment* of the
25
26 term, specifically the assumption that resilience is an internal attribute of the individual,
27
28 fostered in the formulation of character:

29
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31
32 ‘[Resilience] is not a discrete quality that children either possess or do not possess
33
34 [but rather] depends on the interaction and accumulation of individual and
35
36 environmental factors’ (Howard et al. 2000, 310).

37
38 This may explain why the factors found to be the most conducive to the building of
39
40 resilience for at-risk children attend to the social resources of parents, teachers, peers
41
42 and community members (Nettles et al. 2000; Elias 2009). This failure to recognise its
43
44 environmental constituents reflects the policy hijacking of the concept of resilience, the
45
46 individualisation of a social property, or what Rose calls the ‘engineering of the human
47
48 soul...through moral entrepreneurship and the medicalization of social problems’
49
50 (1989, 3). If children can be psychologically retuned to be more resilient, this infers a
51
52 weakness or absence of mental hardness and capability to cope. Of fundamental
53
54 importance here is in how a policy discourse of mental health is deciphered through
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1
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3 psychological resilience that frames the parameters of mental illness in terms of
4
5 weakness. Schools' role in the policy route from mental illness to wellness is through
6
7 psychologically reprogramming children towards a hardened approach to school failure
8
9 and the pressures experienced in daily school life.
10

11 12 **Schools' role in the assessment and monitoring of children's mental health needs** 13

14
15 Once children's psychological functioning is placed as the object of policy intervention
16
17 then the second step is to identify and measure children's mental health. The policy
18
19 trend towards the assessment and monitoring of children's mental functioning can be
20
21 traced back to New Labour's Every Child Matters (ECM) agenda in 2003 and delivered
22
23 through the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning programme (SEAL). The
24
25 accompanying guidance to this programme was a DfES review into the tools to conduct
26
27 an assessment of children's social and emotional competence, as a guide for teachers
28
29 (Stewart-Brown and Edmunds 2003). Here 28 of 40 assessment tools were evaluated as
30
31 appropriate for use in school in order to screen, profile, improve upon, and monitor
32
33 progress in children's social and emotional development (10-11). While the ECM
34
35 agenda was since scrapped by the Coalition government, and accordingly SEAL is no
36
37 longer a policy requirement for schools in England, it is still promoted as an effective
38
39 template for developing social and emotional skills (e.g. Public Health England 2015).
40
41 Concurrently, policy guidance under a Conservative government has continued to
42
43 promote the importance of schools' monitoring and assessing children's mental health.
44
45 Here it is acknowledged that while medical professionals are responsible for a formal
46
47 diagnosis of a mental health condition, schools:
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53 'are well-placed to observe children day-to-day and identify those whose behaviour
54 suggests that they may be suffering from a mental health problem or be at risk of
55 developing one' (DfE 2016a 14)
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3 In conducting such assessments teachers are pointed towards differentiated tools in
4 which to measure children's 'mental well-being'. For children aged eight to 15 years,
5 PHE (2015) recommends the Stirling children's wellbeing scale, developed by the
6 Stirling Educational Psychology Service (18). For children aged 13 years and above,
7 teachers are directed to the Warwick-Edinburgh mental wellbeing scale, and are
8 signposted to a truncated as well as an elongated version (ibid). In assessing the mental
9 functioning of school children, teachers are reminded that it is, 'equally important to be
10 able to record and monitor the impact of any support that is put in place' (ibid). Here
11 teachers are cross-referenced to the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)
12 (DfE 2016a) in order to form, 'a judgement about whether the pupil is likely to be
13 suffering from a mental health problem' (16). Schools are then tasked with the
14 administration of interventions to remediate moderate, mild and potential mental health
15 issues² designed to 'bolster mental health' towards more appropriate conditions of the
16 psyche including; 'resilience', 'character and grit' and 'coping skills' (19).

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33 Another factor to consider in schools' monitoring and assessment of mental
34 health, is the targeting of certain sections of the population for being more likely to
35 develop a mental health disorder. Of particular interest is the policy treatment of the
36 'family' influence upon children's mental health in advancing a narrative of weak
37 parenting. PHE (2015) highlights that, '[t]he family plays a key role in influencing
38 children and young people's emotional health and wellbeing' (20). Further insight is
39 offered in DfE (2016a) guidance, through a table listing both risk and protective factors
40 that are attributed to the family. This comprises a list of nine separate factors, all of
41 which are highly derisory of parenting methods, they include; violence, lack of
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54 ² More serious mental health cases are directed towards specialist mental health provision (DfE
55 2016a, 26)
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3 discipline, abuse, criminality and alcoholism (9). While we would not dispute that poor
4
5 parenting may be a causal factor in children's mental ill-health, it is significant that
6
7 none of the factors listed here allude to structural constraints upon family life such as a
8
9 lack of work, illness, and financial stress. This omission is significant given that the
10
11 socio-economic disadvantaged are also identified as a key group vulnerable to mental
12
13 **health problems** (PHE 2015, 20; DfEa 2016, 15; DfE 2016b, 21).
14

15
16 A number of social and educational policy critics have highlighted the policy
17
18 conflation between socio-economic disadvantage and weak parenting (Levitas 2005;
19
20 Brown 2015), while a focus specifically upon the policy assessment of children's social
21
22 and emotional functioning has been argued to, 'lead to labels and judgements about the
23
24 ability of families, particularly working class families, to deal with children's emotions'
25
26 (Ecclestone and Hayes 2009, 44). It has been further claimed that such strategies fit a
27
28 discourse concerned with inadequate parenting, low parental aspirations and shifting the
29
30 responsibility for children's psychological state onto parents (Alexander 2007).
31

32
33 As testimony to the entrenchment of a policy emphasis on 'resilience', mental
34
35 health now forms a key component in Ofsted inspection criteria, through the insertion of
36
37 'personal development, behaviour and welfare' into the Ofsted inspection framework
38
39 from September 2015. In deciphering a specific formulation of 'welfare' in terms of a
40
41 resilient character, the first four indicators confer a judgement on learners' level of
42
43 personal responsibility for learning. The following five indicators further concern the
44
45 knowledge and behaviour to engage pro-socially in civic life. Here, the only specific
46
47 allusion to mental health is subsumed within the penultimate listed indicator;
48
49 'knowledge of how to keep themselves healthy, both emotionally and physically,
50
51 including through exercising and healthy eating' (Ofsted 2015, 14). While schools (and
52
53 the state) may, therefore, carry the responsibility to monitor and intervene on mental
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3 health functioning, this firmly underscores that the responsibility to remedy mental
4
5 health rests on the individual child, and it is further incumbent upon schools to instil this
6
7 objective. In so doing the final turn in Rose's (1989) 'government at a distance' is
8
9 achieved, through co-opting children's submission to the manipulation of their mental
10
11 functioning.
12

13 14 15 **Policy prescribed school interventions to tackle 'less-severe' mental problems**

16
17 The policy conceptualisation of a category of 'less severe' mental illnesses and their
18
19 oppositional corrective, 'resilience', are operationalised in the formulation of
20
21 ameliorative interventions issued through state schooling. This, we argue, is the third
22
23 step in the achievement of 'government at a distance' whereby children are
24
25 psychologically recalibrated (Rose 1989). The fabrications of learner that policy
26
27 constructs, position children experiencing mental ill-health as outside of normative
28
29 human functioning (Popkewitz 2012, 183). This legitimatises schools' application of
30
31 psychological forms of adjustment where learners willingly submit their psyches to the
32
33 assessment of experts in the form of peer mentors, counsellors, psychologists,
34
35 educational specialists and therapists (Rose 1989). Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) have
36
37 labelled these forms of state intervention as 'therapeutic education' which they define
38
39 as:
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44 'any activity that focuses on perceived emotional problems and which aims to
45
46 make educational content and learning processes more 'emotionally engaging' (x).
47
48

49 Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) are deeply sceptical of this policy trend which they date
50
51 back to the New Labour government. They argue that this therapeutic drive feeds a
52
53 diminished and fragile view of the individual learner and reflects a form of social
54
55 engineering that orientates learners towards thinking critically about their own
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3 inadequacies, as opposed to those of the educational system and wider social order. This
4
5 work has since been critiqued as throwing the baby out with the bathwater, for its
6
7 denigration of any concern for emotional life as, ‘individualistic, anti-educational or an
8
9 escape from social purpose’ (West 2009, 211). We argue that it is not the policy
10
11 aspiration towards children’s social and emotional development that is misguided, but
12
13 rather the ways that this endeavour has been operationalised, as well as the outcomes by
14
15 which they are measured. We believe that the theoretical value of Ecclestone and
16
17 Hayes’ (2009) claims could be more tightly framed through a Foucauldian lens, in
18
19 foregrounding policy efforts to address children’s ability to cope with school related
20
21 stress as a solution to a mental health crisis.
22
23

24 We will now review the key policy recommendations for schools’ approach in
25
26 tackling children’s mental health **problems** through universal measures. These are;
27
28 Circle Time, Peer mentoring, and Mindfulness training as a form of Cognitive
29
30 Behavioural Therapy³. We employ a Foucauldian analysis of how such interventions
31
32 have been operationalised through a narrative of mental weakness, in co-opting
33
34 children’s submission of their mental functioning to evaluation and remediation.
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40 *Circle Time*

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43
44 ³ There is an argument that Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) has also been seen by
45
46 policymakers as a vehicle for schools to address children’s mental ‘weakness’, given its aims
47
48 to assert pro-social change upon behaviour, emotions and cognitive functioning, including
49
50 the key goals of positive self-concept, self-protection, building positive relationships,
51
52 resisting pressure and stress management (Weare 2004, 90). However, the case is complex
53
54 given that there is divergence in the ways that PSHE is both viewed and practiced between
55
56 and across primary and secondary schools.
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3 As one of the most widely used policy recommendations for addressing children's
4 mental health problems in primary schools (DfE 2016a, 13; PHE 2015, 34) Circle Time
5 has been defined as:
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8
9
10 'an overtly therapeutic approach to building self-esteem and developing
11 emotional literacy for all children [through] group and pair games to help children
12 socialise, build confidence and enjoy themselves... Games move into personal
13 disclosures... [where children] talk about key life events, act in role plays of
14 emotional and reactions about change, make group displays of how to make others
15 in the class happy... and take part in listening exercises and relaxation'
16
17

18 (Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) 28).
19
20

21
22 It has further been embraced by school leaders as a means of catering to the 'wellbeing'
23 of children in primary school, and has even been incorporated within secondary school
24 practice, as evidenced by a recent conference and resultant publication by 'outstanding'
25 school leaders consortium Schools of Tomorrow (Mundy, Egersdorff and Hobbs 2014,
26 35-43). Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) have argued that Circle Time reflects an intrusion
27 into children's private and social lives, and the beginning of an, 'increasingly formal
28 'trail' of alerting different people to a child's difficulties' (29) enabling the teacher to,
29 'move closer and closer to home' (31). They are also critical of its function as a
30 platform to normalise a linguistic register concerning the disclosure of maladaptive
31 socio-emotional functioning, including 'calming down', airing concerns and worries,
32 and struggling with friendships (30). We argue that a narrative of enforced disclosure of
33 problems reflects an assumption that children require teachers' support as a matter of
34 course. This reinforces the role of schools in both strengthening children's mental
35 functioning and emphasising children's willing submission to psychological evaluation.
36
37 The role of Circle Time in effecting prosocial functioning has been observed in a
38 number of studies, (Wooster and Caron 1982; Robinson et al. 1999; Kelly 1999).
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3 However, Lown (2002) warns that such findings should be treated tentatively as ‘the
4 lack of clarity around such definitions of Circle Time will affect any research
5 endeavouring to investigate outcomes’ (94). This is supported in Canney and Byrne’s
6 (2006) work who found that teachers’ had variable understandings of the approach, with
7 some teachers seeing it as an economical way to convey the teacher’s objectives to the
8 whole class of students (23). Furthermore, there is a fundamental disconnect between
9 the Circle Time objective to address the psychological functioning of those
10 experiencing social or emotional distress, and the claims of one of its chief proponent
11 Mosely (1998) who identified a discrete group of ‘children beyond’ the parameters of
12 socio-emotional functioning appropriate for Circle Time, who require more specialist
13 input (122). It is therefore questionable as to what extent Circle Time is currently
14 promoted as a genuine intervention into children’s welfare, and to what extent it reflects
15 a surveillance mechanism for identifying and intervening on mental ill-health through
16 psychological monitoring and recalibration (Rose 1989; Popkewitz 2012).
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Peer support schemes

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37 Peer support schemes as a vehicle for tackling the mental health crisis, have
38 formed a major part of the government’s strategy for school based intervention across
39 primary and secondary schooling (DfE 2017a). They cover a range of peer-to-peer
40 interventions including, ‘peer mentoring, befriending and buddying [that can be offered]
41 through one-to-one, group based, training, and even online forms’(4). They are
42 endorsed in view of the positive impact upon self-esteem, confidence, social skills and
43 behaviour found both for those supported and those delivering support (6). As a key
44 form of peer support, the identification of ‘peer mentors’ have been heralded as a ‘low-
45 cost’ approach to facilitating behavioural change for those at risk of mental health
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3 problems at the secondary level (DfE 2016, 26). These are older children or previous
4
5 students, who offer a point of contact for regular meetings with targeted younger
6
7 students in order to ‘raise aspirations’ and ease anxiety (26).
8

9
10 In explaining the mechanisms through which such positive outcomes are
11
12 attributed, the language of resilience emerges with specific reference to psychological
13
14 ‘coping’ or:

15
16
17 ‘the ability to regulate emotions and behaviour in the face of stress... Coping skills
18
19 that are amenable to intervention include problem solving and emotional
20
21 regulation, cognitive restructuring and positive thinking’ (DfE 2017a, 14).
22

23
24 An individualised formulation of resilience is mobilised in each of these examples in
25
26 order to recalibrate students’ weak mental functioning (Rose 1989, 7). In place of top-
27
28 down support structures that would reflect a systemic approach to tackling student
29
30 concerns, these peer level interventions reflect a targeting of individual subjectivity
31
32 through the modelling of personal responsibility to address psychological unease.
33
34

35 36 ***Mindfulness Training for school children***

37
38 Mindfulness Training is another school based intervention that has been proposed to
39
40 tackle most types of mental ill-health within a group-delivered, whole-school approach
41
42 (DfE 2016, 12; PHE 2015, 31). It is a form of ‘mind training’ that ‘enables people to
43
44 change the way they think and feel about their experiences, especially stressful
45
46 experiences’ (The Mindfulness Initiative 2017). Current estimates indicate that over
47
48 2000 teachers have been trained to deliver Mindfulness programmes in primary and
49
50 secondary schools in England (MAPPG 2015, 33). The technique has been embraced by
51
52 policymakers as reflected in the Mindfulness Initiative, a policy institute that emerged
53
54 from a programme of mindfulness teaching in the UK Parliament. As one of their key
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3 outputs, the Mindful Nation UK 2015, is an all-party Parliamentary Group report that
4
5 sought to address the role of Mindfulness in; improving academic achievement, raising
6
7 mental health, and in character building and resilience (31). The report detailed a
8
9 number of policy recommendations including; the appointment of a mindfulness trained
10
11 lead in each school to coordinate responses to wellbeing and mental health issues, as
12
13 well as a funding stream to apply for the costs of training teachers to deliver
14
15 mindfulness techniques for children as part of the DfE Character Education Grant
16
17 programme investment in character education and resilience (35). These
18
19 recommendations score a clear and heavy line in signposting schools' role in
20
21 strengthening children's resilience to stress, as key to tackling poor mental health.
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26 **Schooling as a contributor towards children's mental ill health**

27
28 So far we have considered the treatment of mental health problems where schools have
29
30 been positioned on the front line in responding to the variable perceived needs of
31
32 children. In the following discussion we turn to consider the role of schooling as indeed
33
34 a *contributor* towards children's mental ill-health. Here we argue that the policy
35
36 misnomer that mental health realignment is the route to achieving academic excellence
37
38 can in practice produce outcomes that run counter to its aims, through the machinery
39
40 spawned by the 'state theory of learning' designed to measure and evaluate the success
41
42 of schools, teachers and students. The chief vehicle with which we take issue is that of
43
44 high stakes testing (HST) in the form of national standardised assessment tests at the
45
46 end of primary school (aged 11), and General Certificate of Secondary Education (aged
47
48 16) and the consequences for schools and pupils to which these test outcomes produce.
49
50 The impact of high stakes testing upon children's mental health and well-being has been
51
52 given greater impetus in the UK given the tougher, more stringent changes to the
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3 primary national curriculum from September 2014, as well as the recent changes to
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5 assessment metrics where students are now measured according to their own
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7 progression as well as school level and national benchmarks across both primary and
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9 secondary education (DfE 2017c). This has provoked significant professional concern
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11 with the impact of high stakes testing on children and young people, prompting a
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13 National Teachers Union report, which concluded:
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17 ‘Children and young people are suffering from increasingly high levels of school-
18 related anxiety and stress, disaffection and mental health problems. This is caused
19 by increased pressure from tests/exams; greater awareness at younger ages of their
20 own ‘failure’; and the increased rigour and academic demands of the curriculum.’
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22 (Hutchings 2015, 5).
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25 These findings are supported by data from the World Health Organisation (2012) and
26
27 ChildLine (2014; 2015) that highlights that children and young people in England are
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29 suffering from increasingly high levels of school-related anxiety and stress, disaffection
30
31 and mental health problems. A recent survey carried out by the Association for
32
33 Teachers and Lectures (ATL) found that 82% of educators believed that children and
34
35 young people were under more pressure now than they were 10 years ago, with 89%
36
37 considering that testing and exams were the greatest causal factor (ATL 2016, 12).
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39 Some research has further indicated a direct link between the pressure to perform in the
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41 educational system and the development of suicidal thoughts and behaviour (Sharp
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43 2013, 10; ChildLine 2014, 37) as well as self-harming (Hutchings 2015, 59).
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47 In shining a light upon the causal link between schooling and children’s poor
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49 mental health, public and professional pressure has moved the government to evaluate
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51 its position, as reflected in a recent Health and Education select committees joint
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53 inquiry into the role of education in children’s mental health (2017). Here it was
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55 acknowledged that schools can play a part in creating or exacerbating mental ill health
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3 in the form of stress and anxiety. However, it was not the performative pressure itself
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5 that was brought into question, but rather the ways that schools responded to national
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7 testing requirements, with respects to the timeframe they apply in teaching the whole
8
9 curriculum, where non-core subjects often get squeezed out:
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12 ‘If the pressure to promote academic excellence is detrimentally affecting pupils, it
13
14 becomes self-defeating. Government and schools must be conscious of the stress
15
16 and anxiety that they are placing on pupils and ensure that sufficient time is
17
18 allowed for activities which develop life-long skills for well-being.’

19
20 (Commons Select Committees 2017)

21 We argue that this concession does not go far enough to explain the ways in which HST
22
23 impacts negatively upon mental health, and in order to more fully appreciate this it is
24
25 necessary to turn to the sociological literature on the effects of testing on school
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27 children’s learning orientations.
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32 ***The effects of high-stakes testing on children’s learning orientations***

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34 As one of the key policy mechanisms driving a neoliberal market approach to
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36 the educational system, HST has been implemented with particular intensity in the
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38 United Kingdom and the United States (Au 2008) although more recently, it has been
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40 embraced in other national contexts including Australia, and Sweden. As reflected in
41
42 the ‘homo-economicus’ model, (Foucault 2008) the state theory of learning posits that
43
44 children will be motivated to improve their performance amid competition from peers,
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46 especially where the stakes for success and failure become greater (such as the pressure
47
48 to pass a test to gain admission).
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51 The reduction of children’s self-value as learners to the outcomes of their test
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53 scores, is supported by nearly twenty years of research (Reay and Wiliam 1999;
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55 Booher-Jennings 2008; Putwain et al. 2012; Silfver et al. 2016). This is particularly
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3 concerning in the case of younger children who have been found to be more likely to
4 make global negative self-judgements (Heyman et al. 1992). The associated pedagogies
5 orientated towards 'teaching to the test' have been found to seriously dampen children's
6 motivations and learner autonomy (Pollard et al. 2000) in significantly lowering self-
7 esteem for lower attaining pupils (Harlen and Deakin Crick 2002).
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13 The pressure that children experience concerning their performance in high
14 stakes testing has been explained in terms of two components; the test results
15 themselves, as well as their ability to uphold an identity as an 'appropriate test-taker'
16 (Kasanen et al. 2003; Silfver et al. 2016, 238). The latter is important in providing a
17 narrative by which students may variously explain and rationalise their performance,
18 which has particular bearing in the way that teachers' explain and motivate students
19 who 'under achieve'. Such narratives have been founded on the concept of the 'ideal
20 pupil' by which students are evaluated and judged by teachers and students. While there
21 is consistency in the 'ideal pupil' type as being high attaining across schools in different
22 demographic contexts, the behavioural dimension has been shown to be variable. While
23 schools serving low socio-economic student populations construct an idealised
24 compliant and disciplined learner, schools serving higher socio-economic students
25 emphasise a free thinking individual (Hempel Jorgensen 2009). These constructions
26 have also been found to be gendered, where girls are constructed as conscientious hard
27 workers, while boys' achievement is positioned as a product of innate ability
28 (Walkerdine 1998; Hall et al. 2004). These constructions have been shown to weigh
29 heavily on children whose learning orientations do not fit the models prescribed by
30 teachers. For example, Booher-Jennings (2008) found that where girls' under-
31 achievement was explained as a product of low self-esteem, boys' under-performance
32 was explained by bad behaviour, leading to frustration and confusion for children whose
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3 learning orientations matched the ideal type in behavioural terms, but not in terms of
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5 their attainment. In these contexts children who worked hard and still under achieved,
6
7 struggled to maintain a positive sense of value as a learner, leading to disillusionment
8
9 with school and psychological distress in learning.
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11 These findings must be contextualised against the demographic statistics on
12
13 mental illness, where it is possible to observe a correlation with learner orientations,
14
15 both in terms the prevalence and nature of youth mental illness. For example, Hempel-
16
17 Jorgensen's (2009) findings that children from low-SES backgrounds were more likely
18
19 to experience negative learning orientations, while children from High SES
20
21 backgrounds were more likely to identify positive learning orientations, are in line with
22
23 ONS data (2004) showing that children from low SES backgrounds are three times
24
25 more likely to experience mental health problems compared to those from professional
26
27 groups (29). Furthermore, Booher-Jenning's (2008) findings that girls' negative
28
29 learning orientations were attributed by teachers to low self-esteem, may be considered
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31 against the odds that girls are 75% more likely to suffer from depression and 60% more
32
33 likely to suffer from anxiety (Freeman 2017). On the other hand, her findings that boys'
34
35 negative learning orientations were explained by teachers as a behavioural deficit can be
36
37 considered against data that shows that boys are between 3-16 times more likely to
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39 receive diagnoses of ADHD (Novik et al. 2006), an association that has been found to
40
41 diminish in adulthood once children have left formal schooling (Freeman 2017). While
42
43 such correlations cannot infer causality, they do suggest that the link between children's
44
45 responses towards test-taking and their mental health, is a line worthy of further study.
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50 The effects of testing upon children's learning orientations are made even more
51
52 complex given the mixed messages that teachers' have been found to convey to
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54 students, where on the one hand competition is used to make comparisons between
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3 pupils, but on the other, where children who favourably compared their test-outcomes
4
5 with peers were castigated (Kasanen et al. 2003). A study by (Silfer et al. 2016) found
6
7 that the testing context is perceived by children as particularly stressful because it
8
9 impacts upon the child-teacher relationship, where the teacher was repositioned as a
10
11 controller of children, as opposed to her more usual classroom involvement in helping
12
13 and supporting students. For some children the distress caused by this confusion was
14
15 unbearable, as in the case of John, a child who couldn't complete his test:

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19 'He starts to cry, first silent and then louder and louder. The other children still in
20
21 the room stop and stare at John who now cries despairingly... He goes on crying
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23 and explains that the test is 'really hard and really tough' and that 'you cannot even
24
25 get help' (fieldnotes Silfer et al. 2016, 246).

26
27 It is not hard to imagine how such responses may be painful for teachers, especially in
28
29 the face of children's confusion as to the shift in pedagogic roles that testing imposes.
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31 As an example of mental weakness that policy seeks to rectify by hardening children's
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33 approaches towards performance failure, teachers may well question whether it is John
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35 or indeed the testing culture that require rectification. Stephen Ball (2003) has coined
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37 this quandary 'values schizophrenia' in highlighting the sense of deep internal conflict
38
39 caused for teachers in the pedagogic actions required to satisfy national targets. Yet the
40
41 policy justification sold to teachers and students is that the ends (in terms of higher
42
43 attainment outcomes) justify the means (of intensive preparation for examination). But
44
45 can this narrative be duly justified? Educationalist and in-school trainer Andy Cope, has
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47 argued otherwise, in claiming that the performative culture of testing is sucking the joy
48
49 out of schooling for children. He is critical of the delayed gratification model
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51 underpinning the education system, which he believes is fundamentally illusory:
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3 'Happiness is sold as the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow... Kids are told: "if
4 you work hard in Year 11, you'll get really good results and when you get those
5 results you'll be happy"'

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7 (Cope quoted in AFL Report 2016, 12).
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10 Such a rationality is all the more irreconcilable for children for whom 'really good
11 results' do not follow.
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14 15 16 ***'Homo-economicus' a rational approach for motivating all students?*** 17

18 Understanding the effects of high stakes testing on children's well-being and
19 mental health is complicated by findings that while some children are deeply stressed
20 and anxious about testing, other children find them motivational (Putwain et al. 2012;
21 Wyn et al. 2014; Silber et al. 2016). One explanation for this can be found within a
22 series of studies investigating the role between teaching and learning, through a focus
23 on school children's relationships, identities and learning strategies (Pollard and Filer
24 1985; 1996; Pollard et al. 2003). In highlighting the importance of social context,
25 Pollard (2007) found that children's approach to the mastery of a learning challenge was
26 strongly associated with their performance in it (2). If all learning is about risk taking
27 then the degree to which a child feels confident or anxious to approach the task has a
28 strong bearing upon the likelihood of taking the leap of faith necessary to achieve it.
29 The confidence to perform in tests may, therefore, correlate to children's assessment of
30 their likelihood to perform well relative to others (based on past performance) as well as
31 the consequences of their success or failure (Harlen and Deaken Crick 2002).
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49 This theory of learning provides a significant point of contrast to the 'homo-
50 economicus' model driving policy, where the neoliberal citizen is assumed to behave
51 'rationally' in the instrumental sense of being able to calculate means to ends. For
52 school children, this concerns the pursuit of high achievement in national performance
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2 indicators regardless of past performance. As a consequence of the pressure applied to
3
4 the cost-benefit ratio, the policy assumption is that students will be motivated to
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6 demonstrate the behaviour concordant with high test results, because high achievement
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8 leads to success in the education and labour market. Central to this concept is the
9
10 positioning of individual students as pursuing these ends through ‘free-will’ governed
11
12 by rational calculation, and reinforced by the punishments and incentives that the
13
14 government constructs through its policy framework (Lemke 2001, 198). Through
15
16 closer inspection of the way that HST is deciphered to children who fail to attain the
17
18 requisite levels, it is arguable that a more rationale response in the face of failure is to
19
20 elect to buy out of the system, in constructing resistant (Willis 1977), despondent (Reay
21
22 and Wiliam 1999) or ambivalent (Booher Jennings 2008; Brown 2012) learning
23
24 orientations. This may explain why the culture of HST has been found to be, ‘most
25
26 damaging for disadvantaged pupils, pupils with Special Educational Needs and
27
28 Disabilities, and pupils with low attainment’ (Hutchings 2015, 5).
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33 While the self-enterprising ‘homo economicus’ (Foucault 2008) may therefore
34
35 explain the way that high achieving children engage with the education system, it does
36
37 not work for the lower achieving, disadvantaged, or socio-emotionally disaffected
38
39 children who do not succeed in the educational market. Mental illness by definition
40
41 situates a maladapted or irrationally functioning psychological state that this is
42
43 fundamentally in opposition to the neoliberal citizen (Rose 1989; Popkewitz 2012). The
44
45 problem for policymakers is how to respond to those children who fail to be motivated
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47 within such a performative led environment, without dispelling with the rationalist
48
49 approach to human motivation. The deconstruction of children’s negative learning
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51 orientations in terms of weak character formation presents a policy solution to this
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53 quandary. In rendering the anxious, despondent or demotivated learner identity as
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3 indicative of 'less-severe' mental health problems, policy makers can justify an
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5 aspiration to redress the psychological dispositions of 'inappropriate' (Popkewitz 2012,
6
7 183) learners through the various policy interventions outlined above. In this way the
8
9 mental health agenda can be leveraged to instil the 'grit', 'determination' and 'coping'
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11 skills designed to deter children from giving up in the face of successive school failure,
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13 through relaying the narrative that it is children's approach to learning and test-taking
14
15 that is at fault, as opposed to the tests themselves. Operationalising schools'
16
17 responsibilities towards mental health through a psychological recalibration towards the
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19 goals of 'resilience' and 'responsible' character, can therefore be seen to uphold the
20
21 'homo-economicus' view of the appropriate learner.
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26 **Conclusion**

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28 This paper has analysed current education policy with respect to schools' role in
29
30 responding to the 'mental health crisis' affecting children and young people. In so doing
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32 we have highlighted an implicit policy narrative that identifies a category of 'less-
33
34 severe' mental illnesses, deciphered in terms of individual character weakness. This has
35
36 pointed towards whole-school responsive and preventative mechanisms designed to
37
38 bolster mental toughness and individual resilience as one of the chief routes by which
39
40 schools can best respond to children's mental health needs. We have argued that this
41
42 approach reflects an extension of the grip of neoliberal rationality in explaining
43
44 educational outcomes through children's mental functioning and behaviour. This can be
45
46 seen as part of a broader policy narrative that reduces social problems to individual
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48 factors (Brown 2015; Carr 2015) that has justified the extended reach of schooling in
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50 shaping how children think and feel.
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3 As an opportunity to raise the issue of children's mental and emotional health
4 higher up on the government's agenda, the mental health 'crisis' is a red flag to the
5 educational system, a flag that teachers and educationalists have been waving for some
6 time: schools themselves may be contributing factors to mental illness due to the stress
7 and anxiety children experience towards test-taking, as well as the effects of test
8 outcomes on their self-esteem and learning orientations. In consulting the sociological
9 literature on children's responses to HST, it has been argued that a narrative of mental
10 weakness fulfils a useful function in explaining the under-achievements and lack of
11 motivation for children who fail to achieve according to national standardised
12 performance indicators. The question posed is: In coaching children from the age of five
13 in the art of test-taking, are schools setting children up to be mental unstable, through
14 the substitution of rote learning and memory recall for emancipatory critical thinking?
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29 We do not deny, as Thorley (2016) has noted, that, 'schools are well-placed to
30 act as hubs' (4) in relation to tackling mental health in children and young people. For
31 example, the statutory inclusion of Relationships and Sex Education at secondary level
32 and Relationships Education at primary level, from September 2019 (DfE 2017b) offers
33 a platform for children and young people to debate what mental health and wellbeing
34 should consist of, given that 'healthy minds, including emotional wellbeing, resilience
35 and mental health' (3) form one of the broad pillars upon which it should comprise.
36
37 However, we are also concerned that this revised focus upon mental health and
38 wellbeing in the context of education may reflect a further technology of governance
39 allied to the neoliberal educational project that refuses to draw its claws from the
40 'homo-economicus' approach to test-taking. Our chief concern is that the mental health
41 and well-being movement in schools should not see mental health (first and foremost)
42 as the means to a (more highly valued) end (i.e., achievement and academic attainment),
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3 should not too quickly seek to individualise the responsibility for mental health
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5 struggles (and coping with them), and should not turn our heads away from an
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7 opportunity to incite political change and social responsibility in relation to the ways in
8
9 which the neoliberal educational model itself creates the perfect platform for a mental
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11 health crisis in young people.
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