

VOLUME 2: PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE REPORTS

by

TOM HUGHES

Professional practice reports submitted to the University of Birmingham for
The Applied Educational and Child Psychology Doctorate programme.

School of Education
College of Social Sciences
University of Birmingham
July 2013

UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

University of Birmingham Research Archive

e-theses repository

This unpublished thesis/dissertation is copyright of the author and/or third parties. The intellectual property rights of the author or third parties in respect of this work are as defined by The Copyright Designs and Patents Act 1988 or as modified by any successor legislation.

Any use made of information contained in this thesis/dissertation must be in accordance with that legislation and must be properly acknowledged. Further distribution or reproduction in any format is prohibited without the permission of the copyright holder.

Contents

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER	3
CHAPTER 1	7
CHAPTER 2	67
CHAPTER 3	127
CHAPTER 4	212

CHAPTER 1

Professional Practice Report 1: Differentiated instruction options for a Year 9 student with learning difficulties in a mainstream secondary school setting.

CHAPTER 2

Professional Practice Report 2: The realities of implementing a group cognitive behaviour therapy intervention for students with emotional and behavioural difficulties – a case example in a mainstream secondary school setting.

CHAPTER 3

Professional Practice Report 3: Rejecting the didactic way – implementing a precision teaching approach with teaching assistants.

CHAPTER 4

Professional Practice Report 4: The role of service user feedback in shaping and improving educational psychology service delivery.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER

The research outlined within Volume 2 was conducted within a large shire county in the East of England. The four chapters within Volume 2 meet the academic requirements of the University of Birmingham's Applied Educational and Child Psychology Doctorate programme.

The Educational Psychology Service (EPS) within the shire county's local authority supports 250 (nursery, primary, middle, secondary, specialist) schools through twenty two full time equivalent Educational Psychologists (EPs). During the 2011 / 12 and 2012 / 13 academic years, I was the assigned (Doctoral Trainee) Educational Psychologist (EP) for ten schools (a secondary school and the nine feeder primary schools) within the county.

Each of the pieces of research outlined within Volume 2 align with an element of the local Children and Young People's Plan and were agreed with key school and local authority sponsors prior to commencement. The local Children and Young People's Plan defines the current county wide priorities as:

- To help children and young people feel safe and happy in their communities.
- To narrow the gap in outcomes for children and young people in some areas and with specific needs.
- To improve outcomes for children and young people with learning disabilities and difficulties and complex needs.

Chapter 1 in Volume 2 describes a model of differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 1999) used as the theoretical framework for a school-based intervention with a Year 9 student with learning difficulties. Differentiated instruction is introduced as concept

important to creating inclusive classrooms and improving attainment for students.

Teachers, parents and the student were engaged in a mixed methods approach (using questionnaires, interviews, standardised assessments and observations) within a case study design. Twelve recommendations were defined to differentiate content, process and product related to the student's learning. Initial evaluation was tentatively positive, although longer term evaluation was recommended. Barriers to inclusion, and implementation of the differentiation requirements, are discussed, as well as the risks that differentiated instruction may result in learner dependency, low achievement and student anxiety.

The focus of the second chapter was defined in response to the growing demand for cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) to be delivered in school settings by EPs. The small scale case study examined the effectiveness of a school-based, six session group CBT intervention for three Year 10 students with externalising behavioural difficulties. A post-implementation review of the students' self-evaluation data and the school's behaviour management data presented a mixed picture as to the efficacy of the intervention. Key implementation considerations are highlighted that were relevant in this example, and possibly more widely. These considerations include ensuring the students are true therapeutic 'clients', introducing appropriate modifications to manualised therapeutic approaches, and maintaining a systemic perspective. The suitability of trainee EPs as therapists is addressed, as care must be taken when initiating therapeutic interventions.

The third chapter addresses the role of Teaching Assistants (TAs) in implementing school-based literacy interventions. TAs, in ever greater numbers, now operate in increasingly pedagogical roles with a particular focus on leading interventions. Drawing

on a multiple case study design, this chapter summarises the training of forty six TAs across four schools to implement a Precision Teaching (PT) programme with students in their schools. The TA training was delivered over three sessions with an emphasis on an experiential, collaborative experience in a reflective, job-relevant environment. Thirty one of the forty six TAs attended all three sessions, and 30% of the TAs completed all the homework requirements between the sessions. The TAs indicated there was a 5-point increase in their level of confidence regarding PT following the training, although in one school this was not matched by a confidence that the TAs would be able to implement a PT programme. Data collected from three schools suggested that nineteen TAs were actively using a PT programme (68% of those TAs that completed all the training), with fifty two students. On average, the students had received twenty five PT sessions over a ten week period (an implementation rate of 54%). The students had learnt new words at a rate of four words every five sessions. The implications of these findings for EP practice are discussed, as are other factors deemed central to the implementation and success of a PT programme.

The final chapter moves to focus on evaluative practices within the local EPS. 83% of EP Services seek feedback from schools about the quality of the service that is delivered (Hampshire Educational Psychology Service, 2010). Through the lens of an outcomes-based accountability model of evaluation (Friedman, 2008), a cross-sectional design was used to investigate the views of the school-based service-users of the EPS. A questionnaire was used to gather data from the 250 schools in the county (55% response rate), and this was followed up with six semi-structured interviews of the respondents and assigned EPs in schools that had been particularly positive in their questionnaire feedback. Results showed that EPs had excellent relationships with

stakeholders, produced valued reports and were professional in their role. Some services were accessed more than others, and the perceived quality of the services was correlated with how much the service was accessed. Results regarding the extent EPs add value were slightly lower than other results in the questionnaire (but still positive). The challenges associated with evaluating EP services are revisited, and a proposed approach to evaluation is outlined. The success of the evaluation initiative is framed in terms of the extent that it has led to learning and change in the EPS.

The four chapters are balanced in their focus, and accordingly they reflect the various facets of an EP's role. Chapter 1 focuses on recommendations to support an individual child, chapter 2 on a group intervention, and chapters 3 and 4 represent 'systemic' pieces of work. Whilst in all cases the ultimate client of the work is the children and young people in the county, the EPS, schools, teachers, TAs and parents all are likely to have benefited from the research.

The research outlined in Volume 2 illustrates a variety of EP service delivery, and my professional practice has improved as a result of the critical reviews completed and research methods undertaken. The completion and submission of Volume 2 requires organisation of, and reflection on, multiple small scale research projects, and this broadens and strengthens practice across a wide range of areas. Each of the chapters offers an original contribution regarding the role of an EP. Across the various chapters, Volume 2 details the opportunities and risks associated with EP activity related to differentiated instruction, group therapeutic programmes, PT as a literacy intervention and EPS evaluation.

CHAPTER 1

DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION OPTIONS FOR A YEAR 9 STUDENT WITH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES IN A MAINSTREAM SECONDARY SCHOOL SETTING

by

TOM HUGHES

A professional practice report submitted to the University of Birmingham for
The Applied Educational and Child Psychology Doctorate programme.

College of Social Sciences
School of Education
University of Birmingham
B15 2TT
December 2011

6,626 words

Abstract

This paper describes a model of differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 1999) used as the theoretical framework for a school-based intervention with a Year 9 student who has learning difficulties. Differentiated instruction is introduced as concept important to creating inclusive classrooms and improving attainment for students. Teachers, parents and the student were engaged in a mixed methods approach (using questionnaires, interviews, standardised assessments and observations) within a case study design. Twelve recommendations were defined to differentiate content, process and product related to the student's learning. Initial evaluation as to whether the recommendations will result in improved attainment is tentatively positive, although longer term evaluation is required. Barriers to inclusion, and implementation of the differentiation requirements, are discussed, as well as the risks that differentiated instruction may result in learner dependency, low achievement and student anxiety.

Introduction

'S' Village College (SVC) is a secondary school in a shire county catering for students between the ages of 11 – 16. Under the provision of the Academies Act (2010), SVC was granted academy status in the summer of 2011. There are 1,215 students at the school, with an average proportion of students with special educational needs, and a below average proportion of students known to be eligible for free school meals.

The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) found SVC to be 'an outstanding school in every respect' (April 2011, p. 4). Comments throughout the inspection report reference high standards of learning, and that the 'needs of every child are met' (p.5).

SVC is supported by the shire county's Educational Psychology Service (EPS), with an annual allocation of 29 hours a year. I am the assigned (Doctoral Trainee) Educational Psychologist (EP) for SVC, and the case that forms the basis of this paper was an agreed focus of work prior to my arrival (a Common Assessment Framework form had been completed in August 2011).

'Lara' is the subject of this casework. Lara is in Year 9 and she lives with her adoptive parents. She used to have 'looked after child' status and has now been with her adoptive parents for 3 years. She was referred to the EPS because she has been unable to grasp formative literacy and numeracy skills (reading, writing, spelling, adding and subtracting) as the basis for further learning. She was reported to have widespread difficulties recalling and applying key information and learning.

The paper will identify differentiated instruction options that are likely to benefit Lara. Details about Lara will be included in the paper only to provide clarity and context regarding the findings and recommendations.

The paper will outline the literature that defines and supports differentiated instruction. Data collection details will be provided in the methods section, prior to the recommendations and implementation decisions being outlined and justified.

Literature review

Differentiated instruction

Differentiated instruction is 'the process by which teachers adapt curriculum objectives, teaching methods, learning activities, resources and assessment to match the

educational needs of individual pupils' (Raveaud, 2005; p. 464). Many of the definitions of differentiated instruction (or differentiation) address the need to maximise a student's potential and offer opportunities for progression for all students, regardless of their background, interests and learning profile (Tomlinson, 1999). Indeed, Simpson (1989) defined the purpose of differentiation as to ascertain and meet students' different needs.

Differentiation rose to prominence after the 1988 Education Act and reflected the rejection of a 'within child' model of classroom intervention in favour of an eco-systemic approach. This approach, based on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model, encourages modifications to contextual factors in the classroom to maximise learning.

There are a number of frustrations as to how differentiation has been defined. There have been concerns regarding the narrowing (King, 1990) and proliferation (Weston, 1992) of definitions, with no shared consensus on the meaning of differentiation (McGarvey et al., 1997). This has made differentiation a concept that is hard to grasp and implement in classrooms.

Differentiation and inclusion

Tomlinson's (1999) model of differentiation is predicated on the belief that students are unique: in their entry point to education, their self-esteem and their learning style.

Effective learning in differentiated classrooms also relies on a recognition of this uniqueness, as students work in a 'personal' zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962) utilising their multiple, variable and fluid intelligences (Gardner, 1993).

Differentiation, therefore, is required to cater for such learner differences (Weston, 1992) by discerning the experiences and needs of individual students.

Differentiation is based on the recognition and unconditional acceptance of the value and worth associated with student diversity, and the concept of differentiated instruction has been increasingly applied to inclusive classrooms (Tomlinson, 2001). Based on Powers' (2002) definition of inclusion - a value system that recognises diversity and is based on principles of equity and acceptance and providing equal rights to participation - differentiation represents an inclusive approach to education. Indeed, special education must be identified as one part of educational differentiation (Emanuelsson, 2003).

Differentiation, for all students, should privilege the role and the views of students. As equal partners in the classroom, students can influence differentiation practices and actively monitor their progress against the negotiated learning outcomes (McNamara & Moreton, 1997).

Effective differentiation practices create independent learners who are confident in their abilities (McNamara & Moreton, 1997). A differentiated classroom is one in which students gradually increase their autonomy, by identifying their aims and goals, making informed choices through learning how to learn and contributing to the differentiation of learning (Convery & Coyle, 1999). As a result, differentiated classrooms have the potential to nurture the self-esteem of students (Coopersmith, 1967), as the provision of assessment and feedback influences self-concept. Burns (1982) detailed how positive self-esteem could improve educational outcomes and classroom behaviour.

Lastly, Mitchell et al. (2009) explain the concept of social inclusion through peer-related terms such as involvement, acceptance and affiliation, and argue that differentiated practices have a role in enhancing the personal, social and emotional development of students. The collaborative learning that differentiation frequently demands provides

the medium for students to develop their thinking through talk, access support from adults and have their achievements valued (McNamara & Moreton, 1997). Hart (1996) recognises that learning is a deeply social endeavour, with collaboration in inclusive, differentiated classrooms more likely to lead to deep thinking (McNamara & Moreton, 1997) and a positive sense of self (Fitch, 2003).

Models of differentiation

Traditional models of differentiation have included nothing more detailed and insightful than a list of ways in which teachers may differentiate instruction in their classroom.

Table 1 outlines the differentiation options traditionally presented to teachers.

Models of differentiation

Differentiation by...	Definition	Her Majesty's Inspectorate (1992)	Lewis (1992)	Dickenson & Wright (1993)	McNamara & Moreton (1997)	McGarvey et al. (1997)	Convery & Coyle (1999)	Blamires (1999)	Tomlinson (1999, 2006)
Outcome / product	Students are provided multiple opportunities to demonstrate what they have learnt.	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Content	Students are provided multiple representations of content, including the materials and mechanisms used to accomplish learning.		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
Structure and teacher time	Students are provided with variations in time, attention and support from adults.		✓	✓		✓	✓		
Task	Students are provided with the same content, but may complete different tasks relative to the content.	✓		✓		✓	✓		
Response	Students are provided with different forms of feedback and response to work they have completed.	✓	✓	✓					
Resource	Students are provided with different materials to support learning.			✓		✓			
Grouping or pairing	Students are broken down into groups or pairs to complete learning.		✓		✓		✓		

		Models of differentiation							
Differentiation by...	Definition	Her Majesty's Inspectorate (1992)	Lewis (1992)	Dickenson & Wright (1993)	McNamara & Moreton (1997)	McGarvey et al. (1997)	Convery & Coyle (1999)	Blamires (1999)	Tomlinson (1999, 2006)
Process	Students are provided with multiple options for engagement with learning.							✓	✓
Access and teaching style	Students are provided with access to learning through different mediums (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic).		✓				✓		
Enrichment / interest	Students are provided with a degree of choice in selecting activities that they are interested in. Founded on an interest-based authentic curriculum (Renzulli, 1977).	✓					✓		
Pace	Students are provided with the opportunity to complete work at different speeds.		✓						
Classroom organisation	Students are provided with a set of structures that create variety in how the class and the work is organised.				✓				

Table 1: traditional differentiation options.

The differentiation options presented in Table 1 illustrate the same difficulties associated with defining differentiation, in that there is little agreement between models, significant overlap between terms and limited detail regarding key terminology. The models also indicate that there is a formula, or recipe, for differentiation, a concept that Tomlinson (2001) rejects.

In contrast, Tomlinson's (1999) model of the differentiated instructional concept is a more holistic, flexible approach to differentiation. As opposed to producing a checklist of differentiation options, Tomlinson's (1999) model provides a structure for differentiated instruction that shapes a teacher's response to the diverse learning needs of a student:

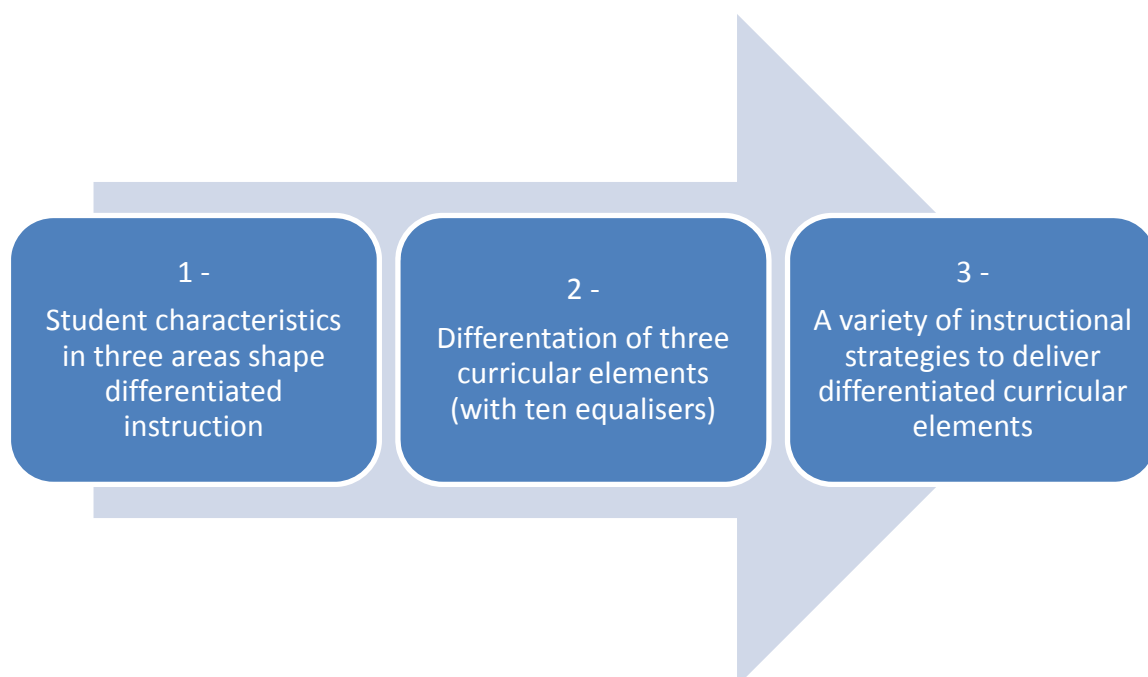
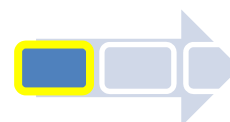


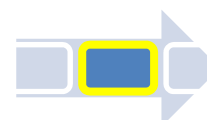
Figure 1: An overview of Tomlinson's (1999) model of differentiation.

1 - Student characteristics



Tomlinson (1999) advocates that differentiation is based on three key student characteristics: readiness (their entry point into learning), interests (their source of motivation) and learning profile (how the students learn).

2 - Differentiation



Based upon an analysis of the student characteristics, differentiation occurs through the modification of three curricular elements, which are outlined in Table 2:

Curricular element	Description
Content	What is being learnt and the materials and mechanisms used to accomplish learning. Content differentiation allows particular content to be identified for specific students according to their learning needs (Adami, 2004) and for the mechanisms of content delivery (utilising alternative modalities) to be modified based on learning preferences of students.
Process	Activities designed to ensure students use key skills to make sense out of essential ideas and information. Bender (2007) indicates that process differentiation is about how the content is taught, and the varied ways in which students can have their learning mediated (Lidz, 1991) as they engage in learning. Learning processes appropriate to differentiate may include ways to activate the learning (introductory activities that focus on the material), learning activities themselves (instructional activities that might include modelling, rehearsal and choral chanting, for example) and grouping activities (individual, paired, small group and whole class activities).
Products	Vehicles through which students demonstrate and extend what they have learned. Product differentiation removes the emphasis on the method of presentation, and focuses attention on what has been learnt. It provides freedom of expression, choice and control to the students. The risks associated with product differentiation include that students will avoid certain (literacy) skills that may go unpractised, and that work differentiated by product is harder to mark.

Table 2: curricular elements

Tomlinson (1999) goes on to identify ten equalisers of differentiation, which represent mechanisms teachers can use to adjust and shape differentiated practices. These equalisers are all continuum-based:

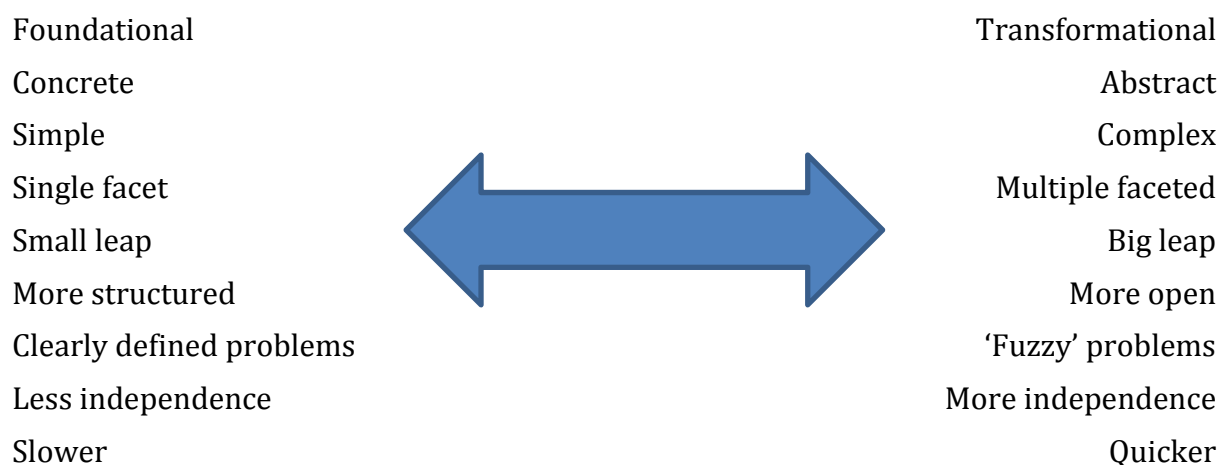
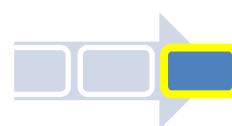


Figure 2: Tomlinson's equalisers of differentiation.

3 - Instructional strategies



Finally, instructional strategies are the 'buckets' that deliver differentiated content, process or products, and they comprise mechanical, practical steps teachers can take in their classroom. Examples of instructional strategies (Tomlinson, 1999) are outlined in Table 3:

Content	Process	Product
<p>Sample instructional strategies to aid differentiation for content include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiple texts and supplementary print resources • Varied computer programmes • Varied audio-visuals • Varied support 	<p>Sample instructional strategies to aid differentiation for process include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tiered assignments • Learning centres • Triarchic model assignments • Multiple intelligences assignments • Graphic organisers 	<p>Sample instructional strategies to aid differentiation for product include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tiered product assignments • Independent study • Community-based products • Negotiated criteria • Graduated rubrics

Content	Process	Product
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> mechanisms • Varied time allotments • Interest centres • Contracts • Compacting • Triarchic based orientation • Complex instruction • Group investigation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simulations • Learning logs • Concept attainment • Concept development • Synectics • Complex instruction • Group investigation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Triarchic based orientations • Multiple intelligence-based orientations • Complex instruction • Group investigation

Table 3: example instructional strategies.

Tomlinson's (1999) model transforms a disparate list of differentiation options into a coherent model for differentiation that teachers can use in classrooms. Its comprehensive nature is further evidenced by the fact that each of the differentiation options included in the 'traditional' models of differentiation outlined in Table 1 is catered for in one of the three elements of Tomlinson's (1999) model.

Facilitators of a differentiated classroom

As referenced earlier, classrooms are complex systemic environments and attempts to differentiate content, processes or products in the classroom must be undertaken with related facilitators and influencers in mind.

The first of these factors is the school-wide approach to educational stratification (Van Houtte, 2006), which refers to setting or streaming students by ability on a whole class basis. Studies that have considered the educational and emotional outcomes associated with streaming (Boaler et al., 2000) have concluded that streaming provides slight benefits to students in high streams at the expense of significant losses to students in lower streams. It seems that educational stratification leads teachers to change their teaching (Hallam & Ireson, 2005), and this is likely to result in less instructional time,

lower cognitive demand, a slower pace, more interruptions and a higher proportion of off-task behaviour in lower streams (Terwel, 2005).

Secondly, learning targets (to include standards, objectives and personal development plans) play an important part in the success of differentiation strategies. Hallahan et al., (1982) argued that students need to plan a task and assume personal responsibility for their efforts in attending to a task for learning to be successful.

Lastly, it is challenging to delineate differentiation and formative assessment, more so following the introduction of the Assessment for Learning strategy (Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008). Tomlinson (1999) talks of formative assessment and instruction as inseparable, with Reis et al. (2011) emphasising that learning is most effective when teachers are able to assess students' current levels of functioning and learning preferences and then use this information to help students progress.

Challenges associated with differentiated instruction

The implementation of differentiated instruction is time consuming and resource intensive for teachers (Kerry & Kerry, 1997). Teachers are also often concerned that the planning and delivery of differentiated instruction may lead to classroom activities that are at odds with national curriculum requirements and OFSTED criteria for assessment (McNamara & Moreton, 1997).

Effective differentiated instruction may challenge existing practices of teachers, as they are asked to prioritise student choice, delegate ownership of learning and consult with students on their preferences (McNamara & Moreton, 1997). Further, differentiated instruction is likely to stretch a teacher's skills and capabilities. Ainscow & Muncey (1989) describe achieving differentiation as 'arguably one of the most difficult aspects

of a teacher's work' (p.88), likely due to skills needed to maintain momentum, match differentiation to need and balance a variety of demands.

As a result of all of the factors outlined above, Weston et al., (1998) reported that, whilst 60% of secondary teachers claimed to respond flexibly in interactions with individuals in class, there was actually very little evidence to support this claim.

Lastly, there is a risk that differentiated instruction can be a critical mechanism by which schools produce and reproduce educational, social and economic inequality (Hayes & Deyhle, 2001). Oakes et al., (1992) argued that teacher attitudes and preferred approaches to differentiation play a role in the production and maintenance of inequality in the classroom, with lower achieving students in a self-fulfilling prophecy (Kerry & Kerry, 1997) fuelled by low expectations.

Methods

The aim of the casework written up in this paper was to formulate and implement differentiated instruction recommendations that support and improve the quality of Lara's learning experiences and attainment at SVC.

Epistemology

The casework was rooted in a critical realist epistemology. The assessment work and the development of the recommendations were based on key features of critical realism as identified by Cohen et al. (2003), including that:

- the real world is complex and has multiple layers;
- events and explanations should be contextualised;

- characteristic patterns of activity will emerge when studied; and
- facts can never be isolated from values.

Design

Within this epistemological framework, a case study design was used (with Lara, her teachers and SVC as the focus). Case studies aim to provide idiographic explanations of situations (de Vaus, 2001), in that they focus on particular cases and develop as complete an explanation of each case as possible. Thomas (2011) contends that case study design forces researchers to drill down into the cases to create a three dimensional picture to analyse. In completing an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives (Simons, 2001), case studies aim to chase out the abstract in favour of the specific (Evans, 2000).

Ethical considerations

Based on a review of The British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009), a number of sensitivities regarding my involvement with Lara became clear, given her ex looked after child status.

At the outset of my work with Lara and her family, written consent was gained from her parents, specific to the nature of the work to be completed and its proposed completion by a Doctoral Trainee EP under supervision.

Informed consent was also gathered from Lara during the initial introductory session, and then checked at all subsequent sessions. Questions related to her family history were approached with sensitivity, and only in cases where the information was relevant to the case formulation.

Finally, local authority policies related to confidentiality of data and record management were adhered to, to ensure all Lara's information remains secure.

Data collection methods

To develop a multi-dimensional picture of Lara, and the teaching practices in place at SVC, multiple data collection tools were used within a mixed methods approach. In Cresswell & Plano Clark's (2007) classification of mixed methods designs, the approach represented a triangulation design (where complementary data from multiple sources are used in a single collection phase; all data are afforded equal weight). A mixed methods approach enables a researcher to approach the same questions from different angles, corroborate findings and test different analyses, explanations or theories against each other.

Table 4 represents the data collection methods used within the mixed methods approach.

Method		Appendix	Subject	Data collected
Questionnaires	'Assessment for Learning' questionnaire	A	Lara	Lara's perspectives on learning objectives, feedback and peer / self-assessment
	'Access to learning' questionnaire	B	Lara	Lara's attitudes and preferences related to differentiated instruction
	'General pupil progress' questionnaire	C	13 of Lara's teachers	Teacher views on Lara's attitude, performance and behaviour
Interviews		D	Lara	Introductory case data and targets for intervention

Method	Appendix	Subject	Data collected
		Maths teacher, English teacher, form tutor, Special Educational Needs Coordinator (SENCo)	Lara's performance and differentiated instruction options
		Parents	Lara's performance and differentiated instruction options
Standardised assessment	Weschler Individual Achievement Test Second Edition (WIAT-II)	Lara	Curriculum attainment data
	Analysis of 2009 / 2011 Cognitive Ability Test (CAT) results	Lara	Ability data
Observations	Science, Maths & English classes	E Lara	Lara's attitude, performance and behaviour in a live setting and differentiated instruction options

Table 4: data collection methods.

Questionnaires

Of the questionnaires used, the 'Assessment for Learning' questionnaire was a standard student questionnaire developed in Staffordshire (DfE, 2011). The 'Access to learning' and 'General pupil progress' questionnaires were developed based on materials gathered from comparator shire counties.

A questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information (Cohen et al., 2007). Questionnaires usually utilise a fixed, quantitative design with the collection of a small amount of data in a standardised format (Robson,

2002). The questionnaires were introduced to generate and test hypotheses (Breakwell et al., 2006).

The questionnaires represented a relatively simple and straightforward approach for the respondents, and they provided data that were easy to analyse ('usable knowledge', Lindblom and Cohen, 1979).

The key risks, however, were that:

- two of the questionnaires relied on Lara's comprehension of the questions;
- the responses provided lack depth and thought (Robson, 2002); and
- ambiguity in some of the questions threatened the internal validity of the responses.

For example, the 'General pupil progress questionnaire' required the teachers to complete a peer comparison of Lara and her peers, and it was hard to establish whether the selected peers were from her class or year group.

In an effort to address these risks, the questions were piloted for clarity, Lara was offered 1:1 support to complete her questionnaires and her responses were discussed with her following completion (to confirm they accurately represented her views)

Interviews

The semi-structured interviews (Fontana & Frey, 1994) were founded on an interactional exchange of dialogue, a relatively informal style and a thematic or topic-centred approach (Mason, 2002). The interviews were used to sample opinions and to develop and test hypotheses (Cohen et al., 2007). They contained a number of predetermined topics, but with wording and order that were flexible (Robson, 2002), as they were predominantly informant-led (Powney and Watts, 1987).

The interviews were effective in that they were flexible and adaptable (Cohen et al., (2007) and they applied a 'minimum of restraint' (Kerlinger, 1970) on the respondent's answers. Their structure encouraged the exploration of the interpretations and meanings of events and situations surrounding Lara's performance in school.

The interviews, however, should be recognised as social encounters that are 'co-constructed' between the interviewer and the interviewee (Kitwood, 1977). The absence of structure and objectivity is likely to result in a lack of standardisation that raises doubts regarding the reliability of the findings and the presence of bias (Mason, 2002). In addition, when interviewing the teachers, it was clear that status differentials at SVC may have inhibited the quality and depth of the data produced.

Standardised assessments

Two standardised assessments were used to complement the data received from questionnaires, interviews and observations.

The WIAT-II was chosen because it considers the areas in which Lara's teachers report her as having difficulty, specifically reading, writing, maths and oral language. The assessment provides an insight into the Lara's attainment levels compared to others of the same age, and also her relative strengths across the sampled skill domains. Whilst administration of the WIAT-II closely followed the administration manual guidelines, it is important to keep in mind that the test represents a 'point in time' assessment that may have been influenced by factors not apparent to the administrator.

The 2009 & 2011 Cognitive Ability Test (Lohman et al., 2008) results were also used as a further source of information related to Lara's verbal (thinking with words), non-

verbal (thinking with shape and space) and quantitative (thinking with numbers) abilities.

Observations

The last source of information collected was from three separate classroom observations. The observations were semi-structured (Robson, 2002) in that the observation schedule included eight scales to rate Lara's behaviour on during each lesson. This data were not considered quantitatively, but to establish general trends regarding Lara's involvement in the classroom.

As Lara and the teachers were aware they were being observed, there is a chance that the observations did not capture a true picture of classroom practices (Breakwell et al., 2006). The observations represent a one off view of Lara's interactions in class.

Facilitating change within SVC

At the time of case referral, a number of considerations relevant to initiating organisation change within SVS, and Lara's classes, were discussed with the SENCo at SVS (Wedell, 2009). These included discussions about why change was required, what the hoped for outcomes were and what form the changes would take.

Lara's senior tutor was the sponsor for the work, and discussions with him adhered to Yukl's (1994) principles that underpin the development of a vision for change. Jointly, stakeholders and facilitative existing practices were identified and the change was linked to the wider factors in SVS (such as the commitment to creating opportunities for all students).

The SENCo acted as the change agent within the school (the catalyst for change). She was suited to the role as her position enables her to work across teams and collaborate effectively internally and externally (Kanter, 1989). Her level of influence over other teachers, however, was not clear at the outset of the work.

James & Connolly's (2000) model of action research was applied to this piece of work. The model, outlined below, includes an evaluative component, and it typically results in an organisation with an enhanced capacity to change (James & Connolly, 2000).

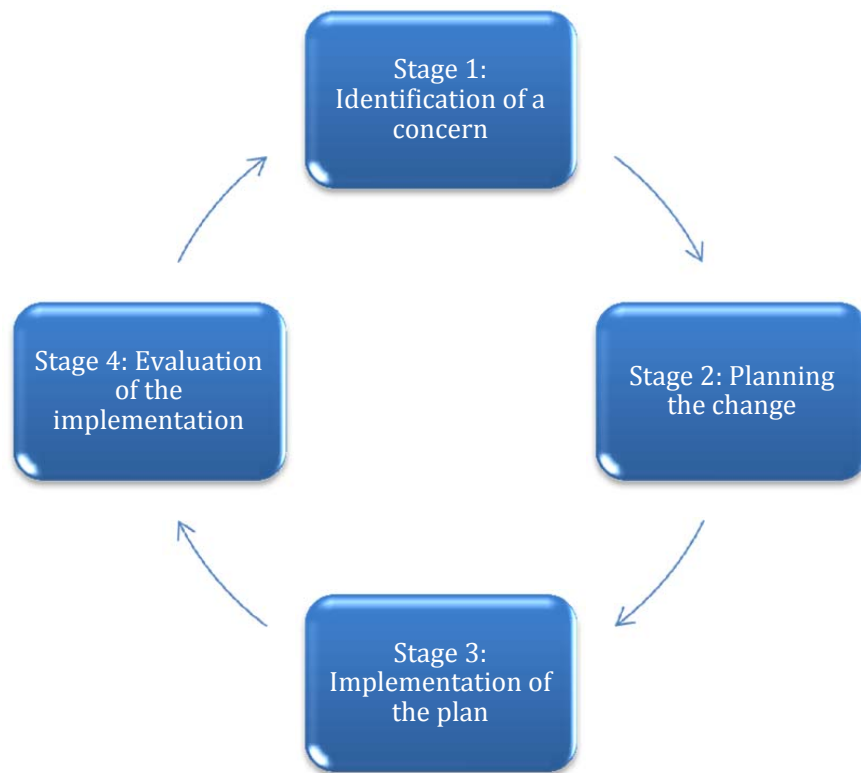


Figure 3: the main stages of an action research cycle (James & Connolly, 2000).

Findings and recommendations

The data collected from the three questionnaires, three interviews, two standardised assessments and three observations produced an holistic perspective that emphasises the interconnectedness and complexity of Lara's psychological, educational and social life (Thomas, 2011).

The data provided insight into Lara's personal characteristics, the first component of Tomlinson's (1999) model of differentiated instruction. These comprise her current levels of understanding (her entry point into learning), her interests (the source of her motivation) and her learning profile (her preferences for learning). This information shaped the differentiation recommendations that are to follow.

A number of Lara's strengths emerged, and it was important to avoid fixating on a deficit model of development (Oliver, 1990), but to recognise Lara's strengths.. In this instance, multiple sources of evidence confirmed that Lara has an excellent attitude to learning and was popular amongst her peers. The following results were evident from the 'General pupil progress' questionnaire her teachers completed:

Area	Score (out of 5, with 1 = area of significant weakness relative to peers and 5 = area of significant strength relative to peers)
Behaviour	4.69
Attitude to work	4.46
Completion of task in class	4.23
Concentration	4.15
Listening skills	4.15

Table 5: Selected scores from the 'General pupil progress' questionnaire.

During the three observations, Lara appeared happy and integrated when observed in class, and in one instance was seen to be tutoring another student.

Whilst the methods section highlighted methodological concerns that mean the findings should be viewed cautiously, analysis of the case study data (from multiple sources) indicated there were four main findings to base the recommendations on:

- Lara lacks formative skills in literacy and numeracy and this is not being addressed by her English and Maths teachers.
- The amount of formative (self) assessment being undertaken is limited in Lara's class, as is the understanding Lara's teachers appear to have of her progress and attainment.
- The mechanisms of content delivery used frequently do not suit Lara's learning preferences.
- Opportunities associated with small group and paired work are not being realised.

The evidence and recommendations for each of these four findings are outlined below.

It should be noted that the differentiation recommendations have been organised below in line with Tomlinson's (1999) model of differentiation (Figure 1) only to aid clarity within the paper. This structure was not utilised when discussing the recommendations with Lara's teachers.

The recommendations were jointly agreed with Lara's teachers in a session that immediately followed the 'interview' detailed earlier. In the session, which adhered to the second of Leadbetter's (2006) forms of consultation, a joint problem solving approach was taken to 'empower the problem-owner and seek solutions that can be implemented by the school staff to improve educational or developmental outcomes' (p.

23). Although there are twelve recommendations outlined below, a smaller number of the recommendations (indicated with a *) were jointly agreed and prioritised for implementation, as they were felt to be most manageable for the teachers.

Finding 1 - Formative skills

That Lara has difficulty in reading, spelling, adding and subtracting was evident in multiple forms of data collection, including:

- WIAT-II performance, where Lara made basic maths errors, was not able to complete irregular spellings and mixed up numbers and letters.

Subtest	Subtest requirements / abilities measured	Standard score (95% confidence interval)	Percentile	Age equivalent
Word reading	Measures a range of decoding skills ranging from letter identification to the reading of familiar words.	71 (65 – 77)	3 rd	8:08
Pseudo word decoding	Requires the student to use their phonetic knowledge to sound out nonsense or unfamiliar words.	72 (67 – 77)	3 rd	6:08
Numerical operations	Measures mathematical calculation skills, starting with number discrimination and counting, and moving on to written responses to four rules calculations (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division).	69 (61– 77)	2 nd	9:00
Mathematical reasoning	Based on an individual's ability to solve problems, it assesses verbal responses to a range of mathematical problems (four rules, fractions, and decimals), graphs, statistics and probability.	62 (55– 69)	1 st	7:08
Spelling	Assesses spelling on dictated letters, letter blends and words.	75 (68– 72)	5 th	9:00

Subtest	Subtest requirements / abilities measured	Standard score (95% confidence interval)	Percentile	Age equivalent
Listening Comprehension	Assesses three types of listening activities: Receptive Vocabulary, Sentence Comprehension and Expressive Vocabulary.	57 (46– 68)	<1 st	7:00

Table 6: WIAT-II performance summary

- Cognitive ability test performance

Subtest	Subtest requirements / abilities measured	Standard score	Stanine	Year group average
Verbal	Vocabulary, sentence construction, verbal classification and verbal analogies.	74	2 nd	107
Quantitative	Quantitative relationships, number series and equation building.	77	2 nd	103
Non-verbal	Figure classification, figure analogies and figure synthesis	76	2 nd	109
Mean		76	2 nd	106

Table 7: CAT performance summary.

- Lara's parents report that Lara is unable to tell the time, read signs and count money.
- Observation in class indicates Lara cannot complete basic maths calculations (such as $9 + 5$) and her written work contains many spelling errors.
- Lara's response to the 'Access to learning' questionnaire elicited that she disagreed that 'the speed in which information is presented to me in our classes aids my understanding' and 'the content of what we cover is the right level for me'. She also stated that there was limited time to talk, not enough opportunity for paired work and that she needed to work on her basic skills.

Recommendations

Differentiation recommendation	Detail
1. Differentiate content *	Ensure base level / contributory knowledge is covered as part of the wider work that the rest of the class is completing. Kutnick et al. (2005) found that there was comparatively little evidence of the introduction and consideration of new cognitive knowledge and skills or practice tasks taking place in classrooms, which is an issue for Lara if existing cognitive knowledge and skills do not include the most basic skills (reading, adding, subtracting).
2. Differentiate content	Use equalisers 1 (foundational vs. transformational), 2 (concrete vs. abstract), 3 (simple vs. complex), 4 (single facet vs. multiple facets), 5 (small leap vs. giant leap), 6 (more structured vs. less structured), 7 (clearly defined problems vs. fuzzy problems) to lessen the cognitive demand of the content presented to Lara.
3. Differentiate process	Utilise repetitive, basic tasks within tiered assignments to ensure Lara uses key skills to make sense out of essential ideas and information. This involves cloning an activity at higher and lower levels of complexity (in terms of materials and forms of expression) and matching a version of the task to Lara's profile (Tomlinson, 1999).
4. Differentiate process *	Use equaliser 9 (slower vs. faster) to encourage Lara to self-pace in her work. This will provide her with more time to work and practice, and progress that is more systematic and sequential - for example, Lara will not be expected to tell the time before she understands fractions (Tomlinson, 1999).
5. Differentiate process *	Use 1:1 programmes to introduce highly repetitive, highly structured approaches that focus on reading, spelling and maths. The programmes should be administered frequently (three or more times a week), consistently and rigorously over a set period of time (no less than eight weeks). A baseline measure should be established to track progress against. Higgins et al. (2011) concluded that 'meta-analyses indicate that students might improve by 4 or 5 months during an intensive (1:1) programme' (p. 20), and that there is strong evidence of the benefits of such programmes.

Differentiation recommendation	Detail
6. Differentiate product	Homework should be used to practise work covered in the 1:1 programmes, and also create an avenue for interest based research. Painter (2009) investigated the role of a longer term, interest-based homework project with a differentiated product (multimedia presentations), and found that the project influenced teachers to become facilitators whilst engaging the students and helping them construct their knowledge around the subject. Higgins et al. (2011) confirmed that 'when homework is used as an intervention it is effective in improving students' attainment' (p. 15).

Table 8: differentiated instruction recommendations related to formative skills.

Finding 2 – Formative assessment

The nature of the assessment and feedback Lara experiences was evident in the following forms of data collection:

- Comparison of WIAT-II performance with the 'General pupil progress' questionnaire. Whilst the teachers may have defined Lara's progress as in line with her peers in her class, the standardised assessments indicate she is falling behind a most of her peers in her attainment.
- When observing Lara, she was rarely asked directly to answer open questions and there were no instances when the class were asked to self-assess their work.
- Within the 'Assessment for Learning' questionnaire, Lara identified effective teachers as those who revisited the learning objective and summarised progress. However, Lara also reported that she was rarely offered feedback. Finally, she indicated that she enjoyed self-assessing her work.
- Lastly, Lara indicated in the 'Access to learning' questionnaire that she neither agreed nor disagreed that the 'feedback she receives motivates her'.

Recommendations

Differentiation recommendation	Detail
7. Differentiate process	Use equaliser 8 (less independence vs. more independence) to increase Lara's ownership of her learning (McNamara & Moreton, 1997). Learning contracts (Tomlinson, 1999) should be introduced to enable Lara to work independently on material that is largely teacher-directed. The contract will provide Lara with some flexibility in acquiring skills and understanding, and form the basis of the self-monitoring. Kerry & Kerry (1997) found that self-marking promoted responsibility, focused attention and was a source of motivation for students.
8. Differentiate process *	Utilise open ended questioning in group, small group, paired and individual settings with Lara to truly establish whether Lara understands the content. Kerry & Kerry (1997) indicated open questions stretched students whilst checking their understanding. Cognitively demanding questions reinforce knowledge and teach metacognitive reasoning skills.
9. Differentiate (responses to) product	Feedback should be provided to Lara on a more frequent, sensitive basis. This may require an individual scale for Lara that recognises incremental improvements in work and understanding. Smith et al. (2001) recognised that, especially for students with special educational needs, corrective feedback must be issued immediately and acted upon. Higgins et al. (2011) found that effective feedback has a high effect on learning.

Table 9: differentiated instruction recommendations related to assessment.

Finding 3 - Mechanisms of content delivery

Information related to the modalities through which information is presented to Lara was uncovered within:

- the 'Assessment for Learning' questionnaire, where Lara highlighted which teachers produced supporting materials that aided her understanding;
- the 'Access to learning' questionnaire where Lara indicated she was uncomfortable receiving oral instructions only;
- the observations, where Lara was seen to be benefiting from using additional printed materials to clarify task requirements and answer basic questions in some classes, but not all;

- Lara's WIAT-II performance - Table 6 confirms that Lara performed poorly in the Listening Comprehension subtest (lower than the 1st percentile, age equivalent of 7:00); and
- Lara's CAT performance - Table 7 confirms that the verbal subtest was Lara's weakest subtest.

Recommendations

Differentiation recommendation	Detail
10. Differentiate content *	Produce written materials and structures to complement the information provided verbally and on the board. Blamires (1999) addresses the need to provide multiple representations of content in the principles of a Universal Design for Learning. In this instance, he recommends using textual, visual and auditory cues in a structured and complementary fashion. Students are more likely to understand content delivered in multiple modalities (Tomlinson, 1999).

Table 10: differentiated instruction recommendations related to content delivery.

Finding 4 - Opportunities for small group / paired working

Information regarding the role of small groups and paired working in Lara's classroom became clear through the following forms of data collection:

- Within the 'Access to learning' questionnaire that Lara completed, she indicated she 'doesn't often' get to work in small groups, and she would like to do so more. She was able to outline the benefits of peer support from her perspective: 'sometimes other students explain things more clearly', and 'you can ask them silly questions'.
- When observing Lara in class, it was clear that there were instances of small group or paired work, but these were infrequent. Whole class, didactic (teacher -led) work was most common, and Lara sat on her own in one class. Where small group or paired work was in evidence, Lara was often directed or distracted by her peers. In

some circumstances, she used the small group / paired work to avoid direct assessment of her own understanding and work (this is likely to protect her own self-esteem).

Recommendations

Differentiation recommendation	Detail
11. Differentiate process	Utilise within class ability groups more frequently. Within class ability groups are important in raising the performance of students in mixed-ability classes (Macintyre & Ireson, 2002), and should be utilised for application and extension tasks (Kutnick et al., 2005).
12. Differentiate process *	Utilise paired work (Mortweet et al., 1999) more frequently. Paired work requires the tutor to focus on the way in which they have learnt the information (metacognition), and it benefits the tutor and the tutee (Topping, 1988). Higgins et al. (2011) concluded that the evidence of the impact of peer tutoring programmes is 'relatively high', with an effect size of 0.5 or above, which equates to about a GCSE grade. A summary of the available evidence related to peer tutoring indicates this is a particularly effective technique for maths and reading (Higgins et al., 2011).

Table 11: differentiated instruction recommendations related to small group / paired work.

Discussion

Tomlinson's (1999) model of differentiated instruction

Tomlinson's model of differentiated instruction was selected as the basis for this paper as it integrated options for differentiated instruction in a coherent fashion. The model encourages professionals to differentiate instruction in a holistic, flexible manner – the exact opposite of the checklist driven approach many earlier models utilised (Table 1).

However, Tomlinson's model is predicated on the assumption that differentiated instruction pertains to low attaining students that will benefit from individualised

teaching to achieve academic parity with their peers. On the contrary, Lewis & Norwich (2004) developed a continuum of pedagogic strategies model in which they contend that teaching pupils with SEN requires the intensification of general teaching approaches that are relevant to all students, rather than individualising teaching for low attaining students. In their model, teaching decisions and strategies related to differentiated instruction are informed by considering needs that are common to all learners (needs of the class) against needs that are unique to individuals. Lewis & Norwich (2001) recognise that teaching involves groups of learners, so any differentiated instruction necessarily requires the balancing of learning together (valuing inclusion) whilst meeting individual needs (valuing the individual).

Tomlinson's model relies on individualised differentiated instruction, and this may have made the acceptance of the recommendations more difficult for Lara's teachers.

Comparison of Tomlinson's model with that of Lewis & Norwich highlights the tension that exists between differentiating instruction for individuals and for groups. This tension manifests itself as the basis for differentiated instruction, which Manitoba Education and Youth (2003) contend should be the 'mid-range starting point' in a class, so as to be relevant to both high and low attaining students.

Evaluating the implementation of the recommendations

Stage 4 of James & Connolly's (2000) model of action research (outlined in Figure 3) details the need to evaluate the implementation of change. For this casework, that involves evaluating the extent differentiated instruction recommendations that support and improve Lara's attainment at SVC were implemented. The shortened timeframes associated with this implementation mean that only an initial stage of evaluation has been completed to date.

At the time of writing, evaluation of the implementation of the change has been completed informally, based on comments made by Lara, her teachers and her parents in an initial post-implementation follow up session. Each of these groups have expressed cautiously positive sentiments regarding the differentiated instruction changes that have been made, with Lara recognising that many of the changes address the preferences she expressed in the 'Assessment for Learning' and 'Access to learning' questionnaires.

For the remainder of this academic year, the longer term success of the implementation will be tracked through completion of the Target Monitoring Evaluation process (Dunsmuir et al., 2009) and through review of Lara's attainment data (specifically the teacher assessments completed at half termly intervals). It should be noted that both these forms of evaluation are, to varying degrees, reliant on the subjective views of Lara and / or her teachers and are, therefore, open to interpretation and bias. Turner et al. (2010) also documented the risk of focusing on outcome alone – 'sometimes far more is achieved than can be measured.' (p. 315).

As predicted in the literature review, the implementation of the changes has been met with a number of associated challenges. These challenges represent barriers to creating a differentiated and inclusive classroom to meet Lara's needs.

The first of these relates to my relatively short tenure as the assigned (Doctoral Trainee) EP at SVC. As this is my first term working in SVC, my involvement in the school has been relatively decontextualised. Pettigrew (1987b) recognises the many related factors (individual, group, organisational, social and political) that influence the nature and outcomes of change, and that successful change has to pay attention to the wider context. In this instance, wider contextual considerations of the change included:

- identifying and addressing the key barriers to change (Schiemann, 1995);
- defining the 'reculturing' (the adjustment of professional behaviours and beliefs; Fullan, 2007) required within SVC to ensure the change was implemented; and
- utilising the Head Teacher (and leadership more widely) to encourage the teachers to take up their roles (Sutoris, 2000).

Secondly, as Kerry & Kerry (1997) predicted, it is clear that Lara's teachers feel that they are constrained by the limited time and resources they are able to dedicate to differentiating instruction for Lara. Lara's teachers have stated that they do not necessarily feel the performance priorities they have agreed with their line managers align with differentiating instruction for single students, and that the school structures do not permit sufficient time and resource to encourage differentiated instruction to be planned and executed consistently.

Thirdly, there have been instances that have called into question whether the teachers have the necessary skills to implement the differentiated instruction recommendations outlined above. Specifically, it is not clear that the assessment techniques the teachers use allow them accurately to match differentiation to Lara's need and whether their classroom management practices allow the teachers to maintain momentum whilst balancing a variety of demands and keeping all students on track.

Lastly, some of Lara's teachers displayed attitudes not conducive to implementing the changes. One teacher challenged whether the effort on behalf of Lara was worth it, as 'there are thirty kids in the class, and she is not the worst'. A minority of teachers were unwilling to challenge their teaching philosophies and to introduce the flexibility that differentiated instruction relies on (one teacher commented that 'I am not prepared to allow students to move seats in my lesson as this is a sure sign of weakness.'). In

addition, a number of comments were made that intimated the teachers believed catch-up programmes should be completed at home in the evenings and that progression was the responsibility of the student rather than the teacher. Greenleaf et al. (1994) found that teachers who saw progression as a function of teaching (rather than solely the responsibility of students) were more likely to adjust teaching to get the most from students.

On reflection, it seems reasonable to conclude that the joint definition of the recommendations outlined above should have been preceded by a more philosophical debate that served to align any views on differentiated instruction and a more detailed discussion related to Tomlinson's model of differentiated instruction. Nash & Norwich (2010) report that 'most' secondary teacher training programmes cover curriculum differentiation during the years training, but each course allocates, on average, only 7 hours training per year to special educational needs. Whilst the recommendations outlined above are in line with standards for differentiated instruction introduced during teacher training (for example, at the University of Southampton, 2012) a failure to confirm a shared understanding of the philosophical grounds and model that the differentiated instructed recommendations outlined above were based upon may have limited the willingness and ability of Lara's teachers to implement the recommendations agreed.

Differentiating instruction and developing student independence

As referenced in the literature review, one of the ultimate goals of differentiated instruction is to create independent, autonomous learners (McNamara & Moreton, 1997; Convery & Coyle, 1999). However, on defining and communicating the recommendations for differentiated instruction, it was clear that some of the

recommendations risked running counter to this overall aim. For example, recommendations 5 (1:1 programmes), 9 (feedback), 10 (written materials) and 12 (paired work) all risk extending Lara's dependence on a teacher, a set of materials or a peer. This concern provided the basis for Abramson & Seligman's (1978) theory of learned helplessness, where students become reliant on external factors to progress academically.

Further, Kutnick et al. (2005) showed that teachers were present 85% of the time during cognitive based learning tasks, and they had a very high presence when new cognitive knowledge was introduced. The implication of this, also evident at SVC, is that teachers are central for the presentation (and control) of knowledge, and that learning loses effectiveness in their absence.

A number of the recommendations, specifically those related to Lara managing her pace of work (recommendation 4) and introducing learning contracts (recommendation 7) attempt to address the risk that differentiated instruction may encourage dependence. It was important to ensure Lara's teachers recognised and balanced this conflict, and that they had considered when it was appropriate to intervene (Kutnick et al., 2005) and when Lara was best left to challenge herself and extend her own zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962).

Differentiating instruction whilst maintaining high expectations for students

The literature review detailed studies (including Hallam & Ireson, 2005) that showed how teachers may change their teaching based on educational stratification practices in schools (streaming, for example). Van Houtte (2005) summarised the research by indicating 'it seems that teachers in lower tracks or streams do not demand much from

their pupils, and at the same time demand little from themselves with regard to teaching' (p. 275). Where subjects have been stratified at SVC, Lara occupies the lowest sets in all instances.

All of the recommendations outlined above are expected to influence teacher behaviour based on decisions they have made regarding Lara's current levels of attainment and performance. For example, key recommendations indicate the teachers should focus on basic knowledge (recommendation 1), lessen the cognitive demand of tasks (recommendation 2) and complete basic, repetitive tasks (recommendation 3). However, there is a risk that these recommendations stem from inaccurate or incomplete assessments and therefore perpetuate low expectations regarding Lara's potential.

Hayes & Deyhle (2001) characterise this inherent contradiction (that differentiating instruction actually limits achievement) by highlighting the tension between a curriculum that is dubbed 'developmentally appropriate' (p. 259) and a set of low expectations that limit opportunity for progress. Indeed, the attitudes and behaviours required to implement the differentiated instruction recommendations may be the same attitudes and behaviours that sustain a self-fulfilling prophecy whereby low achieving students such as Lara are not extended in the classroom and therefore fail to catch up with their peers or progress.

This challenge was addressed with Lara's teachers, particularly when we jointly discussed how Lara performs relative to her peers. It was agreed that regular attainment assessments would ensure instruction was appropriately differentiated to the correct level (Reis et al., 2011), and that Lara continued to be suitably academically challenged to promote higher levels of engagement and achievement (Byrnes, 1996).

The social nature of the recommendations

In the literature review, the work of McNamara & Moreton's (1997) was introduced. Founded on Vygotsky's theory of thought and language (1962) and Hart's (1996) collaborative learning theory, McNamara & Moreton argued that it is necessary to base learning in collaboration.

As expected, many of the recommendations outlined above are also rooted in collaborative learning, either with Lara's parents (recommendation 6: homework) or her peers (recommendation 11: within class ability groups; recommendation 12: paired work). However, as these recommendations were agreed with Lara and her teachers, it became clear that whilst learning may be rooted in collaboration, there are a number of instances where collaboration (with peers specifically) is stressful for Lara. Kerry & Kerry (1997) concluded that many of the barriers to implementing differentiated instruction recommendations may be motivational barriers put up by the student, and this was certainly the case with Lara. Understandably, Lara did not want to be identified as 'different' (and needing differentiated instruction), and there were instances where it was clear she struggled to sustain motivation with her work. In addition, within class structures (either small groups or pairs in Lara's class) were often dominated by friendship groups (Kutnick et al., 2005) or they forced other students off task (Jackson et al., 2001). Especially in dynamic and challenging social environments (such as Lara's Year 9 class), the social basis of learning may promote and inhibit learning simultaneously.

Conclusions

Differentiated instruction is founded on the belief that every child is unique and that an inclusive approach to education involves providing equal rights and access to learning for all children, regardless of their readiness, interests and learning profile. If we accept these two premises, then differentiating instruction in classrooms, to accommodate the needs of marginalised students like Lara, should be a common practice.

This work, however, has highlighted the many reasons why differentiated instruction is not common practice in secondary settings, and how, even when implemented, differentiated instruction can lead to unexpected outcomes such as dependent learners, low expectations and student anxiety.

The nature of the recommendations outlined above lead to the conclusion that EPs are in a position to disseminate models of differentiation to teachers, especially if the recommendations relate to the inclusion and attainment of children with severe, complex and challenging needs, and they are grounded in psychological theory. It is a moot point, however, as to whether specialist teachers may be better placed to work directly with teachers in this capacity, and whether this work represents a 'distinctive' role for EPs to play (Farrell et al., 2006). That said, with no requirement for Trainee EPs to be qualified teachers, differentiated instruction may represent both a critical area to understand and an opportunity to work 'at the coalface' in schools.

What is clear, however, is that organisational structures and cultures (particularly in secondary settings) make differentiated instruction of the type commended above difficult to implement for teachers. As a result, EPs are likely to have a role in establishing the energy, direction, ownership and accountability behind the

implementation of such recommendations. EPs must continue to deliver and support systemic, capacity building work related to creating organisational structures and cultures that facilitate differentiated instruction. Without this systemic focus, students such as Lara are unlikely to progress any more quickly than they would have done without involvement from any external professionals.

References

- Abramson, L. Y. & Seligman, M. E. P. (1978). Learned helplessness in humans: critique and reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 87 (1), p. 49-74.
- Adami, A. F. (2004). Enhancing students' learning through differentiated approaches to teaching and learning: a Maltese perspective. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, 4 (2), p. 91-97.
- Ainscow, M. & Muncey, J. (1989) Meeting individual needs in the primary school. London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Bender, W. N. (2007). Differentiating instruction for students with learning disabilities. Corwin Press.
- Blamires, M. (1999). Universal design for learning: re-establishing differentiation as part of the inclusion agenda? *Support for Learning*, 14 (4), p. 158-163.
- Boaler, B., Wiliam, D. & Brown, M. (2000): Students' experiences of ability grouping - disaffection, polarisation and the construction of failure. *British Educational Research Journal*, 26:5, p. 631-648.
- Breakwell, G. M., Hammond, S., Fife-Schaw, C. & Smith, J.A. (2006). Research methods in psychology. Sage.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). Ecology of human development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Burns, R. (1982). Self-concept development and education. London: Holt Rinehart and Winston.

Byrnes, J. P. (1996). Cognitive development and learning in instructional contexts. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Cresswell, J. W. & Plano Clark, V. (2007). Designing and conducting mixed methods research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2003, 2007). Research methods in education. Routledge: Falmer.

Convery, A. & Coyle, D. (1999). Differentiation and individual learners: a guide for classroom practice. CILT, the National Centre for Languages.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco: Freeman.

Department for Children, Schools & Families (2008). The Assessment for Learning Strategy. Available from www.education.gov.uk/publications [Accessed 02-DEC-2011].

Department for Education (2011). Assessment for learning – pupil questionnaire. Available from www.education.staffordshire.gov.uk [Accessed 03-OCT-2011].

De Vaus, D. A. (2001). Research design in social research. SAGE.

Dickinson, C. & Wright, J. (1993) Differentiation: a practical handbook of classroom strategies. Coventry: National Council for Educational Technology.

Dunsmuir, S., Brown, E., Iyadurai, S. & Monsen, J. (2009) Evidence-based practice and evaluation: from insight to impact. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 25 (1), p. 53-70.

Emanuelsson, I. (2003). Differentiation, special education and equality: a longitudinal study of self-concepts and school careers of students in difficulties and with or without

special educational support experiences. *European Educational Research Journal*, 2 (2), p. 245-261.

Evans, H. (2000). *Essential English for journalists, editors and writers*. London: Pimlico.

Farrell, P., Woods, K., Lewis, S., Rooney, S., Squires, G. & O'Connor, M. (2006). A review of the functions and contribution of Educational Psychologists in England and Wales in light of 'Every Child Matters: Change for Children'. Available from www.education.gov.uk [Accessed 12-JAN-2012].

Fitch, F. (2003). Inclusion, exclusion and ideology: special education students' changing sense of self. *The Urban Review*, 35 (3), p. 233-250.

Fontana, A. & Frey, J. H. (1994). Interviewing: the art of science. In N. K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fullan, M. G. (1991; 2007). *The new meaning of educational change*. London: Cassell.

Gardner, H. (1993). *The unschooled mind. How children think and schools should teach*. London: Fontana.

Greenleaf, C., Hull, G. & Reilly, B. (1994) Learning from our diverse students: helping teachers to rethink problematic teaching and learning situations. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10, p. 521-541.

Hallahan, D. P., Lloyd, J. W. & Stoller, L. (1982). *Improving attention with self-monitoring: a manual for teachers*. Charlottesville: University of Virginia.

Hallam, S. & Ireson, J. (2005). Secondary school teachers' pedagogic practices when teaching mixed and structured ability classes. *Research Papers in Education*, 20 (1), p. 3-24.

- Hart, S. (1996). *Differentiation*. London: Routledge.
- Hayes, M. T. & Deyhle, D. (2001). *Constructing difference: a comparative study of elementary science curriculum differentiation*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools (1992), *Education Observed: the education of very able children in maintained schools*. London, Department of Education and Science.
- Higgins, S., Kokotsaki, D. & Coe, R. (2011). *Toolkit of strategies to improve learning*. Available from www.suttontrust.com/research [Accessed 09-DEC-2011].
- Jackson, A., Kutnick, P., & Kington, A. (2001). Principles and practical grouping for the use of drill and practice programs. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 17, p. 130-141.
- James, C. & Connolly, U. (2000). *Effective change in schools*. Routledge.
- Kanter, R. M. (1989). *When giants learn to dance: mastering the challenge of strategy, management and careers in the 1990s*. London: Simon & Schuster.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1970). *Foundations of behavioural research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Kerry, T. & Kerry, C. A. (1997): *Differentiation: teachers' views of the usefulness of recommended strategies in helping the more able pupils in primary and secondary classrooms*. *Educational Studies*, 23 (3), p. 439-457.
- King, V. (1990). Differentiation is the key. *Language and Learning*, 3, p. 22-24.
- Kitwood, T. M. (1977). *Values in adolescent life: towards a critical description*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Bradford.

Kutnick, P., Blatchford, P. & Baines, E. (2005). Grouping of pupils in secondary school classrooms: possible links between pedagogy and learning. *Social Psychology of Education*, 8, p. 349-374.

Leadbetter, J. (2006). Investigating and conceptualising the notion of consultation to facilitate multi-agency work. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 22 (1), p. 19-31.

Lewis, A. (1992). From planning to practice. *British Journal of Special Education*, 19 (1), p. 24-7.

Lewis, A. & Norwich, B. (2001). Do pupils with learning difficulties need teaching strategies that are different from those used with other pupils? Available from <http://www.nfer.ac.uk> [Accessed 17-APR-2012].

Lewis, A. & Norwich, B. (Eds) (2004). *Special pedagogy for special children? Pedagogies for Inclusion*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Lidz, C. S. (1991). *Practitioner's guide to dynamic assessment*. Guilford Press.

Lindblom, C. E. & Cohen, D. K. (1979). *Usable knowledge: social science and social problem solving*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press.

Lohman, D. F., Hagen, E. P. & Thorndike, R. L. (2008). *Cognitive Abilities Test*. Available from <http://shop.gi-assessment.co.uk/home.php?cat=310> [Accessed 17-APR-2012].

Manitoba Education and Youth (2003). *Independent together - supporting the multilevel learning community*. Chapter 4: Differentiation in the multilevel classroom. Available from <http://www.edu.gov.mb.ca> [Accessed 05-APR-2012].

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching*. Sage.

McGarvey, B., Marriott, S., Morgan, V. & Abbott, L. (1997). Planning for differentiation: the experience of teachers in Northern Ireland primary schools. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 29 (3), p. 351-364.

MacIntyre, H. & Ireson, J. (2002): Within-class ability grouping: placement of pupils in groups and self-concept. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28 (2), p. 249-263.

McNamara, S. & Moreton, G. (1997). *Understanding differentiation (Resource Materials for Teachers)*. David Fulton Publishers.

Mitchell, M., Franklin, A., Greco, V. & Bell, M. (2009). Working with children with learning disabilities and/or who communicate non-verbally: research experiences and their implications for social work education, increased participation and social inclusion. *Social Work Education*, 28 (3), p. 309-324.

Moortweet, S. W., Utley, C. A., Walker, D., Dawson, H. L., Delquardri, J. C., Reedy, S. S., Greenwood, C. R., Hamilton, S. & Ledford, D. (1999). Class-wide peer tutoring: teaching students with mild mental retardation in inclusive classrooms. *Exceptional children*, 65 (4), p. 524-536.

Oakes, J., Gamoran, A., & Page, R. (1992). Curriculum differentiation: opportunities, outcomes and meanings. In P. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum* (p. 318-343). New York: MacMillan Publishing.

Office for Standards in Education (2011). *School inspection report*. Available from www.ofsted.gov.uk [Accessed 12-SEP-2011].

Oliver, M. (1990). *The politics of disablement (critical texts in social work and the welfare state)*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Painter, D. D. (2009). Providing differentiated learning experiences through multigenre project. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 44, p. 288-293.

Pettigrew, A. M. (1987b). *The management of strategic change*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Powers, S. (2002). From concepts to practice in deaf education: a United Kingdom perspective on inclusion. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 7 (3), p. 230-243.

Powney, J. & Watts, M. (1987). *Interviewing in educational research*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Raveaud, M. (2005). Hares, tortoises and the social construction of the pupil: differentiated learning in French and English primary schools. *British Educational Research Journal*, 31 (4), p. 459-479.

Reis, S.M., McCoach, D. B., Little, C.A., Muller, L. M. & Kaniskan, R. B. (2011). The effects of differentiated instruction and enrichment pedagogy on reading achievement in five elementary schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 48 (2), p. 462-501.

Renzulli, J.S. (1977). *The enrichment triad model: a guide for developing defensible programs for the gifted and talented*. Mansfield Center, CT: Creative Learning Press.

Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research: a resource for social scientists and practitioner*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Schiemann, W. (1995). In: N. Russell Jones (Ed). *The Managing Change Pocketbook*. Hants, UK: Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

Simons, H. (2001). *Case study research in practice*. London: SAGE.

- Simpson, M. (1989). A study of differentiation and learning in primary schools. Aberdeen: Northern College of Education.
- Smith, S. B., Baker, S., Oudeans, M. K. (2001). Making a difference in the classroom with early literacy instruction. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 33 (6), p. 8-14.
- Sutoris, M. (2000). Understanding schools as systems: implications for the management of pupil behaviour. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 17 (1), p. 51-63.
- Terwel, J. (2005). Curriculum differentiation: multiple perspectives and developments in education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 37 (6), p. 653-670.
- The British Psychological Society (2009). Code of Ethics and Conduct. Available from: www.bps.org.uk [accessed 02-OCT-2011].
- Thomas, G. (2011). How to do your case study. SAGE.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (2001). The differentiated classroom: responding to the needs of all learners (2nd Ed.). Arlington, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (1999). The differentiated classroom: responding to the needs of all learners. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Topping, K. (1988). The peer tutoring handbook. London: Croom Helm.
- Turner, S., Randall, L. & Mohammed, A. (2010). Doing an effective job? Measuring the impact of casework. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 26 (4), p. 313-329.
- University of Southampton (2012). Differentiation: guidance for trainee teachers. Available from <http://www.pgce.soton.ac.uk>. [Accessed 17-APR-2012].

Van Houtte, M. (2006). School type and academic culture: evidence for the differentiation–polarization theory. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38 (3), p. 273-292.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Wedell, M. (2009). *Planning for educational change: putting people and their contexts first*. Continuum.

Weston, P., Taylor, M., Lewis, G. & Macdonald, A. (1998). *Learning from differentiation: a review of practice in primary and secondary schools*. Slough, NFER.

Weston, P. (1992) A decade for differentiation. *British Journal of Special Education*, 19 (1), p. 6-9.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organisations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.Y.: Prentice Hall.

Appendices

Appendix	Content
A	'Assessment for Learning' questionnaire
B	'Access to learning' questionnaire
C	'General pupil progress' questionnaire
D	Interview schedule
E	Observation schedule

Appendix A - 'Assessment for Learning' questionnaire

Assessment for learning – pupil questionnaire

Form

Please circle the most appropriate response -

How often do teachers ...? a = nearly always b = often c = sometimes d = rarely
How much does this help you learn? 1 = very much 2 = quite a lot 3 = a bit 4 = not much

1. Learning objectives

1.1a How often do teachers clearly explain what you are trying to learn in the lesson (the learning objectives)	a	b	c	d
1.1b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
1.1c In which subject (or subjects) are you clearest about what you are trying to learn in the lesson?	1.1d In which subject (or subjects) are you least clear about what you are trying to learn in the lesson?			

1.2a How often do teachers explain or show you what needs to be done to achieve the learning objectives? (this may be by giving an example or demonstrating something)	a	b	c	d
1.2b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
1.2c In which subject (or subjects) do you know when you have achieved the learning objectives?	1.2d In which subject (or subjects) do you not know if you have achieved the learning objectives?			

1.3a How often do teachers explain how what you are learning will help you do well in the subject? (e.g. help you achieve a personal target, help you build up your understanding or help you do well in future tests)	a	b	c	d
1.3b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
1.3c In which subject (or subjects) do you understand how the learning will help you personally?	1.3d In which subject (or subjects) do you not understand how the learning will help you personally?			

1.4a How often do teachers discuss what you have learned in the lesson? (e.g. in the middle or towards the end of a lesson – with the whole class or with groups or with individuals)	a	b	c	d
1.4b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
1.4c In which subject (or subjects) do you most often discuss what you have learned during lessons?	1.4d In which subject (or subjects) do you never discuss what you have learned during lessons?			

Assessment for learning – pupil questionnaire

Please circle the most appropriate response -

How often do teachers ...? a = nearly always b = often c = sometimes d = rarely

How much does this help you learn? 1 = very much 2 = quite a lot 3 = a bit 4 = not much

4. Oral and Written feedback

4.1a How often do teachers talk to you in lessons about what you have done well and what you need to do to improve?	a	b	c	d
4.1b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
4.1c In which subject (or subjects) are you clearest about what you need to do to improve?	4.1d In which subject (or subjects) are you least clear about what you need to do to improve?			

4.2a How often do teachers write comments on your work which explain what you have done well and what you need to do to improve?	a	b	c	d
4.2b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
4.2c In which subject (or subjects) do you find the written comments from the teacher most helpful?	4.2d In which subject (or subjects) do you find the written comments from the teacher least helpful?			

4.3a How often do teachers talk to you about how well you are doing to achieve the learning objectives of the lesson?	a	b	c	d
4.3b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
4.3c In which subject (or subjects) are you clearest during lessons about how well you are doing?	4.3d In which subject (or subjects) are you least clear during lessons about how well you are doing?			

4.4a How often do teachers discuss their written comments with you (i.e. soon after giving them to you)?	a	b	c	d
4.4b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
4.4c In which subject (or subjects) do you often use the written comments to review how well you have done and improve your work?	4.4d In which subject (or subjects) do you rarely use the written comments to review how well you have done and improve your work?			

Assessment for learning – pupil questionnaire

Please circle the most appropriate response -

How often do teachers ...? a = nearly always b = often c = sometimes d = rarely

How much does this help you learn? 1 = very much 2 = quite a lot 3 = a bit 4 = not much

5. Peer and self assessment				
5.1a How often do teachers ask you to mark or comment on your work and progress in lessons?	a	b	c	d
5.1b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
5.1c In which subject (or subjects) do you regularly do this?	5.1d In which subject (or subjects) do you rarely or never do this?			
5.2a How often do teachers ask you to mark or comment on a class-mate's work in lessons?	a	b	c	d
5.2b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
5.2c In which subject (or subjects) do you regularly do this?	5.2d In which subject (or subjects) do you rarely or never assess do this?			
5.3a How often do teachers provide guidelines (criteria) to help you to mark your own or a classmate's work so you can judge how good it is and how to improve it?	a	b	c	d
5.3b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
5.3c In which subject (or subjects) do teachers regularly provide these guidelines?	5.3d In which subject (or subjects) do teachers rarely or never provide guidelines?			
5.4a How often do teachers ask you to work in pairs or groups to help you do well in lessons or to discuss how to improve your work?	a	b	c	d
5.4b How much do you think this helps you learn?	1	2	3	4
5.4c In which subject (or subjects) do teachers usually ask you to work in pairs or groups to produce the best work you can?	5.4d In which subject (or subjects) do teachers rarely let you work in pairs or in groups to produce the best work you can?			

Appendix B - 'Access to learning' questionnaire

Area	Details	Strongly agree			Strongly disagree		
		5	4	3	2	1	
	The way information is presented to me (verbally, in writing, other visual methods) in our classes aids my understanding of what's required and my learning						
	The speed in which information is presented to me in our classes aids my understanding of what's required and my learning						
	The content of what we cover in our classes is the right level for me						
	Our submissions / responses to teachers are submitted in a medium (verbally, in writing, other visual methods) that aids my learning						
	The resources (handouts, other materials) used in our classes aid my learning						
	The activities we complete in our classes aid my learning						

Area	Details	Strongly agree				Strongly disagree	
		5	4	3	2	1	
The size of the groups I work in in our classes aid my learning							
The class environment aids my learning							
The adult support (whole class, small group, 1: 1) I receive in our classes aids my learning							
The peer support (small group, 1: 1, working independently) I receive in our classes aids my learning							
The expectations my teachers have of me are right for my learning needs							
The feedback (praise / criticism; verbal / written / other) I receive in our classes motivates me							
I know how well I am doing in class at any given time							
I have a chance to ask questions when I don't understand something							

Appendix C - 'General pupil progress' questionnaire

PUPIL NAME:	HOUSE/TUTOR:	DATE:
-------------	--------------	-------

<u>AREA</u>	<u>SCORE (1 - 5) *</u>	<u>SPECIFIC STRENGTHS / WEAKNESSES</u>
Concentration		
Behaviour		
Attitude to work		
Social interaction		
Oral responses		
Listening skills		
Reading skills - comprehension		
Written work		
Handwriting		
Organisation		

<u>AREA</u>	<u>SCORE (1 – 5) *</u>	<u>SPECIFIC STRENGTHS / WEAKNESSES</u>
Completion of tasks in class		
Completion of homework		
Progress made this year		

* 1 = area of significant weakness relative to peers; 5 = area of significant strength relative to peers.

Are there any other comments you feel are relevant?

Please note that your comments may be shared with parents and other outside agencies.

Please return to _____ by;

Many thanks.

TEACHER:

SUBJECT:

Appendix D - Interview schedule

Topics covered:

- Strengths / areas of need / building blocks of change
 - What are Lara's strengths?
 - What are some examples of recent successes at school?
 - What are the areas that Lara finds most difficult?
 - Are there times that Lara experiences more or less difficulties in this area?
 - If Lara does experience greater difficulties at particular times is there anything that seems to predict or precede this change?
 - If Lara does experience lesser difficulties at particular times is there anything that seems to predict or precede this change?
 - Are there factors in the child's home / family situation that may be impacting on their attainment and behaviour at school?
- Classroom (differentiation) strategies / interventions to date
 - Have other professionals been involved to date?
 - What classroom (differentiation) strategies have been tried to date?
 - What were the aims of the classroom (differentiation) strategies, and how were these decided?
 - Who carried out the classroom (differentiation) strategies?
 - How long were the strategies tried for?
 - Were the strategies evaluated, and were they deemed to be successful?
 - Which school approaches have been shared with home?
 - Which home approaches have been shared with school?
 - How do home and school communicate regarding Lara's progress?
 - What might help home and school to collaborate more effectively in supporting Lara?
- Future strategies and intervention
 - What areas of need would you like to prioritise?
 - How will we know we have begun to make changes?
 - What would good progress look like in 6/8 weeks?
 - What would fantastic progress look like in 6/8 weeks?
 - What will help us to make fantastic progress?
 - What might stand in our way of making fantastic progress?
 - What can we take as a baseline to help us identify progress?
 - What are we doing already that will let us demonstrate progress?
 - How will progress be monitored?
 - What are the roles in carrying out the agreed strategies?
 - How can we support each other in carrying out our roles?
 - When (in 2 – 4 months' time) should progress be formally reviewed?

Appendix E - Observation schedule

Classroom observation:

Time:

Lesson:

Setting:

Number of adults present:

Number of children present:

Summary of lesson plan:

Time Sampling: On task behaviour

Time:	5	10	15* (T1)	20	25	30* (T2)	35	40	45* (T3)	50	55	60* (T4)
Target child												
Comparison child X												
Comparison child Y												

Time sampling: Comment on the target child's presentation during the preceding 15 minute period:

1. Appears happy

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment:

2. Level of social participation / inclusion

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
 I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

3. Behaviour

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

4. Communication (talking and listening)

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

5. Level of independence and autonomy

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

6. Motivation and effort

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

7. Quality of work

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

8. Level of 'special' support required / provided

-4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4
I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I-----I

Comment

CHAPTER 2

THE REALITIES OF IMPLEMENTING A GROUP COGNITIVE BEHAVIOUR THERAPY INTERVENTION FOR STUDENTS WITH EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIOURAL DIFFICULTIES – A CASE EXAMPLE IN A MAINSTREAM SECONDARY SCHOOL SETTING

by

TOM HUGHES

A professional practice report submitted to the University of Birmingham for The
Applied Educational and Child Psychology Doctorate programme.

College of Social Sciences
School of Education
University of Birmingham
B15 2TT
July 2012

6,414 words

Abstract

There has been a growing demand for cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) in school settings by educational psychologists (EPs). This small scale case study examines the effectiveness of a school-based, 6-session group CBT intervention for 3 Year-10 students with externalising behavioural difficulties. A post-implementation review of the students' self-evaluation data and the school's behaviour management data presents a mixed picture as to the efficacy of the intervention. Key implementation considerations are highlighted that have proved relevant in this example, and may do so more widely. These considerations include ensuring the students are true therapeutic 'clients', introducing appropriate modifications to manualised therapeutic approaches, and maintaining a systemic perspective. The suitability of trainee EPs as therapists is addressed, as care must be taken when initiating therapeutic interventions.

Introduction

'S' Village College (SVC) is a secondary school in a shire county catering for students between the ages of 11 – 16. Under the provision of the Academies Act (2010), SVC was granted academy status in the summer of 2011. There are 1,215 students at the school. Based on national data (The Office for Standards in Education, 2011), SVC has an average proportion of students with special educational needs, and a below average proportion of students known to be eligible for free school meals.

The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) found SVC to be 'an outstanding school in every respect' (April 2011, p. 4). Comments throughout the inspection report reference high standards of learning, and that the 'needs of every child are met' (p.5). SVC is

supported by the shire county's Educational Psychology Service (EPS), with an annual allocation of 29 hours a year. I am the assigned (Doctoral Trainee) EP for SVC, and I introduced the prospect of implementing a group cognitive behaviour therapy (GCBT) intervention to target a group of students experiencing social, emotional and behavioural difficulties during the annual planning meeting (October 2011).

A number of Year-10 students (and their parents) were approached to participate in the intervention. The students were identified by their pastoral tutors as those (relative to their peers) with significant emotional and behavioural difficulties that represented a concern to staff.

Literature review

The national therapeutic context

The HM Government's 'No health without mental health' paper details that 1 in 10 children aged between 5 and 16 years has a mental health problem, and many continue to have mental health problems into adulthood (Green et al., 2005). Whilst 10% of children are believed to fulfil Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV) criteria for mental disorder (Ford et al., 2003), a further 50% are believed to be experiencing sub-threshold psychiatric conditions (Lewisohn et al., 2004).

Mental ill health is the single largest cause of disability in the UK, contributing up to 22.8% of the UK's total financial burden related to ill health (World Health Organisation, 2008). Department of Health (DoH) figures from 2004 suggest that 2m children need interventions to improve their emotional well-being, mental health and resilience and

1.1m children would benefit from access to specialist services (DoH, 2004; DCSF & DoH, 2009).

The national commitment to improving mental health has been formalised through the National Service Framework for Children, Young People and Maternity Services, Standard 9 (The mental health and psychological well-being of children and young people). Through this framework, the last decade has seen an investment in national programmes such as Increasing Access to Psychological Therapy (IAPT) (to introduce more therapists to reduce the economic burden of adults with mental health disorders on the UK; Layard et al., 2007) and Targeted Mental Health in Schools (TaMHS; Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2008). In 2011, the HM Government committed to invest £400 million to expand the provision of psychological therapies for children and young people (HM Government, 2011), and this commitment was extended in the Support and Aspiration green paper published in May 2012 (Department for Education, 2012).

A four-tier model of child and adolescent mental health services (CAMHS) has been implemented in the UK (CAMHS review, 2008):

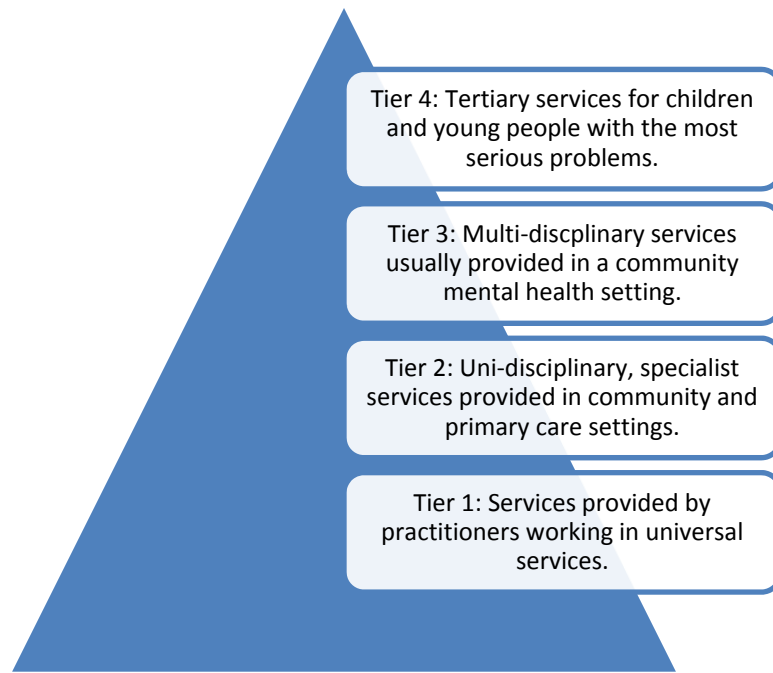


Figure 1: CAMHS delivery model.

Educational professionals have expressed concern regarding the medicalisation of therapeutic interventions in the national mental health arena. Critics of the CAMHS model state that the provision of mental health services is overly reliant on clinical diagnoses, and the associated within-child language can stigmatise children and downplay the role of their environment (Squires, 2010; Rait et al., 2010).

Cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) – an overview

As national concerns regarding mental ill health have increased, CBT has gained prominence through the IAPT and TaMHS initiatives. Whilst CBT has been broadly defined in the past (Graham, 2005), the narrower definitions of CBT indicate it is an approach that ‘attempts to reduce excessive emotional reactions and self-defeating behaviour by modifying the faulty or erroneous thinking and maladaptive beliefs that underlie these reactions’ (Beck et al., 1993; p.10). The approach represents the coming together of behaviourist and cognitive schools of psychology. Accordingly, CBT seeks to

preserve the efficacy of behavioural techniques but within a less doctrinaire context that takes account of the child's cognitive interpretations and attributions about events (Kendall & Hollon, 1979).

The table below outlines the key tenets of behaviourist and cognitive schools of psychology relevant to CBT, as well as the limitations of the theories that have led to a therapeutic approach that combines them together.

	Theoretical contributions to CBT	Critiques
Behaviourist psychology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emotional responses can be conditioned by events and situations. Environmental influences shape behaviour (Stallard, 2007). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fails to explain why individuals may respond differently when presented with the same situation (Boulding, 1984). Overly mechanistic and insufficiently 'psychological' (Leadbetter, 2011).
Cognitive psychology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thinking influences emotional and behavioural responses (Southam-Gerow et al., 2011). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ignores that systemic and environmental factors influence behaviour (Bailey, 2001).

Table 1: key tenets of behaviourist and cognitive schools of psychology.

CBT is conceptualised through a theoretical triangle that links cognitions to feelings and behaviours:

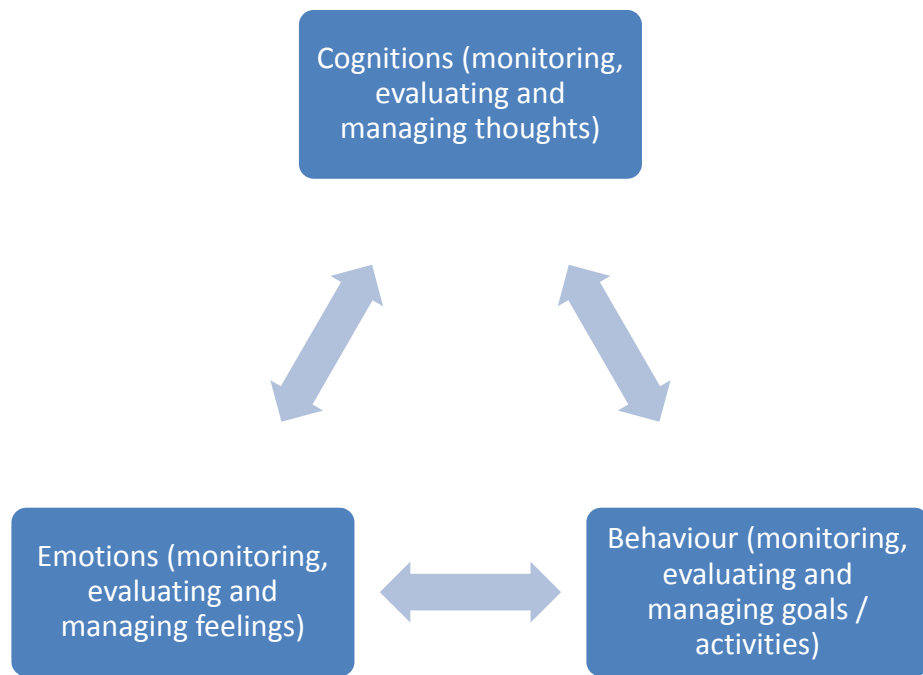


Figure 2: CBT triangle.

The model rests on the belief that if one element of the triangle is changed (what someone is thinking, for example), the second and third elements (how someone feels, and what someone does) will alter accordingly.

Stallard (2007) states that the purpose of CBT is to 'increase self-awareness and improve self-control by developing more appropriate cognitive and behavioural skills' (p. 7). The ultimate aim is to empower the client to become their own cognitive-behaviour therapists (Heimberg & Becker, 2002). Stallard (2002) details the key explanatory elements of a cognitive behavioural approach in the figure below:

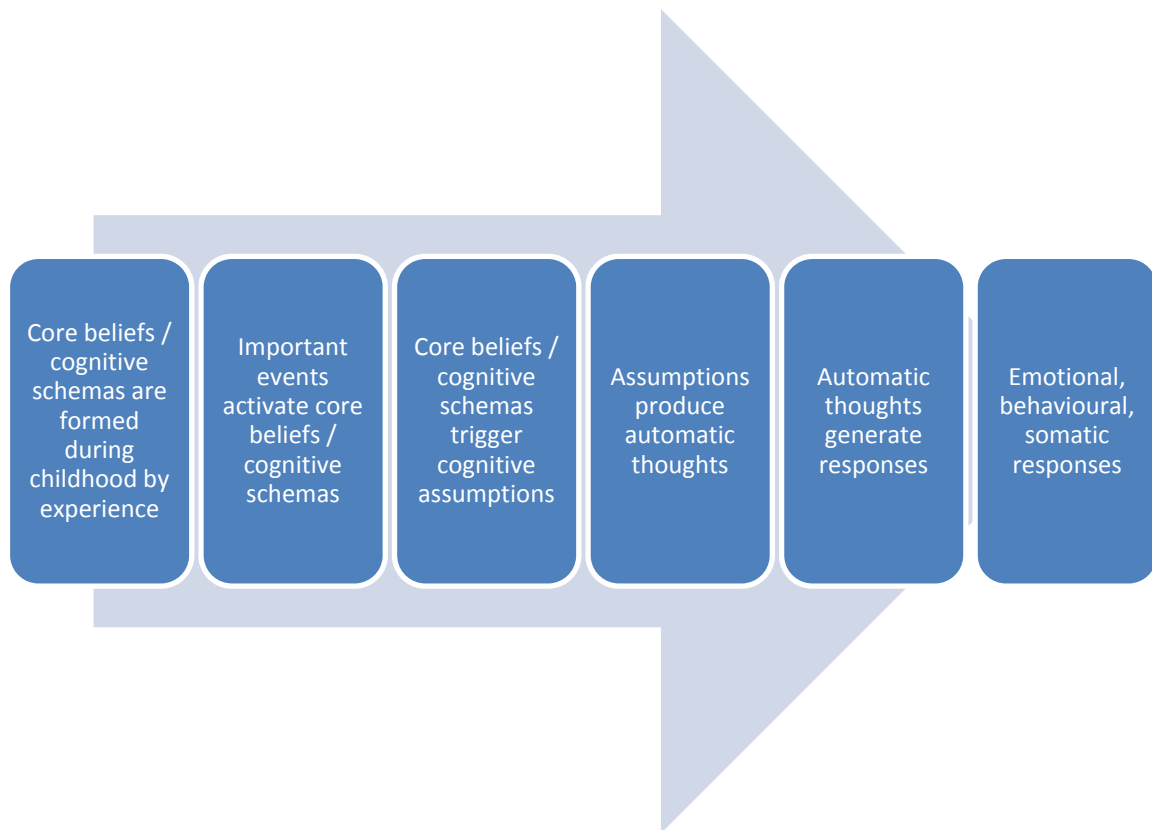


Figure 3: key explanatory elements of a cognitive behavioural approach.

All 'pure' CBT implementations have a number of key features in common. According to Leadbetter (2011), Toland & Boyle (2008) and Greig (2007), these include that CBT is:

- A time-limited intervention.
- A structured, scientific approach where homework is used to experiment.
- Contemporaneous.
- A psycho-educational model that doesn't rely on the expert.
- Facilitated by an active and direct therapist, without hidden agenda.
- Enactive and collaborative.

Based on Stallard's (2002) sequential model, Squires (2006) indicates that CBT tools and techniques can be divided into five areas:

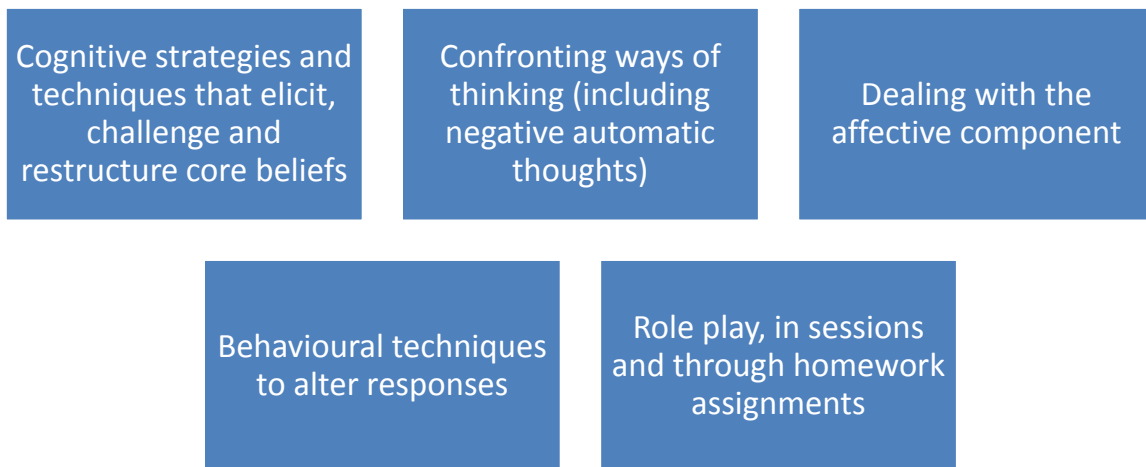


Figure 4: CBT tools and techniques.

There are two central criticisms of the CBT model outline above. The first is that there has been limited explanation as to how faulty cognitive patterns emerge during childhood (Rait et al., 2010). Secondly, Graham (2005) highlighted the uncertainty regarding the directionality of the relationship between thoughts, feelings and bodily sensations, and whether cognitions exclusively act as the initiator of that process. He proposes that the relationship would be more accurately characterised as an interdependent cycle that includes a range of routes of causation and remediation that can begin with any one of the areas of body, behaviour, feeling and thought.

Cognitive behaviour therapy – the evidence

From an economic perspective, the UK government's mental health strategy paper ('No health without mental health') states that 'an investment in CBT approaches of around £70m may result in approximately £180m savings to the NHS and around £60m to the individuals [subject to the intervention]' (HM Government, 2011; p.16). Much of the

national guidance on CBT (available through the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence) is clinically based, and often relates to anxiety and depression diagnoses. The table below includes a sample of CBT efficacy meta-analyses (specific to anxiety and depression) that have been completed:

Authors	Year	Meta-analysis details	Findings
Seligman & Ollendick	2011	Considered over 40 studies, most of them focused on anxiety based disorders (in youths).	Effect sizes from RCTs are generally large, with 2/3 children treated with CBT free of their primary diagnosis after a 12 – 16 week course of treatment.
Klein et al.	2007	Considered 11 randomised controlled trials related to depression in youths.	Found a significant mild effect size for CBT for treatment of depression symptoms.
James et al.	2007	Considered 13 studies specific to children and young people with anxiety diagnoses.	A response rate for remission of any anxiety disorder of 56% for CBT vs. 28.2% for controls.
Cartwright-Hatton et al.	2004	Considered randomised controlled trials related to childhood / adolescent anxiety disorders.	The remission rate in the CBT groups (56.5%) was higher than that in the control groups (34.8%).

Table 2: CBT efficacy meta-analyses.

The evidence from studies such as those outlined above has led to a widespread recognition that CBT is an efficacious therapeutic approach, especially for clinically diagnosed anxiety and depression disorders. A number of concerns have been raised regarding the evidence base for CBT, however. These concerns include:

- The studies have frequently failed to consider / control for:
 - The high degree of co-morbidity across conditions (Jacqueline & Margo, 2005);
 - The impact of personality factors on receptiveness to psychological intervention (Pugh, 2010);

- Key biological / environmental considerations (such as genetic predispositions, family structures and educational background) that act as mediators of CBT efficacy (Rait et al., 2010).
- The medium / long term benefits of CBT have not been established through follow-ups (Cartwright-Hatton et al., 2004).
- The CBT implementations have lacked consistency in their design and methods (Pugh, 2010).

Applying CBT to groups of children with emotional and behavioural difficulties in school

CBT in schools

The evidence base for the application of CBT in schools has grown over the last 10 years (Greig, 2007). Farmer et al. (2003) found that almost 70% of children and young people receiving interventions for psychological difficulties did so at school, and educational settings are suited to the provision of CBT for a number of reasons (Squires & Caddick, 2012):

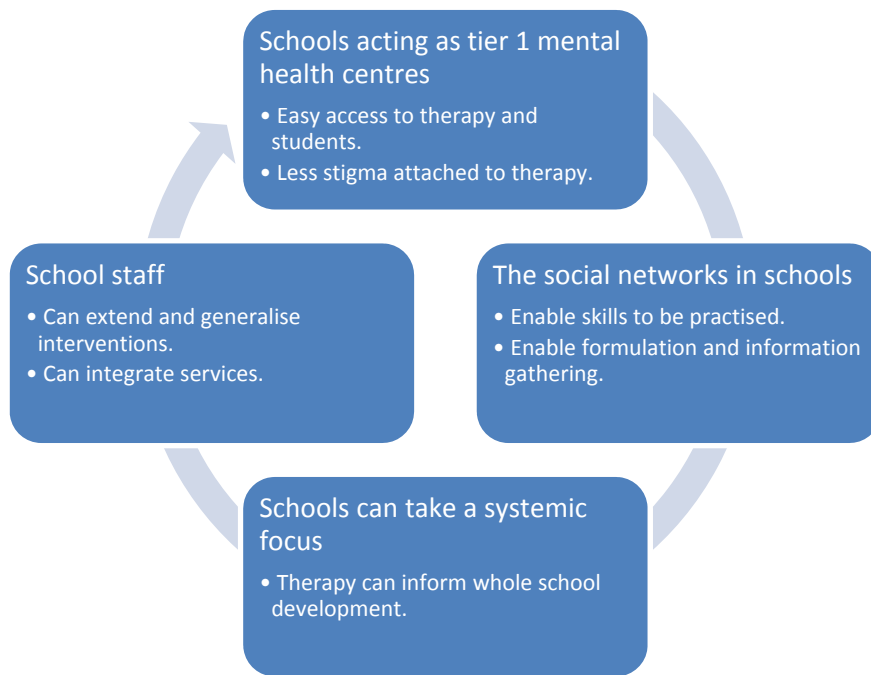


Figure 5: reasons why educational settings are suited to hosting CBT.

CBT with children and young people

Equally, there is increasing evidence of the effectiveness of CBT in populations of children and young people (Fonagy et al., 2002). Quakley et al. (2004) found that children as young as 4 (using cues) can discriminate between thoughts, emotions and behaviour, and the studies outlined in table 2, above, only considered children and young people as part of the meta-analyses populations. As a result, adolescence has been characterised as a ‘window of opportunity’ to alter negative developmental trajectories (Cicchetti & Rogosch, 2002) and a time of critical importance for social development (Vickers, 2002).

It should be noted, however, that The Wolpert report (2006) states that ‘evidence for the effectiveness of stand-alone CBT... for adolescents remains weak’ (p. 8). Stallard (2002) also reports that CBT has not been consistently demonstrated as superior to other psychotherapeutic interventions. Lastly, Greig (2007) highlights challenges in

ensuring the studies with children and young people produce reliable findings – both self-reports and behaviour across settings may be inconsistent.

One of the key debates related to the applicability of CBT for children and young people surrounds their biological, social-emotional, psychosocial and cognitive (Kendall et al., 2002) readiness to benefit from a CBT intervention. Chu & Kendall (2004) contend that developmental processes can impact upon the way in which young people engage with the treatment process, and this may influence the success of the treatment. As a result, it is important to assess the client's developmental progress (maturity), and use this information to shape important elements of the CBT intervention. These may include the use of language, motivation strategies, the materials and activities, and the tempo and structure of the sessions (Sauter et al., 2009).

CBT to address the needs of children and young people with emotional and behavioural difficulties

4% to 14% of the child and adolescent population are estimated to experience behaviour problems (DCSF, 2008), and these students usually present with low frequency behavioural difficulties that interfere with learning outcomes and disrupt learning more widely in the school (Squires, 2006). For these students, CBT represents an alternative means of addressing behaviour concerns without applying inflexible behaviourist principles. Indeed, Ghafoori and Tracz (2004) reported that many CBT interventions attempt to mitigate disruptive behaviour problems by building appropriate social competencies and considering how disruptive behaviours are derived and reinforced.

Group CBT

A number of studies (for example, Muris et al., 2002) have concluded that GCBT is as effective as individual CBT (ICBT). The meta-analyses outlined in Table 2 considered a number of GCBT interventions – for example, 22 out of 40 studies in the Seligman & Ollendick (2011) meta-analysis and 7 out of 12 studies in the Cartwright-Hatton et al. (2004) meta-analysis utilised group treatment programmes.

Based on such research, the table below evaluates the implementation of CBT in a group format:

Potential positive outcomes	Potential (comparator) negative outcomes
<i>Based on:</i> 1. Southam-Gerow et al. (2011) 2. Ruffolo & Fischer (2009) 3. Dowling et al. (2007) 4. Jelalian et al., (2006) 5. Heimberg & Becker (2002)	<i>Based on:</i> 1. James et al. (2007) 2. Tucker & Oei (2007) 3. Jacqueline & Margo (2005) 4. Whitaker (2001) 5. Kaminer (2005)
Increased efficacy of treatment (4).	No change in efficacy of treatment (1).
More cost effective as more children and young people can be reached (2).	More likelihood of therapist errors occurring in groups (4).
Natural opportunities for socialisation (1).	Group formats are distracting (3) and can descend into small-talk (2).
Normalisation of psychopathology – recognising that others have similar problems, which may lessen feelings of isolation and stigmatisation (1, 5).	Differential improvement rates discouraging slower improvers (2).
Positive, vicarious peer influences (1, 5).	Undesirable ‘copy-cat’ behaviours can emerge (5).
Learning through helping (5).	Power struggles may emerge (5).
Incidental learning might occur (3).	
Encouragement through observation of others’ success (5).	
Introduces a public commitment to change (5).	
	There are more likely to be practical difficulties scheduling sessions (2).

Table 3: pros and cons associated with GCBT.

Tucker & Oei (2007) researched the cost effectiveness and efficacy of GCBT over ICBT. Their work highlighted how inconsistently and incompletely most cost calculations for

therapeutic interventions are undertaken. From those studies where they were able to discern the cost calculations, 90% of the studies indicated that the GCBT intervention had resulted in costs savings of between 2% and 61%. In terms of efficacy, 61% of the articles reviewed supported equal treatment effects for GCBT and ICBT and 35% supported the superiority of ICBT over GCBT. They concluded that evidence generally attests to lower costs and equivalent effectiveness of GCBT, although they acknowledged that the strength of the evidence remains questionable and the evidence, therefore, inconclusive.

Sample studies

A number of studies have been completed that are based on the same major characteristics of the case in this paper (inclusion criteria: GCBT in a school setting, focused on adolescents with emotional and behavioural difficulties). These are outlined below:

Squires & Caddick	2012	Quasi-experimental, n = 16, 8 x 1hr sessions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive change for pupils' self-perceptions of their behaviour. • Teachers thought the behaviour of all students (treatment and control) improved.
Toland & Boyle	2008	N = 29 (groups of 5), 12 x 30 minute sessions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CBT offers a flexible approach to challenging and changing attributions for success and failure in learning.
Humphrey & Brooks	2006	Single-group phase change design, n = 12, 6 x 1hr over 4 weeks.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The total number of anger related incidents reduced (although this was not maintained). • The 'conduct', 'emotional' and 'prosocial' domains showed evidence of maintenance of positive outcomes.
Vickers	2002	N = 8, 12 x 90 minute sessions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attendance rates at the sessions were high. • There was a 'major improvement' for 6/8 subjects.

Squires	2001	Quasi-experimental, n = 23 (3 groups of 6 – 9 students), 6 x 1hr sessions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 6/23 failed to complete. • 16/17 showed improvement in at least one area (positive impact on self-concept and peer relations). • Group results may mask individual progress.
---------	------	--	--

Table 4: sample studies.

From these sample studies, it becomes clear that identification of the client is a key element of the success of a CBT intervention. Clients with early-onset, mild to moderate psychological difficulties (Rait et al., 2010) that are present in school (Squires, 2006) are deemed most appropriate for treatment.

Equally, there is an extensive evidence based (reviewed in Joughin & Shaw, 2000) for the efficacy of mental health interventions addressing systemic factors. Graham (2005) emphasised the importance of engaging the wider context in therapeutic approaches, and CBT is most likely to be effective when there is some level of community / parental involvement (Sofronoff et al., 2005).

Educational Psychologists (EPs) as cognitive behaviour therapists

MacKay (2007) argues that EPs are a key therapeutic resource for children and young people and there needs to be a renewed focus on therapy within educational psychology practice. He advocates that EPs should ‘routinely offer’ (p.14) a range of therapeutic services. In their review of educational psychology, The Farrell report (2006) recommended there was a need for EPs to return to a therapeutic role.

Squires (2010) suggests that EPs may be well positioned to deliver therapeutic interventions in schools as EPs understand the client and the context, can work flexibly and have a requisite level of training. He goes on to argue that EPs can work at Tier 2 / 3

in the CAMHS model (see figure 1), utilising the competencies required to deliver effective CBT (Roth & Pilling, 2007). Pugh (2010) references the ‘democratisation of psychological intervention’ in a service delivery model that is increasingly dominated by market forces.

In 2011, Atkinson et al. completed a survey of EPs, specific to their therapeutic work. There were 455 respondents (of which 25% were in training), and they found that 83% have used therapeutic interventions for individuals, and 55% for groups. 63% indicated they had used a CBT approach in the last 2 years, with 77% working in secondary schools. The table below includes the key enabling factors and barriers they uncovered related to the delivery of therapeutic services by EPs:

Enablers	Barriers
Access to training	Limitations of service time allocation model
Service culture offers flexibility in the model of working	Service capacity
Personal interest in therapeutic intervention	Other priorities identified by stakeholders
Schools valuing therapeutic intervention	Lack of training
Schools valuing their relationship with the EP	Lack of practice

Table 5: enablers / barriers for EPs (Atkinson et al., 2011).

Squires & Dunsmuir (2011) considered whether trainee EPs were in a position to undertake therapeutic work. They reported that TEPs experienced significant challenges identifying and undertaking an initial piece of CBT case-work, and that the service delivery model and the quality of supervision were important facilitators to TEPs engaging in therapeutic work.

Method

The aim of the therapeutic activity written up in this paper was to reduce the level of behavioural disruption associated with the students involved, to allow them, and their peers, to better access the curriculum at SVC.

Design

A case study design (a single intervention with a single group) was used for the purposes of evaluating and writing up this therapeutic work. Case studies aim to provide idiographic explanations of situations (de Vaus, 2001), in that they focus on particular cases and develop as complete an explanation of each case as possible.

Thomas (2011) contends that a case study design forces researchers to drill down into the cases to create a three dimensional picture to analyse. In completing an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives (Simons, 2001), case studies aim to chase out the abstract in favour of the specific (Evans, 2000).

The case

The Special Educational Needs Coordinator (SENCo) at SVC worked with the pastoral tutors to identify a group of students within SVC that they believed would benefit from a 6-session therapeutic intervention. They were asked to focus on students that were experiencing social, emotional or behavioural difficulties. They were informed that an optimal group size would be 6 – 8 students, and that it was important the students were available for the entirety of the 6-session programme.

The SENCo approached 6 Year-10 students (and their parents) regarding the therapeutic intervention, and 3 students consented to involvement. As the ‘therapist’, I

was not party to the information that was shared with the students, or the reasons for the other 3 students not providing their consent for involvement.

A brief portrait of the 3 Year-10 students that provided their consent for involvement is outlined below, based on written and verbal information provided by the SENCo at SVC:

Student	Gender	Age	Key information provided
1	M	15:0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often doesn't stay at home, due to difficulties with parents. • Has 2 older brothers (one with an autism spectrum disorder diagnosis) and 1 younger sister. • On an individual behaviour plan due to general disruption in school (more outside lessons). • Specific events have related to threatening teachers and students with a knife in Food & Technology class. • Smokes, drinks and does drugs. • Has been involved in police investigations due to criminal damage and arson. • Has previously been sanctioned through detention, isolation and exclusion. • An instigator in the group. • Has no difficulty with academic work – intelligent and articulate.
2	M	14:9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lives with Dad (and his girlfriend) at home, although Dad has been in hospital a lot recently. • On a red report due to general disruption in school. • Smokes and drinks. • Has been involved in police investigations due to criminal damage and arson. • Has previously been sanctioned through detention, isolation and exclusion. • Motivated by being in the Marines. • A follower in the group, he is honest if he has done something wrong.
3	M	14:6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lives at home with parents, and Mum is particularly concerned regarding his progress. He frequently doesn't stay at home at night. • On a red report due to general disruption in school (particularly fighting, verbal abuse and aggression). • Smokes, drinks and does drugs. • Has been involved in police investigations due to criminal damage and arson. • Has previously been sanctioned through detention, isolation and exclusion.

Table 6: student portrait.

As a group, they were described as a ‘mob’ of boys (by one of the pastoral tutors), with no respect for the environment, school or authority. It was reported that other students (and some staff) were intimidated by them. As suggested by Squires & Caddick (2012), their teachers reported that the externalising behaviours caused concern because of the impact on the presenting child’s learning and because of the physical and emotional impact on their teachers and peers.

Case formulation

Formulation is the summation and integration of the knowledge that is acquired through an assessment process to provide a framework for describing a problem, how it developed and is being maintained (The British Psychological Society, 2008).

Formulation-based practices ensure that interventions are based on underlying causative and maintaining factors (Dummett, 2006). It is recommended case formulation is a reflexive and collaborative activity, which recognises the potential for bias (Hall, 2012).

Appendix 1 contains the case formulation template that was completed for all the students involved in the GCBT intervention.

Ethical considerations

Based on a review of The British Psychological Society’s Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009), a number of ethical considerations were identified. The majority of the ethical considerations were confirmed and documented in the group’s ground rules (appendix 2).

As soon as SVC identified potential students (based on feedback from the pastoral tutors), they gained consent for involvement from the parents of the students, and the students themselves. Within this consent, it was clear that the GCBT would be led by a Doctoral Trainee EP under supervision. Informed consent was confirmed during the initial introductory session, and then checked at all subsequent sessions (on each occasion the students were given the opportunity to withdraw from the intervention).

The confidentiality of the students and the information shared in the session was assured, except if any illegal or child protection issues arose. It was agreed that the students had the right to decide which conclusions / outcomes of the sessions would be shared with their teachers / parents.

It was agreed that documentation from the therapeutic sessions would be anonymised and retained, and local authority policies related to confidentiality of data and record management were adhered to. These policies ensure that appropriate technical and organisational measures (including the use of passwords on computers and locked filing cabinets) are taken to prevent unauthorised or unlawful access to personal information, and to prevent accidental loss, destruction or damage to personal information.

Risk assessment

As part of the preparation for the therapeutic sessions, a risk profile (Hall, 2012; appendix 3) was completed for each of the students. No significant risks were identified.

The intervention

The 6-session GCBT intervention was based upon that defined by Squires (2001). Based on a review of similar interventions, Squires (2006) concluded that children and young

people with mild to moderate psychological difficulties need a minimum of 4 – 6 sessions in order for the therapeutic intervention to be effective, but that the exact number may differ depending on the clients and the context. Indeed, Sukhodolsky et al. (2004) considered 40 studies and found that treatment duration had no significant influence on treatment effect size. The session-by-session approach and timeline is outlined in appendix 4. Modifications to the intervention documented by Squires (2001) were only made in response to client and context specific scenarios. For example, specific techniques were introduced to overcome pre-contemplation defences (Prochaska et al., 2006).

Evaluation

The IAPT programme has a defined routine outcome measurement to improve the quality and experience of services (DoH, 2012). Nationally, the CAMHS Outcome Research Consortium (CORC) aims to foster the effective and routine use of outcome measures in therapeutic work with children and young people.

The EPS in the shire county in which this work was based has no outcome measure protocol, so evaluative data was captured through the following means:

- Attendance data.
- (Appendix 5): goal-based outcome measures, a self-evaluation based on the target monitoring and evaluation approach (Dunsmuir et al., 2009).
- Positive reward and negative sanction behaviour management data from SVC.
- (Appendix 6): pre-intervention administration of the Beck Youth Inventory (2nd edition) (BYI-II) (Beck et al., 2005).
- Incidental and structured session specific information capture.

Results




Formal evaluation

The tables and figures below include the pre- and post-intervention data specific to:

- Attendance at the sessions.
- The goal-based outcome measures.
- Positive reward and negative sanction behaviour management data from SVC.

• Student	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4	Session 5	Session 6
1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
2	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 7: attendance data.

Student	Targets	Pre- and post-intervention self-evaluation		
		Baseline (pre), /10	'Expected' outcome (pre), /10	'Achieved' outcome (post), /10
1	A: Reducing the number of sanctions and punishments I get in school	10	1	No data
1	B: Improving the relations I have with 'x' teachers	7 ('poor')	5 ('medium')	No data
1	C: Reducing the amount I break school rules with my uniform	10	5	No data
2	A: Reducing the number of sanctions and punishments I get in school	8 ('a lot')	2	5 – 6 
2	B: Improving my self-discipline and respect for others	10 ('none')	1	3 
2	B: Reducing the amount I am negatively influenced by others around me	10 ('a lot')	1	6 

Student	Targets	Pre- and post-intervention self-evaluation		
		Baseline (pre), /10	'Expected' outcome (pre), /10	'Achieved' outcome (post), /10
3	A: Reducing the number of sanctions and punishments I get in school ('getting less detentions')	4	1	3 - 4
3	B: Improving my self-discipline and respect for others ('not getting p***ed off too often')	8	2	7
3	C: Improving my grades	6	9	10

Table 8: goal-based outcome measures.

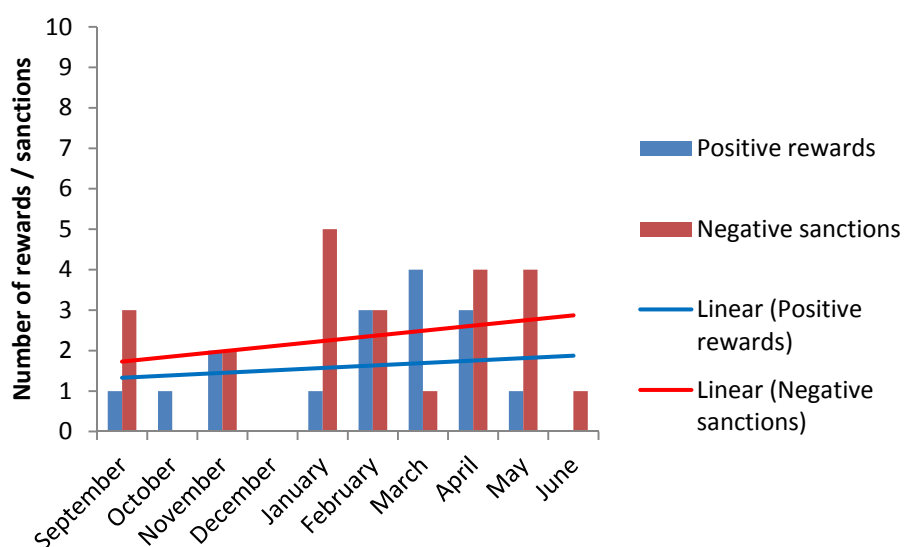


Figure 6: Student 2's positive reward and negative sanction behaviour management data from SVC.

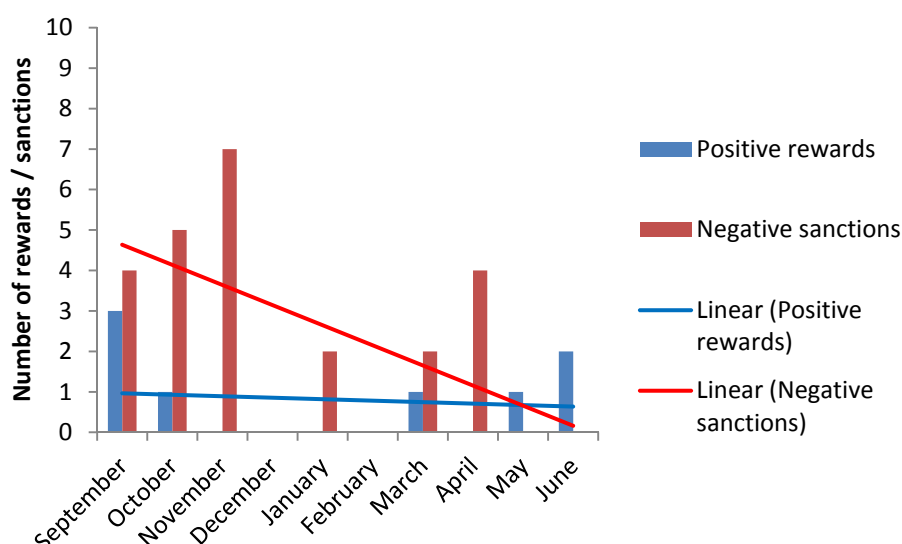


Figure 7: Student 3's positive reward and negative sanction behaviour management data from SVC.

Pre and post-intervention behaviour management data was unavailable for student 1, as he was permanently excluded from SVC between sessions 5 and 6. It should also be noted that, during the course of the intervention, student 2 received 3 fixed-term exclusions and student 3 received 2 fixed-term exclusions (these are not represented above, and are likely to have impacted the data reported above).

Informal evaluation

Throughout the 6 GCBT sessions, additional qualitative data was gathered about the therapeutic experience that the students were undertaking and the success of the intervention. This data is captured below:

Session	Qualitative data	
	Positive	Negative

Session	Qualitative data	
	Positive	Negative
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ground rules and targets were successfully identified (they were all able to specify what their ambitions were). A list of 21 emotions was identified. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students were uncomfortable that they were attending 'therapy'. The attitude the students adopted to identifying the ground rules meant it was questionable whether the students were committed to the ground rules or whether they identified them in order to move on. The attitude the students adopted to identifying the targets meant it was questionable whether the students were committed to the targets, and whether the targets were specific and realistic enough.
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There was good engagement in the scaling of feelings, and the associated thoughts, behaviours and bodily responses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students were only able to recall the CBT triangle after much prompting. The BYI-II was only completed by 1 student (as a result, it was discarded as an evaluation measure). Homework was not completed. The students jumped straight to default interpretations of the school situations and weren't prepared to consider alternatives.

Session	Qualitative data	
	Positive	Negative
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was an active discussion about the ground rules, and the extent they were complying with their own rules (ground rule 1: 'yes / maybe'; GR2: 'no'; GR3: 'no'; GR4: 'yes'; GR: 'yes'). • Student 2 reported an improvement in teacher feedback in the most recent report. • There was an active discussion about the relationships they have and how they contribute to them in school and at home. • The students were able to identify some situations to discuss / role play, and the vicious circles apparent in their lives were clear. • Student 3 asked when I was next coming in. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The students were not willing to consider alternative interpretations of the situations they identified. • Homework was not completed.
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective scenarios were introduced to try and depersonalise their experiences, and this worked to some degree. • Interim self-evaluation indicated that the students believed they were: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Thinking about the things that were discussed in sessions (student 1: 8/10, student 2: 6/10, student 3: 9/10); ○ Saying out loud what they thought (5/10, 7/10, 9/10); ○ Contributing actively (7/10, 6/10, 9/10). • The students were able to identify evidence that does not support their default perspective. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whilst the students were able to identify evidence that does not support their default perspective, they weren't prepared to accept that the evidence was valid in their case. • Homework was not completed.

Session	Qualitative data	
	Positive	Negative
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students were able to give examples about how the CBT triangle worked ('you behave in a way because you're thinking something'). There was an active discussion on the presence of thinking errors. One of the teachers commented that the students still wanted to come and they had asked when the next session was. Student 2 commented that he was happy to miss his favourite class to come to the sessions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students failed to recognise that 'outcomes' in school can be changed. The students rejected the idea that they might be positively reinforcing each other in their behaviours. The students struggled to identify their own core beliefs. Homework was not completed. The students indicated that they wanted the last session to be a group session ('if you're on your own, you're a psycho').
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students talked about 'growing up' (concentrating at school, focusing on their work, not getting into arguments with teachers). The students were able to recognise that they are often a bad influence on each other. Via a numerical rating for each of their goals, the students expressed high commitment to reaching their goals (average: 7.85 / 10). The students were able to identify areas that they might keep working on and where they would like help from their teachers. Unexpectedly, I saw student 1 as I was leaving the school, and he stated 'I'm done with all this messing about with my friends' and 'I need to get back into school to get good GCSEs'. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The students found remembering the CBT triangle difficult. A lot of defensive, immature behaviours were in evidence as we reflected on the intervention. The students needed time and space to process compliments from the adults that work with them.

Table 9: qualitative evaluative data.

The evaluative data outlined above were shared with the school sponsors of the GCBT intervention (the two pastoral tutors and the SENCo) following the conclusion of session 6. The data present a mixed picture. The self-assessment data provided by the students suggests that they believe they moved towards achieving their goals over the

course of the intervention (and they decided on their 'achieved' score without reference to what they had provided as a 'baseline' score). However, the frequency of fixed-term and permanent exclusions experienced during the course of the intervention does not suggest there was a positive impact on their behaviour at school.

The contradictory picture inevitably brings the type and source of the conflicting data into focus, to consider whether the views of the students should be privileged over SVC's behaviour management data. Informal conversations with two pastoral tutors at SVC indicate that the students are making progress in school, but whether that is as a result of the intervention or due to the other behaviour management strategies employed in school is, of course, impossible to tell. It may have been possible to discriminate between the impact of the GCBT intervention and any other behaviour management strategies if the implementation of anything outside the GCBT intervention had been 'held' until after the GCBT had been completed. As this was impractical and unethical this was not possible. As a result, it is difficult to formally conclude that the students achieved significant gain over the 6 sessions. Whilst there were certainly discrete indications that the GCBT was of some value to the students (see Table 9), and it is clearly impossible to accurately ascertain whether there have been changes in their cognitive processes, the more explicit and objective behaviour management data does not support the conclusion that the therapeutic work was effective in meeting the needs of the students, or, therefore, the school.

GCBT implementation challenges

Throughout the GCBT intervention, there were constant challenges related to the scheduling of the sessions and the availability of the students. Mostly these challenges

were as a result of school sanctions (exclusions, after school timetables) and external forces (police, court cases) interfering with whether the students were in school for the appointed GCBT sessions. As a result, the gaps between the sessions were longer and more irregular than optimum (Heimberg & Becker, 2002), and this interrupted the flow of the intervention. The sizeable gap between sessions 5 and 6 may have impacted on the validity of the evaluative data captured in session 6.

Outside the logistical difficulties, the central challenge for much of the intervention was that the students failed to move on from the pre-contemplation stage in the Prochaska et al. (2006) six-stage 'programme for change' model. As a group, they did not invest effort and energy in the process of change and therefore found themselves rooted in a formative stage of therapeutic development, characterised by the holding on to of comforting habitual behaviours (Whitaker, 2001).

Whitaker (2001) outlines how disadvantageous norms can work against the effectiveness of the group and the individual, and the norms and shared beliefs present in the group (that they were being victimised by adults) were continually presented as part of a collusive defence. It was common in the GCBT sessions for the students not to confront their established ways of thinking (by avoiding homework, for example; Squires, 2001) and not being prepared to consider or accept that their thoughts might be distorted or irrational (Heimberg & Becker, 2002).

Lastly, there was much personal cueing behaviour in evidence (Whitaker, 2001). This behaviour is used by individuals to ensure they are seen in a certain way by others. It resulted in the GCBT students not feeling comfortable enough to share their thoughts and feelings, and to take risks. An example of this was evident when discussing thinking

errors (session 5). One of the questions in the thinking errors questionnaire was: 'How often do you think that you are a stupid or bad person?' The response options were:

- 1 = never.
- 2 = sometimes.
- 3 = often.
- 4 = all of the time.

Within the group, the consolidated score that was reported back to them was '5' (student 1: '1 = never'; student 2: '1 = never'; student 3: '3 = often'). Given the side discussions that happened in session 4 when the questionnaire was being completed, it became clear to the group that one student must have answered '3' (that they felt this way 'often'). Once the group established who was most likely to have responded that way, that student failed to engage in the rest of the session. Further evidence of this influence on each other comes from the fact that anonymous questionnaires (written exercises where the results were not available to the group) seemed to elicit more accurate and truthful responses than the group discussions.

In summary, Whitaker (2001) indicates that behaviours or views that are held by the group unanimously, alongside a limited receptivity in the group to change, is likely to lead to 'problems that tend towards intractability'. In these instances, 6 small group GCBT sessions is unlikely to challenge the cognitions of the students to the extent their emotions and behaviours alter accordingly.

Discussion

This paper has outlined a GCBT intervention that yielded mixed results for 3 Year-10 pupils at a mainstream secondary school setting. The discussion now highlights key elements of the implementation that are judged to have impacted on its effectiveness.

Identifying students suitable for GCBT

The evidence base for GCBT, referenced in the introduction, includes some direction related to 'clients' likely to be suited to GCBT interventions (those with mild to moderate difficulties, and those that are present in school). It could be argued that the students that SVC identified for this GCBT intervention were neither – the level of disruption they were responsible for inside and outside school was significant, and it resulted in them being unavailable for parts of the GCBT intervention as originally scheduled.

In their anger management GCBT intervention, Humphrey & Brooks (2006), reported that a significant amount of time was spent explaining to the students why they were there. They concluded that either the students did not have the reasons for identification explained before the intervention started, or that the students struggled to recognise that they needed help. In the GCBT intervention outlined in this paper, both are likely to be the case, and this meant that the therapy failed to achieve a 'breakthrough' (Tang & DeRubeis, 1999) in the understanding and thinking of the students. It became clear that the accepted cognitions and behaviours present in the group were working against the best interests of the group, but they were also protecting the identity and the self-esteem of the individuals in the group (Whitaker, 2001).

As a result, it meant much more time in the sessions were spent focusing on engagement and motivation related to change (Sauter et al., 2009) and trying to shift the students away from peripheral thoughts (that offered much protection / reinforcement and required little engagement) to core thoughts that needed to be addressed (Heimberg & Becker, 2002).

Lastly, a homogenous group comprising 3 members was too few. As noted by Whitaker (2001), the minimum number in a group should be 5, as this number is needed so 'fruitful explorations, interpersonal comparisons and feedback' (p. 201) can occur within the group. Heterogeneity is likely to breed challenge from other group members, and that was conspicuous in its absence in this group.

There was an opportunity to stress all of these items more strongly at the outset of the GCBT intervention. That SVC were allowed to identify students misaligned with the criteria that research suggests is important for a successful GCBT intervention underlines the need for a delineated, protected period of intervention planning that progression of the intervention is contingent on. On reflection, this was the single biggest factor in the mixed results from the GCBT intervention.

Developmental readiness of the students

As referenced in the introduction, GCBT has been successfully applied to children and young people, as long as developmental considerations are reflected in the format and the content of the intervention.

In various sessions in this GCBT intervention, it was necessary to introduce concrete, behaviourally based activities and 'real life' role plays to emphasise learning through doing (Sauter et al., 2009). As advocated by Willner (2006), on occasion it became

necessary to emphasise the behavioural as the expense of the cognitive ('cBT'; Stallard, 2002) although there is a risk that this undermined the established relationships within the CBT triangle.

In addition to the students finding it difficult to be honest about their thoughts and feelings, it also became clear that they better engaged in active sessions that relied on them contributing to something (such as creating a worksheet, as opposed to talking; Squires, 2001). This required an adjustment of some of the materials, to reflect the need for activity, as well as a desire to reduce the complexity of cognitive restructuring (Heimberg & Becker, 2002).

Incorporating a systemic focus into GCBT

The introduction also highlights the importance of including a systemic focus when undertaking GCBT. This GCBT intervention operated in an isolated, de-contextualised fashion, with limited school and family involvement in the work. Hall (2012) contends that this represents unethical practice, as it reinforces that the student is the problem. The fact that representatives from SVC did not act as co-therapists in the GCBT intervention may have reinforced the view of SVC's sponsors that the emotional and behavioural difficulties the students were experiencing should be attributed to within-child (rather than environmental) factors. School and family involvement is likely to have aided the effectiveness of the GCBT intervention (Sofronoff et al., 2005) by supporting the generalisation of new cognitions. Formal arrangements for engaging the wider social network of the student may also have increased the likelihood that homework between sessions (the 'experiments') would have been attempted (Squires & Caddick, 2012). It should be noted, however, that Wolpert et al. (2005) reported that

limited parental involvement may increase feelings of empowerment in students, and this may have been the case in this GCBT intervention.

Trainee Educational Psychologists (TEPs) as cognitive behaviour therapists

The introduction references multiple authors that argue for EPs to allocate more time to therapeutic work, and Squires & Dunsmuir (2011) outline their views on how TEPs can also deliver GCBT interventions. The work at SVC has highlighted many of the reasons why it is feasible for (T)EPs to deliver therapeutic work, including:

- If successful, it may represent preventative work (Squires, 2001) in an environment, and with clients, that EPs are familiar with.
- The personal style necessary to be a successful therapist (Whitaker, 2001) is similar to that of an EP.
- EPs can fill the national shortage of cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) practitioners (HM Government, 2011) and Tier 2 / 3 therapeutic staff (CAMHS review, 2008).
- Therapeutic work represents an opportunity to build capacity in school staff (Squires & Caddick, 2012).
- EPs as therapists provide clarity for students between an adult role as a teacher and an adult role as a GCBT facilitator (Squires, 2001).

As a result, Grieg (2007) concludes that EPs need to 'overcome professional negative assumptions about the efficiency and effectiveness of CBT as part of a strategic service delivery' (p. 33).

As a TEP, self-evaluation against Roth & Pilling's (2007) competencies required to deliver effective CBT and Heimberg & Becker's (2002) desirable therapist

characteristics provides an estimate of readiness to deliver therapeutic work. In this case, my self-evaluation suggests that the presence of certain generic therapeutic competences, basic CBT competences and meta-competences would allow the EPS to defend that TEPs are in a position to deliver GCBT interventions, even if they require access to intensive supervision and a co-therapist. The risks related to TEPs undertaking therapeutic work should not be underplayed, however. Specifically, Whitaker (2001) outlines a number of errors inexperienced therapists can make, including:

- Failing to notice opportunities for furthering the group or individuals.
- Making the right decisions on when to intervene and when to stand back.
- Making errors in the attribution of meaning to what has been observed.
- Errors of commission or omission.
- Asking questions that invite therapeutic disclosure.

Inevitably, TEPs (and inexperienced EPs) are more likely to commit the errors outlined above. One of the more difficult roles of the therapist, and an area TEPs may find difficult, is to make decisions about the structure and format of the GCBT intervention, and this is a key area for supervisors and co-therapists to support

Delivering a manualised or flexible approach?

A central dilemma at the heart of a GCBT intervention is whether the intervention structure must adhere to existing evidence-based 'manuals' for GCBT (on which the evidence base is predicated) or whether the therapist should respond flexibly to the needs of the students. As in most things, a balanced answer is probably the right answer, but this requires the therapist to have sufficient experience (and / or access to

supervision) to be making ‘acceptable adaptations’ to interventions (O’Connor et al., 2007). What constitutes an acceptable vs. an unacceptable adaption is outlined in the table below, and these guidelines were adhered to with this GCBT intervention:

Acceptable adaptations	Unacceptable adaptations
Changing language.	Reducing the number or length of sessions.
Replacing images.	Lowering the level of student engagement.
Replacing cultural references.	Eliminating key components.
Modifying some aspects of activities to ensure they are accessible and understandable for the students.	Removing topics.
Adding in evidence based content to make the programme more appealing.	Changing the theoretical approach.
	Using untrained staff.
	Using fewer staff members than recommended.

Table 10: intervention adaptations.

Even mindful of these guidelines, however, it was challenging to come to decisions about modifying the programme, especially as the group were experiencing difficulties accepting the need to change. Specifically, the guidelines fail to definitively address the size and developmental readiness of the group, and a number of researchers (including Heimberg & Becker, 2002) contend that 6 sessions is too few to achieve lasting change, especially with resistant populations. This may have been the case in this GCBT intervention.

With experience comes an ability to make the right decisions (from the groups’ perspective) regarding the structure and approach of an effective GCBT intervention, without compromising the evidence-base that has led to the selection of the intervention in the first place. TEPs need support (at their home University and their

hosting EPS) in order to apply a process of systematic adaptation (Roth & Pilling, 2007) to any therapeutic intervention that they are implementing.

Conclusion

A central challenge related to the GCBT intervention outlined above has been establishing valid and reliable evaluative data from which to base conclusions on. Whitaker (2001) highlights how hard it is to establish what is 'enough' gain for participants, as 'real' gain is different for different people. The GCBT intervention outlined above happened within an (extended) period characterised by many complex interactions in the lives of the students, any one of which may have impacted the main progress indicator used within this research (the behaviour management data). Directly attributing progress (or regression) to the GCBT intervention is, therefore, impossible. If change has been experienced (and my belief is that there has been a change in the perspectives of the students), it is likely because they have made a subtle, unquantifiable move past an unmarked 'personal frontier' (Whitaker, 2001) as a result of the consistent and persistent challenges present in the 6 sessions. The intervention, therefore, provides the basis for the provision of further support for the students at SVC.

The implementation of therapeutic interventions (whether individually or with a group) is a valuable opportunity as part of training to be an EP. There is a defined mental health need that EPs are well-situated to address. Implementing a GCBT intervention, however, is challenging, and it is important to balance any efficiency gains (one EP,

multiple students) with potential drawbacks in effectiveness (especially difficulties with group dynamics and scheduling).

Lastly, the success of any GCBT intervention in a school is reliant on facilitative members of staffs within the school. The identification of suitable students, gathering consent, scheduling sessions, booking rooms and integrating the intervention within existing behaviour management approaches are all essential enablers to a successful GCBT intervention. Inexperienced therapists are likely to underestimate how upfront time spent on these practicalities is likely to pay dividends through the lifetime of the intervention.

References

- Atkinson, C., Bragg, J., Squires, G., Muscutt, J., & Wasilewski, D. (2011). Educational Psychologists and therapeutic interventions – preliminary findings from a UK-wide survey. *DECP Debate* (140), 6-12.
- Bailey, V. (2001). Cognitive-behavioral therapies for children and adolescents. *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment*, 7, 224-232.
- Beck, A. T., Beck, J. S., Jolly, J. & Steer, R. (2005). *Beck Youth Inventory* (2nd Edition). Available from www.pearsonclinical.co.uk [Accessed 10-SEP-2012].
- Beck T. A., Wright, F. D., Newman, C. F., & Liese, B. S. (1993). *Cognitive Therapy of Substance Abuse*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Boulding, K. E. (1984). B.F. Skinner: A dissident view. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 7, 483-484.
- Cartwright-Hatton, S., Roberts, C., Chitsabesan, P., Fothergill, C., & Harrington, R. (2004). Systematic review of the efficacy of cognitive behaviour therapies for childhood and adolescent anxiety disorders. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 43, 421–436.
- Child and adolescent mental health services (2008). *Children and young people in mind: the final report of the National CAMHS Review*. Available from www.dh.gov.uk. [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].
- Chu, B. C., & Kendall, P. C. (2004). Positive association of child involvement and treatment outcome within a manual-based cognitive-behavioral treatment for children with anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 72(5), 821–829.

Cicchetti, D., & Rogosch, F. A. (2002). A developmental psychopathology perspective on adolescence. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 70(1), 6–20.

De Vaus, D. A. (2001). *Research design in social research*. SAGE.

Department for Children, Schools and Families (2008). *Targeted Mental Health in Schools Project. Using the evidence to inform your approach: a practical guide for head teachers and commissioners*. Available from www.education.gov.uk. [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Department for Children, Schools and Families & Department of Health (2009). *Healthy lives, brighter futures. The strategy for children and young people's health*. Available from www.dh.gov.uk. [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Department for Education. (2012). *Support and aspiration: A new approach to special educational needs and disability – progress and next steps*. Available from www.education.gov.uk. [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Department of Health. (2004). *National service framework for children, young people and maternity services change for children – Every Child Matters*. In *The mental health and psychological well-being of children and young people* (3779, pp. 3–48). London: Department of Health Department for Education and Skills.

Department of Health. (2004). *Routine outcome monitoring as part of CYP IAPT*. Available from www.iapt.nhs.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Dowling, N., Smith, D. & Thomas T. (2007). A comparison of individual and group cognitive-behavioural treatment for female pathological gambling. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 45(9), 2192–2202.

Dummett, N. (2006). Processes for systemic cognitive-behavioural therapy with children, young people and families. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 34, 179–189.

Dunsmuir, S., Brown, E., Iyadurai, S. & Monsen, J. (2009) Evidence-based practice and evaluation: from insight to impact. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 25(1), 53–70.

Evans, H. (2000). *Essential English for journalists, editors and writers*. London: Pimlico.

Farmer, E. M. Z., Burns, B., Phillips, S. D., Angold, A., & Costello, J. E. (2003). Pathways into and through mental health services for children and adolescents. *Psychiatric Services*, 54, 60–66.

Farrell, P., Woods, K., Lewis, S., Rooney, S., Squires, G., & O'Connor, M. (2006). A review of the functions and contribution of educational psychologists in England and Wales in light of “Every Child Matters: Change for Children”, Research Report RR792. London: Department for Education and Skills.

Fonagy, P., Target, M., Cottrell, D., Phillips, J. & Kurtz, Z. (2002). *What works for whom?* London: Guilford Press.

Ford, T., Goodman, R., & Meltzer, H. (2003). The British child and adolescent mental health survey 1999: The prevalence of DSM-IV disorders. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 42, 1203–1211.

Ghafoori, B., & Tracz, S. M. (2004). Effectiveness of cognitive behavioural therapy in reducing classroom disruptive behaviours: A meta-analysis. Available from www.priory.com [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Graham, P. (2005). Jack Tizard lecture: Cognitive behaviour therapies for children: Passing fashion or here to stay? *Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, 10(2), 57–62.

Green, H., McGinnity, A. & Meltzer, H. (2005) Mental health of children and young people in Great Britain, 2004. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Greig, A. (2007). A framework for the delivery of cognitive behaviour therapy in the educational psychology context. *Educational & Child Psychology*, 24(1), 19-35.

Hall, N. (2012). Therapeutic approaches. Unpublished. Hall, N. (2012). Risk assessment template. Unpublished.

Heimberg, R. G. & Becker, R. E. (2002). Cognitive-behavioral group therapy for social phobia. Basic mechanisms and clinical strategies. The Guilford Press.

HM Government (2011). No health without mental health. A cross-government mental health outcomes strategy for people of all ages. Available from www.dh.gov.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

HM Government (2011). No health without mental health. Talking therapies, the 4-year plan. Available from www.dh.gov.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

HM Government (2011). No health without mental health. The economic case. Available from www.dh.gov.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Humphrey, N. & Brooks, A. G. (2006). An evaluation of a short cognitive anger-management intervention for pupils at risk of exclusion. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 11, 5-23.

Jacqueline, M. L. & Margo, T. (2005). Group cognitive-behavior therapy with family involvement for middle-school-age children with obsessive-compulsive disorder: a pilot study. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*, 36(1), 113-127.

James, A., Soler, A. & Weatherall, R. (2007). Cognitive behavioural therapy for anxiety disorders in children and adolescents. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, Issue 4.

Jelalian, E., Mehlenbeck, R., Richardson, E., Birmaher, V., & Wing, R. R. (2006). Adventure therapy combined with cognitive behavioral treatment for overweight adolescents. *International Journal of Obesity*, 30, 31–39.

Joughin, C. and Shaw, M. (2000). *Finding the Evidence: a gateway to the literature in child and adolescent mental health*. London: Gaskell Press.

Kaminer, Y. (2005). Challenges and opportunities of group therapy for adolescent substance abuse: a critical review. *Addictive Behaviors*, 30, 1765-1774.

Kendall, P. C. & Hollon, S. D. (Eds.) (1979). *Cognitive-behavioural interventions: Theory, research and procedures*. New York: Academic Press.

Kendall, P. C., Choudhury, M. S., Hudson, J. L., & Webb, A. (2002). *The C.A.T. project manual: Manual for the individual cognitive behavioural treatment of adolescents with anxiety disorders*. Ardmore, PA: Workbook Publishing Inc.

Klein, J. B., Jacobs, R. H. & Reinecke, M. A. (2007). Cognitive-behavioral therapy for adolescent depression: a meta-analytic investigation of changes in effect-size estimates. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 46, 1403–1413.

Layard, R., Clark, D., Knapp, M. & Mayraz, G. (2007). Cost-benefit analysis of psychological therapy. London: The Centre for Economic Performance.

Leadbetter, J. (2011). An overview of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy and its implications for EP practice. Unpublished.

Lewinsohn, P. M., Shankman, S. A., Gau, J. M., & Klein, D. N. (2004). The prevalence and co-morbidity of sub-threshold psychiatric conditions. *Psychological Medicine*, 34, 613–622.

MacKay, T. (2007). Educational psychology: The fall and rise of therapy. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 24 (1), 7-18.

Muris, P., Meesters, C. & van Melick, M. (2002). Treatment of childhood anxiety disorders. A preliminary comparison between cognitive-behavioral group therapy and a psychological placebo intervention. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, 33, 143–158.

O'Connor, C., Small, S. A. & Cooney, S. M. (2007). Program fidelity and adaptation: Meeting local needs without compromising program effectiveness. What works Wisconsin – research to practice series, issue 4. Available from www.uwex.edu [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Office for Standards in Education (2011). School inspection report. Available from www.ofsted.gov.uk [Accessed 12-SEP-2011].

Prochaska, J., Norcross, J. & Diclemente, C. (2006). Changing for good. Available from www.positiveworkplace.com [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Pugh, J. (2010). Cognitive behaviour therapy in schools: the role of educational psychology in the dissemination of empirically supported interventions. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 26(4), 391–399.

Quakley, S., Reynolds, S. and Coker, S. (2004). The effect of cues on young children's abilities to discriminate among thoughts, feelings and behaviours. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 42(3), 343–356.

Rait, S., Monsen, J. J., & Squires, G. (2010). Cognitive Behaviour Therapies and their Implications for Applied Educational Psychology Practice. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 26, 105-122.

Roth, A. D. & Pilling, S. (2007). The competences required to deliver effective cognitive and behavioural therapy for people with depression and with anxiety disorders. Available from www.dh.gov.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Ruffolo, M., & Fischer, D. (2009). Using an evidence-based CBT group intervention model for adolescents with depressive symptoms: lessons learned from a school based adaptation. *Child & Family Social Work*, 14(2), 189-197.

Sauter, F. M., Heyne, D., Michiel Westenberg, P. (2009). Cognitive behavior therapy for anxious adolescents: developmental influences on treatment design and delivery. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 12(4), 310–335.

Seligman, L.D. & Ollendick, T. H. (2011). Cognitive-behavioral therapy for anxiety disorders in youth. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 20, 217-238.

Simons, H. (2001). *Case study research in practice*. London: SAGE.

Sofronoff, K., Attwood, T. & Hinton, S. (2005). A randomised controlled trial of a CBT intervention for anxiety in children with Asperger syndrome. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 46, 1152–1160.

Southam-Gerow, M. A., McLoud, B. D., Brown, R. C., Quinoy, A. M. & Avny, S. B. (2011). Cognitive-behavioral therapy for adolescents. *Encyclopaedia of Adolescence*, 3, 100-108.

Squires, G. & Caddick, K. (2012). Using group Cognitive Behavioural Therapy intervention in school settings with pupils who have externalizing behavioural difficulties: an unexpected result. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 17(1), 25-45.

Squires, G. & Dunsmuir, S. (2011). Embedding Cognitive Behavioural Therapy training in Practice: facilitators and barriers for trainee educational psychologists (TEPs). *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 27(2), 117-132.

Squires, G. (2001). Using cognitive behavioural psychology with groups of pupils to improve self-control of behaviour. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 17(4), 317–35.

Squires, G. (2006). Using CBT in educational settings. Paper presented at the International School Psychology Association 28th Annual Colloquium, Hangzhou, China. Available from www.ispaweb.org [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Squires, G. (2010). Countering the argument that educational psychologists need specific training to use cognitive behavioural therapy. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 4, 279-294.

Stallard, P. (2002). Cognitive behaviour therapy with children and young people: A selective review of key issues. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 30(3), 297–310.

Stallard, P. (2007). Is there anybody out there? The results of the national child focussed CBT survey. Paper presented at the Cognitive Behavioural Therapy with Children and Families conference organised by Association for Child and Mental Health; British Association for Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapies. Available from www.acamh.org.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Sukhodolsky, D. G., Kassinove, H. & Gorman, B. S. (2004) Cognitive-behavioural therapy for anger in children and adolescents: a meta-analysis, *Aggressive & Violent Behaviour*, 9, 247–269.

Tang, T. Z. & DeRubeis, R. J. (1999). Sudden gains and critical sessions in cognitive-behavioral therapy for depression. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 67, 894–904.

The British Psychological Society (2008). Generic professional practice guidelines. Available from www.bps.org.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

The British Psychological Society (2009). Code of ethics and conduct. Available from: www.bps.org.uk [accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Thomas, G. (2011). *How to do your case study*. SAGE.

Toland, J., & Boyle, C. (2008). Applying cognitive behavioural methods to retrain children's attributions for success and failure in learning. *School Psychology International*, 29, 286-302.

Tucker, M., & Oei, T.P.S. (2007). Is group more cost effective than individual cognitive behaviour therapy? The evidence is not solid yet. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, 35, 77–91.

Vickers, B. (2002). Cognitive behaviour therapy for adolescents with psychological disorders: a group treatment programme. *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 7, 249-262.

Whitaker, D. S. (2001). *Using groups to help people*. Routledge.

Williams, M. (1966). Limitations, fantasies, and security operations of beginning group psychotherapists. *International Journal of Group Psychotherapy*, 16(2), 150-62.

Willner, P. (2006). Readiness for cognitive therapy in people with intellectual disabilities. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities*, 19(1), 5–16.

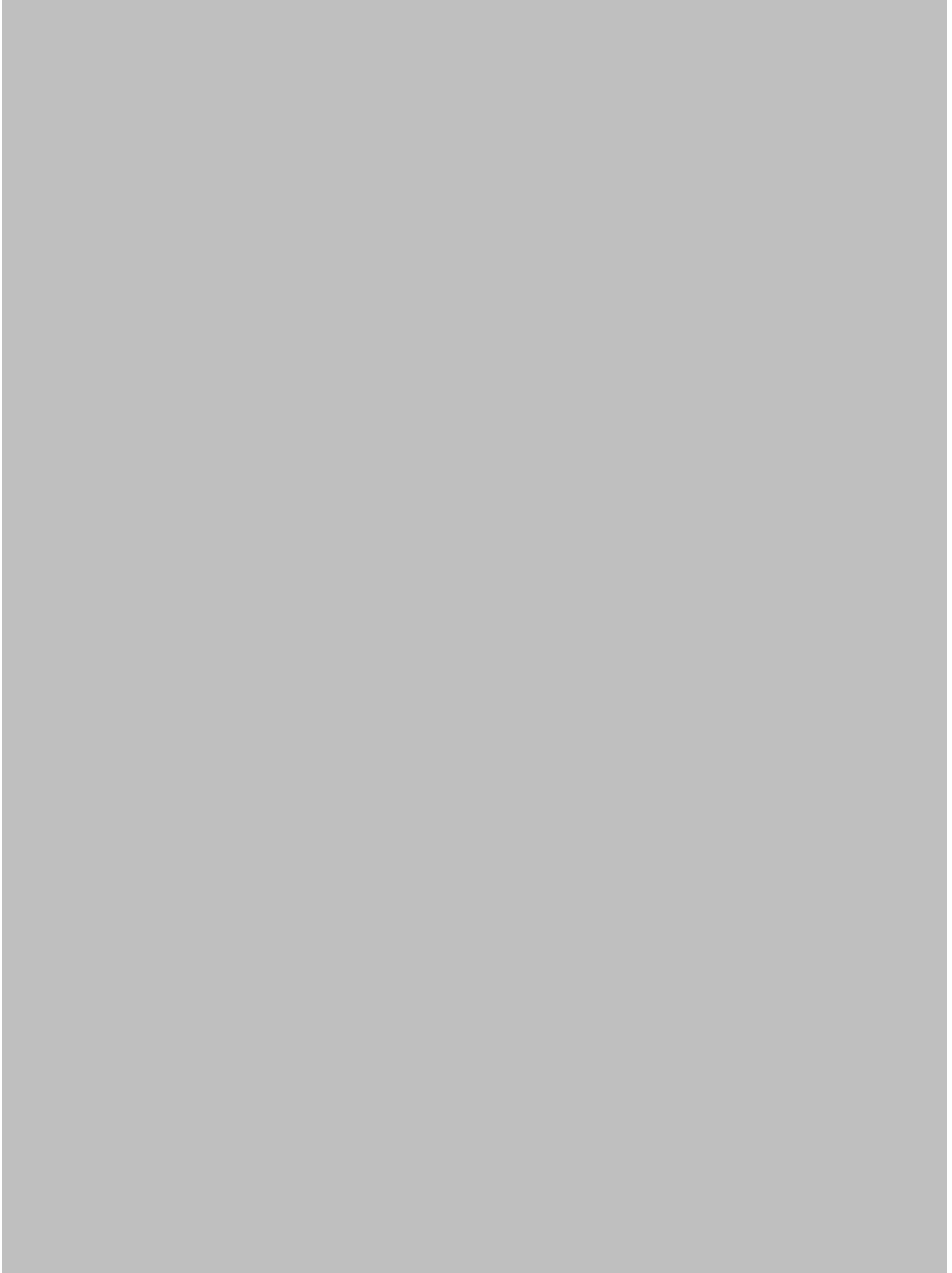
Wolpert, M., Fuggle, P., Cottrell, D., Fonagy, D., Phillips, J., Pilling, S., Stein, S. & Target, M. (2006). Drawing on the evidence. Advice for mental health professionals working with children and adolescents. Available from www.bps.org.uk [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

World Health Organisation (2008). *Global burden of disease report*. Available from www.who.int. [Accessed 24-MAY-2012].

Appendices

Appendix	Content
1	Case formulation template.
2	GCBT ground rules
3	Risk profile template
4	Session-by-session structure and timeline
5	Goal-based outcome measures template
6	Beck Youth Inventory (2nd Edition).

Appendix 1 – case formulation template



Appendix 2 – GCBT ground rules

- To be honest (to 'let it all out!')
- To be polite and respectful to each other, and to listen to what others have to say.
- To treat each other as adults.
- To complete tasks in between sessions.
- To keep what is written and said in the sessions confidential.

Appendix 3 – risk profile template



Appendix 4 – session-by-session structure and timeline

Session	Content	Significant deviations from Squires (2001)
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction • Purpose • Formation of group identity, including expectations and rules • Warm up ('getting to know you') • Target setting • Naming emotions • Preparing pupils to collect emotions (for homework) • Introducing pupils to Beck Youth Inventory (for homework) • Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No group name identified
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction (including reminder of the ground rules) • Warm up (remembering the CBT triangle) • Review of letters / homework • Considering alternatives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Identify situations ○ Identify the thoughts / feelings / actions ○ Identify alternative interpretations ○ Rate strength of feelings • Scale feelings and associated thoughts, behaviours and bodily responses • School situations, to identify alternative thoughts and interpretations • Introduce homework task • Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduced school situations

Session	Content	Significant deviations from Squires (2001)
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction (including reminder of the ground rules) • Warm up: game of claps • Review 1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The ground rules (big sheet). ○ Reflection on experiences to date • Review 2 - Targets / motivation (TME, print out letters) • Review 3 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reminder on the CBT triangle ○ Exercise with situation A: thoughts / feelings / behaviours associated with... ○ Exercise with situation B: thoughts / feelings / behaviours associated with... ○ Exercise with situation C: thoughts / feelings / behaviours associated with.... • Identify the vicious circles • Review diary 2 / introduce homework task • Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Delayed progress onto automatic / hot thoughts • Revisited earlier elements of the programme
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction (including reminder of the ground rules) • Warm up: game of 21s • Update on highlights / lowlights • Introduce automatic thoughts / hot thoughts • Seeking out supportive evidence • Identify thinking errors • Estimate what others think of them, and why they might want to change • Interim evaluation • Introduce homework task • Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Included exercises on thinking errors, the views of others and an interim evaluation
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction (including reminder of the ground rules) • Warm up: game of look up look down • Update on highlights / lowlights • Review 1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reminder on the CBT triangle • Discuss thinking errors outcome • Introduce core beliefs • Reflection on experiences to date • Introduce homework task • Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Included a review on thinking errors • Introduced core beliefs • Excluded the review of experiments and sharing of experiences, physiology of emotions and approaches to managing anger

Session	Content	Significant deviations from Squires (2001)
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction (including reminder of the ground rules) • Warm up: game of bunnies • Update on highlights / lowlights • Investigate the impact of context on behaviour • Review 1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reminder on the CBT triangle ○ Key learning to take away • Focus on the change <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Review targets / update on progress ○ Estimate the wish to change ○ Establish what the students are prepared to do • SVC commitments <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teacher comments. ○ Identify ways to be treated differently. ○ Identify information to share in the debrief. • Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excluded the approaches to managing anxiety

Month	Week	Expected	Actual
Oct-11	1	Planning	Planning
	2		
	3		
	4		
Nov-11	1	Preparation	Preparation
	2		
	3	Session 1	Session 1
	4		
Dec-11	1	Session 2	Session 2
	2		
	3		
	4		
Jan-12	1	Session 3	Session 3
	2		
	3	Session 4	
	4		
Feb-12	1	Session 5	Session 4
	2		
	3	Session 6	
	4		
Mar-12	1		Session 5
	2		
	3		
	4		
Apr-12	1		
	2		
	3		
	4		
May-12	1		
	2		
	3		
	4		
Jun-12	1		Session 6
	2		
	3		
	4		

Appendix 5 – goal-based outcome measures template

Measuring success

Re:

DOB:

Setting:

NC Year:

CEP

COP:

Initial date

Review date:

(1) Area to work on				
Baseline:				
Expected				
Achieved				
Progress rating (negotiated)				
-2	-1	0	+1	+2
Deterioration / further action as a priority	No progress / Monitor closely or take further action	Expected progress / monitor or nfa	Improvement / nfa	Significant improvement / nfa

(2) Area to work on				
Baseline:				
Expected				
Achieved				
Progress rating (negotiated)				
-2	-1	0	+1	+2

Deterioration / further action as a priority	No progress / Monitor closely or take further action	Expected progress / monitor or nfa	Improvement / nfa	Significant improvement / nfa
---	---	---	------------------------------	--

(3) Area to work on				
Baseline:				
Expected				
Achieved				
Progress rating (negotiated)				
-2	-1	0	+1	+2
Deterioration / further action as a priority	No progress / Monitor closely or take further action	Expected progress / monitor or nfa	Improvement / nfa	Significant improvement / nfa

Appendix 6 – Beck Youth Inventory (2nd Edition)

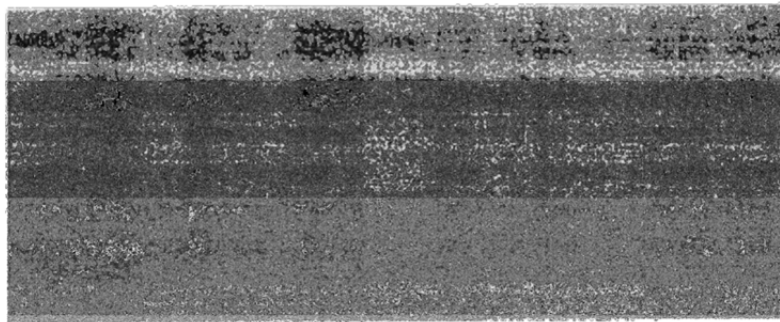
BECK Youth

SECOND EDITION
for children and adolescents

Combination Booklet

Please read instructions at the top of each inside page.

Background Information	
Name: _____	Date of Birth: _____
Today's Date: _____	Location: _____
Sex: <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Male	Grade: _____ ID: _____
Parent/Guardian Name: _____	



PsychCorp
The Experts on Youth Assessment

Copyright © 2009 by Pearson Assessment, Inc. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage or retrieval system, without prior written permission from Pearson Assessment, Inc.



CHAPTER 3

REJECTING THE DIDACTIC WAY – IMPLEMENTATING A PRECISION TEACHING APPROACH WITH TEACHING ASSISTANTS

by

TOM HUGHES

A professional practice report submitted to the University of Birmingham for
The Applied Educational and Child Psychology Doctorate programme.

College of Social Sciences
School of Education
University of Birmingham
B15 2TT
May 2013

6,486 words

Abstract

Teaching Assistants (TAs), in ever greater numbers, are operating in increasingly pedagogical roles with a particular focus on leading interventions. Using a multiple case study design, this paper reports on the training of 46 TAs across 4 schools to implement a Precision Teaching (PT) programme with students in their schools. The TA training was delivered over 3 sessions with an emphasis on an experiential, collaborative experience in a reflective, job-relevant environment.

31 of the 46 TAs attended all 3 sessions, and 30% of the TAs completed all the homework requirements between the sessions. The TAs indicated there was a 5-point increase in their level of confidence regarding PT following the training, although in one school this was not matched by a confidence that the TAs would be able to implement a PT programme. Data collected from 3 schools suggested that 19 TAs were actively using a PT programme (68% of those TAs that completed all the training), with 52 students. On average, the students had received 25 PT sessions over a 10-week period (an implementation rate of 54%). The students had learnt new words at a rate of 4 words every 5 sessions.

The implications of these findings for EP practice are discussed, as are other factors deemed central to the implementation and success of a PT programme.

Introduction

A local priority in the host county's Narrowing the Gap strategy is to support the progress of communication and language skills. Low literacy levels are one of the factors identified within The National Strategies (Department for Education; DfE, 2010) as most

influential in sustaining the social and economic inequality gap evident in the UK. The strategy defines a number of initiatives aimed to support communication and language skill development, and one of the measures of success is defined as an improvement in Key Stage 1 reading outcomes.

PT supports the development of reading and this study reports on its introduction in 4 schools. 3 of the schools are from a large shire county in the East of England, and 1 of the schools is in a shire county in the Midlands. In each of the schools, I was the assigned (Doctoral Trainee) Educational Psychologist (EP), with a remit to improve outcomes for all children, but particularly those from disadvantaged or vulnerable groups (DfE, 2011). One of the roles of EPs is to build capacity in schools (Farrell et al., 2006), and this approach to training TAs in the schools rested on adult learning theories that emphasise the importance of a collaborative, experiential approach to developing knowledge.

The literature review details the changing role of TAs in school, and the evidence for introducing PT to support reading development. Important considerations in the delivery of continuing professional development (CPD) are outlined. A comprehensive 5-level model of training evaluation is also detailed, as this forms the basis for how the outcome of the training was measured in each school.

Literature review

The role of Teaching Assistants

TAs are members of support staff who undertake classroom-based positions (Blatchford et al., 2011). Through the first decade of this century there was a 72%

increase in the number of TAs working in schools in England (DfE, 2011). The workforce reforms contained in the 2003 National Agreement (Walker et al., 2011), the increased number of children with special educational needs (SEN) in mainstream schools (Farrell et al., 2000) and the introduction of The National Strategies (Blatchford et al., 2009) have all been cited as reasons for this increase.

As more TAs have been employed, they have increasingly assumed a pedagogical role in the classroom (Groom, 2006), interacting predominantly with children with SEN (Blatchford, 2013). Operating in this instructional capacity (Gerber et al., 2001), TAs are called upon to make ‘moment-by-moment pedagogical decision[s]’ (Blatchford, 2013; p. 51).

More recently, and of concern, a longitudinal study considering the deployment and impact of support staff (The ‘Deployment and impact of school staff project [DISS]’; Blatchford et al., 2009) concluded that there was a consistent negative relationship between the amount of support a pupil received and the progress they made in literacy and numeracy. Various potential confounds were controlled for, and the authors concluded that ‘the more support pupils received..., the less progress made’ (p. 8).

However, a follow up project to DISS (The Effective Deployment of TAs; Blatchford et al., 2009) found that TAs are more likely to have a positive effect when leading interventions. As argued by Alborz et al. (2009), TAs are only in a position to deliver such interventions if they are appropriately prepared and trained. Unsurprisingly, professional development of support staff is essential to their effective deployment (The Teacher Development Agency; TDA, 2012), and Kerry (2005) argues that there is a positive relationship between the amount of training a TA receives and their effectiveness.

Precision Teaching

PT is the type of intervention that Blatchford et al. (2009) indicate TAs are well positioned to deliver. Contrary to its name, PT is not a teaching method, but a systematic approach to evaluating teaching methods (West and Young, 1992). The information gathered allows educators to make informed instructional decisions (White, 1986).

PT has its roots in behavioural psychology (Lindsley, 1991). Utilising rate of response as a measure of performance (Cihon, 2007), PT enables behaviour to be shaped by environmental stimuli (operant conditioning; Skinner, 1993).

PT aims to achieve accuracy and fluency (Lindsley, 1992) in the pursuit of mastery. Fluency is expected to result in retention of information, endurance (performance over time; Binder et al., 1995), stability (maintenance of performance in the presence of distractors; Lindsley, 1990) and application of skills and knowledge (Fabrizio and Moors, 2003). PT rests on four foundational principles (Hughes et al., 2007):

- The student knows best.
- Focus on observable behaviours.
- Use frequency measures to monitor performance.
- Use a standard graphical display.

Analysis completed by Freedman (2013) indicates that there have been five studies published that have measured the efficacy of PT with reference to academic outcomes in the UK. The studies are summarised below:

Authors	Year	Design and methodology	Overall weight of evidence (Freedman, 2013) using Gough's (2007) 'weight of evidence' framework.	Key findings	Methodological critique
Chiesa and Robertson	2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A quasi-experimental between subjects design. 5 participants in the PT group (taught at the start, and then supported 30 minutes per week) completed a 12-week daily PT intervention. The rest of the class (20) acted as a control group. The time engaged in the maths problems was controlled for. 	Medium.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The PT group experienced significant gains in the target division skill (effect size 0.84). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No random allocation to groups. 'No intervention' was used for the control group.

Authors	Year	Design and methodology	Overall weight of evidence (Freedman, 2013) using Gough's (2007) 'weight of evidence' framework.	Key findings	Methodological critique
Gallagher	2006	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A quasi-experimental between subjects design. Introduced a 12-week daily PT intervention (12 participants), implemented in class without adult supervision. The control group (15 participants) worked on related maths tasks. 	Medium.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The PT group experienced significant gains in fluency and accuracy on a target multiplication skill. Pre- and post-intervention scores showed a large effect size of 0.5 for the PT group. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No random allocation to groups. No statistical analysis was completed to show the groups started at a comparable level. 'No intervention' was used for the control group.
Downer	2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A within subject pre-test / post-test design. 47 participants from 7 schools involved. The PT intervention was run by 16 TAs, 4 minutes per day for 26 weeks. 	Low.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The PT intervention led to increases in reading skills across all age groups. There were significant differences in pre-test / post-test scores for Y1, 2, 4, 7 and 8, but not Y3, 5 and 6. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No comparison group.

Authors	Year	Design and methodology	Overall weight of evidence (Freedman, 2013) using Gough's (2007) 'weight of evidence' framework.	Key findings	Methodological critique
Hughes et al.	2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single subject design. • 10-week (20 minute sessions, 3 – 4 times a week) PT intervention designed to increase the accurate word reading frequency of 7 pupils. • 5 participants in the PT group (frequency-building exercises). • 2 participants acted as controls (1:1 reading support). 	Medium.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The reading frequency of the selected words of all 5 participants in the PT group improved. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Failed to test for differences between the pre- and post-intervention measures.
Roberts and Norwich	2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Randomised between participants block design. • Introduced two separate PT interventions (to 77 participants), delivered by TAs on a daily basis for 6 weeks. • Used a waitlist control and established control group equivalence. 	Medium.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The 2nd cohort improved accurate word reading (post-intervention effect size 0.15), possibly due to changes in TA practice. • The improvements continued sometime after PT finished. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did not have an active comparison group.

Table 1: Published PT studies in the UK.

Freedman (2013) concluded that PT was found to be an effective technique in all five studies, but that care needed to be taken when interpreting the results, due to the lack of consistent use of standardised measures, alternative intervention groups as an active control, adequate matching of control groups and the small sample sizes. Further, there was significant variability in how the TAs were prepared to deliver the interventions. At one end of the spectrum, the TAs attended two sessions, received group support sessions and were observed multiple times (Roberts and Norwich, 2010), whereas there was no reference to any training or monitoring in the Hughes et al. (2007) study.

Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Professional development includes ‘any activity that increases the skills, understanding, experience, knowledge and effectiveness of teachers and others working in school’ (Groom, 2006; p. 202). Guskey (2000) argues that professional development must be intentional, ongoing and systematic, and that the following principles must be observed:

- There is a clear focus on learning and learners.
- There is an emphasis on individual and organisational change.
- Small, incremental changes are guided by a grander vision.
- CPD is procedurally embedded.

It has been argued that effective CPD leads to two central benefits:

Benefits associated with CPD	Author
It raises standards in schools and improves the quality of teaching.	Craft (2000), Harris (2002), Office of Standards in Education (Ofsted, 2006)
It is an essential component of successful school-level change and development.	(Day, 1999), Hargreaves (1994)

Table 2: Benefits associated with CPD.

So central is CPD to enabling change, Guskey (2000) argued that notable improvements in education never take place in the absence of professional development. This led to Guskey and Sparks (2004) developing a model to link professional development to improved student outcomes. The model details factors that drive the quality of the professional development and the subsequent impact on teachers, administrators and policies. Alongside the role of parents, these factors influence student learning. It should be noted that although evidence is cited supporting the model (based on data gathered by Killion, 1999), it is not clear whether some of the relationships are correlational rather than causal.

Various authors have outlined additional contextual influences on the effectiveness of CPD, including the alignment between CPD, school and individual needs (Goodall et al., 2005) and its location, timing and the facilitators (Kavak et al., 2012). Farrell et al. (2000) suggested that EPs can play a key role in the development of support staff roles, especially as the systemic involvement of EPs becomes more commonplace (Cameron, 2006). Balchin et al. (2006) argue that the activity of EPs in this arena draws on a number of psychological approaches:

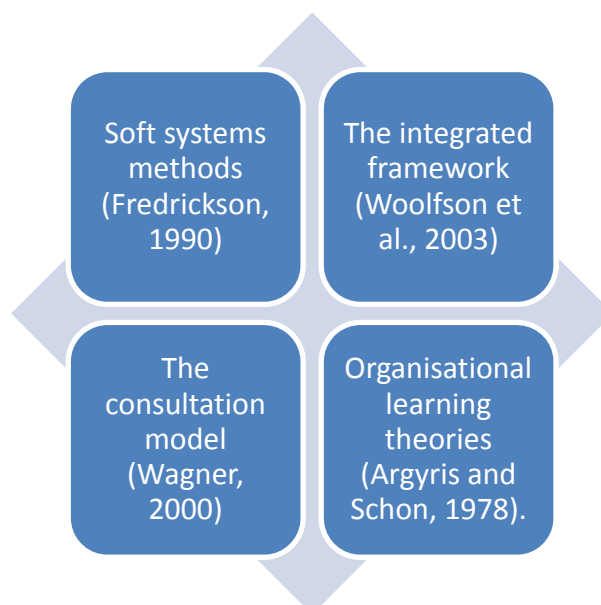


Figure 1: Psychological grounding for the coach consult model (Balchin et al., 2006).

The learning models shaping CPD

Traditionally, CPD has comprised didactic (Bruder et al., 2009) or 'course-led' (Goodall et al., 2005) delivery through presentations, workshops and lectures (Bruder et al., 2010). Researchers interested in andragogy (theories of adult learning; Knowles, 2004) would argue that such an approach is unsuited to the characteristics of adult learners, which include independence and self-direction and a desire to use experience frequently and apply knowledge immediately. Understanding the views on CPD of 1,000 US teachers led Garet et al. (2001) to conclude 'it was more important to focus on the duration, collective participation and the core features (content, active learning and coherence) than type' of learning (p. 936).

Adult learning theories (such as Merriam et al., 2001) generally concur that there are a range of features important for adult learning to be effective. These include for it to be experiential, collaborative, supportive, job-relevant and structured. These features are investigated below.

Feature	Theoretical grounding	Rationale / evidence	Implications
Experiential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Constructivist paradigms where learning represents the construction of knowledge as meaning is generated from experiences. The mediation of learning through engagement with particular resources, actions and actors that are culturally meaningful (Vygotsky, 2004). 'What we have to learn to do we learn by doing' (Aristotle). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Passive types of training are unlikely to change or improve their practices (Sexton et al., 1996). Rose and Church (1998) reviewed 49 studies and found no evidence to suggest that didactic instruction alone produced changes in teacher performance. Active learning allows individuals to reach new understandings through direct actions on objects, (Hohmann and Weikart, 1995). Active learner participation in acquiring new knowledge or learning new practices was associated with the most positive changes in learner outcomes (Trivette et al., 2009). Active involvement in training positively influences learning and behaviour (Higgins, 2009). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A focus on active learner participation / exercises, role-plays, and real-life opportunities. Hattie (1999) sees 'active learning' lessons as usually containing the following elements: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reviews of previous learning. Demonstrations and practice. Between session 'homework'. Utilising demonstrations (Dunst and Raab, 2010) and modelling (Joyce and Showers, 1980).

Feature	Theoretical grounding	Rationale / evidence	Implications
Collaborative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socio-cognitive paradigms, where learning is seen as embedded within a social context (Niemi, 2002). • Stenhouse (1975; p. 159): 'mutually supportive co-operative research'. • Lave and Wenger's theory of situated learning (1991), where social elements are recognised as important in the construction of knowledge. • Learning is enabled through communities of learners (Noffke and Somekh, 2010) and communities of practice (Altrichter et al., 2008). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ofsted (2006) reported that teaching staff often find the opportunity to engage in collaborative CPD activities useful, particularly as a tool for sharing good practice. • Creating a collaborative professional learning environment for teachers is the 'single most important factor' for successful school improvement and the 'first order of business for those seeking to enhance the effectiveness of teaching and learning' (Eastwood and Louis, 1992; p. 215). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities should be sought for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Professional discussion (Goodall et al., 2005). ○ The description of professional experiences and interpretations (Fullan and Connelly, 1990). ○ Confirmation / reassurance from peers (Higgins, 2009). ○ Joint problem solving (Merriam et al., 2001).

Feature	Theoretical grounding	Rationale / evidence	Implications
The supportive provision of feedback and coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Behaviourism, as consequences and outcomes influence behaviour (Skinner, 1993). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feedback emerged as the variable producing the strongest training effect (Rose and Church, 1998). One of the factors Scheeler (2008) identified as highly likely to support sustainability of teaching techniques was providing immediate feedback for acquisition of new behaviour. Coaching is a 'method of transferring skills and expertise from more experienced and knowledgeable practitioners.... to less experienced ones' (Hargreaves and Dawe, 1990; p. 230). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Opportunities should be sought to provide: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support and feedback on practice (Leach and Conto, 1999). Coaching (Leat et al., 2006).

Feature	Theoretical grounding	Rationale / evidence	Implications
Job-relevant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), which affects the degree to which: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The trainee believes that their efforts will result in actual learning. Learning can be transferred back to job. Application of new skills and knowledge is directly linked to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Application of new skills and knowledge can indeed lead to enhanced individual and/or organisational performance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective approaches start from practical questions arising from everyday professional practice (Altrichter et al., 2008). Professional development must be embedded in the job that it is relevant to in order to achieve optimal benefits (Croft et al., 2010). Participants' involvement in real-life application of the practices was associated with the most positive learner benefits (Dunst et al., 1988). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Root the professional development in practice (Croft et al., 2010). Consider options to include systematic efforts to generalise learning into practice (Scheeler et al., 2009).
Structured approach to research and practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reflective rationality (Schon, 1983), which places learning in a dynamic learning culture. Jarvis' (2006) model of human learning suggests that learning takes place as part of an iterative process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Research and practice have a reciprocal, recursive and symbiotic relationship (Noffke and Somekh, 2010). Research as involving 'the capacity to make disciplined inquiries' (Appadurai, 2006; p. 167). The iterative process of training positively influences learning and behaviour (Higgins, 2009). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Just-in-time training is delivered on an 'as needed' basis (Davis, 2005). Progress through a spiral-like process, comprising steps related to planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Kember, 2000). The progress may be disordered (Cook, 1998).

Table 3: Features important to effective adult learning.

Various studies evidence the collective value of the features outlined above. Many of the features are evident in collaborative action research, which is defined as a (group-based) 'systematic inquiry... for the purpose of gathering data about how their particular schools operate, how they teach and how students learn' (Mills, 2003). Ross et al. (1998) randomly assigned teachers from 23 classes into two conditions: a skills training condition, where the participants were exposed to 3 expert-led workshops, and a collaborative action research condition, where the participants engaged in repeated cycles of action research punctuated by collaborative, professional-led sessions. Pre- and post-test student surveys and interviews indicated that, via changes in teacher practice, the action research condition made a more positive contribution to student attitudes than the skills training condition. The limitations of the study relate to the difficulty of controlling the structure and content of the sessions.

A collection of UK-based EPs, Balchin et al. (2006), published research supporting their 'coach consult method' of professional development. The method aims to 'combine the best of project working and in-service training to address the needs for sustainability and problem ownership in school' (p. 240), and shares a number of the features outlined above. They introduced a 10-session approach across 4 schools in an attempt to change practice. The tiered evaluation model evidenced improvements in the skills and confidence of the teachers, and that the changes had been maintained (and built upon). The Head teachers in the schools believed the method represented a valuable source of CPD for the teachers, and was a way of embedding change in the school.

Whilst there are methodological drawbacks, not least the absence of a control group, the finding support the deployment of the adult learning features outlined in Table 3.

Evaluating CPD

CPD decisions are based on evaluative conclusions drawn from a programme. Guskey (2000) defines evaluation as a systematic investigation of merit or worth. The majority of the CPD that is evaluated in the UK's schools relates to CPD for teachers, rather than TAs (the Walker et al., 2011 review is a good example). On a number of occasions, however, TAs have been trained to implement interventions:

Study	TA training completed	Outcomes
Bowyer-Crane et al. (2008) compared the efficacy of two school-based intervention programmes for children with poor oral language.	The TAs received 4 days of training before the intervention and 1 day mid-way through. They were also supported in fortnightly group tutorials, observed once teaching to assess fidelity, when they also received feedback.	Children in the intervention group progressed in their oral language skills (relative to the other group).
Hatcher et al. (2006) considered the efficacy of a small group reading intervention for beginning readers with reading-delay.	The TAs received 4 days of training in how to deliver the programme. During the period of intervention they were supported by 10 tutorials conducted fortnightly.	The intervention group made significantly more progress on the selected measures than children not receiving the intervention.
Savage and Carless (2004) considered whether TA training (in administering phonological awareness tasks) and screening can provide valid additional information for a school's literacy planning.	TAs were given a morning's training on the use of phonological tests and explicit instructions on how to monitor them.	The TAs were able to administer the tests and support school literacy planning.

Table 4: TA led interventions.

Whilst these studies have no true random allocation (Savage and Carless, 2004) or no non-treatment control group (Bowyer-Crane et al., 2008), they illustrate that CPD opportunities for TAs may enable them to deliver interventions effectively in schools.

Evaluation on TA training generally produces mixed results. It seems CPD opportunities for TAs influence confidence (Abbott et al., 2011), visibility and awareness of the TA

role (Devecchi and Rouse, 2010). The DISS project found that overall TA satisfaction with training was high (Blatchford et al., 2009).

However, Russell et al. (2005) suggested TA training was patchy and not extensively taken up. Other studies have indicated that TAs are dissatisfied with their training opportunities and that they failed to improve outcomes for students (Bubb et al., 2008; Teeman et al., 2009). This is attributed to a lack of recognition of the changing needs of TAs (Butt and Lance, 2009), that left TAs feeling underprepared and reactive in the classroom (Blatchford et al., 2009).

More widely in schools, CPD has been found to be inconsistent and unevenly distributed (Storey, 2009), and variable in its quality (Harris and Busher, 2000). CPD is rarely subject-specific (Ofsted, 2006) which fails to satisfy the need for content knowledge (Garet et al., 2001). Perhaps more of a concern, CPD may be divorced from the school context (Ross et al., 1998) with little generalisation out of the training sessions (Scruggs and Mastropieri, 1994).

Walker et al. (2011) indicated that many schools could do more to strengthen their evaluation of CPD. As stated by Ofsted (2010), 'the weakest aspect of CPD was the extent to which schools evaluated its impact and value for money' (p. 5). Guskey (2000) contends that evaluation often lacks depth and longevity. Evaluation that was completed tended to focus on participant satisfaction (it was 'always' evaluated in over 35% of schools surveyed by Goodall et al., 2005).

In response to difficulties evaluating CPD, and in an attempt to reflect the multi-factorial outcomes of CPD, more sophisticated evaluative approaches have been outlined (Goodall et al., 2005). In 1971, Stufflebeam detailed that evaluation activities should be

transparent, meaningful and sensitive, and a generation of taxonomies of evaluation have emerged to that end. Guskey (2000) recommended the use of 5 hierarchically arranged levels of evaluation to reflect the increasing complexity and resource requirements of each level.

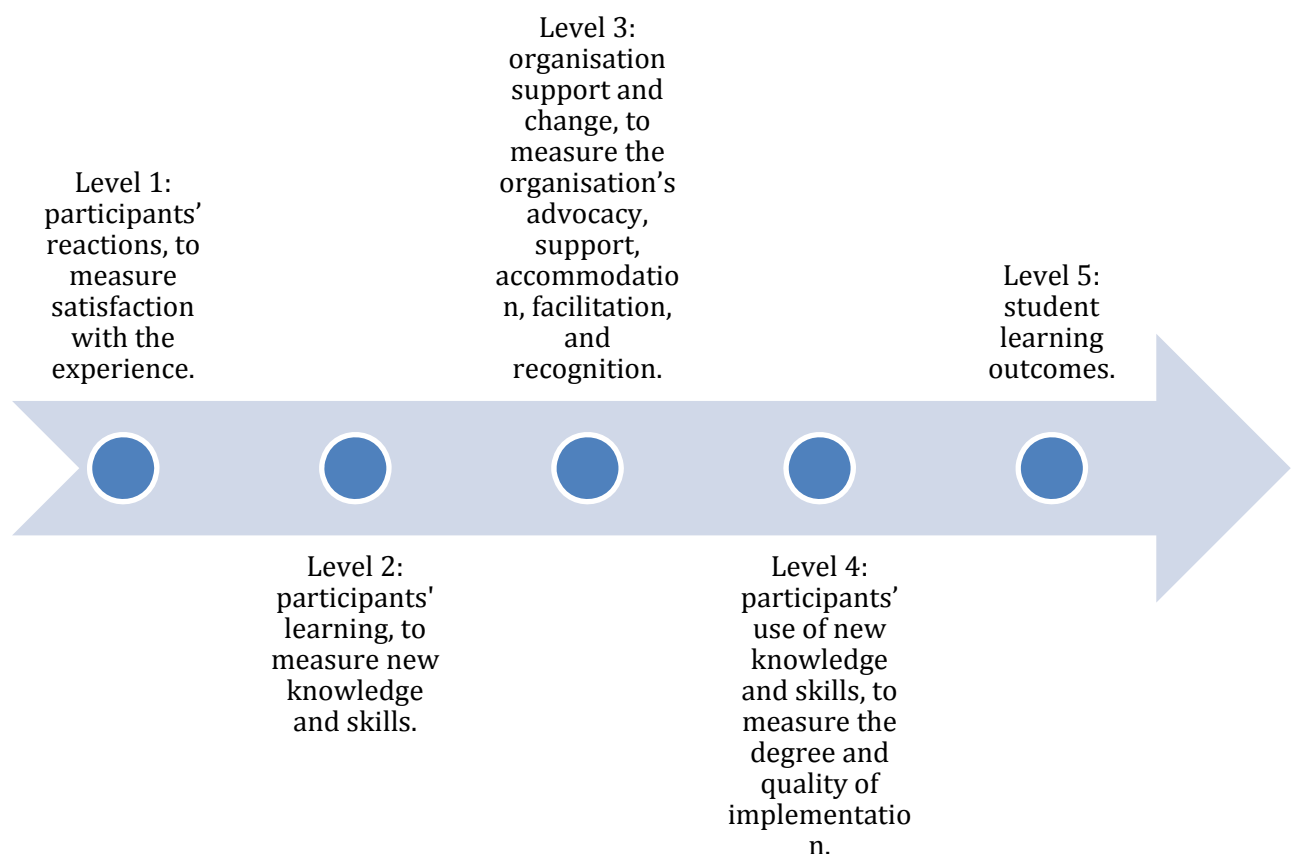


Figure 2: A 5-level model of evaluation (Guskey, 2000).

The predominant critique of such models relates to the implied causal and progressive relationships between the levels, which have not always been demonstrated (Alliger and Janak, 1989). Even if demonstrated, they are likely to be far more complex than such a linear model suggests. There seems a good possibility, for example, that organisational factors (at level 3) may impact the reaction of the participants to the experience (at level 1), yet the model fails to reflect this bi-directionality.

Method

This aim of this evaluative study was to train TAs to implement a PT programme to support the reading development of students. The training of the TAs utilised the features deemed important to effective adult learning (Table 3) to introduce PT. Evaluation of the success of the intervention was based on the 5-level model of evaluation (Guskey, 2000).

Epistemological stance

Quantitative data collection methods were largely relied on in this study, reflecting an objectivist epistemology and a positivist theoretical stance. The objectivist epistemology holds that things exist as meaningful entities independently of consciousness and experience (Crotty, 1994). The positivist theoretical stance therefore contends that quantifiable generalisations can be made within the physical world, based on a logical process of deduction.

This stance enables ‘decisions about approaches [to] be based upon systematic knowledge of intervention outcomes rather than unsubstantiated judgement’ (Larney, 2003; p. 53). In EP practice, Dunsmuir et al. (2009) support the introduction of metrics that ‘define outcomes that are measurable’ (p. 54) through “hard’ data’ (p. 54).

The central concern with adopting this stance is that the quantitative approach is ‘reductionist in nature, focusing only on outcomes that are measurable’ (Turner et al. 2010; p. 315). It is argued that such measures fail to encapsulate the complexities of inherently social processes at work, as a scientific paradigm is applied to ‘soft systems’. Indeed, this approach fails to acknowledge that social phenomena (of which the training of TAs and student improvement in reading are examples) exists not ‘out there’ (and

objectively) but in the minds of people and their interpretations. The argument follows that reality can only be defined subjectively, as an interpreted social action, and that it is impossible to neutralise the researcher and achieve objectivity (Cohen et al., 2003).

Design

Small scale case work has illuminative potential (Thomas, 2006) as part of a descriptive approach to research (De Vaus, 2001). Accordingly, this study adopts a multiple case study design, with each school (as an object) representing a case in the study (Ragin and Becker, 1992).

The strength of such a design is in the recognition of the context, and how events and behaviour are understood (De Vaus, 2001). Case studies aim to provide idiographic explanations of situations (De Vaus, 2001), in that they attempt to develop as complete an explanation of each case as possible. Thomas (2001) contends that case study design forces researchers to drill down into the cases to create a three dimensional picture to analyse. In completing an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives (Simons, 2009), case studies aim to chase out the abstract in favour of the specific (Evans, 2000).

Population

Based on the logic of replication, a multiple case design is recognised as more compelling than a single case design (De Vaus, 2001). This study reports on training TAs to implement PT programmes in 4 schools. Each of the 4 schools had defined a school-wide priority to improve reading, and the benefits of implementing a PT programme were discussed during one of the termly school planning meetings (Gemmell et al., 2003). Details of the schools and the participants from the schools are outlined below:

School	Type of school (age of pupils)	Number of pupils in the school	Most recent Ofsted report	Training completion date	Number of TAs at initial training session
BFS	Primary (5 – 9)	109	‘Outstanding’ (Jan 2011)	July 2011	6
PPS	Primary (4 – 11)	289	‘Good’ (Jun 2012)	March 2012	21
OPS	Primary (4 – 11)	272	‘Good’ (Mar 2013)	April 2012	9
BHPS	Primary (4 – 11)	269	‘Good’ (Dec 2008)	January 2013	10

Table 5: School information.

The intervention

As part of the preparation for the training, a planning meeting was conducted with the Head and SEN coordinator in each of the schools. The focus of the planning meeting was to ensure facilitative structures (such as the protection of time to attend the training and practice in between sessions) were in place. In addition, a short session was conducted with the teachers in each of the schools, to ensure they understood PT and the support they would need to provide the TAs (sample materials are included in Appendix A). After the training of the TAs was completed, a review meeting was conducted with the Head and SEN coordinator in each of the schools (sample materials are included in Appendix B). The focus of the review meeting was to share the evaluative data and discuss plans to embed the approach in everyday practice.

The training of the TAs took place over 3 sessions, as training opportunities are likely to be most effective if they include multiple learning experiences (Trivette et al., 2009). The 3 sessions had at least 4 weeks in between them, to ensure time for the homework to be completed. The session structure and content is outlined below, with a sample set of materials contained in Appendices C, D and E:

Session	Content	Homework before next session
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to PT. • The PT sequence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The TAs were asked to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Select a child to work with. ○ Complete a placement probe. ○ Choose and populate a teaching probe. ○ Complete at least 3 days of teaching and then assessing using the teaching probe. ○ Start to create a pack of PT resources.
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of learning. • Review of activities completed since last time. • Charting. • Assessing progress against the aim rate. • Introduction to 8 common problems with PT. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The TAs were asked to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Select a child to work with. ○ Complete a placement probe. ○ Choose and populate a teaching probe. ○ Complete at least 5 days of teaching, testing and then charting. ○ Come back prepared with some thoughts on next steps for that child and their PT programme.
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of learning. • Review of activities completed since last time. • Monitoring PT. • Reflection and evaluation. 	

Table 6: Training overview.

The PT sequence was modelled on the 5 basic steps comprising PT outlined by Solity and Bull (1987). The features deemed important to effective adult learning were satisfied through various features of the training:

Feature	Relevant elements of the training sessions
Experiential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exercises. • Role-plays. • Quizzes. • Reviews of previous learning. • Demonstrations and modelling. • Between session 'homework' for practice.

Feature	Relevant elements of the training sessions
Collaborative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional discussion. Confirmation / reassurance from peers. Joint problem solving.
The supportive provision of feedback and coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Performance in exercises, role-plays and quizzes and the between session 'homework' was reviewed to provide feedback and coaching.
Job-relevant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The content was checked for understanding and relevance to the classroom context. The content and the teaching approaches were based on existing teaching practice related to reading development. The between session 'homework' was completed in the classroom.
Structured approach to research and practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The 3 session structure meant that key components of PT were not delivered all in one go. The between session 'homework' and reviews of learning and activities completed since last time represented steps of planning, acting, observing and reflecting.

Table 7: Steps taken to ensure the effectiveness of the adult learning.

Methods of data collection

According to the 5-level model of evaluation (Guskey, 2000), the largely quantitative data was collected at various stages during and after the implementation of the PT programme.

Level	Data collection
1 (participant's reactions)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attendance data (observation / assessment at sessions). Completion of between session 'homework' (observation / assessment at sessions). Qualitative comments requested on the most and least effective elements of the training (questionnaire completed at the end of session 3).
2 (participants' learning)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-assessment of mastery (Trivette et al., 2009): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questions regarding confidence in PT (pre-training confidence judged through a questionnaire completed prior to session 1, post-training confidence judged through a questionnaire completed after session 3). Questions regarding the elements of PT easy or difficult to understand (questionnaire completed at the end of session 3).

Level	Data collection
3 (organisation support and change)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisational variables that influence the success of the professional development (observation / assessment during the planning meeting, the teacher session and the 3 training sessions).
4 (participants' use of new knowledge and skill)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follow-up data collection template completed by the SEN coordinator between 4 and 22 months (depending on the school) after training. The template requested the following data: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of TAs still at the school. Number of TAs using PT. Number of students that have formed the focus of a PT programme. Start date of the PT programme. End date of the PT programme. Number of the PT sessions included in the programme.
5 (student learning outcomes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follow-up data collection template completed by the SEN coordinator 4 – 22 months (depending on the school) after training. The template requested the following data: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of words learnt by the student. Number of sets of words learnt by the student. Difficulty of words started on. Difficulty of words ended on / currently on.

Table 8: Data collection.

The majority of the data were collected through a questionnaire (Appendix F) and a follow-up (Microsoft Excel) template (Appendix G). These methods of data collection were chosen as:

- They are simple, versatile and cheap to set up and administer (Breakwell et al., 2007).
- They sought data directly from those involved in the training and implementation (Pring, 2004).
- They produced easily analysed data (Lindblom and Cohen, 1979).

The questionnaire design was based on the staged process of questionnaire development (Cohen et al., 2007). The questionnaires included a uni-dimensional

semantic differential scale (Osgood et al., 1957). The interval scale had 10-points, with each end anchored with a descriptive term (such as not confident, very confident).

The data gained through observation / assessment was noted during the relevant sessions, and used to inform the next steps of the implementation. For example, feedback from the TAs within the training sessions was used to inform the review with the Head and SEN coordinator, or the sessions with the teachers. Analysis of this data was completed at the conclusion of each implementation and then summarised for the purposes of this paper.

Ethical considerations

Four key standards from The British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009) were upheld in this study:

Standard	Provision
1.2 - Standard of privacy and confidentiality.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information regarding the participants in the training and the children involved in the PT programme was anonymised following all data collection phases. • Local authority policies related to confidentiality of data and record management were adhered to. These policies ensure that appropriate technical and organisational measures (including the use of passwords on computers and locked filing cabinets) are taken to prevent unauthorised or unlawful access to personal information.
1.3 - Standard of informed consent.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TAs were given ample opportunity to understand the nature, purpose, and anticipated consequences of their participation in the training (and the subsequent research), so that they may give informed consent. • Participants were made aware of their right to withdraw at any time from the training or the subsequent research.
3.3 - Standard of protection of research participants.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When feeding back the outcomes from training to the Head teachers and SEN coordinators, care was taken to consider the feedback from the standpoint of the TAs, for the purpose of eliminating potential risks to psychological well-being, physical health, personal values or dignity.

Standard	Provision
4.1 - Standard of honesty and accuracy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In all communications and interactions (such as those during the planning meeting, and the follow up data requests), the status and role of the researcher was clearly defined.

Table 9: Ethical standards adhered to (The British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct, 2009).

Results

Level 1 evaluation – the participants' reaction

Figure 3 illustrates the number of TAs that attended each training session:

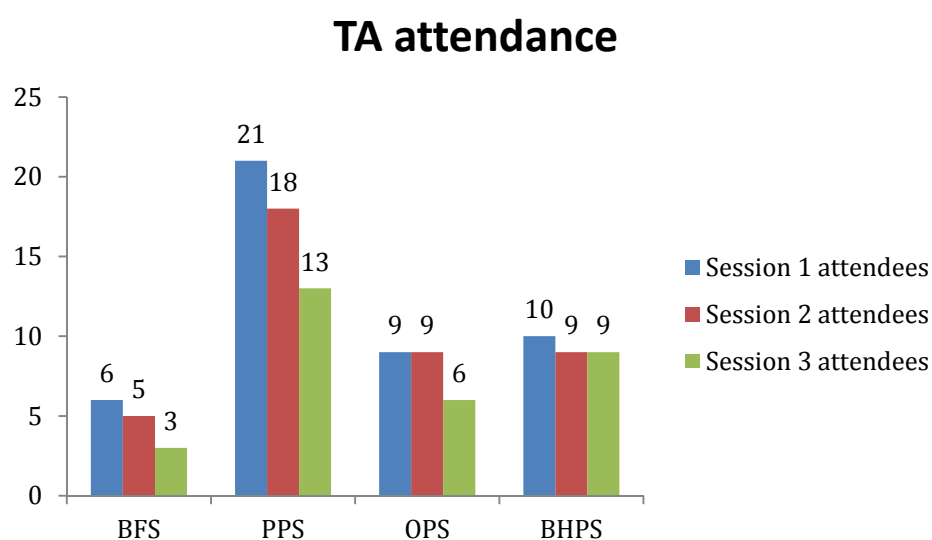


Figure 3: Attendance data.

Across all 4 schools, there was a 10.87% drop out between sessions 1 and 2, and a 32.61% drop out between sessions 1 and 3. Put another way, approximately two-thirds of the TAs that attended the first session (67.39%) attended all 3 sessions. In addition, Figure 4 illustrates the number of TAs that completed the homework in between each training session (this data was not collected for BFS):

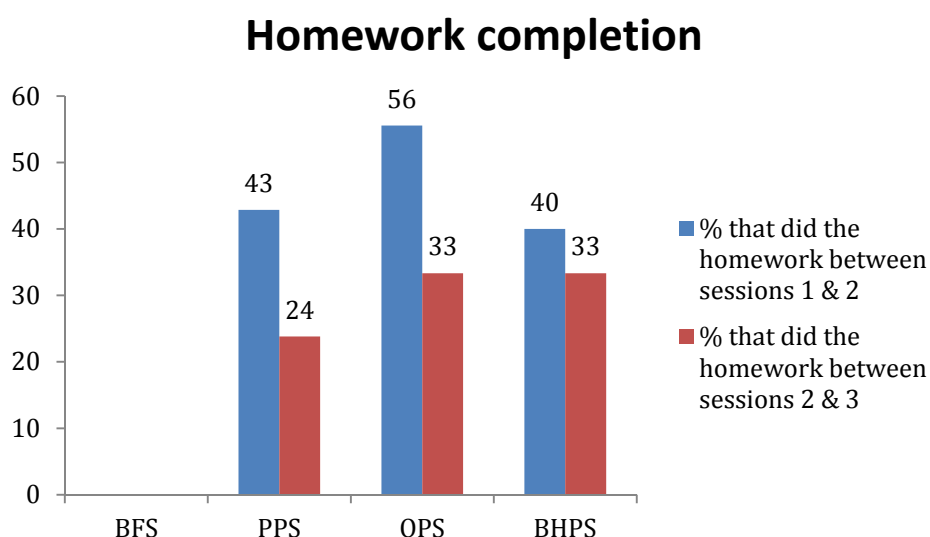


Figure 4: Homework completion data.

Across the 3 schools, on average 46% of the TAs completed the required homework between sessions 1 and 2, and 30% completed the required homework between sessions 2 and 3. For the most part, those TAs that did not submit evidence of the homework indicated they had not been afforded the time or opportunity to complete the required activities.

Only very limited qualitative comments were collected regarding the reactions of the participants to the training (and only from 2 of the 4 schools). Table 10 summarises the comments received:

Comments regarding the most effective elements of the training (n = 18)	Comments regarding the least effective elements of the training (n = 7)
44% were related to the quality of explanation and structure of the training.	57% were related to support that was needed from elsewhere in the school (such as from teachers).
39% were related to technical components of the programme that had not previously been understood but were now.	43% were related to suggested improvements in the explanation or structure of the training.
17% were related to the outcomes that were being experienced.	

Table 10: Participant reactions.

Level 2 evaluation – the participants’ learning

The training was delivered in order to enable the TAs to implement a PT programme independently. The TAs were asked about the confidence they had in their knowledge of PT before session 1 and after session 3, and Figure 5 shows the results (this data was not collected for BFS):

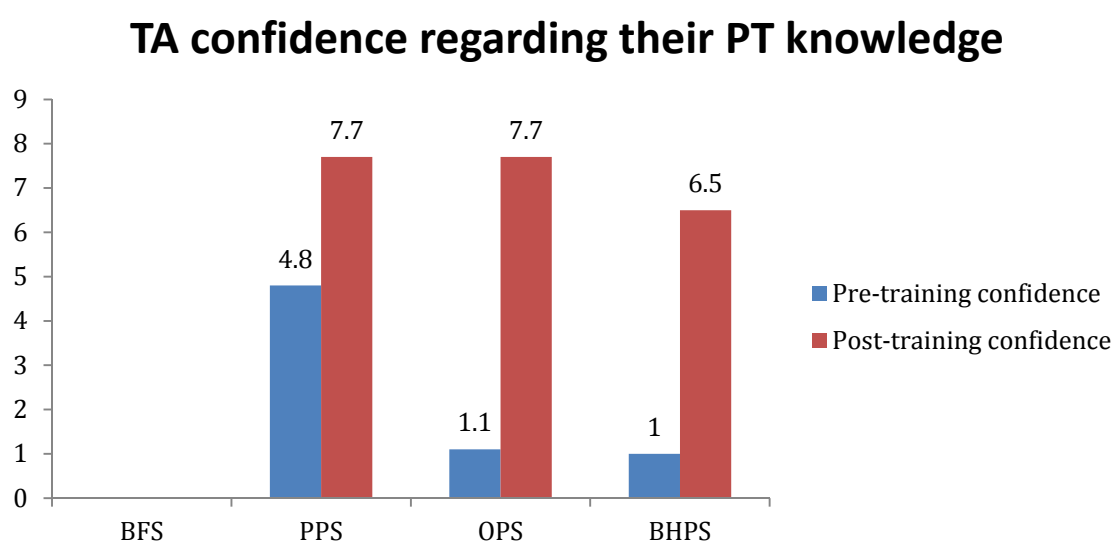


Figure 5: TA confidence.

On the 10-point scale there was, on average, a 5-point increase in the confidence the TAs had in their knowledge of PT before and after the training (from 2.3 to 7.3). PPS slightly skews the data as a number of the TAs in this school had experienced PT previously.

After session 3, in all 4 schools the TAs were asked to evaluate how easy or difficult they felt various elements of the PT programme were to understand (10 = easy), and their level of confidence implementing each component. Figure 6 illustrates the results:

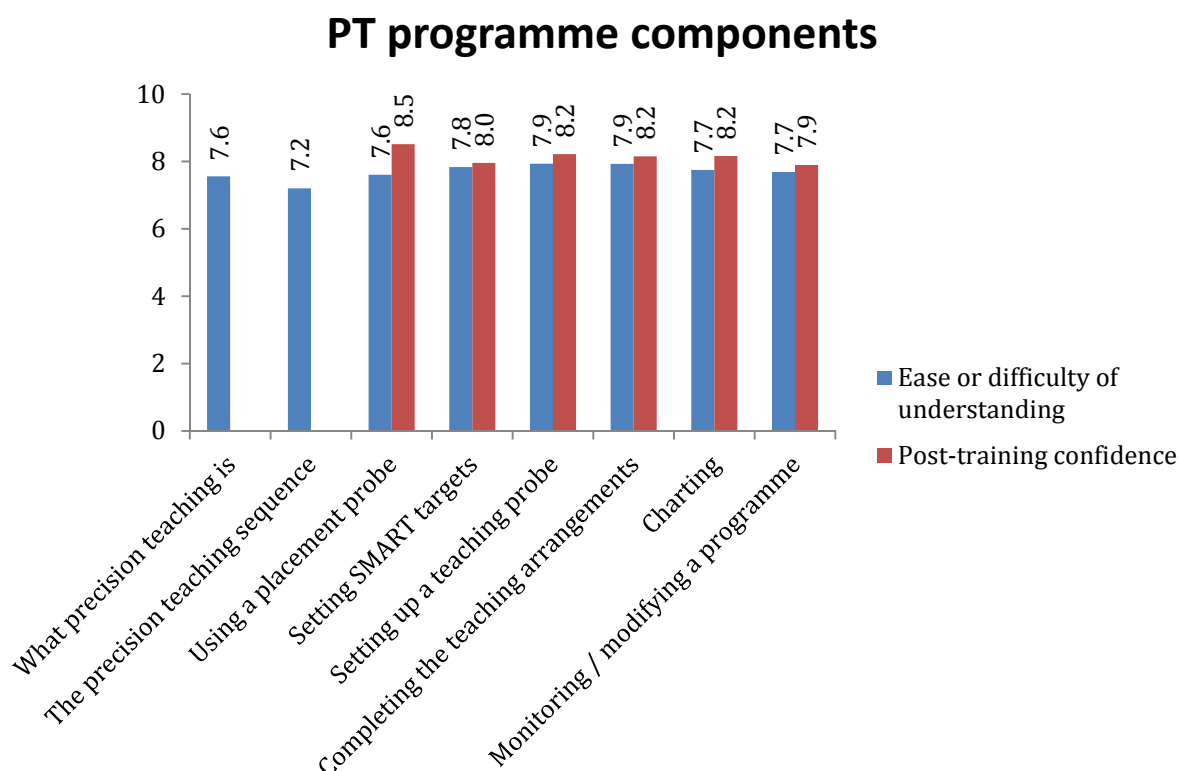


Figure 6: TA understanding and confidence for specific elements of the PT programme.

The TAs indicated that they felt they had a good understanding of PT overall (7.7/10), even if understanding the PT sequence was felt to be harder than other elements. The confidence indicator in Figure 6 (the average taken from an estimate of confidence for each component) was slightly higher than the confidence indicator in Figure 5 (an overall estimate of confidence), 8.1 vs. 7.3. The TAs were most confident about using a placement probe, but least confident about monitoring or modifying a PT programme.

Level 3 evaluation – organisation support and change

The final question posed to the TAs slightly differed from that asked in Level 2, in that it investigated how confident the TAs were that they were likely to implement a PT programme in the current academic year (i.e. it asked them to consider organisational influences). Figure 7 illustrates the differences in response between the 2 questions:

TA confidence regarding their likelihood to implement a PT programme

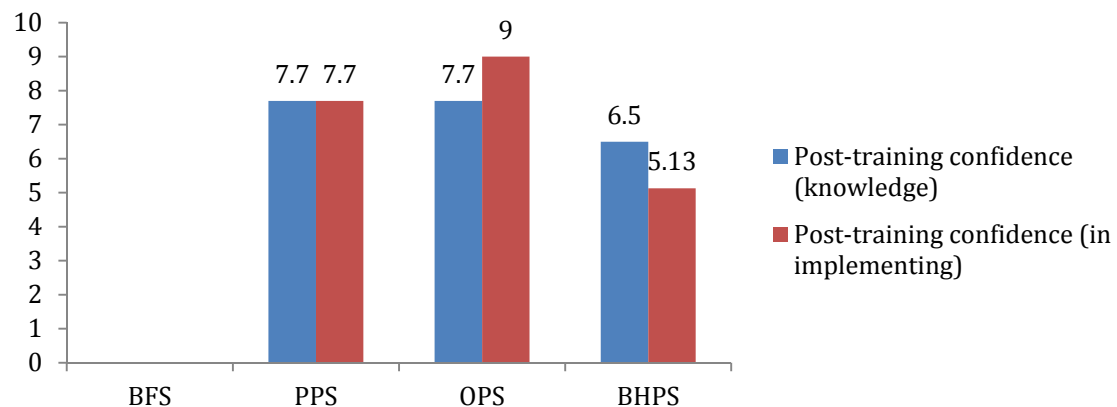


Figure 7: TA confidence.

As Figure 7 shows, there was no discernible pattern across the 3 schools, with OPS showing a greater degree of confidence in implementation than in their knowledge, and BHPS showing the opposite effect. It seems clear that TA confidence regarding their knowledge is an important precursor to implementation of the PT programme, but there are then also other influencing factors.

Analysis of the notes captured during the implementation of the PT programmes confirms the commitment of the Heads and SEN coordinators to the professional development of the TAs. At a leadership level, it is clear that the TAs are viewed as central to the implementation of 1:1 reading catch-up programmes, and time was willingly allocated for the TAs to participate in the training sessions. The Heads are also familiar with the requirement to evaluate initiatives in the school, and at least 3 of the schools have used the implementation of the PT programme to support evidence of a commitment to literacy across the school.

Where there was implementation uncertainty, the central organisational challenges related to the rigour of the needs analysis process, how TAs were deployed and teacher support for the programme. In a dynamic planning process, it was not always clear to what extent the Heads and SEN coordinators had a defined need that PT met, rather than them taking advantage of the offer of an intervention package to support a need generic to all schools (development of reading). The absence of an ordered and sequential needs analysis process is hypothesised to lessen the success of training.

Secondly, the TAs often found it difficult to find time to implement a PT programme. This was reported, by the TAs, to be due to conflicting school priorities (such as timetable clashes and covering for teachers). Lastly, teacher support for the initiative was critical to its success, but not always forthcoming. As well as setting aside TA time to implement the PT programme, teachers were required to help the TAs identify the skills fundamental to reading and to modify the teaching arrangements. Without this support, the TAs felt isolated from other teaching practices in the classroom.

Level 4 evaluation – participants’ use of new knowledge and skill

Of the 31 TAs that attended all 3 sessions, all 31 were still reported to be at the schools in which the training had been completed (22, 14, 13 and 4 months after the completion of the training). Data on the number of TAs still using PT was unavailable from BFS, but from the other schools 19 TAs were reported to be currently implementing a PT programme. In those 3 schools, that represents 48% of the number of TAs that attended the first session and 68% of the number of TAs that attended all 3 sessions. There was no discernible pattern evident when considering whether the time since the training had been completed impact the current use of PT. Excluding BFS, 52 students have

formed the focus of a PT programme across the 3 schools. This represents almost 3 students per TA since the PT training was completed.

The average number of sessions completed per student was 25 (over a 10-week period). Accordingly, if a 100% implementation rate represents the students undertaking PT activities every school day (in an ideal situation), the implementation rate across the 3 schools was 54% (25 days out of a possible 51).

Level 5 evaluation – student learning outcomes

On average, over the 25 sessions, the focus students were reported to have learnt 20 words (or 5 sets of words, likely comprising 4 new words and 1 word already known). As part of the data submitted, the majority of TAs had captured the progression of difficulty in the words the students were attempting. By way of examples, students may have progressed from phonics phase 1 to phonics phase 2, or high frequency words 3 to high frequency words 4.

There was a weak, but positive, relationship between the implementation rate and the number of words learnt by the students, as illustrated in Figure 8:

Relationship between implementation rate and number of words learnt

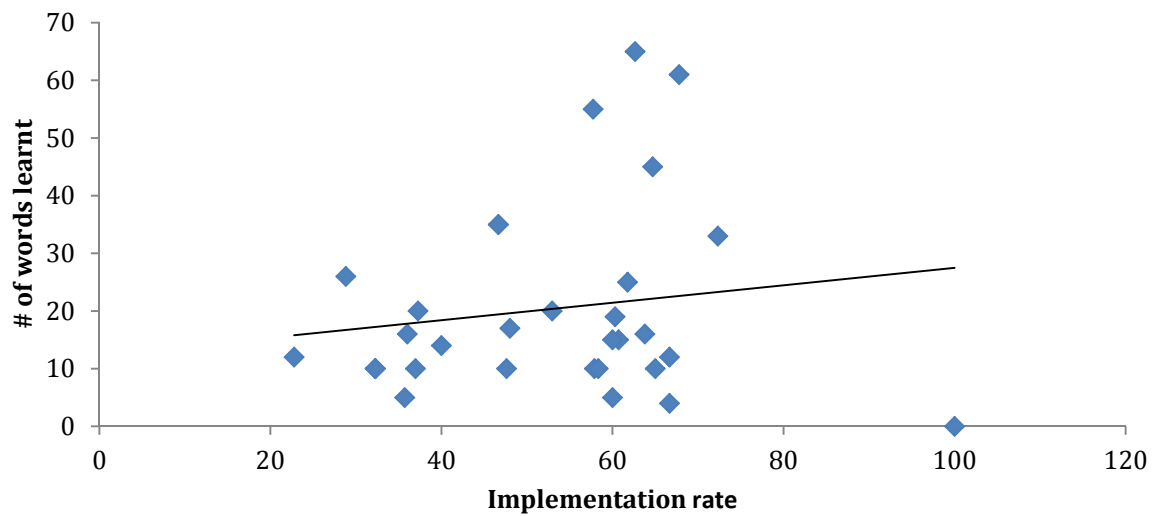


Figure 8: Relationship between the implementation rate on the number of words learnt.

The Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.154, indicating a very low (Cohen and Holliday, 1982) positive correlation. In other words, as the implementation rate increased (the PT sessions were administered more frequently), the number of words learnt increased as well (albeit marginally).

Unprompted, some of the schools submitted comments from the TAs and student regarding the PT programme:

- 'The children appear to enjoy this intervention and often ask when they are going to do it again'.
- 'I think it has proven, so far, to be an effective intervention as both girls have shown considerable improvement in their reading'.
- 'I think it has also helped their confidence levels'.
- Y1 student: 'It is fun!'
- Y1 student: 'I like playing the games and learning new words'.
- Y2 student: 'I like the games'.
- Y4 student: 'It helps me with my reading'.
- 'The programme helps boost the confidence of the children, particularly the Y1s.'
- 'The children get excited about having new word sets.'

Discussion

Summary of impact

Each of the 3 cases fully evaluated in this paper evidence the positive outcomes associated with training TAs to implement a PT programme. Approximately a third of the TAs that started out the training attended all the training and completed all the homework (a good indicator for their engagement and readiness to implement). They went on to work with, on average, 3 students each over a 10-week period. The students learnt, on average, at a rate of 20 words for every 25 sessions they participated in. Extrapolated over a 13-week term, this rate of learning would result in 52 new words being learnt each term. Of course, the sustainability of such a programme over time is based on the techniques and materials being committed to an organisation's memory

(Handy, 1990), so they become accessible to newly arriving TAs and part of continued annual planning cycles.

Hughes et al. (2007) suggest PT is an effective programme for students because PT focuses on small, manageable units of information (taught in a more intensive fashion). It also encourages repetition, practice and an element of self-competition (rather than competition with peers). Roberts and Norwich (2010) found a carry-over effect in their study, where student performance continued to improve after the programme was withdrawn. They suggest this might be due to the established links between improvements in self-efficacy and goal achievement (Bandura and Locke, 2003), where developments in personal beliefs about capacity to succeed in reading have a longer lasting impact. Downer (2007) outlines the emotional advantages that can be expected when students engage in a PT programme (such as the enjoyment of charting, and the positive feelings of achievement), and some of the comments outlined earlier suggest the students in this study also benefited in this way.

Methodological considerations

The case study design introduced in this paper means that many of the criticisms levelled by Freedman (2013) at existing studies in this field can also be applied to this study. The absence of standardised measures or an alternative intervention group as an active control limits the basis for generalisability of the findings. In addition, the internal validity of the findings may be compromised by the presence of reactive effects (those supplying the data were aware of who would be completing the analysis) and that there may be factors other than the key variable (the PT programme) producing the level 5 changes observed (De Vaus, 2001). That said, the replication of the results

across the cases allows tentative confidence regarding the efficacy of such a programme.

Trivette et al. (2009) used a continuum from one-time, didactic workshops to discovery and experiential learning to characterise CPD initiatives. Predicated on the adult learning theories referenced earlier, this training was as active, and experiential as possible. The findings support the possibilities of collaborative action research to effect change (Noffke and Somekh, 2010).

However, Scheeler (2008) identified a number of other factors that support the sustainability of teaching techniques that were not as central to this approach as they may have been. The first is that no classroom-based observations of practice with students were completed, which meant there was a lack of immediate feedback for the TAs (Leach and Conto, 1999). Secondly, the TAs were not explicitly trained to mastery in PT. As identified as a risk by Rose and Church (1998), 3 sessions were scheduled regardless of the progress the TAs made against set knowledge-based criteria. Finally, Noffke and Somekh (2010) advocate that the inclusion of students in parts of the training may have enhanced the quality of the TA learning experience. This did not happen.

The school context

This study has underlined the importance of considering the context for implementation of any training (Courtney, 2007). Managing classroom-based time constraints (for practice and implementation) was a constant source of difficulty for the majority of the TAs, and this is common in more collaborative, experiential forms of

learning (Noffke and Somekh, 2010). Indeed, Adey (2004) suggested it takes up to 30 hours of training and support to thoroughly embed new techniques.

Even though one of the strengths of a PT programme is the minimal time and material requirements (Hughes et al., 2007), most of the TAs at some point indicated that they felt they did not have sufficient opportunity or time to implement the programme as they wished. This is evidenced by the average implementation rate of 54% (just over 5 PT sessions every 10 days, as opposed to a session every day). In many instances, further leadership support was required (following feedback) to ensure TAs were granted the time required to appropriately implement a PT programme. Although the positive relationship between student learning and the implementation rate was only weakly evident, implementing a PT programme with fidelity is central to realising the full range of anticipated benefits.

It is clear that the implementation of any CPD initiative occurs within a political context (McCarthy, 1992), and it is likely there were both managerial (Bubb et al., 2008) and financial (Heslop, 2012) considerations that are relevant yet unknown during an externally-led CPD initiative. The Wider Pedagogical Role model (Blatchford et al., 2009) outlines these situational and structural factors worthy of consideration when seeking to account for effects of adult support on the academic progress of students.

TAs as learners

A study completed by Higgins (2009) detailed the wide range of factors that can impact TA self-efficacy, and it is possible that the approach outlined in this paper failed to sufficiently consider individual influences on the success of the training (Kontoghiorghes, 2002). Various studies suggest that motivation and attitudes to

training (Mathieu and Martineau, 1997), previous learning experiences (Higgins, 2009) and outcome expectations (Bandura, 1997) are relevant to the success of training, yet they were not made explicit prior to training commencing in this study.

Hustler et al. (2003) highlighted the need for learners to experience professional control, self-regulation and choice regarding CPD activities, and there is a risk that TAs can feel that training is 'done to' them. Noffke and Somekh (2010) refer to the growing recognition of the importance of the professional's voice in generating knowledge for educational practice and providing a sense of empowerment (Campbell et al., 2004), and there is always likely to be an opportunity to engage with TAs more widely prior to training starting. Craig et al. (1998) argue that programmes planned with the assistance of participants are more successful than those that are not. As the differing reactions of the 46 TAs emerged through the training, it became clear that change (such as the willingness to implement a PT programme) is personal (Louks-Horsley, 1996). Regardless of the quality of the training, if the TAs do not feel respected, valued and appreciated (Russell et al., 2005) the outcomes at all levels of evaluation are likely to be reduced.

The role for EPs

This study confirms the role for EPs in supporting the development of support staff practices (Farrell et al., 2000). Whilst there is no single psychological paradigm that summarises adult learning (Higgins, 2009), knowledge of self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985) and socio-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) provide important theoretical grounding to success facilitation of the CPD. In addition, the psychological approaches outlined by Balchin et al. (2006) (Figure 1) are continually relevant to the positioning and delivery of EP-led CPD. Most important, an understanding of the models

of effecting change, rooted in organisational psychology, is central to a successful CPD initiative (as advocated by Roberts and Norwich, 2010).

Supporting TAs to implement a PT programme is an example of 'giving psychology away' (Macleod et al., 2007), as TAs develop their understanding of areas such as reading development, fluency, assessment and motivation. Miller (1969) first introduced the idea that localised problem solving (applicable to areas such as reading development) can be most efficiently delivered by people being 'their own psychologists' (p. 1070). In these straightened times, embedding the ability of schools to independently effect psychologically-informed change is an efficient and worthwhile activity. However, maintaining the fidelity of such programmes over time and reconciling a desire to 'give psychology away' with a traded service delivery model are more complex considerations.

Delivering CPD necessitates EPs to act as a 'critical friend' to schools (Stenhouse, 1975), as it is important to challenge existing practice and barriers to change. As in many organisations, it seems often the case that espoused theories (at leadership level) do not match the theories-in-use (at operational level) (Senge, 2006), and outing the misalignment is sensitive yet important. Delivering the training across multiple schools has shown that it is important to recognise the impact of assumed imbalances in power and authority between TAs and EPs (Stenhouse, 1975), and that there is a fine balance between 'telling' and 'facilitating'. The consultation model (Wagner, 2000) emphasises the significance of practitioners feeling like they are employing strategies for change that they construct, rather than those that have been donated.

Conclusions

Given the prominence to which TAs have risen in schools, and the continued importance of raising literacy standards, training TAs to implement an evidence-based intervention such as PT appears to be a good use of EP time and resources. This small scale study provides further evidence that, with appropriate training and support, TAs are able to successfully deliver discrete interventions.

On review of these case examples, it is clear that there are multiple factors both within and surrounding a CPD experience that influence its success. To have training aligned to meet a prioritised need and to have supporting school co-workers and structures in place are critical to the success of an initiative. More of both would likely have increased how many TAs fully completed all aspects of the training (attendance and homework; 30%) and the implementation rate (19 TAs, 52 students, 54%). No comparator data has emerged, so establishing whether the findings from this study represents a better return on investment than could be expected has been impossible.

However, the relative success of the approach has also rested on the nature of the training itself. This approach rejects the notion that TA practice can be changed based on a single, decontextualised training session. Not only is PT relatively complex (and therefore too much information for a single session), the TAs benefited from the opportunity to practice their skills and collaborate. The 30% of TAs that brought their homework for discussion thrived on the reflective cycles, feedback and coaching built into the training programme. Indeed, it seems that the schools which are most likely to maintain PT are those where lead TAs have been asked to fulfil 'PT champion' roles, facilitating further reflection, support and dissemination of knowledge.

References

Abbott, L., McConkey, R., & Dobbins, M. (2011). Key players in inclusion: are we meeting the professional needs of learning support assistants for pupils with complex needs? *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 26(2), 215-231.

Adey, P. (2004). *The professional development of teachers: Practice and theory*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.

Alborz, A., Pearson, D., Farrell, P. & Howes, A. (2009a). The impact of adult support staff on pupils and mainstream schools. Technical Report. In: *Research Evidence in Education Library*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.

Alliger, G. M. & Janak, E. A. (1989). Kirkpatrick's levels of training criteria: thirty years later. *Personnel Psychology*, 42, 331-342.

Altrichter, A., Feldman, A., Posch, P. & Somekh, B. (2010). *Teachers investigate their work – an introduction to action research across the professions*. Routledge.

Appadurai, A. (2006). The right to research. *Globalisation, societies and education*, 4(2), 167-177.

Argyris, C. & Schön, D. A. (1978). *Organisational learning: A theory of action perspective*. London: Addison-Wesley.

Balchin, N., Randall, L. & Turner, S. (2006). The coach consult method: a model for sustainable change in schools. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 22(3), 237-254.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: towards a unified theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.

Bandura, A. & Locke, E.A. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1), 87–99.

Binder, C., Haughton, E. & Van Eyk, D. (1995). Increasing endurance by building fluency: precision teaching attention span. *Teaching Exception Children*, 22(3), 24-27.

Blatchford, P. (2013). Who has responsibility for the teaching of pupils with statements of SEN in mainstream primary schools? Some issues from a systematic observation study (The 'Making a Statement' (MaSt) project). Available from www.schoolsupportstaff.net [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Blatchford, P., Bassett, P., Brown, P., Martin, C., Russell, A. & Webster, R. (2011). The impact of support staff on pupils' 'positive approaches to learning' and their academic progress. *British Educational Research Journal*, 37(3), 443-464.

Blatchford, P., Russell, A. & Webster, R. (2011). Challenging the role and deployment of Teaching Assistants in mainstream schools: the impact on schools. Final report on the effective deployment of Teaching Assistants (EDTA) project. Available from www.schoolsupportstaff.net [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Blatchford, P., Bassett, P., Brown, P., Martin, C., Russell, A. & Webster, R. (2009). Deployment and impact of school staff project – a research brief. Available from www.ioe.ac.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Bowyer-Crane, C., Snowling, M. J., Duff, F. J., Fieldsend, E., Carroll, J. M., Miles, J. & Hulme, C. (2008). Improving early language and literacy skills: Differential effects of an oral

language versus a phonology with reading intervention. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 49(4), 422-432.

Breakwell, G., Hammond, S. M., Fife-Schaw, C. & Smith, J. A. (2007). *Research methods in psychology*. London: Sage.

Bruder, M. B., Dunst, C. J. & Mogro-Wilson, C. (2010). Preservice and in-service influences on early childhood practitioner competence and confidence. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Bruder, M. B., Mogro-Wilson, C., Stayton, V., Smith, B. J. & Dietrich, S. (2009). The national status of in-service professional development systems for early intervention and early childhood special education practitioners. *Infants and Young Children*, 22(1), 13-20.

Bubb, S., Earley, P., & Hempel-Jorgensen, A. (2008). *Staff development outcomes study report*. London: The London Centre for Leadership in London, Institute of Education, University of London.

Butt, G., & Lance, A. (2009). 'I am not the teacher!': some effects of remodelling the roles of teaching assistants in English primary schools. *Education 3-13*, 37(3), 219-231.

Cameron, R. J. (2006). Educational psychology: the distinctive contribution. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 22(4), 289-304.

Campbell, A., McNamara, O. & Gilroy, P. (2004). *Practitioner research and professional development in education*. SAGE Publications Limited.

Chiesa, M. & Robertson, A. (2000). Precision teaching and fluency training: Making maths easier for pupils and teachers. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 16(3), 297-310.

Cihon, T. M. (2007). A review of training intraverbal repertoires: can precision teaching help. *The Analysis of Verbal Behavior*, 23(1), 123.

Cohen, L. & Holliday, M. (1982). *Statistics for social scientist*. London: Harper & Row.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2003, 5th edition). *Research methods in education*. Routledge: Falmer.

Cook, T. (1998). The importance of mess in action research. *Educational Action Research*, 6(1), 93-109.

Courtney, J. (2007). What are effective components of in-service teacher training? A study examining teacher trainers' perceptions of the components of a training programme in mathematics education in Cambodia. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 33(3), 321-339.

Craft, A. (2000). *Continuing professional development: a practical guide for teachers and schools*. London, Routledge Falmer.

Craig, H., Kraft, R. & Du Plessis, J. (1998). *Teacher development making an impact*. Washington, DC, Human Development Network World Bank.

Croft, A., Cogshall, J. G., Dolan, M., Powers, E. A. & Killion, J. (2010). *Job-embedded professional development: what it is, who is responsible, and how to get it done well: Issue brief*. Washington, DC: National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality.

Crotty, M.J. (1994). *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. SAGE Publications.

Day, C. (1999). Professional development and reflective practice: purposes, processes and partnerships. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society* 7(2): 221-233.

Davis, N. (2005). Just in time support for educational leadership. In *Education and the Knowledge Society* (pp. 271-277). Springer US.

De Vaus, D. A, (2001). *Research design in social research*. Sage.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Department for Education (2010). *The National Strategies*. Available from www.education.gov.uk. [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Department for Education (2011). *£16 million to support training of educational psychologists*. Available from www.gov.uk. [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Department for Education (2011). *Statistical first release: School workforce in England November 2010*. London: Department for Education.

Devecchi, C. & Rouse, M. (2010). An exploration of the features of effective collaboration between teachers and teaching assistants in secondary schools. *Support for Learning*, 25(2), 91-99.

Downer, A. C. (2007). The national literacy strategy sight recognition programme implemented by teaching assistants: A precision teaching approach. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 23(2), 129-143.

Dunsmuir, S., Brown, E., Iyadurai, S. & Monsen, J. (2009) Evidence-based practice and evaluation: from insight to impact. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 25, 1, p. 53-70

Dunst, C. J. & Raab, M. (2010). Practitioners' self-evaluations of contrasting types of professional development. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 32(4), 239-254.

Dunst, C. J., Trivette, C. M. & Deal, A. (1988). Enabling and empowering families: Principles and guidelines for practice. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.

Eastwood, K. W. & Louis, K. S. (1992). Restructuring that lasts: managing the performance dip. *Journal of School Leadership*, 2(2), 212-24.

Evans, H. (2000). *Essential English for journalists, editors and writers*. London: Pimlico.

Fabrizio, M. A. & Moors, A. L. (2003). Evaluating mastery: Measuring instructional outcomes for children with autism. *European Journal of Behavior Analysis*, 4(1/2), 23-36.

Farrell, P., Balshaw, M. & Polat, F. (2000) The work of learning support assistants in mainstream schools: Implications for educational psychologists. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 17(2) 66-76.

Farrell, P., Woods, K., Lewis, S., Rooney, S., Squires, G., and O'Connor, M. (2006). A review of the functions and contribution of educational psychologists in England and Wales in light of every child matters: change for children. Nottingham: DfES.

Frederickson, N. (1990). Systems approach in EP practice: A re-evaluation. In N. Jones, & N. Frederickson (Eds.), *Refocusing educational psychology*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Freedman, R. (2013). Is precision teaching an effective intervention for improving literacy and numeracy? Available from www.ucl.ac.uk. [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Fullan, M. & Connelly, M. (1990). Teacher education in Ontario: Current practice and options for the future. Toronto, ON: Ministry of Colleges and Universities.

Gallagher, E. (2006). Improving a mathematical key skill using precision teaching. *Irish Educational Studies*, 25(3), 303-319.

Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Birman, B. F. & Yoon, K. S. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national sample of teachers. *American educational research journal*, 38(4), 915-945.

Gemmell, M., King, G., Randall, L. & Sutherland, V. (2003). Evaluation carried out in psychological services in Scotland. PDP Network.

Gerber, S. B., Finn, J. D., Achilles, C. M. & Boyd-Zacharias, J. (2001). Teacher aides and students' academic achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 23(2), 123-143.

Goodall, J., Day, C., Lindsay, G., Muijs, D. & Harris, H. (2005). Evaluating the impact of continuing professional development. London: Department for Education and Skills.

Groom, B. (2006). Building relationships for learning: the developing role of the teaching assistant. *Support for Learning*, 21(4), 199-203.

Guskey, T. R. (2000). Evaluating professional development. Corwin.

Guskey, T. R. & Sparks, D. (2004). Linking professional development to improvements in student learning. *Research linking teacher preparation and student performance*, 11-21.

Handy, C. (1990). Understanding organizations. Penguin, UK.

Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing teachers: changing times. Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age*. Continuum International Publishing Group.

Hargreaves, A. & Dawe, R. (1990). Paths of professional development: contrived collegiality, collaborative culture, and the case of peer coaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 6(3), 227-241.

Harris, A.H. (2002). *Leadership in schools facing challenging circumstances*, International Congress of School Effectiveness and School Improvement, Copenhagen.

Harris, A. & Busher, H. (2000). *Effective subject leadership: final report*. London: Teacher Training Agency.

Hatcher, P. J., Hulme, C., Miles, J. N., Carroll, J. M., Hatcher, J., Gibbs, S. & Snowling, M. J. (2006). Efficacy of small group reading intervention for beginning readers with reading-delay: a randomised controlled trial. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 47(8), 820-827.

Hattie, J. (1999). *Influences on student learning*. Available from www.education.auckland.ac.nz [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Heslop, L. (2012). *Support for the supporters: perceptions of support for support staff in comprehensive schools and the role of the educational psychologist*. Available from www.orca.cf.ac.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Higgins, H. J. (2009). *A study exploring the influences of training on teaching assistants' learning, behaviour and self-efficacy*. Available from etheses.nottingham.ac.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Hohmann, M. & Weikar, D. P. (1995). Educating young children, a curriculum guide from High/Scope Educational Research Foundation. High/Scope Press.

Hughes, J. C., Beverley, M. & Whitehead, J. (2007). Using precision teaching to increase the fluency of word reading with problem readers. *European Journal of Behavior Analysis*, 8(2), 221.

Hustler, D. (2003). Teachers' perceptions of continuing professional development. Available from www.ioe.ac.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Jarvis, P. (2006) Towards a comprehensive theory of human learning. London: Routledge

Joyce, B. & Showers, B. (1980). Improving in-service training: The messages of research. *Educational Leadership*, 37, 379–385.

Kavak, N., Yamak, H., Bilici, S. C., Bozkurt, E., Darici, O. & Ozkaya, Y. (2012). The evaluation of primary and secondary teachers' opinions about in-service teacher training. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 3507-3511.

Kember, D. (2000). Action learning and action research. Kogan Page.

Kerry, T. (2005). Towards a typology for conceptualizing the role of teaching assistants. *Educational Review*, 57(3) 373-384.

Killion, J. (1998). What works in the middle: Results-based staff development. Oregon Department of Education.

Knowles, M.S. (Ed). (1984). Andragogy in action. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kontoghiorghes, C. (2002). Predicting motivation to learn and motivation to transfer learning back to the job in a service organization: A new systemic model for training effectiveness. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 15(3), 114-129.

Larney, R. (2003). School-based consultation in the United Kingdom: principles, practice and effectiveness. *School Psychology International*, 24, p. 5-19

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leach, D. & Conto, H. (1999). The additional effects of process and outcomes feedback following brief in-service training. *Educational Psychology*, 19, 441-462.

Leat, D., Lofthouse, R. & Wilcock, A. (2006). Teacher coaching - connecting research and practice. *Teaching Education*, 17(4), 329-339.

Lindblom, C. E. & Cohen, D. K. (1979). *Usable knowledge: social science and social problem solving*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press.

Lindsley, O. R. (1992). Precision teaching: discoveries and effects. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 25(1), 51-57.

Lindsley, O. R. (1991). Precision teaching's unique legacy from B. F. Skinner. *The Journal of Behavioral Education*, 2, 253-266.

Lindsley, O. R. (1990). Precision teaching: by teachers for children. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 22(3), 10-15.

Loucks-Horsley, S. (1996). The concerns-based adoption model (CBAM): A model for change in individuals. *National Standards & the Science Curriculum*. Available from www.nas.edu/rise/backg4a.htm [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Macleod, F., Macmillan, P. & Norwich, B. (2007). Giving psychology away: helping pupils at risk of reading failure by means of a self-voice feedback programme. *School Psychology International*, 28(5), 555-573.

Mathieu, J. & Martineau, J. (1997). Individual and situational influences on training motivation. In J. Ford, S. Kozlowski, K. Kraiger, E. Salas, & M. Teachout, *Improving training effectiveness in work organizations* (193-221). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McCarthy, M. (1992). Human Resource Development: Issues facing educational psychology services. In S. Wolfendale, T. Bryans, M. Fox, A. Labram & A. Sigston (Eds.), *The Profession and Practice of Educational Psychology: Future Directions*. London: Cassell Education.

Merriam, S. B. (2001). Andragogy and self-directed learning: Pillars of adult learning theory. *New directions for adult and continuing education*, 2001(89), 3-14.

Miller, G. A. (1969). Psychology as a means of promoting human welfare. *American Psychologist*, 24(12), 1063.

Mills, G. (2003). *Action research: a guide for the teacher researcher*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill / Prentice Hall.

Noffke, S. E. & Somekh, B. (2010). *The SAGE handbook of educational action research*. SAGE Publications.

Niemi, H. (2002). Active learning—a cultural change needed in teacher education and schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(7), 763-780.

Office for Standards in Education (2006). The logical chain: continuing professional development in effective schools. Available from www.ofsted.gov.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Office for Standards in Education (2010). Good professional development in schools. How does leadership contribute? HMI 080254. Available from www.ofsted.gov.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

Osgood, C., Suci, G., & Tannenbaum, P. (1957). The measurement of meaning. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois.

Pring, R. (2004). Philosophy of Education Research. London: Continuum.

Ragin, C.C. & Becker, H. S. (1992) What is a case?: exploring the foundations of social inquiry. Cambridge University Press.

Roberts, W. & Norwich, B. (2010). Using precision teaching to enhance the word reading skills and academic self-concept of secondary school students: a role for professional educational psychologists. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 26(3), 279-298.

Rose, D. J. & Church, R. J. (1998). Learning to teach: The acquisition and maintenance of teaching skills. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 8, 5-35.

Ross, J. A., Rolheiser, C. & Hogaboam-Gray, A. (1998). Skills training versus action research in-service: impact on student attitudes to self-evaluation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14(5), 463-477.

Russell, A., Blatchford, P., Bassett, P., Brown, P. & Martin, C. (2005). The views of teaching assistants in English Key Stage 2 class on their role, training and job satisfaction. *Educational Research*, 47 (2) 175-189.

- Savage, R. & Carless, S. (2004). Predicting curriculum and test performance at age 7 years from pupil background, baseline skills and phonological awareness at age 5. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74(2), 155-171.
- Scheeler, M. C. (2008). Generalizing effective teaching skills: The missing link in teacher preparation. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 17(2), 145-159.
- Scheeler, M. C., Bruno, K., Grubb, E. & Seavey, T. L. (2009). Generalizing teaching techniques from university to K-12 classrooms: Teaching pre-service teachers to use what they learn. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 18(3), 189-210.
- Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: how professionals think in practice*. New York: Basic Books.
- Sexton, D., Snyder, P., Wolfe, B., Lobman, M., Stricklin, S. & Akers, P. (1996). Early intervention inservice training strategies: Perceptions and suggestions from the field. *Exceptional Children*, 62, 485-495.
- Scruggs, T. E. & Mastropieri, M. A. (1994). The effects of generalization training: A quantitative synthesis of single-subject research. *Advances in Learning and Behavioral Disabilities*, 8, 259-280.
- Senge, P. (2006). *The fifth discipline: the art and practice of the learning organisation*. London: Century Business.
- Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. London: SAGE.
- Skinner, B. F. (1993). *About behaviourism*. London: Penguin.
- Solity, J. & Bull, S. (1987). *Special needs: Bridging the curriculum gap*. Milton Keynes:

Open University Press.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). *An introduction to curriculum research and development*.

Heinemann Education, London.

Storey, A. (2009). How fares the New Professionalism in schools? Findings from the State of the Nation project' *Curriculum Journal*, 20, 2, 121-138.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (1971). *Educational evaluation and decision making*. Itasca, Peacock.

Teeman, D., Mundy, E., Walker, M., Scott, E., Lin, Y., Gallacher, S., Barnes, M., Phillips, C. & Johnson, F. (2009). *The support staff study: exploring experiences of training and development*. London: TDA.

Teacher Development Agency (2012). *The effective deployment of classroom-based support staff*. Available from

<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20120203163341/http://www.tda.gov.uk/support-staff/support-tools/effective-deployment.aspx> [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

The British Psychological Society (2009). *Code of ethics and conduct*. Available from: www.bps.org.uk [accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Thomas, G. (2006). *Education and theory in the twentieth century: strangers in paradigms*. Open University Press.

Thomas, G. (2001). *How to do your case study*. SAGE.

Trivette, C. M., Dunst, C. J., Hamby, D. W. & O'Herin, C. E. (2009). *Characteristics and consequences of adult learning methods and strategies*. Asheville, NC: Winterberry Press.

Turner, S., Randall, L. & Mohammed, A. (2010). Doing an effective job? Measuring the impact of casework. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 26, 4, p. 313-329.

Vygotsky, L. S. (2004). Imagination and creativity in childhood. *Journal of Russian and east European psychology*, 42(1), 7-97.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.

Wagner, P. (2000). Consultation: developing a comprehensive approach to service delivery. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 16(1), 9–18.

Walker, M., Jeffes, J., Hart, R., Lord, P. & Kinder, K. (2011). Making the links between teachers' professional standards, induction, performance management and continuing professional development. Available from www.education.gov.uk [Accessed 18-APR-2013].

West, R.P. & Young, K.R. (1992). Precision teaching. In R.P. West & L.A. Hamerlynck (Eds.), *Designs for excellence in education: The legacy of B.F. Skinner* (pp. 113–146). Longmont, CO: Sopris West.

White, O. R. (1986). Precision teaching-Precision learning. *Exceptional Children*, 25, 522-534.

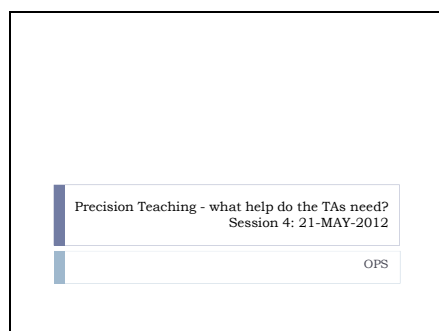
Woolfson, L., Whaling, R., Stewart, A. & Monsen, J. (2003). An integrated framework to guide educational psychologist practice. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 19(4), 283–302.

Appendices

Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

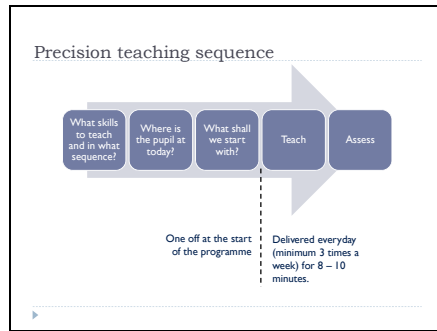
Slide 1



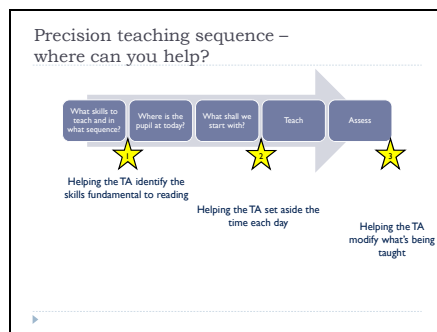
Slide 2

Precision teaching training		
Activity	What we covered	Attendees
Session 1 (1 hour)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Introduction to Precision Teaching The Precision Teaching sequence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bev (Y1 / 2) Christine (Y1 / 2) Jackie (YR / 1) Jane (YR) Liz (Y3 / 4) Sue (Y3 / 4)
Practice		
Session 2 (1 hour)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Charting. Assessing progress against the aim rate. 8 common problems with precision teaching. 	
Practice		
Session 3 (1 hour)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monitoring precision teaching. Reflection Evaluation. 	

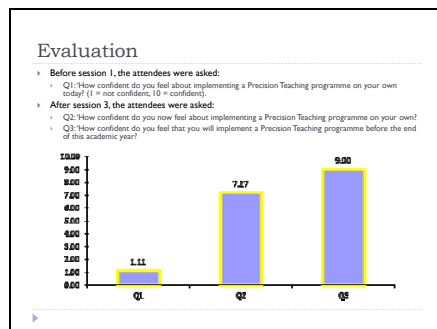
Slide 3



Slide 4



Slide 5



Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

Evaluation of Precision Teaching training at OPS

Details:

- Session 1: 01-FEB-2012 (9 TAs attended).
- Session 2: 14-MAR-2012 (9 TAs attended).
- Session 3: 25-APR-2012 (6 TAs attended).

TA	Year group	01-FEB-2012	14-MAR-2012	25-APR-2012	Complete?
B	Y1 / Y2	✓	✓	✓	✓
C	Y1 / Y2	✓	✓	✓	✓
C	YR	✓			
J	YR / Y1	✓	✓	✓	✓
J	YR	✓	✓	✓	✓
J	Multiple	✓			
J	Y5 / Y6	✓			
L	Y3 / Y4	✓	✓	✓	✓
S	Y3 / Y4	✓	✓	✓	✓

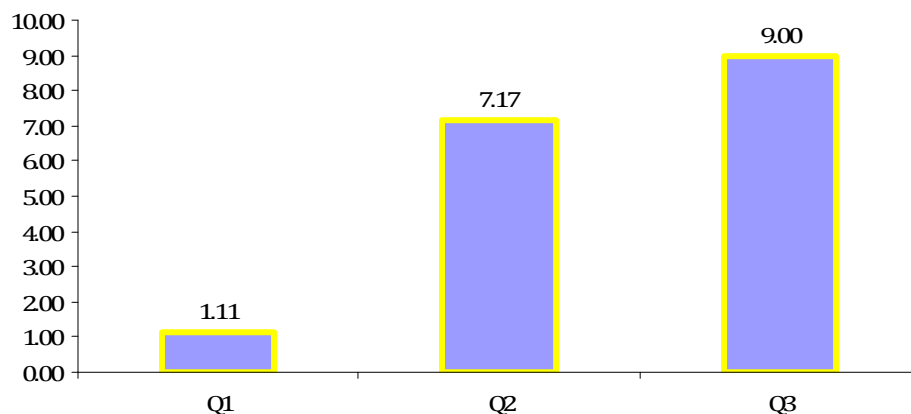
Prior to session 1, the attendees were asked:

- Q1: 'How confident do you feel about implementing a Precision Teaching programme on your own today? (1 = not confident, 10 = confident).

After session 3, the attendees were asked:

- Q2: 'How confident do you now feel about implementing a Precision Teaching programme on your own?
- Q3: 'How confident do you feel that you will implement a Precision Teaching programme before the end of this academic year?

Results:

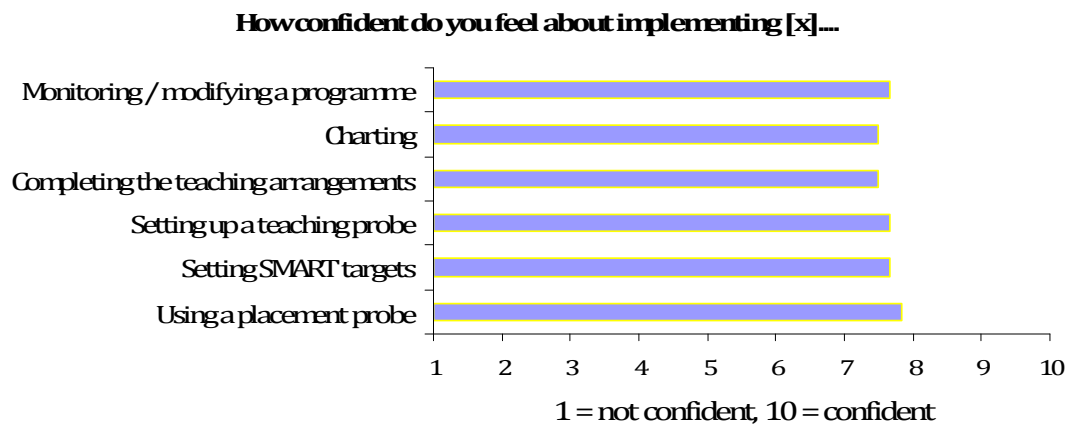
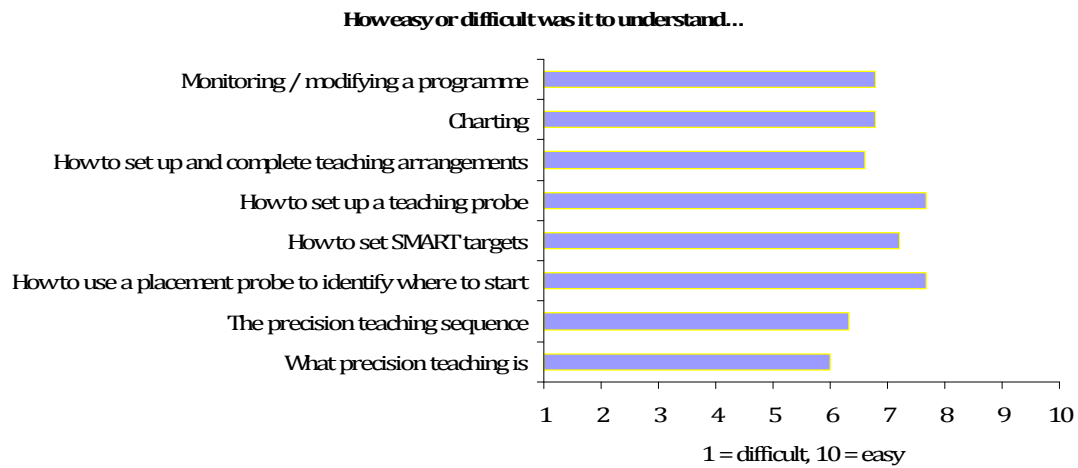


'Homework' was set between sessions 1 & 2 and sessions 3 & 4. Between sessions 1 & 2, 5 of the attendees submitted notes that suggested they had completed the tasks set. Between sessions 2 & 3, 2 of the attendees (22% of the original group) submitted notes / graphs that suggested they had completed the tasks set. It is recommended that one of the 2 'end to end' attendees acts as a 'TA champion' for Precision Teaching, as they appeared to understand Precision Teaching and all its associated requirements.

The final two elements of the evaluation related to:

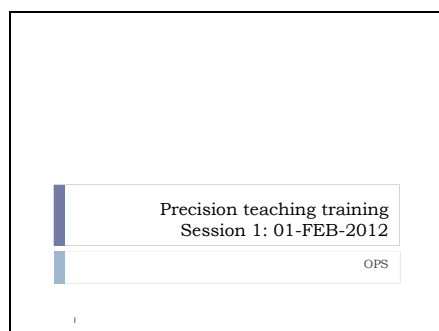
- Elements of Precision Teaching that were easy or difficult to understand.
- How confident the attendees felt about implementing the various elements of Precision Teaching.

The results are below:

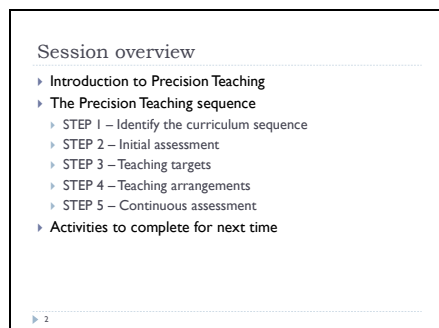


Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

Slide 1



Slide 2



Slide 3

Introduction to Precision Teaching

- ▶ What do you know about Precision Teaching?
- ▶ Do you introduce Precision Teaching programmes at the moment?
- ▶ Who is Precision Teaching suitable for?
- ▶ How confident do you feel about implementing a Precision Teaching programme on your own today?
 - ▶ 1 = not confident
 - ▶ 10 = confident

▶ 3

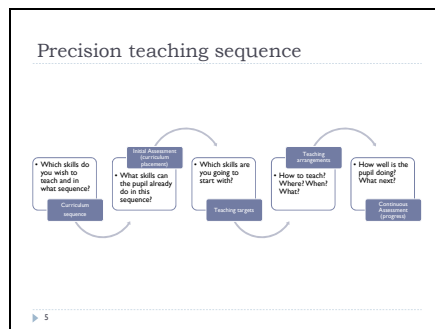
Slide 4

Introduction to Precision Teaching

- ▶ **Precision Teaching:**
 - ▶ Is NOT a teaching method;
 - ▶ IS a way of continuously monitoring performance by measuring frequency (rate) of response;
 - ▶ Uses charting of performance (accuracy and fluency) to illustrate and shape learning.
 - ▶ Can be used for lots of different forms of the curriculum (reading, spelling, maths), but is best suited to reading (hence the term 'Precision Reading').
- ▶ The 'precision' comes from making curricula changes based on changes in learning of each student.

▶ 4

Slide 5



Slide 6

STEP 1 – Identify the curriculum sequence

- ▶ Based on approaches to teaching reading in the classroom.
 - ▶ Letters and sounds / phonics?
 - ▶ High frequency words?
 - ▶ How do you establish progress?

▶ 6

Slide 7

STEP 2 - Initial assessment

- ▶ Used to establish which skills in the curriculum sequence the child can already do fluently.
- ▶ In Precision Teaching this is achieved by using [Placement Probes](#).
- ▶ Placement probes
 - ▶ Are used to decide where a teaching programme should begin;
 - ▶ Are used for assessment not teaching;
 - ▶ Can include letters, phonics or high frequency words.

▶ 7

Slide 8

STEP 2 - Initial assessment

- ▶ Administering the placement probe
 - ▶ Sit next to the pupil;
 - ▶ Explain to the pupil what they have to do including the timing, emphasise accuracy and speed;
 - ▶ Explain that if they reach the end of the sheet before the minute ends they should go back to the top and continue reading;
 - ▶ Start timing when the pupil reads the first word;
 - ▶ If the pupil hesitates wait 5 seconds and then prompt them to move on;
 - ▶ Keep a record of the number of correct and incorrect responses (its useful to have a copy of the probe sheet to help with this);
 - ▶ When the minute ends stop the pupil and praise them;
 - ▶ Work through the probes until the pupil shows more errors than correct responses or when the pupil is obviously failing;
 - ▶ Record the results on the record sheet.

▶ 8

Slide 9

Activity

- ▶ Practice administering a placement probe.

▶ 9

Slide 10

STEP 3 – Teaching targets

- ▶ **Targets must be**
 - ▶ Specific
 - ▶ Measurable
 - ▶ Actionable
 - ▶ Relevant
 - ▶ Time bounded.
- ▶ **Activity:** suggest some sample SMART targets.

▶ 10

Slide 11

STEP 3 – Teaching targets

- ▶ Selecting a [teaching probe](#)
 - ▶ Based on their targets (the outcome of the placement probe), select a variety of letters / words the child knows and does not know to make teaching probe.
 - ▶ Use 2 letters / words the child knows and 3 they do not know;
 - ▶ Ensure the letters and words are at the same 'level';
 - ▶ Ensure the probe samples the skill that is being taught;
 - ▶ Avoid mixing high frequency words and phonics;
 - ▶ Avoid using similar letters and words.
 - ▶ Use the excel sheet to populate the probe.

▶ 11

Slide 12

STEP 3 – Teaching targets

- ▶ Instructions for creating a [teaching probe](#)
 - ▶ Open the excel document ('PT teaching probe.xls').
 - ▶ Click on the tab with 'S' at the bottom.
 - ▶ Fill in the top 5 boxes in row 5 with the words that have been taught.
 - ▶ Print the document.

▶ 12

Slide 13

STEP 4 – Teaching arrangements

- ▶ Delivered [everyday](#) (minimum 3 times a week) for 8 – 10 minutes.
- ▶ Suggestions include:
 - ▶ Direct instruction / choral chanting;
 - ▶ Flashcards;
 - ▶ Snap with letters;
 - ▶ Letter / word searches;
 - ▶ Hangman;
 - ▶ Finding letters/words in a book;
 - ▶ Matching letters/words to pictures.

▶ 13

Slide 14

STEP 5 – Continuous assessment

- ▶ Once the teaching arrangements have been completed (step 4), the teaching probe (developed in step 3) is used to assess progress.
- ▶ Assessment should happen every time teaching occurs.
- ▶ Administration of the teaching probe follows the guidelines outlined in step 2 ('Administering the placement probe').

▶ 14

Slide 15

Activities to complete for next time

- ▶ **Select a child to work with.**
 - ▶ Good attender;
 - ▶ Early stages of literacy acquisition - KS2, or upper end of KS1 (years 2 – 6);
 - ▶ Available for 10 – 15 minutes per day to run the programme.
- ▶ **Complete a placement probe.**
 - ▶ Depending on whether you're focusing on letters / phonics (start at Ph 1) or high frequency words (start at HFW 1), go through the placement probes recording number correct / number incorrect until the child gets more wrong than right. Instructions for this are on slides 6, 7 & 8.
- ▶ **Choose and populate a teaching probe.**
 - ▶ Choose the 5 letters or words that will be the learning target and use the excel sheet to populate a teaching probe. Instructions for this are on slides 10, 11 & 12.
- ▶ **Complete at least 3 days of teaching (slide 13) and then assessing using the teaching probe (slide 14).**
- ▶ **Start to create a pack of your own Precision teaching resources (i.e. some probes).**

▶ 15

Slide 16

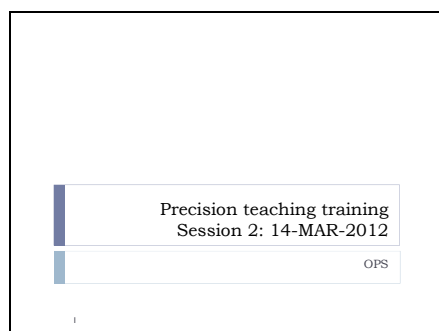
Hand outs for your Precision Teaching folders

- ▶ Birmingham Educational Psychology's Introduction to Precision Teaching
- ▶ Step by step guide to Precision Teaching
- ▶ 'Precision Teaching – keeping up the good work' article

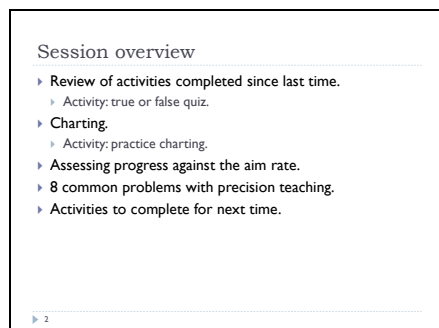
▶ 16

Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

Slide 1



Slide 2



Slide 3

Review of activities completed since last time...

- ▶ **Select a child to work with.**
 - ▶ Good attender;
 - ▶ Early stages of literacy acquisition - KS2, or upper end of KS1 (years 2 – 6);
 - ▶ Available for 10 – 15 minutes per day to run the programme.
- ▶ **Complete a placement probe.**
 - ▶ Depending on whether you're focusing on letters / phonics (start at Ph 1) or high frequency words (start at HFW 1), go through the placement probes recording number correct / number incorrect until the child gets more wrong than right. Instructions for this are on slides 6, 7 & 8.
- ▶ **Choose and populate a teaching probe.**
 - ▶ Choose the 5 letters or words that will be the learning target and use the excel sheet to populate a teaching probe. Instructions for this are on slides 10, 11 & 12.
- ▶ **Complete at least 3 days of teaching (slide 13) and then assessing using the teaching probe (slide 14).**
- ▶ **Start to create a pack of your own Precision teaching resources (i.e. some probes).**

▶ 3

Slide 4

Review of activities completed since last time...

- ▶ **On an A4 sheet write down:**
 - ▶ Your name.
 - ▶ The name of the child you have been working with.
 - ▶ The 5 words in your teaching probe.
 - ▶ How many times you have 'taught then tested'.
- ▶ **Discussion**
 - ▶ What type of teaching proved useful / effective?
 - ▶ Share record sheets.
 - ▶ How did the child react?
 - ▶ Questions and learning.

▶ 4

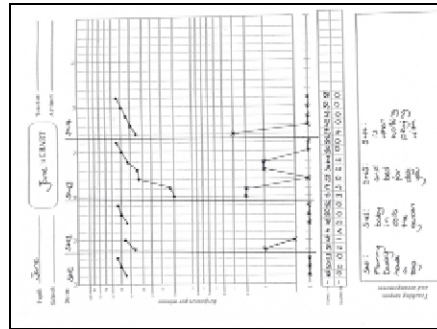
Slide 5

Charting

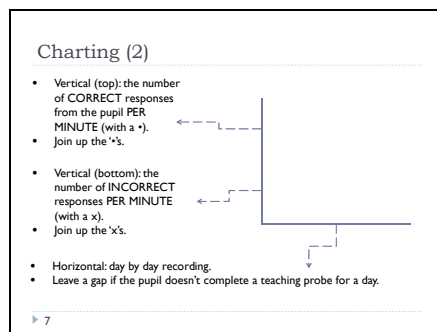
- ▶ The chart is a standard format that should be completed every time the probe is used.
- ▶ The chart allows the pupil to see their progress, and it can be customised with stickers to aid motivation.
- ▶ The chart is a **RATIO** chart:
 - ▶ It presents data proportionally rather than absolutely.
 - ▶ Unlike more conventional charts a RATIO chart allows us to see the pupil's **RATE OF PROGRESS**.
 - ▶ The steeper the slope the faster the learning.

▶ 5

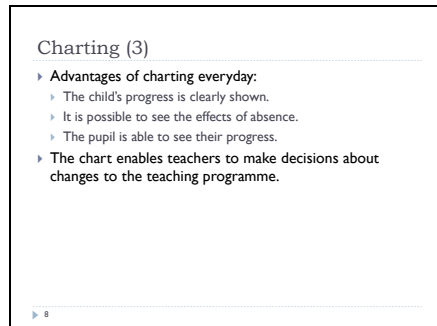
Slide 6



Slide 7



Slide 8



Slide 9

Activity

► Chart the following scores on your blank chart

	Correct	Incorrect
27-FEB	25	7
28-FEB	41	5
29-FEB	42	5
1-MAR	49	2
2-MAR	56	1
5-MAR	63	0

► Remember:

- Start on the y axis furthest to the left.

► 9

Slide 10

Teaching Probes: Aim Rates

► Aim rates tell us when reading is fluent.

► The aim rate for the teaching probes is 50 words correct per minute, with no more than two errors.

50 / 2

CORRECT NO MORE THAN 2 ERRORS

►

Slide 11

Assessing progress against the aim rate

Aim rate achieved 50 / 2 achieved over 3 consecutive days Move on to the next stage of the curriculum

3 day rule The first 3 days will tell you if the task is too easy or too difficult for the child. If the pupil is not close to aim rate after 3 days need to fine tune. Sliding Range: 5 words in probe but decrease number of new words

8 day rule If the pupil is not near the aim rate after 8 days the programme should not continue without a change being considered. Consider a change

► 11

Slide 12

Assessing progress against the aim rate

- ▶ If the aim rate is reached, move on to the next 5 words!
- ▶ If the aim rate is not reached after 8 days, consider:
 - ▶ The teaching (teach to the errors);
 - ▶ The pre requisite skills;
 - ▶ Task slicing (making it easier);
 - ▶ Motivation, feedback and reward.

▶ 12

Slide 13

8 common problems with precision teaching

Inaccurate timing	The rates recorded will be affected if the timing isn't for exactly 1 minute.
The probe is completed before 1 minute has elapsed	The pupil has to keep going with the teaching probe to get a 'rate per minute' record.
There is a mismatch between the probe and the teaching	The pupil is being taught one skill while the probe measures a different skill.
Task difficulty	The wrong curriculum levels are being used.

▶ 13

Slide 14

8 common problems with precision teaching

The aim rate is not reached and progress 'flattens out'	Make the change!
Progress is too slow	Make the change!
Ignoring feedback and motivation	Feedback and motivation is an essential part of Precision Teaching. Involve the child in identifying rewards!
Related difficulties / disabilities are ignored	In exceptional circumstances, it may be necessary to change the aim rate or alter how responses are gathered.

▶ 14

Slide 15

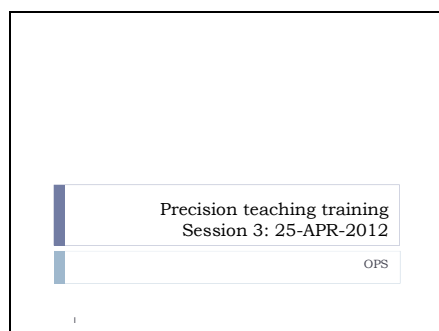
Activities to complete for next time

- ▶ Select a child to work with.
- ▶ Complete a placement probe.
- ▶ Choose and populate a teaching probe.
- ▶ Complete at least 5 days of teaching, testing and then charting.
- ▶ Come back prepared with some thoughts on next steps for that child and their Precision Teaching programme.

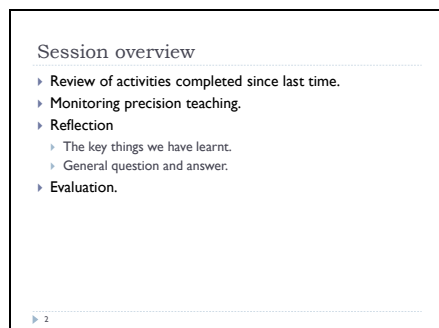
▶ 15

Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

Slide 1



Slide 2



Slide 3

Activities completed since last time

- › Select a child to work with.
- › Complete a placement probe.
- › Choose and populate a teaching probe.
- › Complete at least 5 days of teaching, testing and then charting.
- › Come back prepared with some thoughts on next steps for that child and their Precision Teaching programme.

› 3

Slide 4

Activity (1)

- › Discuss what options are available to make changes to the Precision Teaching programme.

› 4

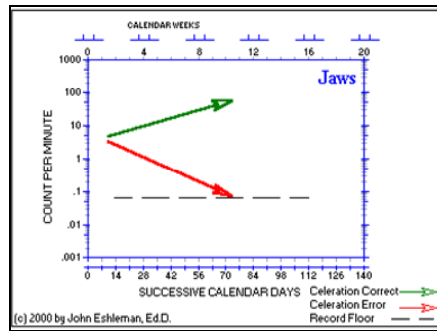
Slide 5

Activity (2)

- › Look at the eight charts in the following slides.
- › For each one consider:
 - › What do the shape of the fluency / accuracy lines indicate?
 - › What decision would you make about the change that needs to be made to the programme?
- › Changes might include:
 - › Step up the curriculum;
 - › Step down the curriculum;
 - › Modifying the words to make the task easier (slicing);
 - › Modifying the teaching;
 - › Identifying and teaching to the errors;
 - › Motivate, feedback, reward;
 - › Modifying the parameters of Precision Teaching, such as the aim rate or the response time (last resort, in special circumstances).

›

Slide 6



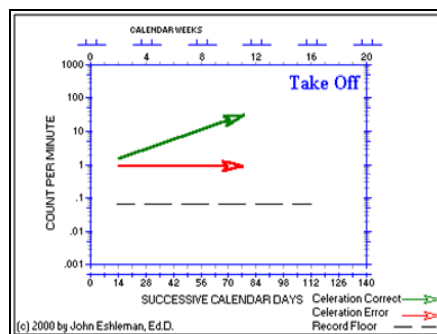
The lines mean:

- Increasing fluency.
- Decreasing errors.

Next step:

- Nothing, until the aim rate is reached.

Slide 7



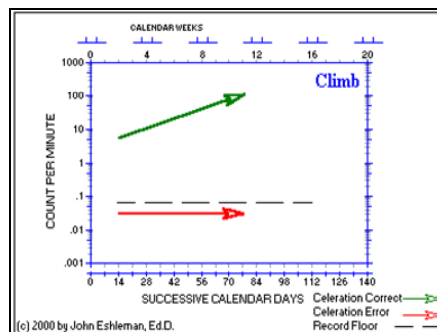
The lines mean:

- Increasing fluency.
- The same number of errors.

Next step:

- Identifying and teaching to the errors.

Slide 8



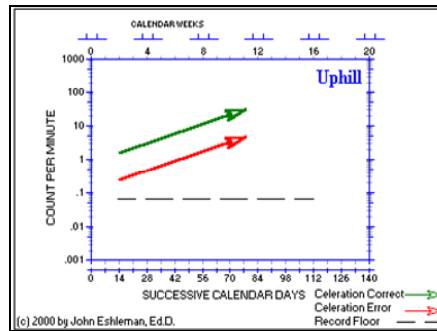
The lines mean:

- Increasing fluency.
- The same number of errors.

Next step:

- Nothing, until the aim rate is reached.
- Or, identifying and teaching to the errors.

Slide 9



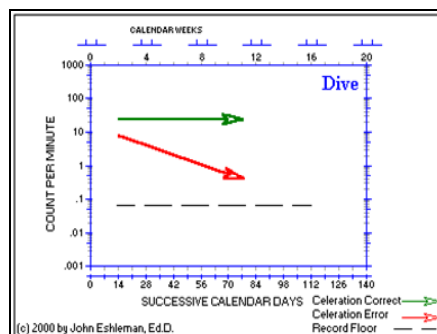
The lines mean:

- Increasing fluency.
- Increasing number of errors.

Next step:

- Encourage them to take their time to reduce the number of errors.

Slide 10



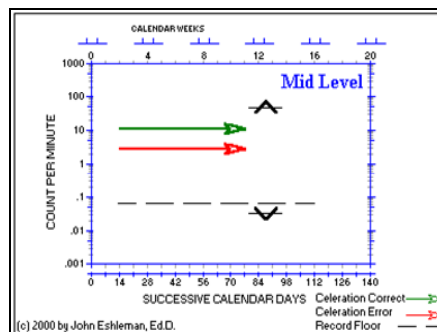
The lines mean:

- The same level of fluency.
- Reducing the number of errors.

Next step:

- Introduce a couple of words that they might know to increase fluency.

Slide 11



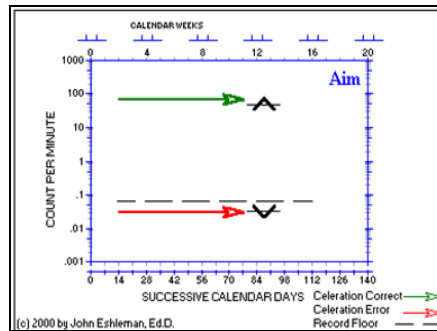
The lines mean:

- The same level of fluency.
- The same number of errors.

Next step:

- Changing the words to make it easier.

Slide 12



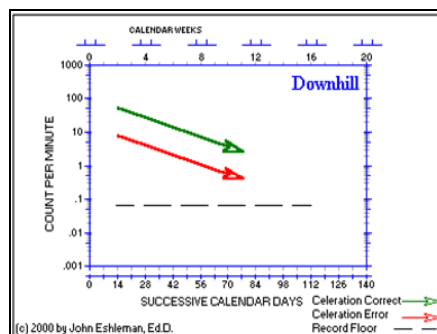
The lines mean:

- The same level of (high) fluency.
- The same number of errors.

Next step:

- Move on, as long as it is above the aim rate.
- Or, identifying and teaching to the errors.

Slide 13



The lines mean:

- Decreasing fluency.
- Increasing errors.

Next step:

- Move back in the curriculum to some core skills.

Slide 14

Reflection

- ▶ The key things we have learnt.
- ▶ Activity (3)
 - ▶ Write down 2 questions you still have regarding Precision Teaching.
- ▶ General question and answer.

▶ 14

Slide 15

Evaluation

► Before we started session 1, you indicated how confident you were in what you knew about Precision Teaching. Circle the score you gave yourself:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

► Now we have completed 3 sessions on Precision Teaching, how confident do you now feel in what you know about Precision Teaching?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

► How confident do you feel about whether you will implement a Precision Teaching programme before the end of this academic year?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

► 15

Slide 16

Evaluation:
How easy or difficult was it to understand....

	Difficult					Easy				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
What precision teaching is										
The precision teaching sequence										
How to use a placement probe to identify where to start										
How to set SMART targets										
How to set up a teaching probe										
How to set up and complete teaching arrangements										
Charting										
Monitoring / modifying a programme										

► 16

Slide 17

Evaluation: How confident do you feel about implementing these components on your own?

	Not confident					Confident				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Using a placement probe										
Setting SMART targets										
Setting up a teaching probe										
Completing the teaching arrangements										
Charting										
Monitoring / modifying a programme										

► 17

Slide 18

Evaluation	
Most effective elements of the training	Least effective elements of the training
<ul style="list-style-type: none">•••	<ul style="list-style-type: none">•••
▶ 18	

Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

Slide 15

Evaluation

► Before we started session 1, you indicated how confident you were in what you knew about Precision Teaching. Circle the score you gave yourself:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

► Now we have completed 3 sessions on Precision Teaching, how confident do you now feel in what you know about Precision Teaching?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

► How confident do you feel about whether you will implement a Precision Teaching programme before the end of this academic year?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

► 15

Slide 16

Evaluation:

How easy or difficult was it to understand....

	Difficult									Easy
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
What precision teaching is										
The precision teaching sequence										
How to use a placement probe to identify where to start										
How to set SMART targets										
How to set up a teaching probe										
How to set up and complete teaching arrangements										
Charting										
Monitoring / modifying a programme										

► 16

Slide 17

Evaluation: How confident do you feel about implementing these components on your own?

	Not confident					Confident				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Using a placement probe										
Setting SMART targets										
Setting up a teaching probe										
Completing the teaching arrangements										
Charting										
Monitoring / modifying a programme										

► 17

Slide 18

Evaluation

Most effective elements of the training	Least effective elements of the training
•	•
•	•
•	•

► 18

Appendix	Content
1	Sample materials from the teacher briefing.
2	Sample materials from the Head and SEN coordinator de-briefing.
3	Sample materials from TA training (session 1).
4	Sample materials from TA training (session 2).
5	Sample materials from TA training (session 3).
6	Questionnaire.
7	Data collection template.

[illegible]

CHAPTER 4

THE ROLE OF SERVICE USER FEEDBACK IN SHAPING AND IMPROVING EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY SERVICE DELIVERY

by

TOM HUGHES

A professional practice report submitted to the University of Birmingham for
The Applied Educational and Child Psychology Doctorate programme.

College of Social Sciences
School of Education
University of Birmingham
B15 2TT
June 2012

8,909 words

Abstract

83% of Educational Psychology Services seek feedback from schools about the quality of the service that is delivered (Hampshire Educational Psychology Service, 2010b). Through the lens of an outcomes-based accountability model of evaluation (Friedman, 2008), a cross-sectional design was used to investigate the views of the school-based service-users of the Educational Psychology Service (EPS) in a large shire county. A questionnaire was used to gather data from the 250 schools in the county (55% response rate), and this was followed up with 6 semi-structured interviews of the respondents and assigned Educational Psychologists (EPs) in schools that had been particularly positive in their questionnaire feedback.

Results showed that EPs had excellent relationships with stakeholders, produced valued reports and were professional in their role. Some services were accessed more than others, and the perceived quality of the services was correlated with how much the service was accessed. Results regarding the extent EPs add value were slightly lower than other results in the questionnaire (but still positive).

The challenges associated with evaluating EP services are revisited, and a proposed approach to evaluation is outlined. The success of the evaluation initiative is framed in terms of the extent that it has led to learning and change in the EPS.

Introduction

‘Macbridge’ Educational Psychology Service (EPS) supports 250 (nursery, primary, middle, secondary, specialist) schools across ‘Macbridgeshire’, a large shire county in

the East of England. There are 22 full time equivalent Educational Psychologists (EPs) in Macbridgeshire.

The Macbridgeshire Children and Young People's Plan for 2009-2012 defines the current county wide priorities as:

- To help children and young people feel safe and happy in their communities.
- To narrow the gap in outcomes for children and young people in some areas and with specific needs.
- To improve outcomes for children and young people with learning disabilities and difficulties and complex needs.

In line with these priorities, the EPS has published an action plan that commits the service to providing 'highest quality services'. The arrival of a new Principal EP heralded a review of EPS evaluation practices, including how feedback is gathered from key stakeholders (such as schools). School feedback on EPS performance has not been gathered since a county-wide embargo on asking for information from schools was placed on all local authority services in 2005.

This paper documents the implementation of a programme to elicit service-user (school) feedback to define opportunities for service improvement. The basis for the programme is outlined in the literature review. The literature review briefly outlines the context for EPS delivery, before detailing the history of EPS evaluation from the late 1960s forward. The rationale for collecting service-user feedback is introduced as a route to developing a learning organisation. More specifically, the literature review then turns to evaluative data gathered from professionals in schools, and how this has influenced the profession to date.

Literature review

The context of EPS delivery

A common theme in both the Academies Act (2010) and the proposed special educational needs (SEN) green paper (Support and aspiration: a new approach to special educational needs and disability, 2012) is one of devolvement of funding and choice to schools and parents away from centralised governmental bodies. Alongside the effects of the Coalition government's deficit reduction plan (HM Government, 2010), this devolvement has seen increasing numbers of EP services across the UK adopt commercialised trading service delivery models.

Although Macbridgeshire EPS does not (currently) trade its services, the national context is characterised by the emerging primacy of customer satisfaction as the key consideration when evaluating services (Rowland, 2002). Consequently, EP services are not immune to external pressures that encourage the views of stakeholders to be incorporated into evaluative efforts designed to demonstrate accountability (Dunsmuir et al., 2009).

Evaluating EP services

Historically, government-sponsored professional evaluations have informed how EP services evaluate themselves. Dowling and Leibowitz (1994) trace the early stages of the evolution of EPS evaluation from the late 1960s forward:

Year	Report / author	Details / EPS evaluation comments
1968	The Summerfield report (HM Government)	This 'first generation' report outlined the role of EPs, but failed to consider the effectiveness of EP work.

Year	Report / author	Details / EPS evaluation comments
1976	The Wedell report (British Psychological Society enquiry)	Towards the end of the 1970s the first EPS evaluations were completed, and this report captured emergent understanding of EP work and activity.
1990	EP Services in England (Department of Education and Science; DfES)	Having visited a third of all local educational authorities in the UK, the report identified a lack of clarity in the aims and objectives of EP services, making evaluation difficult.
2000	EP Services (England) (Department for Education and Employment; DfEE)	A wide-ranging review of the profession (questionnaires to 500 randomly selected schools, 234 follow up interviews, 12 local education authority case studies) emphasised the need to ensure that mechanisms are in place to monitor 'the quality and effectiveness of provision' (p. 9).
2006	The Farrell report (Department for Education and Skills; DfES)	Having reviewed the results from 1000 questionnaires (EPs and service-users) and 12 (child) interviews, the report commented on desire of EP services to increase the transparency of the role and increase service-users understanding of their work.

Table 1: EP profession evaluations.

Across the UK in 2012, EP services in Scotland are illustrative of the scrutiny that EP service delivery can expect to come under from external evaluators (Cherry, 1998):

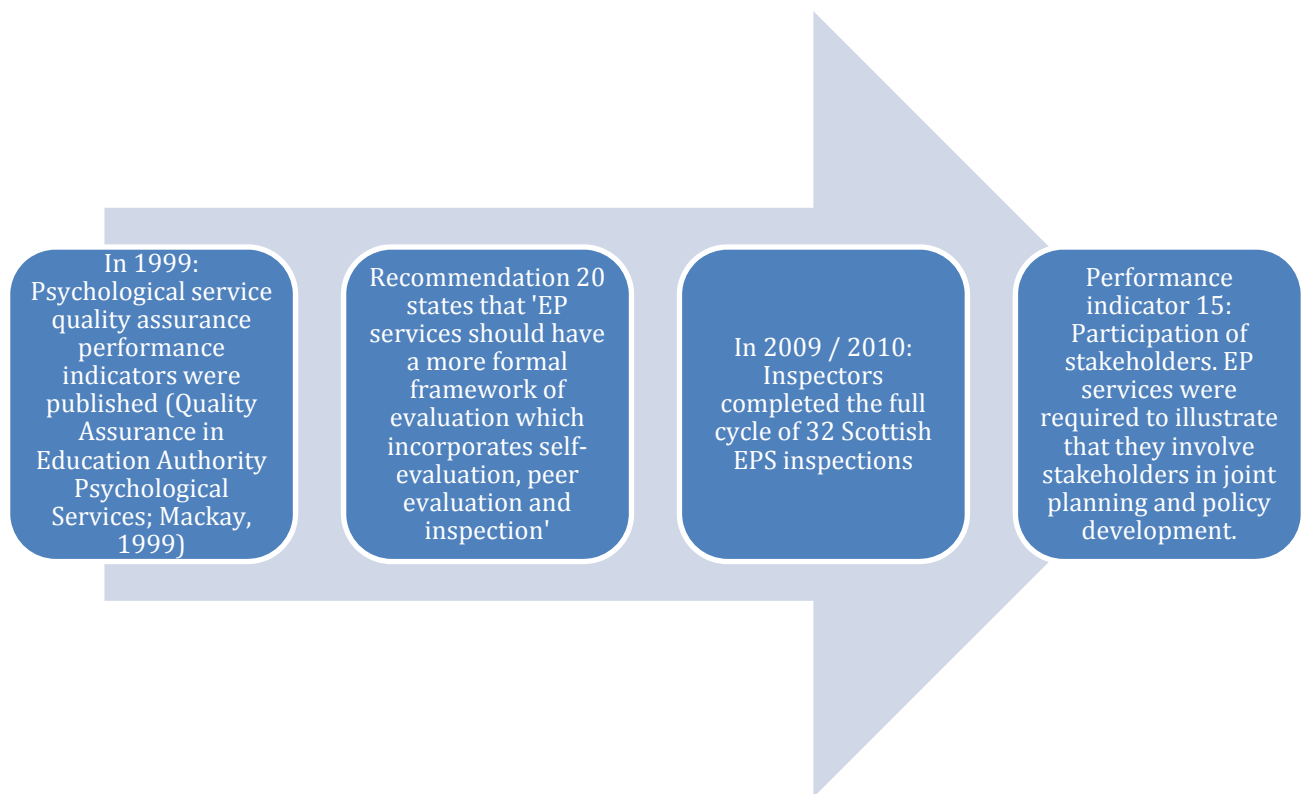


Figure 1: Inspection practices for EP services in Scotland.

In 1995, MacBeath et al. stated that no single universal model for evaluation of EP services was evident, and that statement holds true today. Many commentators have recognised the difficulties in evaluating EP services. Primarily, it is problematic that service outcomes are subtle, multi-dimensional and difficult to measure (Roper and Pettitt, 2002). Success can only be attributed to a complex network of causal connections, and the reductionist nature of many evaluative models underestimates the sophistication and complexity inherent in EP work (Turner et al., 2010). In addition, the resource commitments associated with some evaluative models is unsustainable (Turner et al., 2010), and, in some case, efforts to assess the impact in one area may create perverse incentives elsewhere (Roper and Pettitt, 2002).

As a result, many evaluative models have vacillated between competing priorities, including:

Option	Limitation	Option	Limitation
Using process / output measures to determine what has been done (Sharp et al., 2000).	These measures 'do not reflect the key features and real value added by an EP's intervention' (Cherry, 1998; p. 122) and do not inform service improvement.	vs. Using outcome measures to determine what has been achieved (Sharp et al., 2000).	These measures often rely on factors other than the EP involvement and so do not provide robust information on EP effectiveness. (Turner et al., 2010)
Using a qualitative paradigm focusing on case reviews that highlight opportunities for self-reflection, self-evaluation and professional development (Turner et al., 2010).	Such techniques are viewed with suspicion due to the high degree of subjectivity and the wholesale rejection of scientific methods (Argyle, 1978).	vs. Using a quantitative paradigm by attaching numerical indicators to the current state, expected future state and actual future state related to identified targets (Dunsmuir et al., 2009).	These techniques are viewed to be reductionist and mechanistic with subjective views masquerading as objective data (Cohen et al., 2003).

Table 2: Competing approaches to EP service evaluation.

The model of evaluation based on effort, effect and impact introduced by Friedman (2008) has gone furthest towards reconciling the fundamental epistemological, ontological and philosophical disagreements alluded to above. Whilst some of the criticisms remain (specifically the arbitrary distinction between quantity and quality of change or effect produced), the model poses a number of evaluative questions that reflect the dichotomous opinions outlined above:

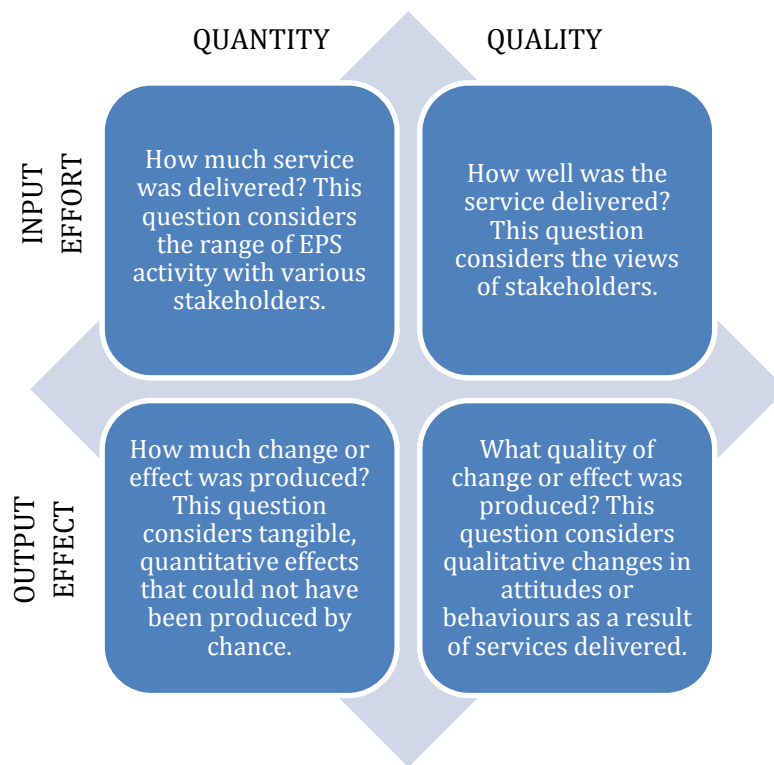


Figure 2: Outcomes-based accountability model (Friedman, 2008).

The model rests on the belief that all performance measures can be derived from the cross between two sets of interlocking (quantity / quality) questions: ‘how much did we do?’ and ‘how well did we do it?’ When integrated with the effort / effect dimension, a four-part model describing the different types of performance measures emerges. Central to the model is recognition that the upper left quadrant is the least important element of the model, and the focus should be on the added-value represented by the quality of the output effect (not the quantity of the input effort).

Various EP services have adopted Friedman’s model as it represents an evaluative ‘middle-ground’ that is sufficiently broad, flexible and nuanced to meet a range of evaluative needs. Services that have adopted this model of evaluation (such as Hampshire EPS and Stirling Council EPS) generally produce annual standards and quality reports made available to the public and elected officials.

The rationale for collecting service-user feedback

As stated in the introduction, for the last 7 years limited evaluation of Macbridge EPS has been conducted. Any evaluation that has been conducted has been focused on simple input effort / quantity measures, such as entering activity recording data and tracking the volume of psychological advices submitted. In common with many EP services building their evaluative capacity, Macbridgeshire EPS made a decision to focus resources on input effort / quality measures (in Friedman's model this addresses the views of stakeholders in answering the question 'how well were services delivered?') as the starting point for evaluating the service.

Gathering service-user feedback can provide the springboard for an organisation to become a learning organisation as they develop skills in 'creating, understanding and transferring knowledge and modifying [the organisation's] behaviour to reflect the insights which these processes generate' (Cameron, 1996; p. 3). Senge (1990) defines a learning organisation as one in which capacities are continually expanding: the organisation's capacity to create its future and the individual's capacity to create the results they truly desire.

Learning organisations are seen as desirable as they are espoused to create, integrate and apply knowledge (Thomas and Allen, 2006) that not only allows them to survive but to continuously transform themselves (Calvert et al., 1994) and improve their performance (Buckler, 1998). Learning organisations are hypothesised to have a better capacity to change (Cullen, 1999) and solve problems (Buckler, 1998).

Stewart (2001) highlights a number of criticisms of the concept of learning organisations, including that it has been ill-defined and widely misunderstood.

Furthermore, learning organisations seem to rest on top-down, management-led approaches to achieve homogeneity and conformity, and this may be counter to the very essence of a learning organisation. This risks underestimating the political and structural complexity in organisations as well as the irrational, emotive behaviour of individuals. Lastly, learning organisations were borne out of the private sector, which may result in ‘the transformative, democratising and liberating aspects to which Senge has made reference [being] ignored or minimised’ (Battersby, 1999; p. 59).

Watkins and Marsick (1993) defined six imperatives for building a learning organisation, and service-user feedback enables each of the imperatives:

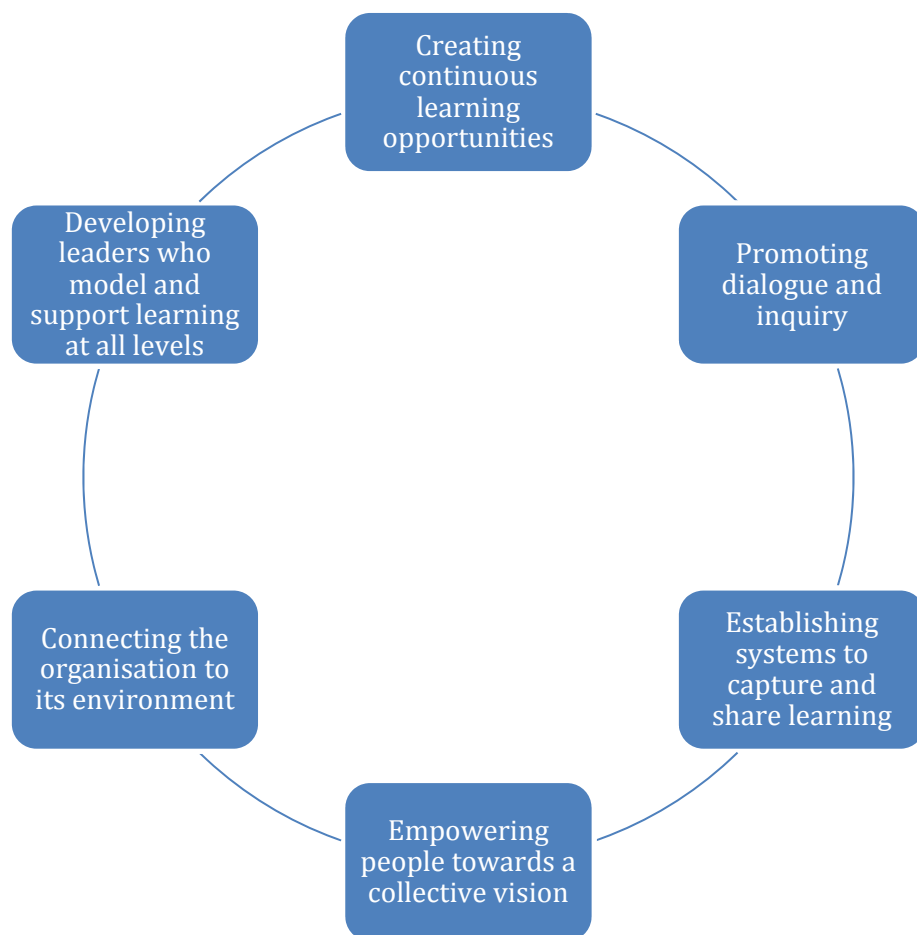


Figure 3: Building a learning organisation (Watkins and Marsick, 1993).

Feedback from service-users can help build a learning organisation either directly (feedback can create learning opportunities, promote dialogue and connect the organisation to the environment) or indirectly (informing the system to capture and share learning, empowering people and developing leaders). Garratt (1990) refers to learning organisations benefiting from a ‘free flow of authentic information’ (p. 79).

Equally, three of Senge’s five dimensions that innovate learning organisations can, in part, be fuelled by understanding what service-users perceive of any organisation:

Dimension	Definition	Relation to service-user feedback
Personal mastery	The proficiency people can achieve through a commitment to lifelong learning (Senge, 2006). Organisation learning happens through individuals, and achieving personal mastery is a process that involves, at some point, confronting the truths and the facts of your reality (Collins, 2001).	Service-user feedback can act as a source of learning for individuals as well as identifying the ‘truths’ of an organisation.
Mental models	Deeply ingrained assumptions and generalisations that influence how we understand the world and how we take action (Senge, 2006).	Senge (2006) recommends using tools (such as service-user feedback) to surface and challenge mental models and develop skills of reflection and enquiry.
Team learning	The process of aligning and developing the capacity of a team to create the results its members truly desire (Senge, 2006).	Feedback releases the ability to think insightfully about complex issues (Senge, 2006).

Table 3: The dimensions of a learning organisation.

Indirectly, service-user feedback can also enable systems thinking and building a shared vision, the other two of Senge’s five dimensions.

As referenced above, service-user feedback is also likely to support individuals in developing their skills as reflective practitioners (Cherry, 1998). Such feedback helps professionals reflect on the abstractions and generalisations that may characterise the way professionals think and reason as they ascend ‘the ladder of inference’ (Argyris et

al., 1985). Relatedly, Owen and Lambert (1995) argue that the role of evaluation within a learning organisation is to create enlightenment.

Receiving regular, rigorous feedback is also seen to elevate the level of learning and change that occurs in organisations:

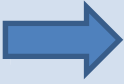


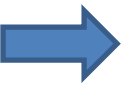
From		To
Single-loop learning, where errors are detected and corrected in a 'continuous improvement' process.		Double-loop learning, where the success formulas and theories of the organisation are questioned and challenged, leading to a deeper level of collective understanding of values and assumptions in the organisation.
Adaptive learning, where capabilities to manage new situations are created by making incremental improvements and amendments.		Generative learning, where new perspectives, options, possibilities and definitions are developed.
Maintenance learning, where problem-solving focuses on known and recurring situations. Here, learning maintains an existing system and is indispensable for stability.		Innovative learning, where anticipation (considering trends and making plans) and participation (an attitude characterised by operation, dialogue and empathy) are mutually dependent.
First order change (less of, more of....) that comes from operational work that is ritualistic and routine, and managed through specific control systems and set levels of performance.		Second order change, which views change as an attitudinal and knowledge re-framing process.

Table 4: Levels of learning and change, adapted from Altman and Illes (1998), Argyris and Schon (1996), Lessem (1991) and Garratt (1987).

Finally, a great variety of change models outline a role for feedback in influencing decisions individuals and organisations make on a future course of events – in other words, initiating change. These models include:

Model	The role of feedback
Wedell (2009)	The initiation of educational change relies on using the current educational reality as a starting point for discussion.
Ainscow (2005)	Evidence that measures educational performance (including feedback) can be used as a lever for change.

Model	The role of feedback
Kotter (1996)	The first step in the 8-stage process of creating major change is establishing a sense of urgency, and to do that crises, potential crises and major opportunities have to be identified and discussed.
Fullan (1991)	Feedback informs the invitation stage of change.
Everard and Morris (1985)	Feedback enables a preliminary diagnosis or reconnaissance that helps to characterise the present.

Table 5: The role of feedback in models of change.

Defining service-users

As the section above outlines, service-user feedback can help organisations become learning organisations, and it can energise change. As far back as 1991, the Association of Educational Psychologists was advising EP services that more effort should be made to consult consumer groups (McKeever, 1996).

EPs work in a complex environment, with a range of stakeholders. The Stirling Council EPS inspection report (Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education, HMI, 2010c) details the stakeholders they consulted with:

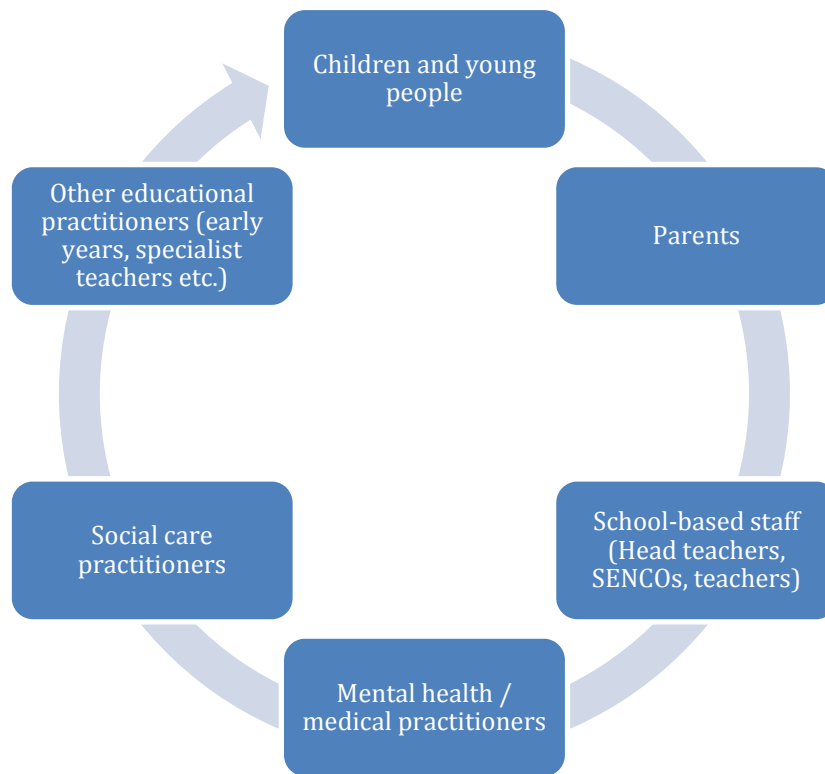


Figure 4: EPS stakeholders (HMI, 2010c).

‘Every Parent Matters’ (Department for Children, Schools and Families, DCSF, 2007), The Lamb Inquiry (DCSF, 2009) and the proposed SEN green paper (2012) have brought parents to the fore in terms of the information and service they receive and the significance attached to their voice.

However, schools remain critical to EP service delivery (Hampshire EPS, 2010a), and head teachers have been identified as one of the most influential variables affecting the role, function and services of the school psychologist (Benson and Hughes, 1985). To this end, one of the principles recommended to underpin the future direction of EP services (DfEE, 2000) was that schools should be able to have greater influence over the services they receive.

As a result, whilst there has been a trend from school-based to community-based work (Farrell et al., 2006), it seems appropriate that feedback from school-based (adult) service-users serves as a starting point for gathering feedback.

Gathering service-user feedback from schools

Prior to 2000, a number of EP services in the UK gathered feedback from schools and published the findings. The reported aims of these exercises were (Matthews, 2002):

- To measure consumer satisfaction.
- To track performance.
- To establish performance criteria.

A sample of these published evaluations includes:

EPS	Author (year)
Portsmouth	Wright and Payne (1979)
Surrey	Evans and Wright (1987)
Harrow	Griffey (1989)
Waltham Forest	Gersch and Townley (1994)
Westminster	Dowling and Leibowitz (1994)
Northern Ireland	McKeever (1996)

Table 6: Published EPS evaluations.

In 2010, the National Association for Principal Educational Psychologists (NAPEP) conducted a survey of evaluative practices in EP services across the country. Of the 23 EP services that responded, 83% sought feedback from schools about the quality of the service that had been delivered (Hampshire EPS, 2010b). EPS evaluations are commonly made public through nationally established inspection schedules (such as in Scotland), or reports written for elected members of local authority governing bodies (examples include evaluations of the EP services in Hampshire and Worcestershire).

Alongside this EPS-led activity, a number of researchers have investigated service-user (school) feedback across EP service boundaries. Included in these are:

Author (year)	Method	Methodological limitations
Anthun (1999)	Surveyed teachers, administrators and school psychologists from external agencies across Norway.	Concerns regarding the generalisability of the findings, given they were established in Norway (Greene, 2010).
Gilman and Gabriel (2004)	Used a fixed response questionnaire to survey 1700 teachers and administrators in the US.	Concerns re: generalisability. The results for principals were combined with those from administrators, which made discerning between-population differences impossible (Greene, 2010).
Farrell et al. (2005)	1105 completed questionnaires were returned from teachers in 250 schools in 8 countries (including England).	Recognition that the questionnaire structure encouraged the elicitation of polarised views (Farrell et al., 2005)
Magi and Kikas (2009)	107 Estonian school principals returned a survey.	Concerns re: generalisability.
Greene (2010)	Interviewed 10 principals in the US, using interpretative phenomenological analysis and classical content analysis.	Limitations arise from the small sample size and its geographical homogeneity (Greene, 2010).

Table 7: Studies that have investigated service-user (school) feedback.

From the evaluations and research outlined above, a number of themes of good evaluative practice have emerged. It is recommended (HMI, 2010a) that a variety of methods of data collection are used to triangulate the data (Turner et al., 2010). Turner et al. (2010) go on to state that EPS evaluation should be transparent and able to reflect the complexity of the EPS context. In Scotland, the inspecting body (HMI, 2010a) recommends a systematic, cyclical process that is embedded into established practices in the EPS. Equally critical is that the information from the evaluation is acted upon and used to define accountability for change (Matthews, 2002). Lastly, Matthews (2002)

goes on to state that the evaluative approach must 'function within the resource limitations that all EP services face' (p. 141).

Strikingly, many of the studies summarised above comment on the historical misalignment between the views of EPs and school-based staff on the role of an EP. For example:

- Teachers perceive EPs to have more clinical skills that EPs think they do (Styles, 1965);
- Teachers do not share EP service priorities or the preferences of EPs regarding their activities (Medway, 1977);
- Teachers disagreed with EPs on the most important functions of their roles (Ford and Migles, 1979);
- There was a discrepancy between the role the school psychologist played on a day-to-day basis and what teachers expected and perceived them to be doing (Dean, 1980);
- Teachers wanted EPs to do more individual assessment (Evans and Wright, 1987; Dowling and Leibowitz, 1994);
- Teachers are frustrated when EPs don't take on a wider role (McKeever, 1996);
- There is a mismatch between what EP services think they should be doing and what users perceive as their role (DfEE, 2000).

Irrespective of this misalignment, however, head teachers and teachers consistently report a high level of satisfaction with EP services. In Worcestershire, for example, 97% of participants reported that EPs mostly, almost always or always contribute to the progress of children (Worcestershire EPS, 2012). EP services are seen as responsive /

accessible ('staff in educational establishments agree that EPS are responsive to the needs of the local community'; p. 15; HMI, 2010a) and effective (89% of the respondents to the Hampshire EPS survey indicated that EPs help to understand and/or clarify issues; Hampshire EPS, 2010a). Findings consistently underline how central relationships are to the work of EPs. Perth and Kinross EPS was deemed to have 'very effective working relationships with school and education staff'; p. 2; HMI, 2010b), and 100% of respondents in Worcestershire (2012) felt that EPs had either good or excellent relationships with parents. The contributions of EPs to multidisciplinary meetings are appreciated (HMI, 2010a).

Consistently, head teachers and teachers identify the assessment-related work of EPs as most prevalent and desirable (Farrell et al., 2005), and they value the impartiality of the EP involvement (Hampshire EPS, 2010a). A common theme of the findings in this area reflects the tensions that exist regarding the direct vs. indirect involvement of EPs with children. In Hampshire, schools were asked if they felt the service had the right balance between direct work with children and indirect work, and 62% responded positively (30% did not believe the balance was right). As consultative service delivery models have emerged (Leadbetter, 2006), respondents commonly argue for EPs to spend more time directly with children (Hampshire EPS, 2010a), even if consultation is recognised as efficient (Farrell et al., 2005). In this indirect capacity, head teachers and teachers value the support EPs provide to navigate the system (Hampshire EPS, 2010a), working with parents (Worcestershire EPS, 2012) and delivering training (Farrell et al., 2006).

Generally, concerns with the services delivered relate to a lack of understanding of the core offer of EPs, which can seem confused due to the breadth of areas of involvement (Farrell et al., 2006). For example, HMI (2010a) commented that EP services across

Scotland needed to ‘establish clearer expectations about the professional services and standards stakeholders can expect, to reduce inconsistency and variability of practice’ (p. 19).

When questioned on what services head teachers and teachers would like more of, a slight divergence between the two groups emerges (even amongst the many similarities):

Head teachers	Teachers
More assessment (Magi and Kikas, 2009)	More assessment (Gilman and Gabriel, 2004)
More individual case work (Evans and Wright, 1987)	50% of teachers reported wanting EPs to be more involved in counselling activities (Gilman and Gabriel, 2004)
	More direct interventions, such as group therapy (Farrell et al., 2005)
	More consultative work (Farrell et al., 2005; Farrell et al., 2006)
More training and ‘psycho-education’ (Greene, 2010; Magi and Kikas, 2009)	More training (Farrell et al., 2005)
More preventative work (DfEE, 2000), including mental health service provision (Greene, 2010)	
More systemic organisational design and school culture activity (Greene, 2010; Magi and Kikas, 2009)	
	More direct work with parents (Farrell et al., 2005)

Table 8: Service delivery requests from head teachers and teachers.

On the whole, if there is a desire to work indirectly with children (through parents and teachers) this seems to be present from teachers rather than head teachers. Otherwise, the views shared are broadly aligned, with both groups desiring more breadth in the role of EPs rather than, necessarily, a change in the EP role (Watkins et al., 2001). The DfEE (2000) reported that EP services believed they were providing a wider range of services to schools than the schools believed they were receiving.

Common throughout the research is the recognition of the resource constraints that apply to EPs – the Farrell et al. (2005) survey in England found that 98.8% of respondents wanted more EP time. The legislative parameters of the EP role (Farrell et al., 2006) and the longevity of the relationship between the EP and the school (Magi and Kikas, 2009) have also been documented as key influences on the role of the EP, and the value attached to it.

Method

This aim of this evaluative study was to provide Macbridgeshire EPS with a clearer perspective on the views of one of their key service-users (schools) in order to improve service performance. The study planned to provide descriptive inference (King et al., 1994) through the depiction of ‘ideal types’ that represent the essential features of the social process between EPs and schools.

Philosophical stance

The evaluative approach taken in this study is based on pragmatism, a pluralist or compatibilist stance that enables a needs-based approach to research method and concept selection (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Classical pragmatists (including Peirce, James and Dewey) cleared the way for a workable solution to many longstanding philosophical dualisms. The middle ground of the pragmatic position considers the natural or physical world alongside the emergent social and psychological world, and recognises knowledge as being both constructed and based on the reality of the world we experience and live in (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Morgan (2007) outlined the pragmatic alternative to the key issues in social science research methodology:

The pragmatic approach	Rejects	Definition and justification
Abductive reasoning	Exclusive use of induction and deduction. The actual process of moving between theory and data never operates in only one direction.	Abductive reasoning allows the researcher to move back and forth between induction and deduction. Abduction evaluates the results of prior inductions through their ability to predict the workability of future lines of behaviour.
Intersubjectivity	The usual forced dichotomy between subjective and objective is an artificial summary of the relationship between the researcher and the research process.	Intersubjectivity represents the emphasis on processes of communication and shared meaning that are central to any pragmatic approach. Attention is paid to the social processes that produce both consensus and conflict.
Transferability	The need to choose between a pair of extremes, where research results are either completely specific to a particular context or an instance of some more generalised set of principles.	Researchers must investigate the factors that affect whether the knowledge they gain can be transferred to other settings. The advocacy of transferability thus arises from a focus on what can be done with the knowledge.

Table 9: The pragmatic alternative (Morgan, 2007).

Pragmatism, ‘in its simplest form, is a practical approach to a problem’ (Cameron, 2011; p.101), and this has been the basis for criticism of an approach that lends itself to mixed methods research (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Adopting a pragmatic perspective risks an ‘anything goes’ approach methodological decision making and this must be avoided (Lipscomb, 2008).

The pragmatic approach taken recognises that much EP work relies on relationships with others. The focus on the dynamic activities taking place between EPs and their service-users (Woods, 1979) requires the causal pathway between an EP-led

intervention and the evaluated impact to be represented with care. Necessarily, the outcomes of such research represent fallibilistic, provisional truths (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Design

The study utilised a cross-sectional design (Robson, 2002), as the participants (the representatives of schools) were organised as a single group and treated the same way throughout the study. As outlined in the section below, the data collection approach initially focused on the descriptive elements of the research question (helping the EPS understand the views of the schools) before progressing on to focus on the explanatory elements of the research question (the characteristics of the schools and the EPs that shaped the school responses). In both areas the research sought to provide nomothetic explanations (partial explanations of a class of cases rather than a 'full' explanation of a particular case) (De Vaus, 2001).

Methods of data collection

Below is a timeline of the approach to data collection that was taken:

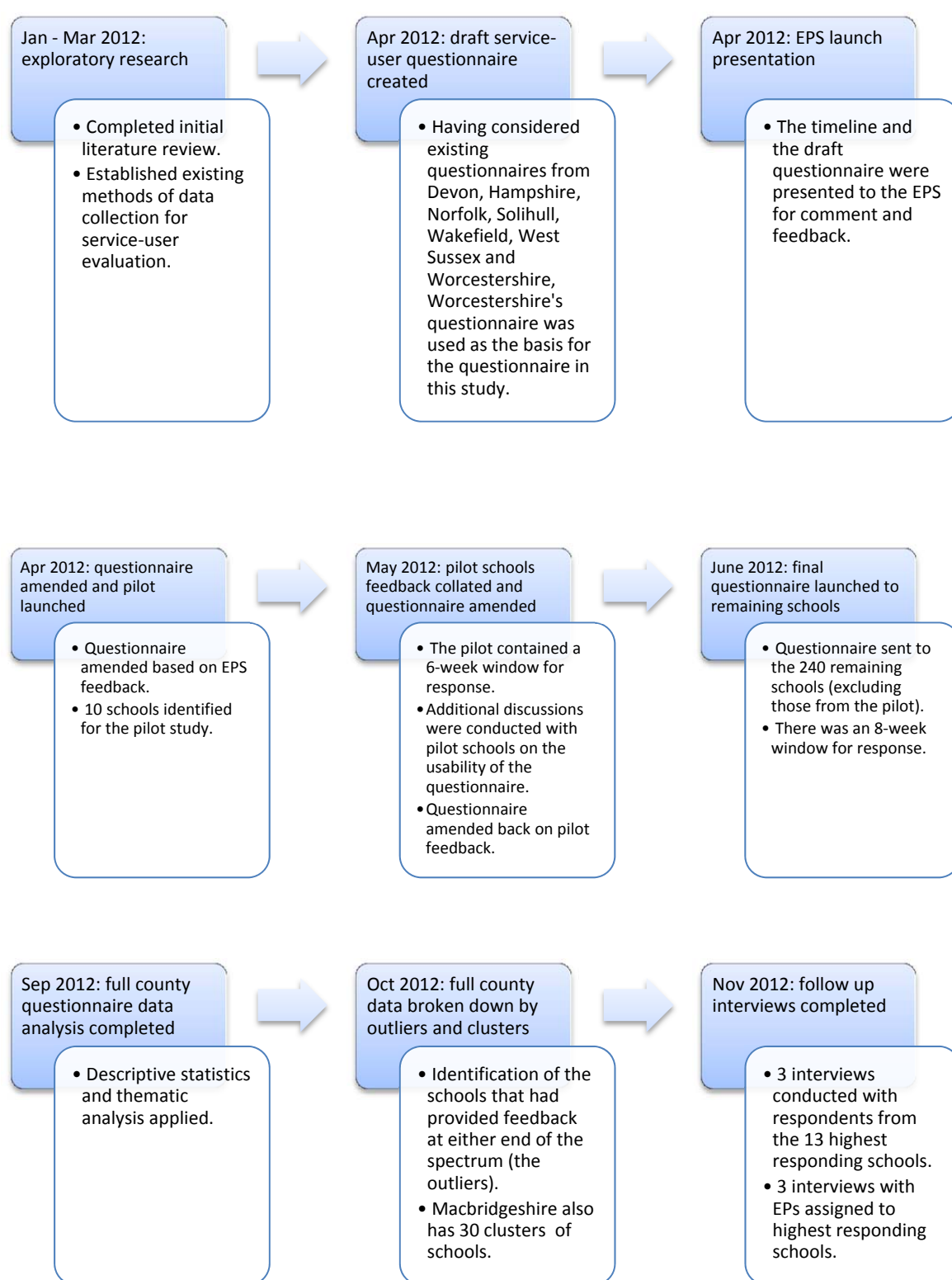


Figure 5: The timeline for data collection.

Various methods of data collection have been used by EP services to elicit service-user feedback, often in a mixed methods approach that serves to triangulate data (Turner et al., 2010):

Method of data collection	Example EPS
Case reviews	Stirling, Falkirk and Angus EPS (Turner et al., 2010)
Diary studies	Portsmouth EPS (Wright and Payne, 1979)
Focus groups	Edinburgh EPS (HMI, 2010d) and Perth and Kinross EPS (HMI, 2010b)
Interviews	Edinburgh EPS (HMI, 2010d), Matthews (2002), Lyons (1999), Westminster (Dowling and Leibowitz, 1994) and Portsmouth EPS (Wright and Payne, 1979)
Questionnaires	Devon EPS (Devon County Council, 2012), Solihull EPS (Solihull Metropolitan Borough Council, 2012), Worcestershire EPS (Worcestershire County Council, 2011), Norfolk EPS (2011), Hampshire EPS (2010a), Edinburgh EPS (HMI, 2010d), Wakefield EPS (2008), West Sussex EPS (1998), Northern Ireland (McKeever, 1996), Waltham Forest (Gersch and Townley, 1994), Westminster (Dowling and Leibowitz, 1994), Harrow (Griffey, 1989) and Portsmouth EPS (Wright and Payne, 1979)
Stakeholder conferences	Stirling EPS (HMI, 2010c)

Table 10: Established methods of data collection.

A mixed method explanatory design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007) was utilised in this study, with data collected through qualitative methods (interviews) used to build on data collected through (more) quantitative methods (questionnaires). This pragmatic approach (Punch, 2002) drew on the similarities, rather than the differences, between the qualitative and quantitative methods (using interview questions to elaborate on attitudes expressed in the questionnaire, for example).

The questionnaire

Table 10 illustrates the overwhelming reliance on questionnaires in previous research. This is likely to be because they are simple, straightforward and efficient (Robson,

2002), transparent (Hakim, 1987) and they can include a mixture of open and closed questions (Breakwell et al., 2007).

Having reviewed a number of questionnaires, the questionnaire used in Worcestershire (Worcestershire County Council, 2011) was selected as the basis for Macbridgeshire's questionnaire. This was because Worcestershire is a statistical neighbour of Macbridgeshire (which enabled comparison), the questionnaire addressed areas Macbridgeshire EPS was interested in (professional quality and efficiency, range and quality of available services, 'value added' contributions) and the questionnaire had already been established as usable.

The final questionnaire (appendix 1) included 9 questions, with most of the questions including both closed and open components. The changes from the Worcestershire questionnaire were as follows:

Change	Rationale
A 4-point nominal scale (Poor, Satisfactory, Good, Excellent) was replaced by a numerically based 6-point interval scale.	Interval scales enable simple data analysis, such as comparisons and averaging (even though the scales don't have a '0').
Q2 was modified to ask whether EP reports and paperwork were delivered in a timely fashion.	It was felt this was an important indicator regarding EP quality and efficiency.
Q3 was modified to ask whether the EP acted as a 'critical friend' (appropriately challenging school practices) to schools.	The role of EPs as a critical friend to improve school practice has been identified as important (Hick, 2000).
Q6 and Q7 were separated.	This enabled respondents to indicate in Q6 whether they received a service, and, if so, their views on the quality of the service (per the approach taken by Griffey, 1989).
Q9 was added (Do you feel the service delivered matches the needs of your school?).	It was felt this was an important question regarding overall satisfaction.

Table 11: Changes made to the Macbridgeshire EPS questionnaire from the Worcestershire EPS equivalent.

A 6-point scale was chosen to increase reliability (Nunnally, 1978) as, with more than 7-points, the returns diminish and respondents struggle to discriminate between the points (Lissitz and Green, 1975). The 6-points were 'anchored' at each end, but not throughout. To limit the central-tendency bias, there was no mid-point to revert to. '6' was always at the positive end of the scale, so there was no control for acquiescence bias.

The EPS launch and the pilot resulted in a number of changes being made to the questionnaire, including:

- The scale changing (from 9-points to 6-points).
- The introduction clearly stating that questionnaire related to services received in the current academic year (2011 / 12).
- Examples were added into the list of services in Q6 and Q7.
- An additional open question was added to Q9, focusing on areas for development.

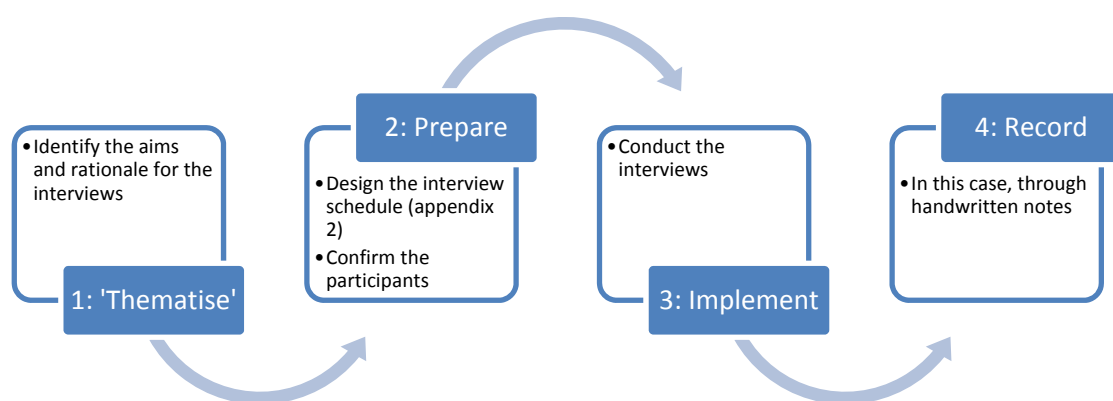
The 10 schools approached during the pilot were given the option to complete the questionnaire by hand or electronically. All respondents chose to complete the questionnaire electronically, so SurveyMonkey™ (an on-line survey tool) was used for roll-out of the full survey. The respondents were sent an email with a covering note from the Principal EP and the link to the survey. As the deadline for response approached, schools that had not responded were reminded of the request by their assigned EP (a tactic recommended by Edwards et al., 2002). The process outlined above resulted in a 55% response rate.

The interviews

Interviews have also played an important part in gathering feedback on EP services, per Table 10. This is likely as the focus on depth, nuance and language can provide meaningful knowledge (Mason, 2002). As Jones (1985) stated, the aim of interviews is ‘... to ask [questions] in such a way that [the interviewees] can tell us [about their constructions of reality] in their terms, and in a depth which addresses the rich context that is the substance of their meanings’ (p. 46).

The interviews considered the factors that contribute to a particularly high level of satisfaction with Macbridgeshire EPS. They were semi-structured (Fontana and Frey, 1994) in that the questions were predetermined, but the wording and order of the questions was flexible. The flexibility enabled the interviews to be subtly altered based on the responses that had been provided in the questionnaire, befitting the nature of the explanatory work being undertaken (Robson, 2002). The interviews involved an interactional exchange of dialogue and a relatively informal style (Mason, 2002), and probes and prompts were used extensively (Robson, 2002).

The planning of the interviews followed the 7 stages identified by Kvale (1996):



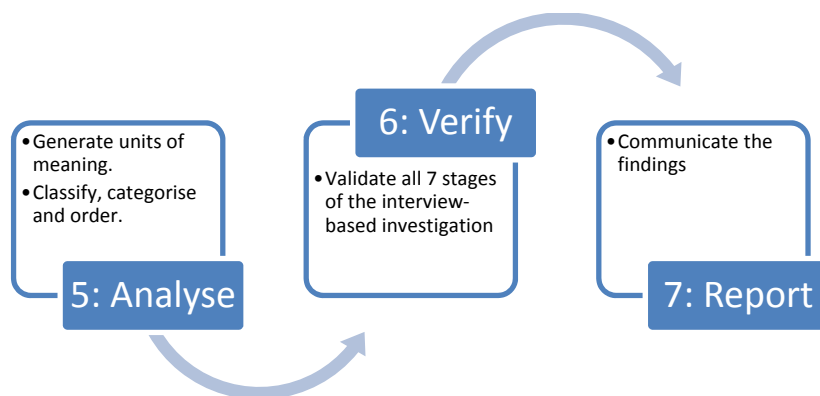


Figure 6: The interview planning process (Kvale, 1996).

The interviews were conducted on the telephone, as the interviewees were geographically dispersed across the county. Although telephone interviews may lack for rapport and visual cues to aid interpretation (Robson, 2002), accessing the language of the interviewees was deemed sufficient to understand their thoughts and actions (Punch, 2002).

Population / sample

The class of cases under consideration in Macbridgeshire was all 250 nursery, primary, middle, secondary and specialist schools across the county. A convenience sample (Cohen et al., 2003) of 10 schools was used for the pilot questionnaire. The full questionnaire was distributed to the remaining 240 schools in Macbridgeshire.

Due to variability as to whether the head teacher and the SEN coordinator (SENCo) roles were held by the same or different people, schools were left to choose who responded to the questionnaire. 71% of the respondents were SENCos (or derivatives of), with the remaining 29% head teachers.

As the results will go on to show, 13 schools responded to a subset of the questionnaire questions (Qs 2, 3, 4, 5 & 8) with 6/6 for all answers. These schools formed the

population for the interviews. Of those 13 schools, however, 10 of them had either had the respondent leave at the end of the 2011 / 12 academic year or a new EP assigned for the 2012 / 13 academic year. As a result, 6 interviews were conducted (with the school-based respondents and the assigned EPs from the remaining 3 schools).

Ethical considerations

Four key standards from The British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009) were upheld in this study:

Standard	Provision
1.2 - Standard of privacy and confidentiality.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information was anonymised following all data collection phases. Confidential information (the responses) was recorded, processed, and stored in a fashion designed to avoid inadvertent disclosure. Local authority policies related to confidentiality of data and record management were adhered to. These policies ensure that appropriate technical and organisational measures (including the use of passwords on computers and locked filing cabinets) are taken to prevent unauthorised or unlawful access to personal information.
1.3 - Standard of informed consent.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participants were given ample opportunity to understand the nature, purpose, and anticipated consequences of their research participation (in writing), so that they may give informed consent. Participants were made aware of their right to withdraw at any time from research participation (or not contribute in the first place).
3.3 - Standard of protection of research participants.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When feeding back the results to the EPS, care was taken to consider all research from the standpoint of research participants (such as the EPs), for the purpose of eliminating potential risks to psychological well-being, physical health, personal values or dignity. Specifically, the EPs were informed that the data would not be used for performance management purposes, which includes comparing performance across EPs, patches and teams. The EPs were informed that the data may be used to inform collaborative, manager-led discussions about how EP practice is received in schools, but this would not directly impact the half-yearly appraisal process.

Standard	Provision
4.1 - Standard of honesty and accuracy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In all communications and interactions (such as those requesting completion of the questionnaire, and organisation of the interviews), the status and role of the researcher was clearly defined.

Table 12: Ethical standards adhered to (The British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct, 2009).

Data analysis

Questionnaire data

The quantitative data from the questionnaire was exported into MS Excel, where analysis then proceeded in a number of planned, ordered and sequential steps:

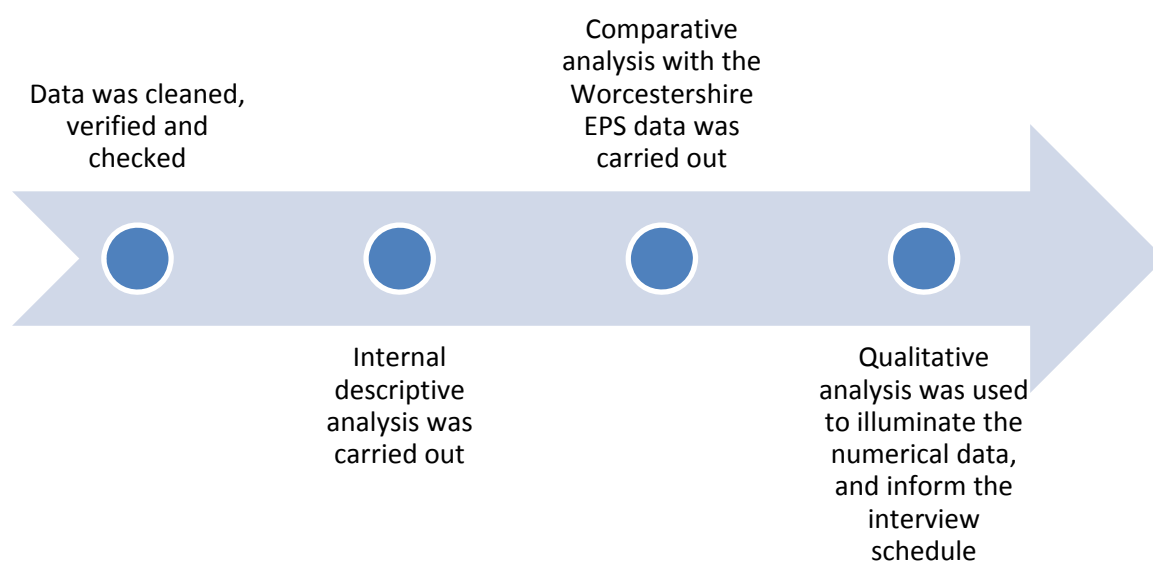


Figure 7: Questionnaire data analysis.

Interview data

As the interview schedules for school-based interviewees and EP interviewees were relatively consistent, the data elicited from the 6 interviews were combined for analysis.

The process of thematic analysis undertaken was based upon the phases of thematic analysis as set out by Braun and Clarke (2006):

Phase	Description
1) Familiarisation with the data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Initial thoughts related to key ideas in data were noted during data collection. The interview data were noted real-time by the author, and then read and re-read several times.
2) Generation of initial codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Initial ideas and features of interest were coded systematically across the data set in its entirety. Codes were generated throughout the process and data relevant to each code were collated.
3) Organisation of codes into themes and subthemes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The codes were organised into potential subthemes, and then further into themes.
4) Review and definition of the themes and subthemes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consistency was checked by ensuring that the data substantiating each code, subtheme and theme were congruent with the nature of the code. Through iterative review and feedback, themes were refined, named and clearly defined.
5) Report production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The themes, and data extracts related to the themes, were selected and analysed in terms of potential inferences that could be drawn in relation to the research questions at hand. An attempt was made to provide a suitable balance between analysis and illustration.

Table 13: Thematic analysis process (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Results

The results detailed below consolidate the quantitative findings from the questionnaires with the qualitative findings from the questionnaires and interviews. To aid clarity, the results section is structured in line with the questionnaire questions, and where themes were defined from analysis of the qualitative data they have been incorporated accordingly. In total, the thematic analysis of the qualitative data realised 7 themes and

26 subthemes, and how the themes and subthemes were allied to the questionnaire responses is outlined below:

Questionnaire responses to...	Interview theme
Q2: Describe the EP's relationship with pupils, parents and school staff	Theme 2 (including 4 subthemes): Constituent parts of a positive relationship between an EP and the setting
Q3: Are EP reports and paperwork (including recommendations) clear and concise, delivered in a timely fashion, useful and manageable (for the school)?	Theme 7, subtheme 2: Effective recommendations and actions
	Theme 6, subtheme 5: Psychological formulations
Q4: Does the EP communicate well with others, demonstrate sensitivity and care, participate effectively in meetings and act as a critical friend?	Theme 4: The desired communication style and demeanour of EPs
	Theme 6, subtheme 3: Acceptable challenge of practice
Q5: Is the EP accessible (e.g. phone, letter, e-mail), reliable, punctual and well prepared?	Theme 5 (including 4 subthemes): Preferred EP ways of working
Q6: To what extent do you make use of the following services from your EP?	Theme 6, subtheme 2: Important EP work
	Theme 6, subtheme 6: Key EP knowledge and skills
Q7: What is the quality of the services delivered (if applicable)?	Theme 6, subtheme 1: Important aspects of the EP role
Q8: When involved, the EP:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contributes to the progress of children. • Contributes to staff development. • Helps and supports parents and other members of the school community • Supports school improvement through training, project work, research, INSET, consultation. 	Theme 7, subtheme 1: General views on EP involvement
	Theme 7, subtheme 3: The 'bottom line' changes as a result of EP involvement
Q9: Do you feel the service delivered matches the needs of your school?	Theme 1 (including 6 subthemes): Setting characteristics that are conducive to EP involvement
	Theme 3 (including 2 subthemes): Effective EP positioning

Questionnaire responses to...	Interview theme
	Theme 6, subtheme 4: It is important that the EP aligns provision to need

Table 14: Alignment between the quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (questionnaire and interview) data in the results section.

For the sake of completeness, the summary presentations including the data in their entirety are included in appendices 3 and 4. An example of the results at the cluster level is included in appendix 5. Appendix 6 houses the senior management briefing paper that stemmed from the work.

All of the quotes included below for illustrative purposes are from school-based respondents, provided in either the questionnaire or the interviews.

EP relationships

As Figure 8 shows, relationships with school staff were deemed to be of a slightly higher quality than those with pupils and parents, although this may have been because the respondents were school staff themselves.

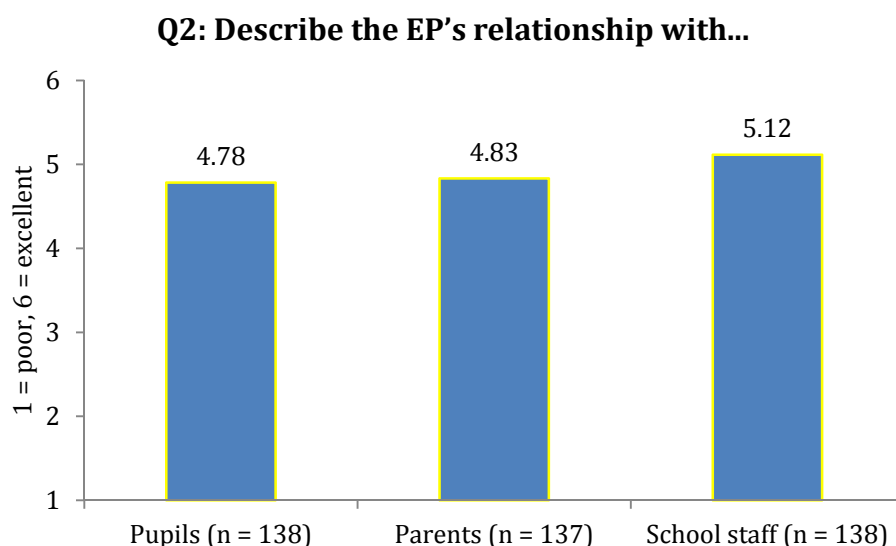


Figure 8: Q2 questionnaire data.

Some of the comments made in the questionnaire confirmed that EPs did not work with each of the groups above in equal amounts.

All of the interview subthemes relating to what constituted a positive relationship between the EP and the setting had a temporal element, with a longer-term

"[The EP is] a skilled practitioner who has an excellent working relationship with all members of our school staff. She has become a very valued member of our team."

relationship allowing the EP to get to know the setting, trust to be built up between parties, and the EP to become confident in the school staff. Lastly, the length of time in role (for both the EP and the SENCo) and the impact of the working practices of previous EPs (no doubt predicated on their relationship) were also referenced as influential in shaping relations.

EP reports, paperwork and recommendations

Per Figure 9, EP reports, paperwork and recommendations were viewed favourably by the respondents.

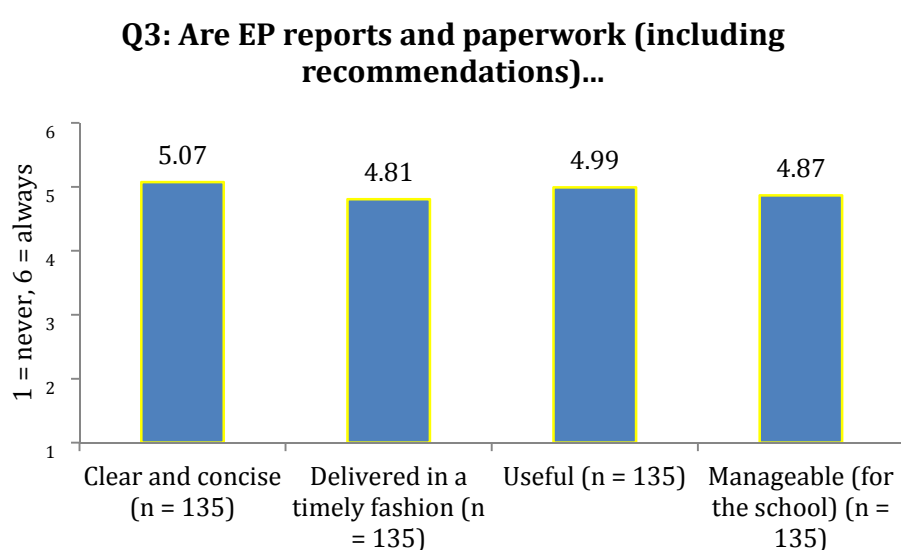


Figure 9: Q3 questionnaire data.

A number of the additional comments referenced frustrations with the timing and content of the reports, and this was also reflected by the interviewees in their list of desirable characteristics for recommendations (realistic, usable, contextually-based and parsimonious). In addition, it was expressed in the interviews that psychological formulations

"Sometimes some of the recommendations are a little unrealistic..."

"...sometimes complex issues are overlooked..."

"More detailed recommendations might be helpful."

"At times recommendations are rather vague and general."

should get to the heart of the child and the issue, with psychology and the complexity of the situation well represented.

EP communication

That EPs acted with sensitivity and care was the second highest score across the whole questionnaire, and this was generally in line with the rest of the answers to this question, per figure 10.

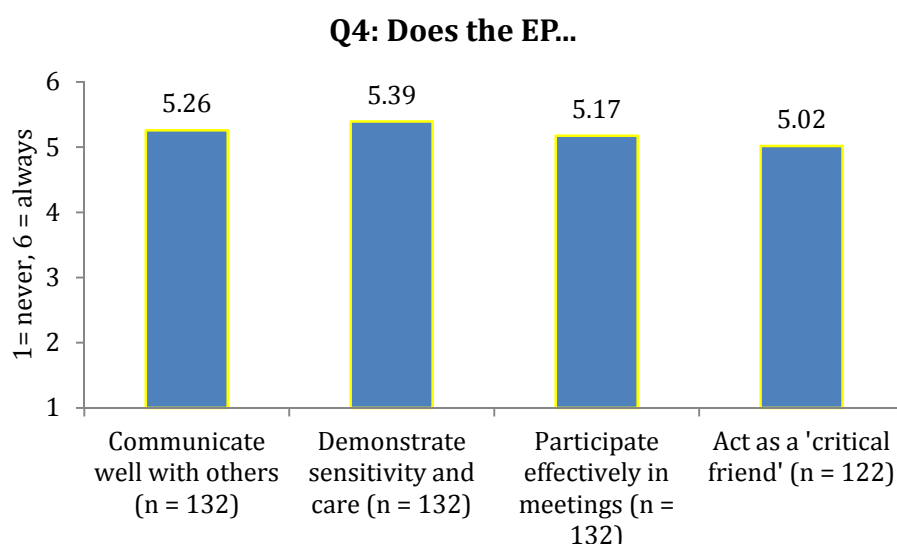


Figure 10: Q4 questionnaire data.

Interestingly, outside the positive comments supporting the numerical data (of which there were many), the other comments 'excused' EP from involvement in some areas due to understandable resource constraints.

"...Astute and perceptive, he is able to get to the heart of the matter quickly and efficiently and works effectively to get the best result for each child. He works with sensitivity and care but does not allow sentiment to overshadow the need to offer realistic and practical advice which he does with diplomacy and tact."

"We would value her input at more meetings but obviously she only has a limited time with our school and we are very aware of the pressures on her time."

The interviewees referenced the subtle aspects of how effective EPs communicated with others, but also how important being open, friendly and relaxed was (possibly due to some of the difficult and sensitive messages being communicated).

Figure 11 charts the relationship between how positively the respondent viewed the EP overall (from multiple questions) and whether they believed the EP acted as a critical

friend or not. The positive correlation shows that the more positive the respondent was overall, the more likely they were to indicate the EP acted as a critical friend.

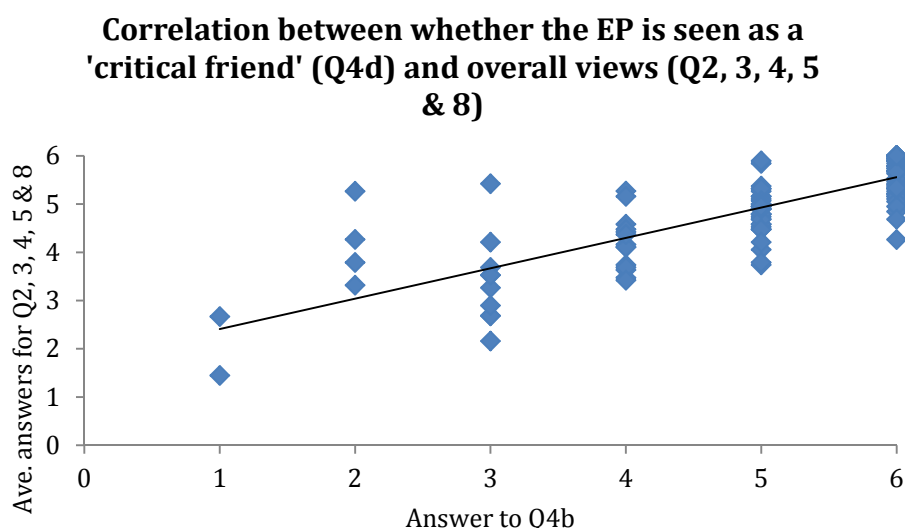


Figure 11: Correlation between Q4d and the average answers from Q2, 3, 4, 5 & 8.

The questionnaire scores may have been lower regarding the role of the EP as a critical friend (figure 10) as this term is not commonly used and EPs were generally not seen to be 'critical' (rather, supportive). The interviewees identified situations when they felt EPs had acceptably challenged school practice, and it seems these situations were mostly when EPs had enabled or facilitated reflection (rather than challenging practice directly). The EPs interviewed recognised that colluding with schools is unacceptable (but easy to fall in to) and that having a good relationship with school staff is the precursor to being able to effectively challenge practice. Recognising and communicating legitimate tensions in the system (where the desires of the school may be at odds with the child's best interests, for example) in order to raise expectations was referenced as important, albeit professionally hard to do.

EP ways of working

EPs were generally perceived to be accessible, reliable, punctual and well-prepared, per figure 12. Being punctual and well-prepared were two of the highest three scores across the questionnaire, and this may speak to the professional practice of the EPs, but also that these represent areas easier to provide direct feedback on.

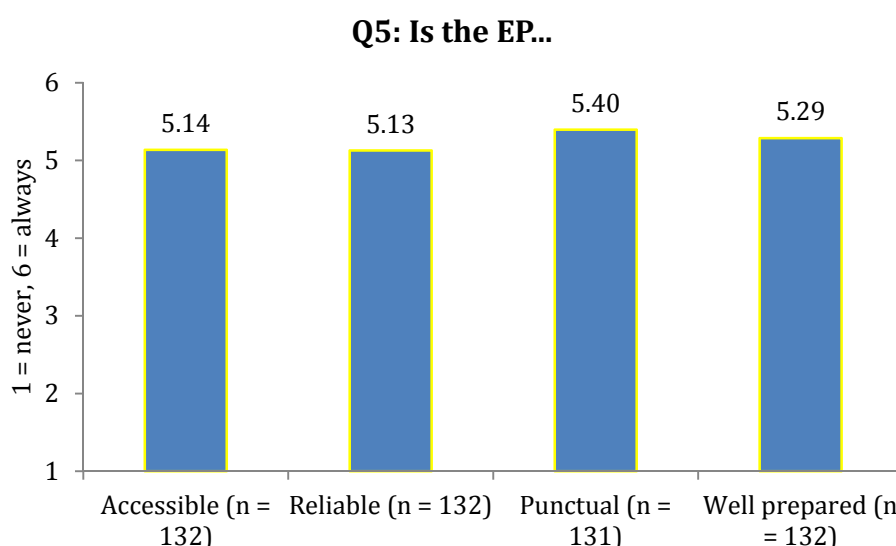


Figure 12: Q5 questionnaire data.

The balance of the comments in the questionnaire related to how accessible the respondents found their EP, and the interviews shed light on how important it was for the EPs to 'be in touch' with their schools.

"We have been surprised at his easy accessibility to parents."

"We often have to wait a long while for response to emails or reports to be written."

Respondents also appreciated when EPs were able to influence meetings based on preparation they had done, and when EPs were flexible (within reason) with regard to time allocation models and referral pathways.

EP services delivered

Per figure 13, ‘consultation re: individuals’, ‘statutory work’ and ‘follow-up support’ were the services most used and ‘research and development’, ‘critical incident support’ and ‘project work’ were the services least used by schools across Macbridgeshire.

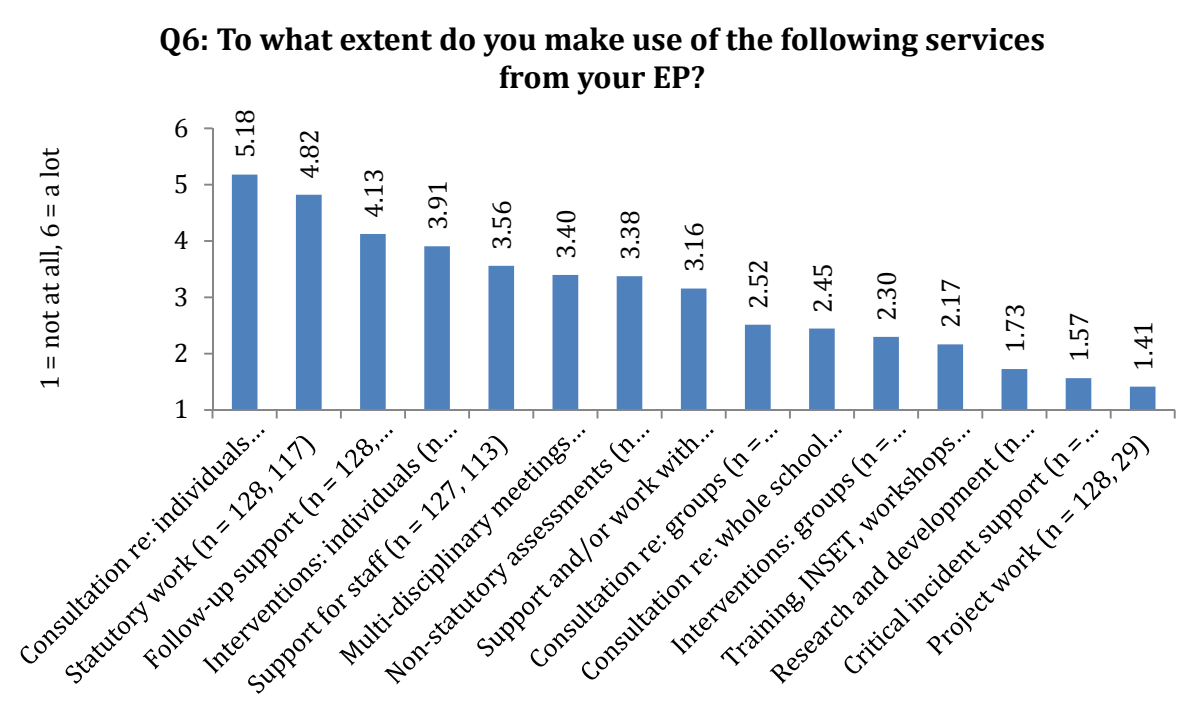


Figure 13: Q6 questionnaire data.

The predominance of consultation is likely to reflect the strategic shift in EP service delivery in Macbridgeshire over the last few years, and possibly the lack of definition in the concept.

A number of the additional comments made expressed frustration with the resources available, the services on offer or the service

“I would love to able to use the experience of an EP more widely in some of the ways mentioned above, however lack of resources makes this impractical.”

“I was not aware we could access the Educational psychology services for some of the above.”

“We are not impressed that the EP focus is now with staff and parents rather than individual pupils.”

delivery model. The responses begged the question as to the point of having such a breadth of services on offer if resource limitations meant they could not be used.

The interviewees referenced the importance of EPs delivering a breadth of service, with a significant proportion systemic in its orientation (due to the assumed efficiency gains). Early intervention, transition support and navigation of the systems and processes were commonly cited as valuable to schools, and may have been viewed as 'consultative' by the wider population asked in the questionnaires (rather than project work). The interviewees stated that EPs should bring specialist knowledge that was not widely available elsewhere (unique), and skills related to making psychology and complex situations understandable were important.

Quality of EP services delivered

As illustrated by figure 14, the general trend in responses was that services less often used were regarded as being of a lower quality. Even so, the 29 respondents that commented on the quality of the project work (the least used service) estimated the average quality was 3.86 / 6. A small number of services scored slightly higher than expected – 'statutory work', 'non-statutory assessments' and 'training, INSET, workshops'.

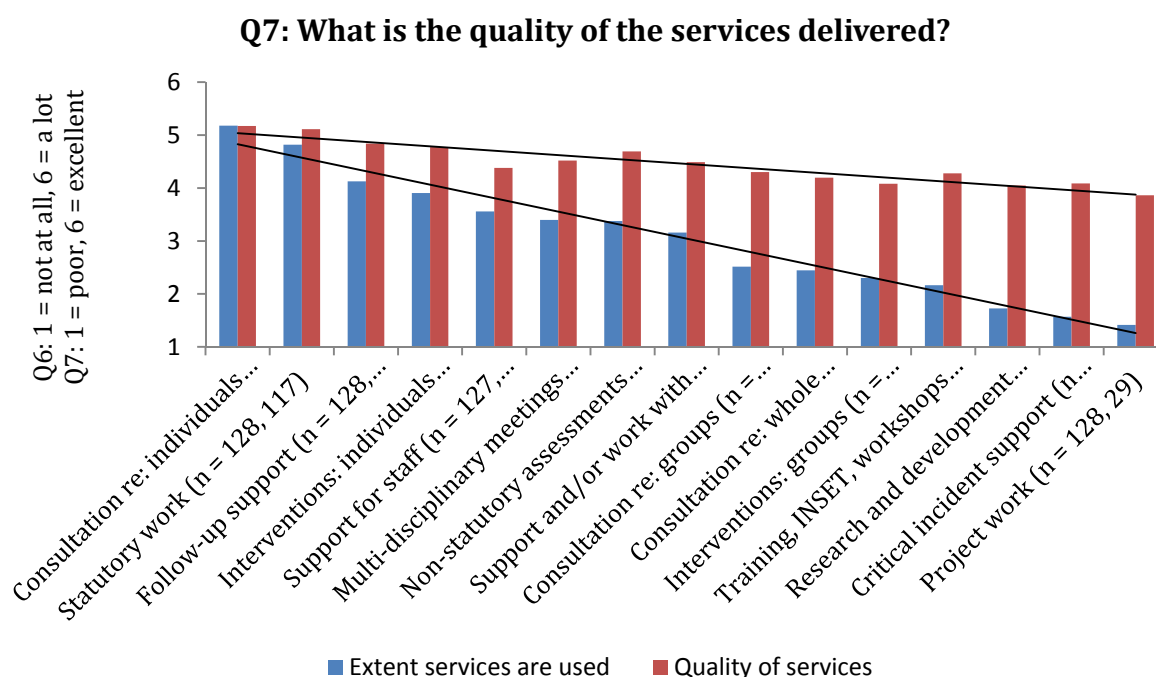


Figure 14: Q7 questionnaire data.

The interviewees identified areas they felt to be the most important aspect of the EP role, and the lack of definition in this theme characterises how difficult it is to define and evaluate the role of an EP. The interviewees felt it was important for EPs to facilitate conversations and action planning, provide support and ideas and consider all perspectives when formulating / planning – all relatively intangible activities.

EP involvement and contributions

Per figure 15, scores across all four components of this question were lower compared to other scores from other questions in the questionnaire. For example, 66% of the respondents felt that EPs contribute to the progress of children '5' or '6' out of 6 (6 = 'a lot'). The lower score regarding the work an EP does supporting school improvement may be linked to the fact that systemic, school-wide services were used less (Q6), but also less recognised when they were delivered.

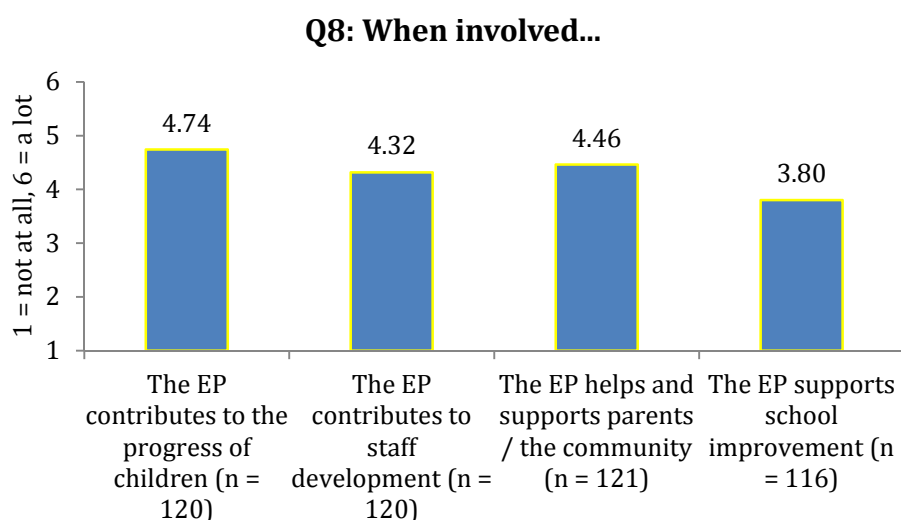


Figure 15: Q8 questionnaire data.

The balance of additional comments

illustrated examples of activity completed with children and their families.

A theme from the interviews was that EP involvement should be longitudinal in nature, with a specific focus on how actions can be implemented to effect change. Ensuring the implementation of changes is owned by school

"We consulted him over difficulties with a Reception child who has since made excellent progress and is a changed child in so many ways."

"[We have valued her] attending meetings and researching brain injuries to be able to offer a student with an acquired brain injury support and educational advice."

"... 'Precision teaching' has really boosted his reading skills."

staff and being able to highlight and celebrate incremental steps of progress were deemed important. When asked to define what changes could be expected as a result of EP involvement, the interviews elicited expected improvements as a result of changes in four areas:

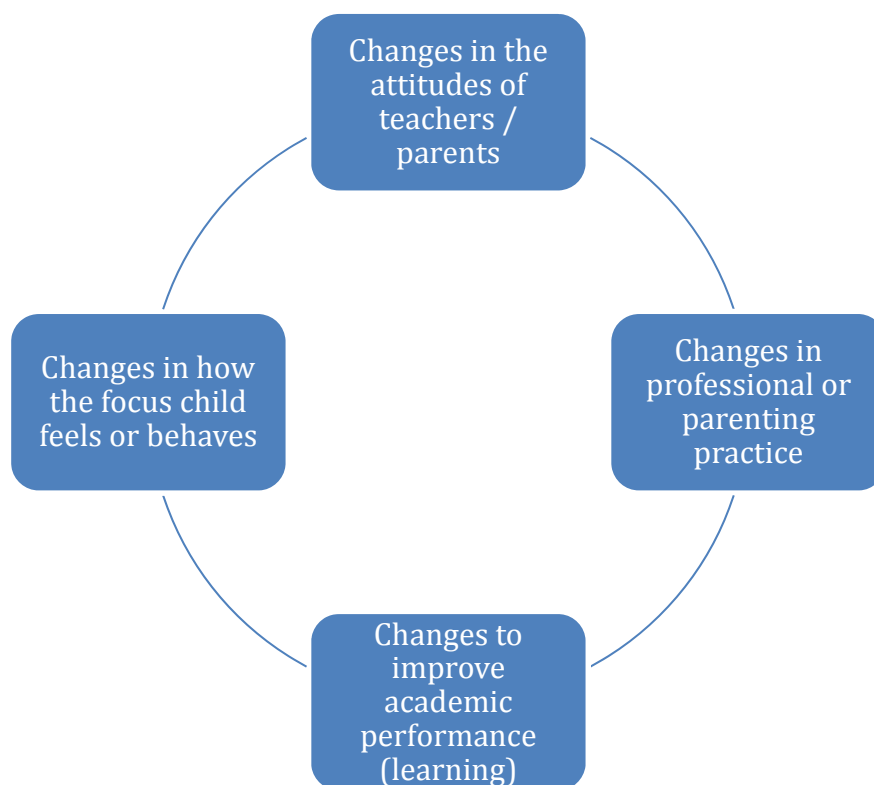


Figure 16: The outcomes of EP involvement.

EP services meeting the needs of schools

Just under two-thirds (62%) of the questionnaire respondents felt that the service met the needs of the school, although only 19% actively indicated it did not (per figure 17). The areas of dissatisfaction that seemed to explain the 26 negative responses related to time allocation / capacity, the threshold model and the service delivery model (32 comments

"Far too time limited. The work done has been very good but doesn't really touch the real depth of need in our school."

"The hurdles for getting the EP involved slow the process down and are tricky for those children from hard to reach families."

"The EPs no longer see the children so only go on what we say and so it seems as if the support is not particularly tailored to the children."

"Consultations are useful but observations are more useful."

were made in relation to these areas), rather than the EPs themselves.

Q9: Do you feel the service delivered matches the needs of your school?

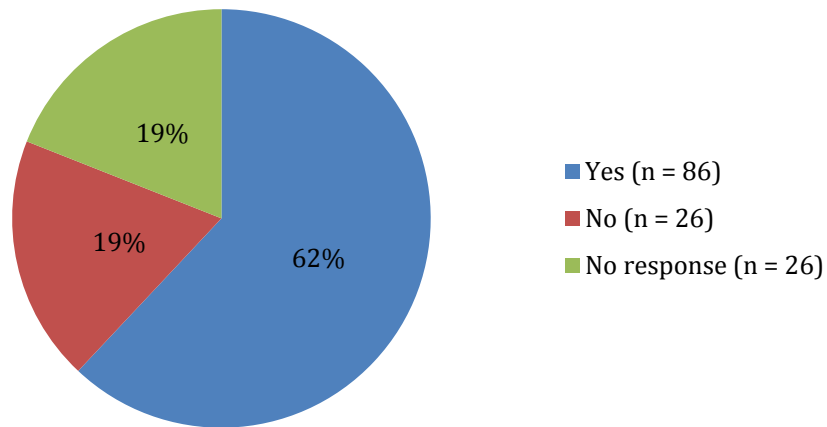


Figure 17: Q9 questionnaire data.

The interviews were an opportunity for EPs and the respondents to comment on good practice in schools that enable EPs to work effectively. 6 subthemes became clear, including the importance of school structures, staff capability and the prevalent models of change. It is clear that schools need to fully understand their areas of need and that meeting SEN is a school-wide priority (so the school leadership commits to planning, SENCos have sufficient release time and teachers commit to making changes in the classroom). Time and again, interviewees referred to the importance of schools, and key professionals, being open to influence and willing to learn.

Of course, the extent this happens is likely to rest on how the EP positions themselves in school. Being visible and present, yet not explicitly in an 'expert' capacity, was deemed desirable, and this again reflects a subtlety of the role. Outside schools, the interviewees made it clear that EPs should work with parents, other community-based teams (such

as locality teams and children's centres) and colleagues in learning (such as specialist teachers). This level of integration was believed to improve practice and help schools.

Lastly, it became clear that meeting the needs of a school is far from a passive process for EPs. Effective EPs were seen as active in planning and prioritising, coordinating activity and influencing others. When priorities change through the year, it was deemed important EPs were approachable and flexible. Through the interviews, various potential sources of confusion regarding the role of the EP became clear, and it seems important for EPs to spend time clarifying key dimensions of their role before the misunderstanding escalates into a professional disagreement as to the way the EP works. Being explicit, even in writing, about how the EP will meet the needs of the school is an important step to becoming an effective partner for the school.

Summary

In all, per figure 18, over 56% of all the questionnaire respondents scored the EP service more highly than 5 out of 6 on the answers to the core 6 questions (Q2, 3, 4, 5 and 8).

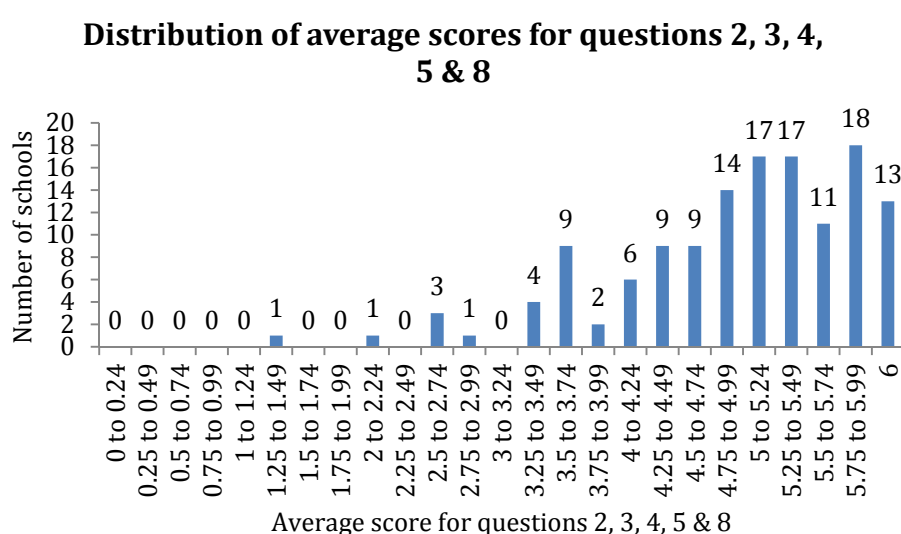


Figure 18: Distribution of average scores for questions 2, 3, 4, 5 & 8.

The average response to these 5 questions was slightly higher when the respondents were SENCos (4.99 / 6) as opposed to Head teachers (4.90 / 6).

All of the data outlined above was replicated at a cluster level. The quantitative data for each cluster (there are 30 across Macbridgeshire) was compared against the county-wide averages to aid learning and reflection for the EPs assigned to the clusters. The qualitative data were shared in its entirety.

Discussion

This paper illustrates an evaluative approach taken by Macbridgeshire EPS to capture the views of school staff on the EPS. The results illustrate the broadly positive views of school staff on the work completed by EPs, even if the scores related to the professionalism of the EPs are higher than those related to the extent service-users feel EPs add value.

Methodological notes

The design and implementation of the questionnaire is likely to have influenced responses. It is possible that respondents would have been more comfortable using a 4-point nominal scale (as used by the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills; Ofsted), as opposed to a 6-point interval scale. It is also unclear whether there was an order effect present that influenced the responses to Qs 8 & 9 (the 'added-value' questions). Including these questions earlier in the questionnaire may have resulted in more positive responses. There were also inconsistencies in whether responses to Qs 6 & 7 (the service questions) were optional or not. Throughout the

questionnaire responses were required. However, for Q7, if a service was not used at all (as indicated in Q6), it was necessary for the response to Q7 to be left blank, and the survey was not configured that way. As a result, most respondents scored the unused services '1', and those responses were discounted in the data clean-up.

Using a questionnaire (followed up by only a small number of interviews) meant that it was difficult to establish whether disparities in the questionnaire data reflect inconsistencies of response, differences in perception or differences in EP practice (something previously noted by Hampshire EPS, 2010a). For example, it is difficult to know whether consultation is as widely used as the Q6 questionnaire data suggests, or whether the concept is so indistinct and blurred for service-users that it acts as a catch all for any EP activity that is not easily placed elsewhere. There was also significant debate as to whether questionnaire completion should have been anonymous. As it was deemed important to be able to follow up on the responses if necessary, completion was not anonymised, and this is likely to have impacted on the responses.

Lastly, the interviews were conducted with a very small sample, and on the telephone, both of which limit the conclusions that can be drawn and the generalisability of the findings. Interviewees were identified using a purposive sampling approach, based on those that provided the most positive questionnaire responses. It is possible that those who provided 6/6 responses throughout the questionnaire were those least engaged with the evaluation.

Future state EPS evaluation

Table 2 outlines the dichotomies of evaluating EP practice, and decisions involved in capturing process data vs. outcome data or utilising qualitative case reviews vs.

quantitative ‘progress to target’ indicators. From these dichotomies the outcomes-based accountability model (Friedman, 2008; figure 2) emerged, which provides a coherent framework for evaluation options. A risk of the model is that it attempts to ‘be all things to all people’, and is therefore unfeasible in practice.

An objective review of the evaluative practices undertaken in Macbridgeshire EPS shows the balance of effort to date has been in the top half of the model (the input effort). Attempts to evaluate output effects (the bottom half of the model) are in process, through a target monitoring and evaluation based approach (Dunsmuir et al., 2009).

It seems possible that the future of evaluation practices for EP services rests on recognition that any data produced should serve different purposes for different consumers. Accordingly, evaluative data should be collected and managed differently, depending on the consumer and the purpose:

Consumer of the data	Purpose of data collection	Possible implication for data collection methodology	Quadrant in the outcomes-based accountability model (Friedman, 2008)
EPs	To improve practice	Data best produced through qualitative, in-depth, case reviews on a select number of cases to aid reflection and planning	Bottom right
EP line managers	To manage performance and resources	Data best produced through internal systems, service-user feedback and target monitoring and evaluation based approaches	Top left, top right, bottom left
Local authority managers / the public	To justify cost through impact analysis	Data best produced through service-user feedback and target monitoring and evaluation based approaches	Top right, bottom left

Consumer of the data	Purpose of data collection	Possible implication for data collection methodology	Quadrant in the outcomes-based accountability model (Friedman, 2008)
Service-users	To ensure value for money	Data best produced through target monitoring and evaluation based approaches and qualitative, in-depth, case reviews	Bottom left, bottom right

Table 15: Evaluative methodologies, depending on the consumer and the purpose of the evaluation.

The clear implication is that EP services must define who data is for and what purpose it serves, before initiating an evaluative exercise. The strengths and weaknesses of the various methodologies complement each other, and in their entirety these methodologies constitute the ‘good evaluative practice’ outlined earlier. Used coherently, the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches will balance each other out during a 2 – 3 year cycle that meets the conflicting needs of a disparate group of consumers. The breadth, nature and complexity of EP work means it is impossible to reconcile all of the needs outlined above in one evaluative exercise (without it becoming unwieldy and compromised). For example, a target monitoring and evaluation based approach may work for local authority managers that want the impact of EPs reduced to manageable numerical indicators, but that approach is impractical for EPs wanting to improve practice, as they are more likely to recognise that the complexity of their work does not easily lend itself to numerical reduction.

The breadth, nature and complexity of EP work results in a set of unique challenges when evaluating EP practice, best illustrated through a number of contradictions:

- The higher the value placed on relationships and dialogue between EPs and service-users, the less likely it is for EP involvement to be assessed with any degree of objectivity (Matthews, 2002).
- The complexity of the causal pathways between EP involvement and any impact is likely to result in the quality of the working relationship established with service-users becoming a proxy for their views on the quality of service delivery (Turner et al., 2010).
- The more successful the consultation (and the empowerment of others), the less obvious the role of the EP to evaluate (McNab, 2001).

None of these barriers to evaluating EP practice are new, or should be used as a reason not to evaluate EP practice. In a culture that privileges the demonstration of cost effectiveness and accountability, the survival of the profession rests on an ability to characterise the impact of EP work in a way that is accessible to others. To this end, what must change is the notion that a single evaluative approach can serve all purposes for all consumers – EP services must move to adopting approaches that are ‘embedded, cyclical and proportionate’ (Turner et al., 2010; p. 313) and, most importantly, flexible in their methodology and epistemological grounding based on who the evaluative data is for and what purpose it serves.

Service response to the evaluation

The questionnaire and interview findings were shared with the EPS to aid reflection and identify opportunities for professional improvement. On both occasions, the findings were met with (what appeared to be) a distrustful and defensive ‘inertia’ (Wedell, 2009) – characterised by a consensual passivity. This may have been as the findings were

perceived as threatening to, and a source of personal insecurity for, the EPs (Rowland, 2002). Cross et al. (1991) wrote 'it is important to recognise that this activity [evaluating EP services] is both potentially threatening and / or rewarding for EPs to engage in' (p. 92), and it seems that strong emotions and defensive routines may have negated how effective the learning initiative was (Thomas and Allen, 2006).

Roper and Pettit (2002) recognise that internal structures, practices and processes (such as performance management) can act as inhibitors of change. Equally, employee resistance can stem from a loss of control of working patterns that are known and uncertainty of new processes and expected outcomes (Schiemann, 1995). Both of these factors were likely to be relevant in this instance.

As a result, it was questionable to what extent the EPS engaged in the higher levels of learning and change outlined in Table 4 (double-loop / generative / innovative learning and second order change). The absence of a reconstructive dialogue (Stoker, 2000) challenges whether the exercise was completed with genuine quality assurance in mind (Cherry, 1998) and a commitment to uncovering 'truths' (and developing personal mastery) in the organisation (Senge, 2006). Senge (2006) illustrates how organisations must identify and face up to distinctions between espoused theories (what is said) and theories-in-use (what is done), as they uncover deeply ingrained assumptions and generalisations (mental models). In the 'team learning' dimension of a learning organisation, feedback enables organisations to think insightfully about complex issues (Senge, 2006). Feedback elicited through this evaluative exercise gave rise to a number of fundamental questions regarding EP practice in Macbridgeshire that have not (yet) been addressed. A subset of these include:

- What are the actual efficiency gains associated with using a 'consultative' service delivery model (where children are indirectly impacted through the provision of EP advice to adults), and are these gains sufficient to offset the potential reduction in effectiveness that this indirect way of working may result in
- What proportion of the work of an EP in Macbridgeshire can be considered 'systemic'? What is the desired amount of 'systemic' work to deliver, and what are the reasons EPs don't work in this way currently?
- Given that organisational learning requires stability (Thomas and Allen, 2006) and service-users bemoan EP turnover, what are the true drivers of turnover in the EPS and how can they be controlled?

As the change models outlined earlier confirm, feedback can act as a driver of, or lever for, change. That it can, however, is no guarantee that it will.

Evaluating the role of the EP

The consistency of findings over 30 years of evaluating the role, function and effectiveness of EPs is striking. Published reviews (Farrell et al., 2005; Bramlett et al., 2002; Curtis et al., 2002) have regularly reported:

- Service-users lack clarity as to the EP role.
- EPs want to expand their role into more systemic, preventative activity.
- EPs are constrained by assessment-related and statutory demands.

A professional tension continues to exist between the (espoused) desires of EPs regarding their role, and the legislative framework / service-user requirements. The failure of the profession to confidently define, evaluate and promote the role, function

and effectiveness of EPs (Farrell et al., 2005) is implicated in this stasis, as is the inability of the profession to envision, and move towards, a delivery model that is more systemic and preventative in its orientation. Of course, it should not be ruled out that the EP desire for role expansion is espoused rather than real, and that the status quo is a source of comfort and security for EPs.

Many of the reviews also refer to a desire from service-users to access more EP support. As Farrell et al. (2005) pointed out, this may be the case across all 'helping' professions – regardless of how much service is delivered, service-users always want more. If this is the case, the allocation of more EP time is no guarantee of greater satisfaction. It may also, however, reflect the reactive, statutory-led environment that mandates a significant proportion of EP time in the UK is spent delivering services that (EPs believe to be) less valuable. Equally, in an increasingly litigious culture, informed parents are able to manipulate the system of referrals to access a level of attention incommensurate with the needs of their children. Inequitable EP resource allocation is likely to highlight and exacerbate any challenges regarding EP availability.

The extent that EPs provide support to children directly or indirectly has also served as a historical source of contention. The qualitative data from the questionnaire repeatedly alluded to the desire of the service-users to have EPs work with more children directly. This was at odds, however, with the findings from the interviews, where respondents recognised they knew less about the child-facing work of EPs and addressed most of their commentary to the adult facing-work. Clearly, the underlying issues here speak to the fundamental questions outlined above regarding effective EP service delivery models, which are outside the scope of this paper.

The evaluation completed reiterates, however, the positive perspectives held by service-users, and their recognition of the unique knowledge and skills that EPs hold. Consistent with the findings from Hampshire EPS (2010a), the independent professional perspectives and the support of school staff are particularly valued by school-based service-users. Whilst other service-users (children, parents, professionals) may have subtly different aspects of the EP role that they value, the status afforded to psychological contributions provides a secure footing for the profession going forward.

Indeed, one of the most significant challenges faced by EPs, characterised by data from the interviews, is where the independent professional perspective of an EP is at odds with existing practice in schools. As far back as 1987, Evans and Wright stated their unease with a 'customer is always right' philosophy, especially given the competing demands of various service-users (Dowling and Leibowitz, 1994). In such situations, especially when schools are directly funding EP services, working for the best interests of the child (and protecting the integrity of the profession) is paramount.

It is not inconceivable that EPs that consistently stand their ground regarding what they see as unprofessional practice would, at the same time, be upholding a key requirement of their role that also leads to diminishing customer satisfaction. This did not prove to be the case in this study (figure 11), and it is clear that to take such a stance requires sensitivity, diplomacy and tact. In this example amongst many, measuring the impact of such exchanges on the long-term outcomes for children is extremely difficult, if not impossible.

Conclusion

This evaluation has elicited many provocative findings regarding the role of EPs in Macbridgeshire. The data offer a direct route to avoiding the delusion of learning by experience (Senge, 2006), where organisations say they learn best from experience yet never directly experience the consequences of many of the organisation's most important decisions. For the true value of the evaluative approach to be realised, however, the service-user feedback must be rationalised, acted on and incorporated into an on-going cycle of complementary evaluative methods. At this stage, service-user feedback in Macbridgeshire is yet to act as the driver for change in EP or service practice, and it may require further environmental influence (such as a move to traded services) for this to happen.

In the long term, EPS evaluation must reflect the complexity of what EPs do and be useful to EPs, whilst also serving a political purpose to justify expenditure. Recognition that these purposes are epistemologically irreconcilable should result in a multi-faceted approach to evaluation that utilises (at different times) complementary methods to elicit data for a range of data consumers. This recommendation, at heart, is no more than suggesting the staged, cyclical deployment of an evaluative approach organised through the Friedman (2008) outcomes-based accountability model.

The findings from the questionnaire are positive in that they reaffirm how well received EPs are, on the whole, in schools. That EPs are seen as professional whilst not necessarily adding commensurate value is a note of caution, however. It is likely that some of the themes from the interviews (the complex causal pathways inherent in EP work and the mediating influence of professional relationships) contribute to this disconnect, and these factors will continue to make creating a complete and compelling evaluation of EP services open to criticism. As with many aspects of psychological work,

however, 'just because something is difficult doesn't mean it shouldn't be done'. It may prove that, for the good of the EP profession in the long run, the hardest things to do are the ones worth most doing.

References

- Ainscow, M. (2005). Developing inclusive education systems: what are the levers for change? *Journal of Educational Change*, 6, 109-124.
- Altman, Y. and Illes, P. (1998). Learning, leadership, teams: corporate learning and organisational change. *Journal of Management Development*, 17(1), 44-55.
- Anthun, R. (1999). Quality and improvement potential in school psychology services. *School Psychology International*, 20 (2), 163-175.
- Argyle, M. (1978). Discussion chapter: an appraisal of the new approach to the study of social behaviour. In M. Brenner, P. Marsh and M. Brenner (Eds). *The social contexts of methods*. London: Croom Helm.
- Argyris, C. and Schön, D. A. (1996). *Organizational Learning II*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Argyris, C., Putnam, R. and Smith, M. C. (1985) *Action science: concepts, methods, and skills for research and intervention*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Battersby, D. (1999). The learning organisation and continuing professional education: some philosophical considerations. *The Learning Organization*, 6(2), 58-62.
- Benson, A.J. and Hughes, J. (1985). Perceptions of role definition processes in school psychology: a national survey. *School Psychology Review*, 14 (1), 64-74.
- Bramlett, R.K., Murphy, J.J., Johnson, J., Wallingsford, L. and Hall, J.D. (2002). Contemporary practices in school psychology: A national survey of roles and referral problems. *Psychology in the Schools*, 39 (3), 327-335.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77-101.

Breakwell, G., Hammond, S. M., Fife-Schaw, C. and Smith, J. A. (2007). *Research methods in psychology*. London: Sage.

Buckler, B. (1998). Practical steps towards a learning organisation: applying academic knowledge to improvement and innovation in business process. *The Learning Organization*, 5(1), 15-23.

Calvert, G., Mobley, S. and Marshall, L. (1994). Grasping the learning organisation. *Training and Development*, June, 39-43.

Cameron, R. J. (1996). Learning organisations. In *The BPS and DECP Standing Committee on Continuing Professional Development*, CPD Link, No 5, March, 3-4.

Cameron, R. (2011). Mixed-methods research: The five Ps framework. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 9(2), 96-108.

Cherry, C. (1998). Evaluation of an educational psychology service in the context of local education authority inspection. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 14, 118-127.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2003, 5th edition). *Research methods in education*. Routledge: Falmer.

Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great: why some companies make the leap... and others don't*. Random House Business.

Creswell, J. W., and Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cross, J., Kirkcaldy, B., and Kennedy, H. (1991). Evaluating EP service delivery to parents of pre-school children. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 7(2), 88-92.

Cullen, J. (1999). Socially constructed learning: a commentary on the concept of the learning organisation. *The Learning Organization*, 6(1), 45-52.

Curtis, M.J., Hunley, S.A., and Grier, J.E.C. (2002). Relationships among the professional practices and demographic characteristics of school psychologists. *School Psychology Review*, 31 (1), 30-43.

De Vaus, D. A, (2001). *Research design in social research*. Sage.

Dean, R. A. (1980). A comparison of preservice and experienced teachers perceptions of the school psychologist. *Journal of School Psychology*, 18, 283-89.

Department for Education and Employment (2000). *Educational psychology services (England): current role, good practice and future directions: the research report*. Nottingham: DfEE.

Department for Children, Schools and Families (2007). *Every parent matters*. Available from www.education.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Department for Children, Schools and Families (2009). *Lamb Inquiry: Special educational needs and parental confidence*. Available from www.education.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Department of Education and Science (1990). *Educational psychology services in England 1988-1989*. London: DES.

Devon County Council (2012). School feedback on the Children & Young People's Psychology Service. Available from www.devon.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Dowling, J. and Leibowitz, D. (1994). Evaluation of educational psychology services: past and present. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 9(4), 241-250.

Dunsmuir, S., Brown, E., Iyadurai, S. and Monsen, J. (2009). Evidence-based practice and evaluation: from insight to impact. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 25(1), 53-70.

Edwards, P., Roberts, I., Clarke, M., DiGuseppi, C., Pratap, S., Wentz, R, and Kwan, I. (2002). Increasing response rates to postal questionnaires: systematic review. *BMJ*, 324:1183-1185.

Evans, M.E. and Wright, A.K. (1987). The Surrey school psychological service: an evaluation through teacher perceptions. *Educational Psychology in Practice* 3, 12–20.

Everard, K. B. and Morris, G. (1985). *Effective school management*. London: Harper and Row.

Farrell, P., Jimerson, S.R., Kalambouka, A., and Benoit, J. (2005). Teachers' perceptions of school psychologists in different countries. *School Psychology International*, 26 (5), 525-544.

Farrell, P., Woods, K., Lewis, S., Rooney, S., Squires, G. and O' Connor, M. (2006). A review of the functions and contribution of educational psychologists in England and Wales in the light of 'Every Child Matters: Change for Children'. London: DfES.

Fontana, A. and Frey, J.H. (1994). Interviewing: the art of science. In: Denzin N.K, Lincoln Y.S (Eds). *Handbook of qualitative research*. London: Sage, 361-76.

- Ford, J. D. and Migles, M. (1979). The role of the school psychologist: teachers' preferences as a function of personal professional characteristics. *Journal of School Psychology*, 17, 372-78.
- Friedman, M. (2008). Outcomes-based accountability model. Available from www.resultsaccountability.com [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].
- Fullan, M. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change*. London: Cassell.
- Garratt, B. (1990). *Creating a learning organisation*. Cambridge.
- Garratt, B. (1987). *The learning organisation*. Gower.
- Gersch, I.S. and Townley, D. (1994). Applying the ideas of quality assurance to an Educational Psychology Service: a good idea but does it apply to me? *Educational and Child Psychology*, 11(3), 55-61.
- Gilman, R. and Gabriel, S. (2004). Perceptions of school psychological services by educational professionals: Results from a multi-state survey pilot study. *School Psychology Review*, 33(2), 271-286.
- Greene, L. L. (2010). Principals' attitudes about school psychological services: a qualitative study. Available from www.rutgers.edu [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].
- Griffey, S. (1989). Psychological service evaluation - customer views. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 4(4), 179-183.
- Hakim, C. (1987). *Research design: strategies and choices in the design of social research*. London: Allen & Unwin.

Hampshire Educational Psychology Service Research and Evaluation Unit. (2010a). An evaluation of Hampshire Educational Psychology Service. What do education centres, schools and other educational establishments think about the service offered? Unpublished.

Hampshire Educational Psychology Service Research and Evaluation Unit. (2010b). How do Educational Psychology Services currently evaluate themselves? Available from www.napep.org [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Government (2010). Academies Act 2010-12. Available from www.parliament.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Government (2010). The Coalition: our programme for government. Available from www.direct.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Government (2012). Support and aspiration: a new approach to special educational needs and disability. Available from www.parliament.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (2010a). Educational psychology in Scotland: making a difference. Available from www.educationscotland.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (2010b). Summary of the follow-through evaluation of the educational psychology service. Available from www.pkc.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (2010c). Summary of evaluation of the educational psychology service. Available from www.stirling.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education (2010d). Psychological Service HMIE Inspection Report. Available from www.edinburgh.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Hick, P. (2000). Educational psychologists as 'critical friends' supporting schools. Available from www.inclusive-solutions.com [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Johnson, R. B. and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: a research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.

Jones, S. (1985). Depth interviewing. In *Applied Qualitative Research*, edited by R. Walker. 45-55. Aldershot, Hants: Gower Publishing.

King, G., Keohane, R. O. and Verba, S. (1994). *Designing social inquiry: scientific inference in qualitative research*. Princeton University Press.

Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading change*. Harvard Business Press.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews*. Sage.

Leadbetter, J. (2006). Investigating and conceptualizing the notion of consultation to facilitate multiagency working, *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 22(1), 19-31.

Lessem, R. (1991). *Total quality learning*. Wiley & Sons.

Lipscomb, M. (2008) Mixed method nursing studies: a critical realist critique. *Nursing Philosophy*, 9, 32-45.

Lissitz, R. W., and Green, S. B. (1975). Effect of the number of scale points on reliability: a Monte-Carlo approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 10-13.

Lyons, J. (1999) A framework for educational psychology service delivery. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 15(3),158-166.

'Macbridgeshire' Children and Young People's Strategic Partnership (2009).

'Macbridgeshire's' Children and Young People's Plan for 2009-2012. Available from www.childrenmattereast.org.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

MacBeath, J., Boyd, B., Rand, J. and Bell, S. (1995). Schools speak for themselves - towards a framework for self-evaluation. Quality in Education Centre, University of Strathclyde, commissioned by the NUT.

MacKay, T. (1999). Quality assurance in education authority psychological services: self-evaluation using performance indicators. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive Education Department.

Magi, K. and Kikas, E. (2009). School psychologists' role in school: expectations of school principals on the work of school psychologists. *School Psychology International*, 30(4), 331-346.

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching*. Sage.

Matthews, J. (2002). An evaluation of educational psychologists' interventions at Stage 3 of the code of practice. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 18(2), 139-156.

Medway, F. (1977). Teachers' knowledge of school psychologists' responsibilities. *Journal of School Psychology*, 15, 301-07.

- McKeever, P. (1996). Consumer opinion of educational psychology services: a pilot survey. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 12, 45-50.
- McNab, I. (2001). A personal submission to the working group on the future role and training of educational psychologists. EPWG.
- Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained. Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48-76.
- Norfolk Educational Psychology Service (2011). Evaluation of effectiveness: school questionnaire. Unpublished.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Owen, J.M. and Lambert, F. (1995). Roles for evaluation in learning organisations. *Evaluation*, 1(2), 237-250.
- Punch, K. F. (2009). *Introduction to research methods in education*. Sage.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research*. Blackwell.
- Roper, R. and Pettit, J. (Eds) (2002). *Development and the learning organisation*, Oxford: Oxfam.
- Rowland, K. (2002). Effective leadership and service improvement in contemporary educational psychology services. *Educational Management & Administration*, 30(3), 275-291.
- Schiemann, W. (1995). In N. Russell-Jones (Ed.). *The managing change pocketbook*. Hants, UK: Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

Senge, P. (1990; 2006). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation*. London: Century Business.

Sharp, S., Frederickson, N., and Laws, K. (2000). Changing the profile of an educational psychology service. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 17(1), 98-111.

Solihull Metropolitan Borough Council (2012). *Educational psychology – we are listening*. Unpublished.

Stewart, D. (2001). Reinterpreting the learning organisation. *The Learning Organization* 8(4), 141-52.

Stoker, R. (2000). The sixth discipline of the learning organisation - understanding the psychology of individual constructs and the organisation. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 17(1), 76-85.

Styles, W. A. (1965). Teachers' perceptions of the school psychologist's role. *Journal of School Psychology* 3(4), 23-27.

Summerfield, A. (1968). *Psychologists in education services*. London: HMSO.

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (2010). Putting the human back in 'human research methodology': the researcher in mixed-methods research. *Journal of Mixed-methods Research*, 4, 271-277.

The British Psychological Society (2009). *Code of ethics and conduct*. Available from: www.bps.org.uk [accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Thomas, K. and Allen, S. (2006). The learning organization: a meta-analysis of themes in literature. *The Learning Organization*, 13(3), 123-139.

Turner, S., Randall, L. and Mohammed, A. (2010). Doing an effective job? Measuring the impact of casework. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 26(4), 313-329.

Wakefield Educational Psychology Service. (2008). Service evaluation 2008 – Head teacher questionnaire. Available from www.gowild.org.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Watkins, K.E. and Marsick, V.J. (1993). *Sculpting the learning organisation: lessons in the art and practice of a systematic change*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.

Watkins, M. W., Crosby, E. G. and Pearson, J. L. (2001). Role of the school psychologist. Perceptions of School Staff. *School Psychology International*, 22(1), 64-73.

Wedell, K. (1976). *Enquiry into psychological services for children*. BPS Division of Educational and Child Psychology.

Wedell, M. (2009). *Planning for educational change: putting people and their contexts first*. Continuum.

West Sussex Educational Psychology Service (1998). *Annual report 1998 / 1999*. Unpublished.

Woods, P. (1979). *The divided school*. London: Routledge.

Worcestershire County Council (2011). *Worcestershire Educational Psychology Service – school questionnaire*. Unpublished.

Worcestershire Educational Psychology Service (2012). *Worcestershire Educational Psychology Service – a service evaluation*. Available from www.worcestershire.gov.uk [Accessed 16-NOV-2012].

Wright, H. and Payne, T. (1979). An evaluation of a school psychological service: The Portsmouth Pattern. Winchester: Hampshire County Council.

Appendices

Appendix	
1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

Appendix

1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

EP School questionnaire

Cambridge's Community Educational Psychology Service (CEPS) is committed to providing the highest quality services for Cambridge's children, families and schools. The work of the service is evaluated and as part of the evaluation, schools are invited to complete this questionnaire. The questionnaire relates to services received from Community Educational Psychology Service (CEPS) this academic year.

The questionnaire should take about 10 minutes to complete and needs to be returned to us by Monday 9 July. If you have any questions regarding this questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact Karen Griggs on 01223 699154 to discuss.

Thank you, in anticipation of your support.

***1. Completed by**

School

Head Teacher

Completed By

Position

Date (DDMMYYYY format please)

Professional quality and efficiency

***2. Describe the Educational Psychologist's (EP's) relationship with:**

Scale - 1=poor, 6=excellent

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pupils	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Parents	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
School staff	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Additional comments:

EP School questionnaire

Professional quality and efficiency

*3. Are EP reports and paperwork (including recommendations):

Scale - 1=never, 6=always

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Clear and concise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Delivered in a timely fashion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Useful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Manageable (for the school)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Additional comments:

Professional quality and efficiency

EP School questionnaire

*4. Does the EP:

Scale - 1=never, 6=always

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Communicate well with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Demonstrate sensitivity and care	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participate effectively in meetings (e.g. reviews)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Act as a 'critical friend' (appropriately challenging school practices)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Additional comments:

Professional quality and efficiency

EP School questionnaire

*5. Is the EP:

Scale - 1=never, 6=always

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Accessible (e.g phone, letter, e-mail)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reliable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Punctual	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Well prepared	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Additional comments:

Range and quality of available services

EP School questionnaire

*6. To what extent do you make use of the following services from your EP?

Scale - 1=not at all, 6=a lot

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Consultation re: individual children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Consultation re: groups of children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Consultation re: whole school / whole year issues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Statutory assessments / re-assessments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Non-statutory assessments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interventions: individual children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interventions: groups of children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Follow-up support (including reviews)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Multi-disciplinary meetings such as CAP / LAC / TAC	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support for staff (Teachers, TAs)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training, INSET, workshops	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Research and development (including evaluations)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support and/or work with parents	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Project work (school / cluster)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Critical incident support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Additional comments or other categories not listed above:

Range and quality of available services

*7. What is the quality of the services delivered (if applicable)?

Scale - 1=poor, 6=excellent

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Consultation re: individual children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Consultation re: groups of children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Consultation re: whole school / whole year issues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Statutory assessments / re-assessments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Non-statutory assessments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interventions: individual children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interventions: groups of children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Follow-up support (including reviews)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Multi-disciplinary meetings such as CAF / LAC / TAC	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support for staff (Teachers, TAs)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training, INSET, workshops	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Research and development (including evaluations)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Support and/or work with parents	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Project work (school / cluster)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Critical Incident support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Additional comments or other categories not listed above:

EP School questionnaire

CEPS: Value added

***8. When the EP is engaged in the following work, does the EP's involvement add value? Please comment on each of the following:**

Scale - 1=not at all, 6=a lot

	1	2	3	4	5	6
When involved, the EP contributes to the progress of children	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When involved, the EP contributes to staff development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When involved, the EP helps and supports parents and other members of the school community	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When involved, the EP supports school improvement through training, project work, research, INSET, consultation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please provide brief details of any work completed by your EP that has been particularly valued by your school:

EP School questionnaire

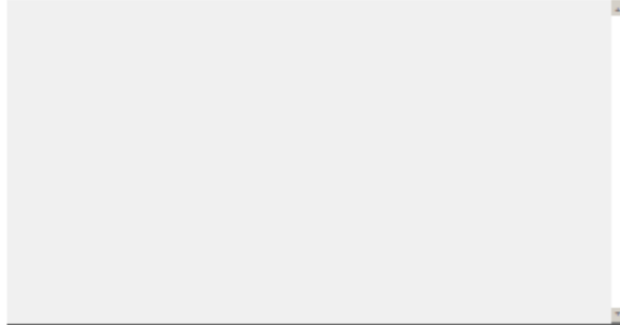
CEPS Value added

***9. Do you feel the service delivered matches the needs of your school?**

☐ Yes

☐ No

Are there any areas for development or additional comments you wish to make?

A large, empty text area with a light gray background and a thin black border, intended for users to provide feedback or additional comments.

Appendix	
1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

Interview schedule for school-based interviewees

- The setting
 - o What are the characteristics of your setting that most significantly influence the relationship your setting has with the EP?
 - o What are the characteristics of your setting that most significantly influence the effectiveness of the EP?
 - o What is it about your setting's approach to SEN that most significantly influences the relationship with the EP?
 - o What is it about your setting's approach to SEN that most significantly influences the effectiveness of the EP?
- The role of the EP
 - o What is particularly valued in terms of the relationship the EP has with pupils, parents and school staff?
 - o What is particularly valued in terms of the reports, paperwork and recommendations the EP produces?
 - o What is particularly valued in terms of how the EP communicates with others (individually or in group settings)?
 - Describe how you see the role of an EP as a 'critical friend'.
 - How can an EP best fulfil the role of being a 'critical friend'?
 - o What is particularly valued in terms of the way the EP works – how accessible, reliable, punctual and prepared the EP is?
 - o What is particularly valued in terms of the services delivered by the EP?
 - Why do you access some services from the EP and not others?
 - Are some services from the EP more important than others?
 - What services are promoted to you by the EP? How are they promoted?
 - Are the services promoted aligned with your priorities? How is this achieved?
 - How do you judge the quality of the services delivered by the EP?
 - o How does the role of the EP add value to children, parents, communities, staff and school improvement?
 - o How does the EP meet the needs of the school?
 - How do you judge that the EP meets the needs of the school?

Interview schedule for EP interviewees

- The setting
 - What are the characteristics of the setting that most significantly influence the relationship you as an EP have with them?
 - What are the characteristics of the setting that most significantly influences your effectiveness when working with them?
 - What is it about the setting's approach to SEN that most significantly influences the relationship you as an EP have with them?
 - What is it about the setting's approach to SEN that most significantly influences your effectiveness when working with them?
- The role of the EP
 - What do you believe is particularly valued in terms of the relationship you have with pupils, parents and school staff?
 - What do you believe is particularly valued in terms of the reports, paperwork and recommendations you produce?
 - What do you believe is particularly valued in terms of how you communicate with others (individually or in group settings)?
 - Describe how you see your role as a 'critical friend'.
 - How can you best fulfil your role as a 'critical friend'?
 - What do you believe is particularly valued in terms of the way you work?
 - What do you believe is particularly valued in terms of the services you deliver?
 - Why does the setting access some services and not others?
 - Are some services you deliver more important than others?
 - What services do you promote? How are they promoted?
 - How do you ensure the services you promote are aligned with the setting's priorities? How is this achieved?
 - How do you judge the quality of the services you deliver?
 - How do you ensure your role adds value to children, parents, communities, staff and school improvement?
 - How do you ensure you meet the needs of the school?
 - How is this judged in the school?

Appendix

1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

Slide 1

Macbridgeshire's Community
Educational Psychology Service
questionnaire 2012

Preliminary results: September 2012

Slide 2

Background

- Macbridgeshire's Community Educational Psychology Service (CEPS) is committed to providing the highest quality services for Macbridgeshire's children, families and schools.
- During the 2012 Summer Term, a questionnaire was distributed to schools to evaluate the work of the service in 3 areas:
 - Professional quality and efficiency.
 - Range and quality of available services.
 - 'Value added' contributions.
- The purpose of this work was to define opportunities for service improvement.
 - This presentation contains no information specific to the respondents (the schools), or their defining characteristics (area, cluster, type of school).
- The questionnaire was designed following the review of questionnaires used for similar purposes in various Local Authorities across the UK (including Hampshire, Norfolk, Solihull, Wakefield, West Sussex and Worcestershire).
- Following the review, Worcestershire Educational Psychology Service's questionnaire was used as the basis for the questionnaire in Macbridgeshire.
 - Worcestershire is a close statistical neighbour of Macbridgeshire, and comparisons in the results have been drawn where possible.

Slide 3

Response details

- The questionnaire was sent to 250 (nursery, primary, middle / secondary, specialist) schools in Macbridgeshire.
 - There were 138 responses.
 - This represents a response rate of 55%.
 - The response rate in Worcestershire, where Educational Psychologists sat with the respondents to encourage submission, was 70% (84 schools out of 120).
- Completeness of responses
 - 107 / 138 of the responses submitted all 34 'required' data elements.
 - 132 / 138 of the responses submitted more than 10 of the 'required' data elements.
 - Those that didn't submit all 34 'required' data elements were either involved in the pilot (where the questionnaire was slightly shorter) or skipped elements of the questionnaire.

Slide 4

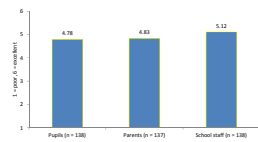
Methodological notes

- The questionnaire contained 9 questions, the majority which required a numerical (scaled) response and an optional chance to add further views.
- Scaled responses structure
 - In Worcestershire, a nominal scale was used (Poor, Satisfactory, Good, Excellent).
 - In Macbridgeshire, a 6-point interval scale was used.
 - Interval scales enable simple data analysis, such as comparisons and averaging (even though the scales don't have a '0').
 - A 6-point scale was chosen to increase reliability whilst recognising that, with more than 7-points, the returns diminish and respondents struggle to discriminate between the points.
 - The 6-points were 'anchored' at each end, but not throughout.
 - To limit the central-tendency bias, there were no mid-points to revert to. However, respondents have been shown to be less likely to answer at the ends of the scale.
 - '0' was always at the positive end of the scale, so there was no control for acquiescence bias.
- Response biases
 - Recognition that a social desirability bias may be evident (only 2 respondents submitted anonymously).
 - The data has not been analysed for differences between types of school (primary, secondary, specialist) or geographical distribution. As a result, it is possible that there is an (as yet) unidentified response bias in the results.

Slide 5

Professional quality and efficiency

Q2: Describe the EP's relationship with...



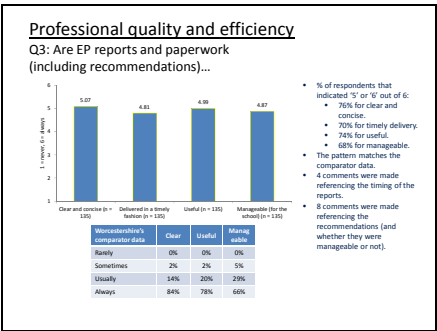
Worcestershire's comparator data	Pupils	Parents	Staff
Poor	0%	0%	0%
Satisfactory	2%	0%	1%
Good	36%	39%	22%
Excellent	62%	61%	77%

- % of respondents that indicated '5' or '6' out of 6:
 - 68% for relationships with pupils.
 - 70% for relationships with parents.
 - 78% for relationships with staff.
- The higher scores for relationships with staff match the comparator data, and may be due to the respondents being school staff themselves.
- 22 comments were made referencing groups (parents / pupils) that have limited EP contact.

Slide 6

Additional comments (Q2)		
Subject	N	Comments
Positive comments to support answer	33	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "... understanding EP - don't let her go"• "A skilled practitioner who has an excellent working relationship with all members of our school staff. Has become a very valued member of our team."• "She shows a genuine interest in people and an enthusiasm for her job that is reflected in her manner and the quality of the reports that she produces."• "Relationships with staff are professional and productive and the children are relaxed and happy to chat in her presence"• "Without exception they (staff) cannot praise her highly enough for her reliability and availability to respond."• "I am absolutely delighted with our EP and the work which has taken place this year. I really feel we have made a huge difference in meeting SEN needs at school"• "We cannot recommend EP enough and will award the 5 star rating to this practitioner for the excellent comments and strategies offered."• "I have been incredibly impressed with the educational psychologist this year"• "It has been a pleasure to have her on board and the bank of knowledge expertise. We could not be more grateful"
		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "The EP has not yet had any meetings with our pupils..."• "Our safeguarding highlighted that any contact with parents this year"• "More difficult to judge what parent's look..."• "We have not had much contact with the pupils so it is hard to comment."
Comments specific to groups that have limited EP contact	22	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "The school has received support from 3 EPs in the last 3 years..."• "Good relationships but we don't see much of the EP and because of time restraints it is hard to sort out prompt feedback from them..."• "... the problems we have that they (EPs) frequently observe and that for some time now we have had no EP input as a result of them."• "In the community model the EP only sees child in the context of statutory assessment..."
Comments related to resources, continuity and EP absence	6	
Negative comments to support answer	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "I feel that we could have done with more support and don't really feel the service has provided us with active strategies to support some of our children"• "At times have felt very uncomfortable with how information was being relayed to parents and inappropriate comments being shared."

Slide 7



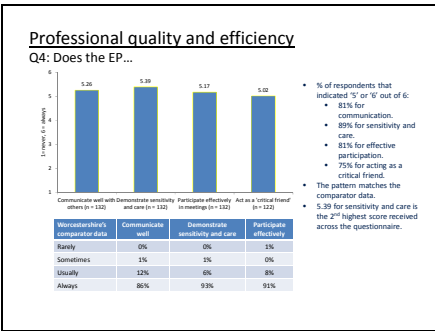
Slide 8

Additional comments (1) (Q3)		
Subject	N	Comments
Positive comments to support answer	14	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We have found all paperwork to be well expressed and easy to understand- key points are clearly delineated and suggestions are practical and manageable"• "... the finished report matches our resource"• "We have had some excellent reports"• "It's reports are always of the highest quality"• "The reports we have received have been of excellent quality"
General negative comments to support answer	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We have not had a report following that visit, and were told on the day that the EP does not do assessments, but offers advice. This is not much use to us or the child"• "The information is useful but not easily accessible for our parents, many of whom have low literacy levels themselves. School has also had issues with the accuracy of previous and even within paperwork. Checking for small inaccuracies would be really useful."
Negative comments regarding the information included/ excluded in reports	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "... they have not tended to tell me anything I did not already know about a child"• "He is restricted in his comments by what he is allowed to say to us as professionals by his supervisor"• "I would like more in-depth assessment to why the behaviours of a child are occurring rather than descriptions of what is happening."• "It has been found that often there is a 'lot' of information that can, if acted upon immediately, be overwhelming for staff and pupils. A grading of priority would be useful in discussions."

Slide 9

Additional comments (2) (Q3)		
Subject	N	Comments
Negative comments regarding the recommendations	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Sometimes some of the recommendations are a little unrealistic in terms of the secondary context"• "...sometimes complex issues are overlooked and advice isn't always manageable and put across in a supportive way"• "Most of the recommendations are things we have to plan around. Additional support is either inappropriate (due to staffing) or parents do not agree with"• "More detailed recommendations might be helpful"• "At times recommendations are rather vague and general which therefore limits the impact they have in school"• "Sometimes the recommendations have been difficult to implement"
Negative comments regarding the timing of the reports	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "On a very few occasions, it would have been nice to receive reports a little earlier..."• "Some issues with the time that the reports are delivered..."• "We have had concerns with the length of time it has taken for reports to be written and published"• "It is sometimes a while for reports to come through, and they are usually resolved fairly quickly"
Other	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "...we have had almost annual changes to our EP and there are variations in the standards of the reports"

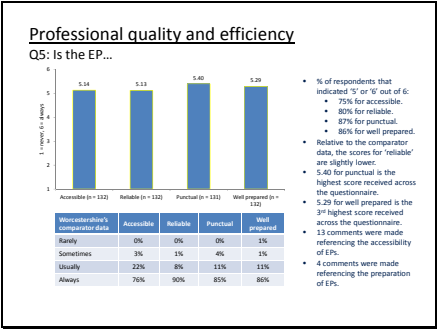
Slide 10



Slide 11

Additional comments (Q4)		
Subject	N	Comments
Positive comments to support answer	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "couldn't ask for more"• "...active and passionate, he is able to get to the heart of the matter quickly and efficiently and works effectively to get the best result for each child. He works with sensitivity and care but does not allow sentiment to overshadow the need to offer realistic and practical advice which has been with diplomacy and tact."• "It has been amazing at giving quite difficult information to parents and has been an excellent supporting challenging situation"• "...in the fact that there are areas that the school could address to improve their support for a student, she will make clear and helpful recommendations"• "Her suggestions are always practical and make it a non-judgemental pressure. This is particularly appreciated for how far what they do currently and respect and respond to her suggestions."• "When he has discussed situations with us he has always said that part of his role is to challenge people to reflect on practice. As a relatively new SENCO the opportunity to reflect on practice in this positive way is something I have greatly appreciated"• "Very supportive in his consultations with me, whilst challenging what I could do next and how I could move the school's SEN provision forward. Provided excellent training and mentored my professional practice forward. Made me question myself and my systems."• "Fantastic work this year"• "One has been the best EP we have had"• "It is a great support to us all and she goes out of her way to help us with a whole range of issues and she tries to make time to listen to our suggestions"
Negative comments to support answer	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Don't have felt they have been treated as though they have no knowledge of children and education"
Comments addressing resource / timing constraints	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We have rarely had an EP at a meeting - being it always on leave. There is rarely sufficient time available for anything other than 'urgent' or statutory work."• "The school has been tight at some periods but obviously she only has a limited time with our school and we are very aware of the pressures on her time."• "We have not received support from EPs at reviews this year"• "Parents have felt let down, when EP has been unable to attend review meetings that were previously organised"

Slide 12



Slide 13

Additional comments (Q5)

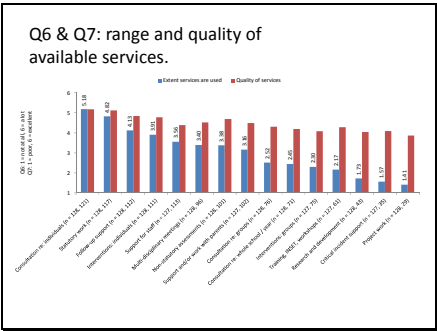
Subject	N	Sample
Positive comments to support answer	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Excellent on all counts."• "After organizing meetings with parents and staff, I have always felt confident that he will be there as what he says he will do for each."• "I have provided as with greater support than we have ever received in this school. This relationship is invaluable."• "The meetings are planned with the service offered by our EP."
Comments indicating EPs are accessible	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We have been surprised at his easy accessibility to parents."• "I have been able to attend emergency meetings at late notice or provide key information in advance. He is flexible with the school, understands how busy we can all be. I always reply promptly to email correspondence."• "Our assigned EP is always willing to communicate."
Comments indicating EPs are inaccessible	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "It is absolutely busy and can sometimes be hard to contact but she will always return emails and usually accessible."• "Very difficult to get hold of, especially by email (unless it is on a subject they are interested in). Regularly late for both teaching and parent meetings or does not turn up."• "We often have to wait a long while for response to emails or reports to be written."• "I have for effective made contact by phone."• "When we have to attend it is excellent. The days between request & response is long!"• "Our EP works part time and is not always available on the days you need to hold meetings."
Comments regarding preparation for meetings	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Current EP is always well prepared and has awareness of 'key issues'."• "We always make sure that context has been made before a meeting and that a plan for the day has been made so that time is well used and that he has been able to prepare for the day. We have several priorities together."• "Sometimes visits need clarification, so preparation is set aside for school and the EP jointly."• "It is very well prepared for all meetings, making sure he has had all relevant information before the visit."
Other	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We do have some concerns about the parents being able to contact the EP directly and bypass the school."

Slide 14

Q6 & Q7: range and quality of available services

- Respondents were asked two questions:
 - Q6: To what extent do you make use of the following services from your EP?
 - Q7: What is the quality of the services delivered (if applicable)?
- Where the respondents indicated they made 'no use' of the services in Q6, the associated Q7 response (if one was made) was not considered.
- Q6 & Q7 were specific to 15 discrete services:
 1. Consultation re: individual children
 2. Consultation re: groups of children
 3. Consultation re: whole school / whole year issues
 4. Statutory assessments / re-assessments
 5. Non-statutory assessments
 6. Interventions: individual children
 7. Interventions: groups of children
 8. Follow-up support (including reviews)
 9. Multi-disciplinary meetings such as CAF / LAC / SAC
 10. Support for staff (teachers, TAs)
 11. Training, INSET, workshops
 12. Research and development (including evaluations)
 13. Support and/or work with parents
 14. Project work (school / cluster)
 15. Critical incident support.

Slide 15



Slide 16

- Q6 & Q7: range and quality of available services.
- 'Consultation re: individuals', 'statutory work' and 'follow-up support' were the services most used.
 - 'Research and development', 'critical incident support' and 'project work' were the services least used.
 - Services used less were, generally, rated as being of a lesser quality. 'Non-statutory assessments', 'multi-disciplinary meetings' and 'training, INSET, workshops' were the services that bucked this trend (suggesting that these are valued when EPs are able to support / deliver them).

Slide 17

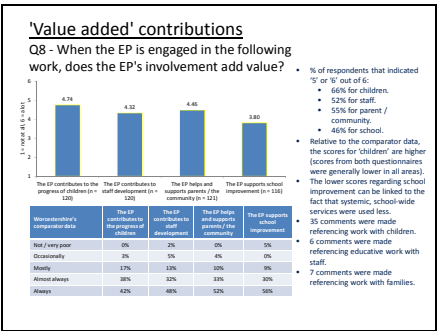
Additional comments (Q6)

Subject	N	Comments
Comments expressing challenges with time allocation / resource availability	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none">"The amount of time they [the EP] can devote to school is a challenge.""Would have to use them for all of the categories listed above but time is so restricted that have to be very focused about the three or four children whom she can work with.""It is difficult to find the time for extra activities such as some of those mentioned above.""Because of the very limited EP time available, SA work has to be prioritised.""I would have to take on the experience of an EP more widely in some of the ways mentioned above, however lack of resources makes this impractical."
Comments indicating schools were unaware of the opportunities	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none">"I am now more aware of the potential areas of support and will think differently about how I could use EP support.""I was not aware that we could approach for such a variety of support.""However it wasn't clear that we could get support for groups of children or that we could utilise the EP for whole school or INSET and training or support with interventions.""I was not aware we could access the educational psychology services for some of the above."
Frustrations with the service delivery model	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none">"I think the EP service as a whole needs to carry out the CAF training that teachers receive. Then they would be more understanding of the process and the time it takes to write the report and have with associated agencies. It would also be useful for the EP service to understand that schools should not have to copy portfolios of work to prove their request for support.""The CAF process has reduced the possibility for direct work with children.""We are not impressed that the EP focus is now with staff and parents rather than individual pupils."
Examples of work carried out	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">"We had a whole school issue with children needing additional support work...""It has helped me set up my CAs, and this support has been invaluable."
Responses that reference a shared model of service delivery	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">"We try to only use the service when it is really important and we have tried everything else.""Whole school, year group or smaller group concerns are usually worked around via the Specialist Teaching Team."

Slide 18

Additional comments (Q7)		
Subject	N	Comments
Positive comments to support answer	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "School EP is very good"• "Our EP has provided excellent care this year in all areas of the work she has undertaken for us."• "We all appreciate what it has done for us this year - thank you."• "It always offers the best service and support possible within her time/workload constraints."• "The quality of the support has always been of a high standard."• "Reports for statutory assessments have been excellent. Our EP has been to one meeting for a LAC where her contribution was valuable."• "I am very happy with all the services that have used and now intend to use more of the available services."
		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "These allocations for children and possibly an assessment of services and how to access them makes it difficult to access the most appropriate service always."
Comments indicating EPs are inaccessible	1	
Comments related to requests, continuity and EP absence	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "This year we have been extremely disappointed to have had no replacement for our EP - ..."

Slide 19



Slide 20

'Value added' contributions		
Q8 - Please provide brief details of any work completed by your EP that has been particularly valued by your school (1):		
Subject	N	Comments
Work with individual children	22	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We consulted him over difficulties with a Reception child who has since made excellent progress and is a changed child in no time when it comes to his school. Good lines of particular value."• "Support and advice regarding individual pupils of particular value."• "We have had some great support with several of our SEN children which has been much appreciated."
Work with families	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Support for a particularly challenging family."• "Successful handling of parents at meetings where issues are difficult to discuss."• "The EP has particularly been useful for consultations with parents."
Providing insight and understanding in unknown areas	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "It has been involved in supporting staff in understanding AAC."• "Receiving meetings and receiving basic training to be able to offer a student with acquired brain injury support and educational advice."• "Good training for staff and an intervention that worked well with a particular child."• "Helping staff understand the role of the EP and their role in the school."• "The training for the SEN team was excellent."• "The training for the SEN team was excellent."• "The training for the SEN team was excellent."
Statutory support	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Excellent advice on what to include in reports for statutory assessment."• "Support with annual statements. Advice on statutory assessment."• "The value of the recommendations have only been in providing further hours through statutory assessment."
SEND support	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Support with very sensitive issues regarding pupils with behavioural difficulties."• "Supporting a parent of a child with physical disabilities and behavioural problems."• "Social survey of a class to provide evidence towards statutory assessment for 16 pupils."• "Valuable advice and support for a vulnerable student that was in danger of becoming a school refuser."• "Specific research charts for pupils with behavioural difficulties."

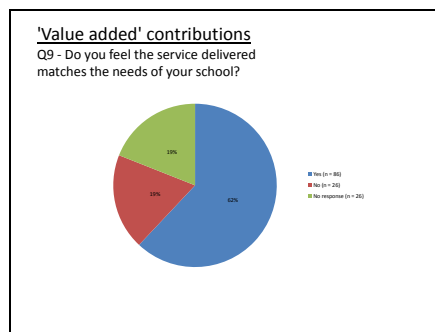
Slide 21

"Value added" contributions

Q3- Please provide brief details of any work completed by your EP that has been particularly valued by your school (2):

Subject	n	Comments
Library support	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "The programme suggested and provided for a new children to have home loan and added to their progress and achievement to level classes in English." "Suggestion of using 'Imagined teaching' with a child along with other strategies which have really boosted his reading." "Respectful reading teaching." "Reading strategies and support for learning, especially for reading groups."
Concerns re service delivery	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "We need more support and practical ideas. Sometimes I feel that our school's unique situation has not been taken into account." "I do not think that the EP support at present really contributes to progress." "The school has been asked to provide a range of support for children with special needs, but the children with the least or the number of challenges. It would be useful for the staff to address 'what our school's unique challenge' and provide solutions." "The children have been asked to provide a range of support for children with special needs, but the children with the least or the number of challenges. It would be useful for the staff to address 'what our school's unique challenge' and provide solutions."
Generally positive re service delivery	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "Our EP has been invaluable year by year. She always goes the extra mile and is extremely helpful and professional." "We have been very happy to have a range of support for children with special needs, but the children with the least or the number of challenges. It would be useful for the staff to address 'what our school's unique challenge' and provide solutions." "Our EP has always been approachable and supportive about the individual children who comes to us most often. The staff find her helpful and easy to work with." "We have been very happy to have a range of support for children with special needs, but the children with the least or the number of challenges. It would be useful for the staff to address 'what our school's unique challenge' and provide solutions."
Other	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "We value what the school that it does with us very much." "We are very happy to have a range of support for children with special needs, but the children with the least or the number of challenges. It would be useful for the staff to address 'what our school's unique challenge' and provide solutions." "Support at little child and family to help them to get a special school placement for one of our students." "Helping school ensure accurate identification and access support for high needs children and families. Ensuring support meeting to need."

Slide 22



Slide 23

Subject	N	Comments
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "We always would do with more time" "We pressure on your service and the process involved [and] in particular, when there are sometimes currently uncomfortable delays in arranging meetings etc." "You need more time with us, P. In order to be able to support our children in need of this level of support." "We would like further help with EP and social academic and peer 'problems'" "We only complain because we think that we don't have enough support but I am aware that we are not the only school and as such we are not the only school with problems for our children." "We have been in touch with the local authority and they really need to make the most of what we need to do and we need to be in touch with them. Our current EP of 161 risk being 100 this was the year last year but the replacement which was proposed was 100." "Employer effort to reduce workload and enable individuals to increase their allocation of support." "Sally has been in to get a chat this morning. These issues are not always going full-on all of their experience during the year."
Comments regarding time allocation / capacity	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "It would be helpful if we could be more prompt" "We need more EP time and we need to be confident that work in our schools is not put to one side because of pressures being placed on them for supporting additional children in need." "We still need support this year due to COVID." "The support you have provided and other, other child-related." "I think that our school has to stand a good chance that our needs are greater than many other schools this year and we have not received a huge number of EPs." "I've had a chat with a local and a 'back log' of EP requests going back to the EP that had the most amount of allocation. We have not been able to get a 'back log' of EP requests going back to the EP that had the most amount of allocation. We have not been able to get a 'back log' of EP requests going back to the EP that had the most amount of allocation." "We have been in touch with the local authority and they really need to make the most of what we need to do and we need to be in touch with them. Our current EP of 161 risk being 100 this was the year last year but the replacement which was proposed was 100." "Very difficult to access support when requested."

Slide 24

'Value added' contributions		
Q9 - Are there any areas for development or additional comments you wish to make (2)?		
Subject	N	Examples
Comments regarding the threshold model, the service delivery model and other related services	13	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "I'm still confused as to who to refer to the service in the next academic year as the E.P. is supposed to work with only high needs children (EPs) but as we have 14, yet the EP don't have the capacity to go on as at the moment."• "Many comments have been made from staff and parents that an opportunity for the EP to spend time with children, as opposed to the current theoretical situation, would be a more suitable one (often)".• "EPs and DT should facilitate and support SENCOs in the management of specific and high incidence learning difficulties - creating a normal range of pupils. The early identification of pupils and the appropriateness of Wave 1,2 and 3 interventions and ultimately a referral for additional help will flow better."• "To ensure that the threshold is statutory assessment is now much longer."• "The hurdles for getting the EP involved down the process down and to truly for those children from hard to reach families."• "Our schools within our CMA and related for the EP services, but within CMA and South for EP. This often makes communication and interaction between all necessary extremely difficult and more complicated than usual."• "I am confused and when the child doesn't EP assessment has to be followed up by another assessment when it is agreed."• "The service needs to be more strategic and needs to work more closely with a school's strategic plan. It is a shame that the consultation approach with the DT seems to have ended. It was good when we had a consultation at the start of the year and practices were identified. I feel the service needs to develop so that future measures go further."• "The EPs no longer see the children so only go on what we say and so it seems as if the support is not particularly tailored to the children."• "Comments are useful but observations are more useful."• "There has been an element of frustration within school due to the policy of not being able to access EP services if there is a specialist teaching team involvement."• "...as an Academy (I am not always sure as to what support we should expect (and it is reasonable to request) from LEA E.D. Perhaps more easily from external case work. With so many psychologists involved with children, it can be a bit of a misfield to know who's doing what work, where and when with a child."• "The service this year has made a lot of children. There appears to have been no support for those children who do not meet statutory assessment criteria."

Slide 25

'Value added' contributions		
Q9 - Are there any areas for development or additional comments you wish to make (3)?		
Subject	N	Examples
Positive comments to support answer	13	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "The service that has been provided has been excellent."• "We are just grateful that we have an E.D Psych that is willing to engage with both pupils and school. We feel it has to be said to meet our needs."• "Our EP has been excellent, supportive and very helpful with all students and parents he has worked with."• "We very happy with the service and our EP in particular."• "This school and staff have been very well supported by the EP."• "It's help has been invaluable."• "We have been very supportive as we have needed his services and made excellent professional relationships with all the staff involved."• "The quality of the work undertaken by the EP is very good and he has supported us with so many children as possible during the time."• "I think the service we have received during the last two years has been excellent, due to the EP involved."• "We have been very satisfied by the level of support we have received from the educational psychologist this year."• "The support we receive is excellent."• "We have better supported this year than we have for a while."
Negative comments to support answer	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "It was a little disappointing that the support we did need was available and took a great deal of time considering it was only one assessment."• "Discussions and not severely (being read). However these issues have been raised and are being dealt with."
Comments related to EP continuity	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "Continuity of EP would be of great assistance."• "We are much happier now we know we will have continuity from the same EP for at least 2 years."• "Continuity is crucial."• "Consistency and continuity of professional is so important for some of the families who have the most difficulties and are the hardest to reach."• "There is a clear concern that we will be receiving support next year from a new EP. This will be a different EP in 6 years, which can make it difficult to continue on-going work as a new professional has to get to know the child, their family and their needs."

Slide 26

'Value added' contributions		
Q9 - Are there any areas for development or additional comments you wish to make (4)?		
Subject	N	Examples
Comments indicating which were concerns of the opportunities	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "There are lots of services in this survey that I was not aware that our EP would provide."• "I think it would be useful if the services available were made easier to identify, so that we were more aware of what we can do."• "We would like more support with what we would like to have more information of the forms of support which could be available to our school."• "We would like more suggestions which work alongside the way in which our school works."
Comments regarding the recommendations	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "...which would also be useful in raising up the EPs to a higher situation rather than just present a list of strategies. Often, although they are good strategies, they are not effective because the situation has continued for so long it has developed into a permanent for the child."• "We would like more in-depth analysis of a child's functioning to help get a more detailed idea of why a child is behaving/learning in a particular way."
Other comments	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• "We also need a County (Devon) policy and some leadership at county level."• "Would be useful if our EP was able to continue supporting children in their childhood secondary schools."

Slide 27

Next steps

- Delivery of:
 - Community Educational Psychology service delivery booklet (TBD).
 - The data broken down by patch (November 2012).
 - General service improvement suggestions and ideas (January 2013).
- Planning and delivery of the 2012 / 13 academic year service-user feedback.
 - Methodological improvements and other populations are being considered.

Appendix

1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

Slide 1

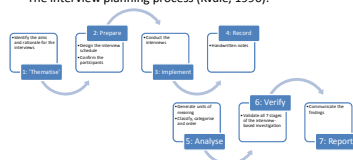
Macbridgeshire's Community Educational Psychology Service evaluation interviews 2012

December 2012

Slide 2

Background

- As a follow up to the Community Educational Psychology Service (CEPS) evaluation questionnaire distributed and evaluated earlier in 2012, a series of interviews were conducted.
- The interview planning process (Kvale, 1996):



Slide 3

Interview details

- Epistemological stance:
 - Constructionist: reality is socially constructed (Burr, 1995).
 - Symbolic interactionist focus on the nature of interactions and dynamic activities taking place between EPs and their service-users (Woods, 1979).
- Telephone-based, 30+ minutes.
- Semi-structured interview focusing on:
 - The characteristics of the setting;
 - The role of the EP;
 - And how these are conducive to effective EP practice.
- Interviewees:
 - 13 schools responded to a subset of the questionnaire questions (Qs 2, 3, 4, 5 & 8) with 6/6 for all answers.
 - Of those 13 schools, however, 10 of them had either had the questionnaire respondent leave at the end of the 2011 / 12 academic year or a new EP assigned for the 2012 / 13 academic year.
 - As a result, 6 interviews were conducted, with the respondents and the assigned EPs from the remaining 3 schools.
- Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was used to analyse the interview data, with themes and sub-themes collapsed across interviewees.

Slide 4

Themes

1. Setting characteristics that are conducive to EP involvement
2. Constituent parts of a positive relationship between an EP and the setting
3. Effective EP positioning
4. Desired communication style and demeanour of EPs
5. Preferred EP ways of working
6. The role of an EP in achieving maximum gains
7. Expected outputs of EP involvement

Slide 5

Theme 1: Setting characteristics that are conducive to EP involvement

In the school, there is / are...	The school has an attitude to SEN and SEN planning in which...	The key SEN stakeholder (The Head / SENCo) is...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• An understanding and recognition of diversity• Internally aligned, formal structures that enable change and systemic improvement• Clearly defined and understood areas of need• An ability to prioritise• A whole school ethos of improvement• A welcoming / friendly attitude to external professionals	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The importance of SEN is recognised• There is a high degree of engagement across the school re: SEN• SEN ownership is distributed through school (it is everyone's responsibility)• There is an inclusive approach to managing SEN (there is a stated desire to remove children from the SEN register)• Planning is data-led• The start of year multi-agency planning meeting is well used (planned for, organised, action-orientated)• There is a commitment to early intervention	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Allocated sufficient SEN release time (SEN release time is prioritised)• Open to input and learning (not defensive, and prepared to reflect on practice)• Able to attend consultations to help drive through change

Slide 6

Theme 1: Setting characteristics that are conducive to EP involvement		
The staff are...	In the dominant models of change...	Prior to EP involvement...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">ProfessionalAble, and committed, to implementing recommendations	<ul style="list-style-type: none">The change is 'owned' within the schoolProfessionals in school understand the process of change (and are able to reflect on how change has happened)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Lots of information is provided for review (anonymous profiles are used to facilitate initial discussions)There is clarity on STT / EP thresholds (the setting understands the links with the STT so work that ends up with EPs is truly EP work)There is a clearly defined end goal / aim for EP involvementNeeds are prioritised

Slide 7

Theme 2: Constituent parts of a positive relationship between an EP and the setting			
In school, the EP...	With individual stakeholders (Head / SENCo) there is / are...	In relation to the overall staff, the EP...	Tenure influences relationships as...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Knows the schoolKnows the SEN journey the school has been on	<ul style="list-style-type: none">A good quality, longer-term relationship, built up over timeA relationship built on trustTimes when the Head / SENCo is prepared to act as a public relations agent for the EP	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Has confidence in themKnows them (including TA knowledge and expertise)Is felt to be part of the collective ('one of us')	<ul style="list-style-type: none">New EPs are likely to have different conversations to established EPNew SENCos may be more open to inputThe expectation set by previous EPs is very influential

Slide 8

Theme 3: Effective EP positioning	
Inside the school, effective positioning sees EPs as...	'Outside' the school, effective positioning sees EPs as...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Not an expertVisible and present in schoolClear about who the client is, and how work will meet their needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Prepared to work directly with parentsAble to mediate between parents and schools (bringing them together)Embedded in the community (locality team, children's centre, health professionals)Providing unfettered, impartial advice (no toeing of the local authority 'party line')Influencing decision, but not acting as a gatekeeper of resourcesWorks with, and integrates the perspectives of, other professionals (for the benefit of the school)

Slide 9

Theme 4: The desired communication style and demeanour of EPs

- The key characteristics of EPs include being...
- Open
 - Able to use humour (sometimes to make a point)
 - Able to use subtle questioning techniques to encourage reflection - 'communication as an art'
 - Friendly (even if the message is difficult). This helps to break down barriers.
 - Quiet and calm
 - Gentle
 - Relaxed and easy
 - Sensitive
 - Personable

Slide 10

Theme 5: Preferred EP ways of working

EPs can show themselves to be prepared by...	In terms of their timing, it is important that EPs will...	When working with EP structures, EPs should...	When contacting EPs, it is deemed helpful if they are...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Having paperwork (files, CAF) with them• Having read paperwork ahead of meetings (when required)• Influencing meeting attendees to ensure time is well spent	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Be punctual• Call ahead if they are running late• Turn around reports quickly to aid implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Be flexible re: time allocation• Recognise the tensions between the consultation model (early intervention) and the thresholds for EP involvement (severe, persistent needs), and be able to navigate this path• Be realistic and consistent re: referral pathways (CAF, for example)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Responsive and accessible when remote (easy to get in touch with)• Clear on when to be in touch on the phone vs. email

Slide 11

Theme 6: The role of an EP in achieving maximum gains

Important aspects of the EP role include that the EP...	Important EP work is thought to be...	Appropriate challenges of practice is when the EP...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Facilitates conversations and action planning• Is prepared to take the lead (in meetings if required)• Provides (emotional) support (not criticism)• Provides ideas (ones previously unconsidered)• Finds, and follows, the perspectives of all sides (including the children)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Delivering a breadth of activities• Early intervention• A focus on transition (that bridges relationships with the school and surrounding schools)• Ensuring consultation is effective (prior access with a reduced fear element)• About helping navigate the system, and helping with the effective use of existing tools (such as a CAF)• About helping navigate the statutory process• Having a systemic orientation, including the generalisation of individual strategies and recommendations into wider forums• About providing support during critical incidents (as it is unexpected and high profile)• About being prepared to not always work to EP preferences and priorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Enables or facilitates reflective practice• Is honest and frank• Is prepared to challenge beliefs and directly communicate difficult messages• Has expectations• Understands that a good relationship is the precursor to being able to effectively challenge practice• Recognises the risks of collusion (especially as EPs like being liked)• Is prepared to positively re-aim situations (that a positive regard, doesn't result in 'no')• Finds ways to communicate a challenge or to negotiate• Is conscious of power dynamics and how they may influence behaviour• Recognises legitimate tensions in systems (and is prepared to communicate how they may be impacting behaviour)• Refuses to allocate blame (protects independence)

Slide 12

Theme 6: The role of an EP in achieving maximum gains

It is important that the EP aligns standards tailored to...	Psychological formulations should...	Key knowledge and skills EP include...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helping the planning and prioritisation process Ensuring activity is in line with clearly defined expectations Coordinating activity, and channeling the energy and direction of others Influencing others Being approachable Being flexible as needs change through the year Being prepared to clarify misunderstandings / grey areas (at the start of the relationship especially) rather than letting them slide for an easy life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depict core issues from peripheral areas and preferred interpretations Balance consideration of a child's background (reasons and solutions, not focused with what's going at the moment) Be contextually based Be comprehensive, as they understand and recognise the complexity in the situation Evidence that the EP 'gets' the child Include psychology explicitly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Being able to bridge knowledge and skill gaps in school Having the depth of knowledge of a specialist Being concise Clearly explaining difficult concepts (and being easy to follow) Being an expert in the subtleties and complexities of learning Being unique in the knowledge and skills provided (no-one else could do it) Easing confidence Being a clear thinker in complex situations Being reflective (recognising how background, epistemological positions, practice preferences might impact on the service delivered)

Slide 13

Theme 7: Expected outputs of EP involvement

General views on EP involvement include...	Effective recommendations and actions are...	The 'bottom line' changes as a result of EP involvement will include...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Involvement should be long term in its nature (commitments are unlikely to be one-off, and the EP is persistent). Original documents form the basis of an on-going working arrangement Small, incremental gains should be highlighted and celebrated as progress will be slow in these most challenging cases That the should focus on the 'how' - helping other professionals transition from concept to action That outcomes are never owned by the EP as they are generated through co-coaching, where the others involved are drawn to the conclusions That involvement builds on existing effective practice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Realistic Usable Co-constructed Contextually based Never a surprise Paradoxical 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Changes in attitude of adults Development of the practice of professionals and teachers Changes that can be directly linked to learning (academic performance) Changes that can be directly linked to the focus child / children

Slide 14

Inconsistencies in findings that emerged through the interviews

- Judging the quality of EP work is extremely difficult due to the complexity of the causal relationships that mediate the involvement of EPs and the impact on children. As a result, there is a risk that the quality of the relationship between the EP and the school can become a proxy for views on the quality of the service.
- Respondents recognise they know less about the child-facing work, which is a large component of the value-added work EPs deliver.
- Schools state that they want more work directly with children, yet the large majority of their commentary relates to adult facing work.

Slide 15

Potential next steps (1)

- The findings from the interviews could serve as the basis for a service-wide reflection.
- Some of the findings lead to direct questions with (relatively) clear-cut answers.
- Examples include:
 - (Slide 8) In what % of cases do you work with parents and families?
 - (Slide 8) How many community settings in and around your patch would recognise, understand and market the role of an EP?
 - (Slide 8) In what % of your settings do you have a working relationship with the STT and the SALT?
 - (Slide 13) What % of your cases involve a one-off involvement?
 - (Slide 13) After what % of sessions in which you make recommendations do you support, and follow up on, the implementation of the recommendations?
- These questions, in the right environment, may facilitate discussions about disparity of professional practice, the desired answers and ways to close the gap.

Slide 16

Potential next steps (2)

- Other findings, however, lend themselves to more philosophical debates regarding the role of the EP.
- These may form the basis for a wider (small group) discussion, and could include:
 - (Slide 11) How do we challenge unacceptable practice appropriately?
 - (Slide 12) What are the important areas that are often misunderstood that, without clarification, lead to difficulties in settings down the line?
 - (Slide 12) How do we ensure that we can identify core vs. peripheral issues during formulation, and that we don't revert to our 'preferred' formulations when faced with cases?
 - (Slide 12) How does our background, epistemological position and practice preference impact on the service we deliver?
 - (Slide 13) What are the small, incremental gains we'd expect to see, and how do we best highlight and celebrate them?

Slide 17

Potential next steps (3)

- The risks associated with any reflective exercise include:
 - The anonymity of the interviewees is compromised.
 - The service responds defensively to being asked to reflect on the findings:
 - Group conclusions lead to disagreement with the findings (defensive groupthink).
 - Individuals may perceive that the findings are 'obvious' and they represent approaches that they take already (individual denial).
 - The discussions are engaging and useful, but don't lead to actionable change that is followed up on.

Appendix

1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

Slide 1

Macbridgeshire's Community
Educational Psychology Service
questionnaire 2012

Preliminary results: November 2012

Slide 2

Background

- Macbridgeshire's Community Educational Psychology Service (CEPS) is committed to providing the highest quality services for Macbridgeshire's children, families and schools.
- During the 2012 Summer Term, a questionnaire was distributed to schools to evaluate the work of the service in 3 areas:
 - Professional quality and efficiency.
 - Range and quality of available services.
 - 'Value added' contributions.
- The purpose of this work was to define opportunities for service improvement.
- This presentation contains the numerical and qualitative data from questions 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 & 9 specific to the 'A' cluster.
 - In this cluster, there were 3 responses (some partial, some complete).

Slide 3

Response details

- The questionnaire was sent to 250 (nursery, primary, middle / secondary, specialist) schools in Macbridgeshire.
 - There were 138 responses.
 - This represents a response rate of 55%.
 - The response rate in Worcestershire, where Educational Psychologists sat with the respondents to encourage submission, was 70% (84 schools out of 120).
- Completeness of responses
 - 107 / 138 of the responses submitted all 34 'required' data elements.
 - 132 / 138 of the responses submitted more than 10 of the 'required' data elements.
 - Those that didn't submit all 34 'required' data elements were either involved in the pilot (where the questionnaire was slightly shorter) or skipped elements of the questionnaire.

Slide 4

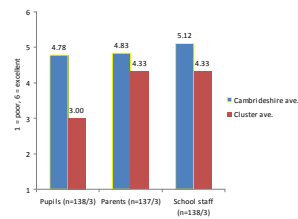
Methodological notes

- The questionnaire contained 9 questions, the majority which required a numerical (scaled) response and an optional chance to add further views.
- Scaled responses structure
 - In Worcestershire, a nominal scale was used (Poor, Satisfactory, Good, Excellent).
 - In Macbridgeshire, a 6-point interval scale was used.
 - Interval scales enable simple data analysis, such as comparisons and averaging (even though the scales don't have a 0).
 - A 6-point scale was chosen to increase reliability whilst recognising that, with more than 7-points, the returns diminish and respondents struggle to discriminate between the points.
 - The 6-points were 'anchored' at each end, but not throughout.
 - To limit the central-tendency bias, there were no mid-points to revert to. However, respondents have been shown to be less likely to answer at the ends of the scale.
 - 'V' was always at the positive end of the scale, so there was no control for acquiescence bias.
- Response biases
 - Recognition that a social desirability bias may be evident (only 2 respondents submitted anonymously).
 - The data has not been analysed for differences between types of school (primary, secondary, specialist) or geographical distribution (EC&S, Hunts & SCC). As a result, it is possible that there is an (as yet) unidentified response bias in the results.

Slide 5

Professional quality and efficiency

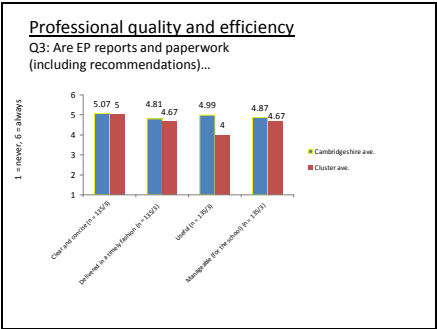
Q2: Describe the EP's relationship with...



Slide 6

Additional comments (Q2)		
Subject	N	Examples
Positive comments to support answer	0	
Comments specific to groups that have limited EP contact	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">no work directly with pupils
Comments related to resources, continuity and EP absence	0	
Negative comments to support answer	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">At times I have felt very uncomfortable with how information was being relayed to parents and inappropriate comments being shared, ie children like that (very 5AL)...there is no point working with them as they will never get any better/ make progress.

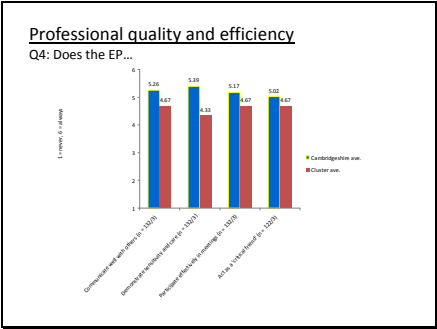
Slide 7



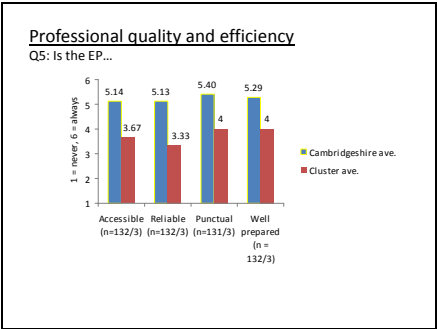
Slide 8

Additional comments (Q3)		
Subject	N	Examples
Positive comments to support answer	0	
General negative comments to support answer	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Most of the recommendations are things we have in place already. Additional support is either inappropriate (due to staffing) or parents do not agree with (i.e. creating a 'soft hand' for when a child is being moved)
Negative comments regarding the information included/ excluded in reports	0	

Slide 9



Slide 10



Slide 11

Additional comments (Q5)

Subject	N	Comments
Positive comments to support review	0	
Comments indicating EPs are accessible	0	
Comments indicating EPs are inaccessible	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Some meetings have been cancelled and we are not without an EP. Sometimes visits need clarification so preparation is slow for School & EP jointly.Very difficult to get hold of, especially by email (asked if it is a subject they are interested in i.e. behavioural/victim management). Regularly late for both teaching and parent meetings or does not turn up.

Slide 12

Q6 & Q7: range and quality of available services

• Respondents were asked two questions:

- Q6: To what extent do you make use of the following services from your EPF?
- Q7: What is the quality of the services delivered (if applicable)?

• Where the respondents indicated they made 'no use' of the services in Q6, the associated Q7 response (if one was made) was not considered.

• Q6 & Q7 were specific to 15 discrete services:

1. Consultation re: individual children
2. Consultation re: groups of children
3. Consultation re: whole school / whole year issues
4. Statutory assessments / re-assessments
5. Non-statutory assessments
6. Interventions: individual children
7. Interventions: groups of children
8. Follow-up support (including reviews)
9. Multi-disciplinary meetings such as CAF / LAC / SAC
10. Support for staff (Teachers, TAs)
11. Training, INSET, workshops
12. Research and development (including evaluations)
13. Support and/or work with parents
14. Project work (school / cluster)
15. Critical incident support.

Slide 13

Q6: Range of available services

Service	Cluster areas	Cambridge/Leaves
Consultation re: individual children	12	12
Consultation re: groups of children	12	12
Consultation re: whole school / whole year issues	12	12
Statutory assessments / re-assessments	12	12
Non-statutory assessments	12	12
Interventions: individual children	12	12
Interventions: groups of children	12	12
Follow-up support (including reviews)	12	12
Multi-disciplinary meetings such as CAF / LAC / SAC	12	12
Support for staff (Teachers, TAs)	12	12
Training, INSET, workshops	12	12
Research and development (including evaluations)	12	12
Support and/or work with parents	12	12
Project work (school / cluster)	12	12
Critical incident support	12	12

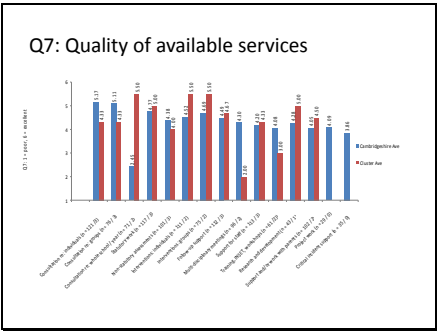
Slide 14

Additional comments (Q6)

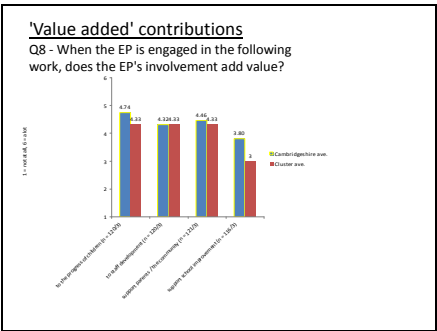
Subject	N	Example
Comments expressing challenges with time allocation / resource availability	1	• We try to only use the service when it is really important and we have tried everything else.
Comments indicating schools were unaware of the opportunities	0	
Frustrations with the service delivery model	0	
Examples of work carried out	0	
Responses that reference a named model of service delivery	0	

311

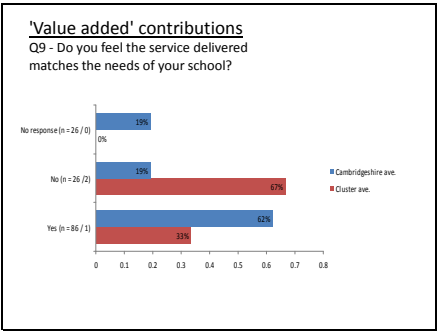
Slide 15



Slide 16



Slide 17



Slide 18

<u>'Value added' contributions</u>		
Q9 - Are there any areas for development or additional comments you wish to make (2)?		
Subject	N	Example
Comments regarding the individual needs, the service delivery model and other related services	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The EPRs no longer see the children so only go on what we say and so it seems as if the support is not particularly tailored to the children. If an urgent case comes in we still have to go through the meet and review cycle before we can get any detailed support or observations for some children this takes too long.
Comments regarding time allocation / capacity	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not had full support this year due to illness

Slide 19

Next steps	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Delivery of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Community Educational Psychology service delivery booklet (TBD). – General service improvement suggestions and ideas (January 2013). • Planning and delivery of the 2012 / 13 academic year service-user feedback. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Methodological improvements and other populations are being considered. 	

Appendix	
1	The questionnaire
2	The interview schedule
3	Questionnaire results
4	Interview outcomes
5	Questionnaire results, by cluster
6	Senior management briefing paper

Briefing paper for	CB (Service Director, Children's Enhanced and Preventative Services)
Briefing paper from	HP (Principal Educational Psychologist)
Date	01-NOV-2012
Title	Macbridgeshire's Community Educational Psychology Service questionnaire 2012

Introduction

- During the 2012 Summer Term, a questionnaire was distributed to all 250 (nursery, primary, middle / secondary, specialist) schools in Macbridgeshire to evaluate the work of the Community Educational Psychology Service.
- The purpose of this work was to define opportunities for service improvement.
- There were 138 responses. This represents a response rate of 55%.

Results

- Participants were asked to respond to the questions on a 6-point scale (6 representing a positive response).
- Professional quality and efficiency:

Q2: Describe the EP's relationship with...	
Pupils	4.78
Parents	4.83
School staff	5.12

"[The EP is] a skilled practitioner who has an excellent working relationship with all members of our school staff. She has become a very valued member of our team."

Q3: Are EP reports and paperwork (including recommendations)...	
--	--

"We have found all paperwork to be well expressed and easy to understand - key points are clearly delineated and suggestions are practical and manageable."

Clear and concise	5.07
Delivered in a timely fashion	4.81
Useful	4.99
Manageable (for the school)	4.87

Q4: Does the EP...

Communicate well with others	5.26
Demonstrate sensitivity and care	5.39
Participate effectively in meetings	5.17
Act as a 'critical friend'	5.02

Q5: Is the EP...

Accessible	5.14
Reliable	5.13
Punctual	5.40
Well prepared	5.29

"...Astute and perceptive, he is able to get to the heart of the matter quickly and efficiently and works effectively to get the best result for each child. He works with sensitivity and care but does not allow sentiment to overshadow the need to offer realistic and practical advice which he does with diplomacy and tact."

"Excellent on all counts."

- **Q6 & Q7:** Range and quality of services
 - o 'Consultation re: individuals', 'statutory work' and 'follow-up support' were the services most used.
 - o 'Research and development', 'critical incident support' and 'project work' were the services least used.
 - o Services used less were, generally, rated as being of a lesser quality. 'Non-statutory assessments', 'multi-disciplinary meetings' and 'training, INSET, workshops' were the services that bucked this trend.
- 'Value added' contributions

Q8: When the EP is engaged in the following work, does the EP's involvement add value?

The EP contributes to the progress of children	4.74
The EP contributes to staff development	4.32

"We consulted our EP over difficulties with a Reception child who has since made excellent progress and is a changed child in so many ways."

"[The EP provided] valuable advice and support for a vulnerable student that was in danger of becoming a school refuser."

The EP helps and supports parents / the community	4.46
The EP supports school improvement	3.80

"We would like more time with our EP to enable us to support more children in need of this level of support."

Q9: Do you feel the service delivered matches the needs of your school?

Yes	62%
No	19%
No response	19%

"Our EP has been excellent, supportive and very helpful with all students and parents he has worked with."

Significant results

- The highest scoring responses were related to:
 - o EPs being punctual for their commitments (5.40).
 - o EPs demonstrating sensitivity and care (5.39), such as advising parents and children on difficult issues, and acting non-judgmentally, tactfully and diplomatically in challenging situations.
 - o EPs being well prepared for their commitments (5.29).
- The lowest scoring responses were related to:
 - o The extent EPs add value when engaging in school improvement work (3.80).
 - o The extent EPs add value when engaging in staff development work (4.32).
 - o The extent EPs add value when engaging in parental / community facing work (4.46).

Areas for improvement and on-going work

- At the Children & Young People's Services level:
 - o Working alongside the Learning Directorate to broaden opportunities for CEPS involvement in core school improvement plans (the need is clear in the responses to questions 6, 7 & 8).
- At the Enhanced and Preventative Services level:
 - o Working to better establish the links between professional practice (which the responses to questions 2 – 5 show is well regarded) and adding value to children, families, schools and communities (less evident in the responses to question 8).
 - o Working to further improve understanding of the preferred service delivery model for schools (structured thresholds throughout the model of staged intervention) and the services CEPS can provide within that model. Many of the comments received spoke to frustrations regarding the lack of availability of EPs and the type of work EPs are engaged in (consultative work alongside other professionals).
- Within the Community Educational Psychology Service:
 - o Using the questionnaire outcomes for learning at the cluster / individual EP level.
 - o Maintaining continuity in the professional support schools receive from the CEPS, as this was highlighted as a high priority in the comments received.

- Establishing consistently high quality reports and interventions that are valuable for schools, as the comments suggest that schools have a preference for manageable, relevant recommendations and direct assessment and intervention with their children.
- Maintaining consistent recording practices, to align with recent Ofsted findings.