PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE REPORTS

by

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Volume 2 of this Research Thesis comprises four professional practice reports (PPRs) providing detailed accounts of four selected areas of supervised professional practice, exploring the evidence base for these practices, and describing the processes of critical reflection and evaluation involved. These four accounts demonstrate the development of my skills as a practitioner-scientist whilst working as a Trainee Educational Psychologist (TEP) within a Local Authority during Years 2 and 3 of my professional training, and studying for a Doctorate in Applied Educational and Child Psychology.

This introductory chapter aims to discuss the remit and rationale of the accounts of practice presented in this volume, the context within which these accounts of practice took place, and the implications for my professional practice and for the development of knowledge and understanding.

1.1 Working as a Trainee Educational Psychologist (TEP)

In 2006 the requirement for EP training in England moved to a three-year doctoral training from the one-year masters level training previously required (Cameron et al, 2008). Within this new training structure, trainees are required to undertake supervised professional practice in order to meet the professional competence criteria of the training programme. Therefore, in Year 1 of the training programme trainees attend University full-time which includes placements with two Local Authorities (LAs). In Years 2 and 3 trainees are usually employed by one LA, as in my case, to undertake their supervised professional practice.

These trainees therefore have a dual status as an employee of the LA, and a full-time student of the University. In Year 2, 60% of trainees' time is expected to be spent on LA work, and in Year 3, 80% of trainees' time should be spent on LA work. I was one of the third cohort of trainees offered a place on the new doctoral training programme, beginning my doctoral studies in September 2008.

In Years 2 and 3 of my doctoral training, employment within a large shire Local Authority as part of a changing Educational Psychology Service (EPS) structure, and being co-located with a range of other agencies including Educational Welfare Officers, Family Support Workers, and Social Workers, afforded me a range of opportunities to develop my professional practice and to put into practice the skills and knowledge I was developing during the Doctorate training programme based at the University of Birmingham. These experiences allowed me to develop my understanding of the application of this learning in the real and challenging world of professional practice as an Educational Psychologist (EP).

In my role as a TEP I worked within one of the most deprived areas in the LA, with 25 Super Output Areas (a geographical unit with an average population of 1,500) falling within the most deprived 30% in England, and 14 of these falling within the 10 % most deprived in England (The English Indices of Deprivation 2004). 94.8% of the population in this area of the County live in an urban area, and 5.2% live in surrounding villages and hamlets (Office for National Statistics, 2004; Rural and Urban Definition). Approximately 25.6% of the population are under 20 years of age, and therefore the proportion of households having dependent children (33.3%) is above the average for the County and for England (29.4%).

Approximately 6.8% of the population belong to an ethnic group other than White; with 3.6% from an Asian or Asian British ethnic group*.

As a TEP I was the named EP for 9 schools in the area; 7 First Schools (Foundation Stage through to Year 4), 1 Middle School (Year 5 through to Year 8), and 1 High School (Year 9 through to Sixth Form). My work for each school was negotiated in a multi-agency planning meeting at the beginning of each term, and mostly constituted casework with individual pupils. PPRs 1 and 2 reflect some of my experiences within the schools in my 'patch' whilst working with members of staff supporting pupils with English as an additional language (EAL), and whilst undertaking individual therapeutic work with one pupil with anxiety needs.

During my time working within the LA, the EP role began to change in response to a new initiative introduced which allowed schools in the County the opportunity to 'bid' for project work. Project work involved work which was generally more collaborative, impacted on a wider audience, and supported organisational change within the school system. PPR 3 explores the move within the Educational Psychology Service to offering project work, and PPR 4 describes an example of my involvement supporting a project in another EP's school through conducting a piece of research to inform the development of the school's behaviour policy. This school was one of two specialist provisions for pupils with moderate and severe learning difficulties and/or disabilities within the area of the County I worked, which children in this area who met the criteria could request a placement within (catering for the 3-19 years and 4-18 years age range).

*The reference is not included here in order to protect the anonymity of the LA that I was working within.

Therefore, children I was involved with who had a Statement of Special Educational Need and were not coping in mainstream provision, would, where appropriate, move to a specialist provision such as this one.

Fallon et al (2010) define EPs as;

> 'fundamentally scientist-practitioners who utilise, for the benefit of children and young people (CYP), psychological skills, knowledge and understanding through the functions of consultation, assessment, intervention, research and training, at organisational, group or individual level…' (p.4).

The four accounts of supervised professional practice reported in this volume aim to demonstrate application of these skills through examples of practice in particular through assessment, intervention, and research at the level of the individual, the classroom, the school, the EPS, and the LA as a whole.

During the time I was employed as a TEP, the LA Children's Services was in the process of being re-structured, and there were also a range of budget cuts introduced in response to the newly formed Coalition Government's agenda. This impacted on the nature of my work within the LA, and the nature of my collaborative work with other agencies (some of which were reduced or disbanded during my time working with them). However, these cuts were introduced towards the end of my two years working within the LA as a TEP, and therefore did not impact heavily upon the pieces of work reported here. The Government also published a green paper towards the end of my TEP placement, entitled *Support and aspiration: A new approach to special educational needs and disability* (DfE, 2011), which was to have significant implications for the work of EPs and other support

services in schools, although what these implications would be was very uncertain at this time. The time during which these examples of practice took place was therefore somewhat unsettled, and there was much anxiety and concern about the future of support services' work in schools, both within the EPS, and also within other services. This context of change and unpredictability may well be detectable in the accounts contained in this report.

1.2 Summary of the 4 PPRs

Table 1 below presents an overview of the range of orientations of the accounts of supervised practice included in this volume, the nature of the practice, and the content of the written account of this work.

Table 1: An overview of the 4 PPRs included in Volume 2

PPR title	**Nature of the practice**	**Organisat-ional level of this example of practice**	**Content of the PPR**
1. Raising the achievement of pupils who have English as an additional language (EAL)	Research	LA level School level Classroom level	◆ Literature review relating to bilingual learning, and socio-cultural factors. ◆ Critique of the theoretical frameworks developed, and description of the pedagogical applications of this research. ◆ Critique of the government guidance for bilingual teaching and learning in light of the research implications. ◆ Critique of two case study schools' models of EAL support. ◆ Consideration of the role of the EP in supporting EAL learners in schools.
2. Educational Psychologists using Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) interventions with children and young people with anxiety needs: A case study	Assessme nt Interventio n Research	Individual child level	◆ A description of CBT. ◆ An exploration of the issues in applying CBT with children and young people. ◆ The evidence-base for using CBT with children and young people. ◆ A case study of a 6-week CBT intervention. ◆ A discussion of the challenges experienced in delivering this intervention, and the implications

			for EP practice in delivering CBT interventions as part of their casework in schools.
3. Reconstructing educational psychology: A case study in one Local Authority service of the changing role of the Educational Psychologist (EP)	Research	Educational Psychology Service level	◆ A description and critique of Lewin's theory of social change (1947), and of the SWOT analysis tool for supporting change in organisations (Iles and Sutherland, 2001). ◆ A literature review and forcefield analysis considering the forces acting towards and against a 'reconstruction' of the EP role. ◆ A case study within my LA using a questionnaire methodology including a SWOT analysis to sample EPs' views relating to the change in service delivery towards more 'project working.' ◆ A comparison of the findings with the force-field analysis based upon the research literature. ◆ Implications for supporting change in this case study LA service.
4. Approaches to behaviour management found to be effective in a specialist provision for pupils with Moderate Learning Difficulties (MLD) and Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD)	Research	School level	◆ A literature review of whole-school approaches to behaviour management, and approaches used specifically with pupils with MLD and ASD. ◆ Integrating theoretical perspectives relating to behaviour management. ◆ A critique of the strategies identified within this school setting.

The context of each PPR within my wider work as a TEP will be described in more detail below:

1.2.1 PPR 1

Within my casework I began to work with several pupils with EAL during the second year my training, and to observe the differing models of practice in supporting these pupils within the schools I was working. I began to look at the research underlying differing

pedagogies in order to recommend appropriate strategies in the classroom to most effectively support these pupils.

In the research field of bilingual learning, there had been moves forward in understanding the capabilities of bilingual learners in a more positively framed and theoretically-informed manner (Conteh et al, 2008), and this progress was being reflected in changing government guidance regarding classroom pedagogy for bilingual learners (DfES, 2006), and was therefore changing practice happening in schools (Martin-Jones and Saxena, 2003). I therefore felt that was important to also consider this guidance and the extent to which it is based upon robust research and theory in this area.

The need to ensure that my recommendations to schools were evidence-based and theoretically-informed therefore led to the incentive to begin this PPR and to include a critique of the government's guidance as well as the practice I was observing in schools. I wished to also gain a picture of the support available for schools in the LA, and therefore decided to also interview the Subject Advisor for EAL from the Ethnic Minority Achievement Team to learn about the kind of support and recommendations being given to schools in my area centrally from the LA.

1.2.2 PPR 2

This account arose from my work with an 8 year old child (Jane; referred to by a pseudonym name) with anxiety needs and a low self-concept. I wished to explore the research base in order to appropriately design an evidence-based intervention for Jane taking into account the recommendations of the literature for working with this age group, within this area of need, and to be aware of and to plan for issues that might occur during

the intervention. For example; taking into account developmental issues, the meta-cognitive abilities of children of Jane's age, the kinds of thinking errors and irrational beliefs that tend to be happening in children of this age with these needs, and the potential parental influence upon Jane's needs and upon the success of the intervention.

I also considered the different roles the EP can take in working with children with these needs, and in these kinds of therapeutic interventions, and concluded the PPR with a list of questions for EPs to consider before beginning a CBT intervention based upon my experiences, and the research implications. Following the implications of the UNICEF (2007) report on children's well-being (placing the UK within the bottom third of 21 industrialised countries for children's rankings of material, educational and subjective well-being, family and peer relationships and behaviour and risks), it has been argued that now is an ideal time for EPs to be re-claiming their therapeutic skills and using them to address this need (MacKay, 2007).

1.2.3 PPR 3

The changing structure of the EPS within which I was employed presented an opportunity to explore the process of change within organisations, and to apply this theory to what was happening within the context of which I was a part. My team began to implement a new way of working by allowing schools to 'bid' for EP time to conduct projects in their schools from September 2009, when I began to work as part of the service. Another EP area team in the LA had been implementing this new way of working for over a year and therefore was ahead of my team in the change process. This research study aimed to compare the factors acting within our EPS context to those factors identified in other research studies relating to other EPSs' around the country, and to therefore identify ways in which driving

forces supporting change could be strengthened and resisting forces reduced, in order to promote the process of changing to this new way of working.

1.2.4 PPR 4

This piece of work was negotiated as part of a project in a specialist provision for pupils with moderate to severe learning difficulties and/or disabilities. The school had requested support in developing their behaviour policy, and with training staff in behaviour management approaches. There was a new Head Teacher in the school and she had allowed members of staff to trial a range of behaviour management approaches in their classrooms in order to explore what worked for them, and to shape the future behaviour policy in the school; thus taking in to account staff members' experiences and views.

This piece of work was negotiated in order to support this process by researching the experiences and views of members of staff who had been trialling different approaches, the nature of the interventions in place, and then comparing this with the research literature in this area in order to contribute to evidence-based policy being developed within the school, and evidence-based training opportunities being offered by the EPS.

1.3 Implications for professional practice, and contribution to knowledge

These research studies have each contributed to developing my own professional practice and also to developing the knowledge base in their respective areas of study in the following ways:

- Development of my own professional skills and ensuring that my practice is evidence-based;
- Building capacity in schools, and developing staff knowledge and application of theory and research, and of evidence-based intervention;
- Contributing to the knowledge base available in the profession to inform EP practice; and
- Developing the role of the EP as a scientist-practitioner.

These contributions to knowledge will each be discussed in turn:

1.3.1 Development of my own professional skills and ensuring that my practice is evidence-based

Three of the PPRs furthered my knowledge and understanding of specific areas of practice in raising the achievement of pupils with EAL, reducing pupils' anxiety, and in managing behaviour of pupils with learning difficulties and/or disabilities at a classroom and whole-school level. These pieces of research in practice have enabled me to further understand how theory and research can be applied in the real world context of the busy school environment, and to appreciate the views of members of staff in implementing these strategies, and the difficulties that they may face.

PPR 3 heightened my awareness of ways in which to promote change, and led me to question the way that I interact with my schools, whether there are other ways in which I can be working more preventatively and systemically, and ways in which I can be promoting this kind of work with schools.

The process I have engaged in as part of these pieces of professional practice involved me constantly questioning my practice through bringing my 'theories in use' to the fore (those tacit theories that are implicit in the things I do as a practitioner), and articulating my 'espoused theories' which I would claim are underlying my practice, then examining the match between the two. Through this reflective process I have begun to engage in double-loop learning (Argyris and Schön, 1974) through closing the gaps between the theories I hold allegiance to, and those I am actually using in my everyday practice. Questioning the assumptions I am making that underlie my practice, and considering in light of the research whether or not these are the optimum assumptions to be making, or theories to be holding, in order to be promoting the best outcomes for children with EAL, anxiety or behavioural difficulties in schools for example, has improved my practice and led me to become a more reflective and effective practitioner.

Through these small pieces of research I have also developed my skills as a researcher. I have learned about the challenges and difficulties of 'real world' research (Robson, 1993), the ethical dilemmas that can occur during research studies and how to ensure that ethical codes of conduct are followed (using supervision, and adhering to the British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct, 2009; the British Educational Research Association's Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research, 2004; and the University of Birmingham's Research Code of Practice, 2009). I have had the opportunity to practise using a range of research methods including interviewing, questionnaires, observational approaches, quantitative and qualitative measures, and have learned how to interpret these findings appropriately and usefully for other practitioners. I have also developed my skills as a scientist-practitioner in learning how to ensure that my practice is based upon relevant research and theory, and in developing

hypotheses and testing these through these pieces of work, and then evaluating whether or not my practice has been effective.

1.3.2 Building capacity in schools, and developing staff knowledge and application of theory and research, and of evidence-based intervention

In all of these pieces of work there is a focus or a discussion about using the psychological skills and knowledge developed in order to share with school staff the most effective way to address a particular problem, or to work preventatively to the benefit of all children. As Knoff (1997) described, EP work is most effective when EPs are able to focus upon primary and secondary prevention (for example working with the whole school or small groups as opposed to individual pupils), in order to skill up members of staff in education so that they are able to engage in tertiary prevention themselves. This presents a far more effective use of EP time in order to support a greater number of children.

1.3.3 Contributing to the knowledge base available in the profession to inform EP practice

Each of these studies adds an original contribution to knowledge, described below:

- PPR 1 provides practical real-life applications of theory and research relating to the achievement of EAL learners, and appraises models which LAs and schools are currently using to implement this research. This report also considers ways that EPs can work to raise the achievement of these learners;
- PPR 2 describes a practical application of the research into the use of CBT with children with anxiety needs and evaluates this intervention, finding it to be

successful in reducing anxiety, and therefore adding to the existing evidence base for this intervention. This study also offers suggestions based upon the learning from this case for future interventions, and develops a 'checklist' of questions for EPs to ask before beginning their CBT intervention;

- PPR 3 provides an analysis of an EP service's programme of change, offering recommendations based upon this analysis in order to further promote the change process within this particular organisation. This study also adds to the literature describing change in EP services, offering a description from a more current context, and describing ways to successfully promote a 'reconstruction' of the EP role. This study also provides a useful template force-field analysis for other services to use to evaluate the driving and resisting forces relevant in their particular context.
- PPR 4 describes and evaluates the behaviour management approaches in place in a specialist provision for pupils with learning difficulties, thus contributing to the literature in this area which can be used to inform practice in schools. This study also contributed to the development of the case study school's behaviour management policy, and to the development of training for school staff.

Overall, these studies have mainly involved undertaking descriptive research which can be useful in further developing theory in the relevant field of research, shaping interventions, and developing understanding of interventions. PPR 2 could be classed as also contributing to the experimental research base that aims to validate the practice of CBT interventions with children.

1.3.4 Developing the role of the EP as a scientist-practitioner

These accounts of professional practice each provide an example of the way in which EPs can work as scientist-practitioners in the real world of LA employment, and the way in which EPs' everyday practice can contribute to the development of knowledge and understanding upon which the work of the EP profession as a whole is based. These accounts also demonstrate the way in which EPs can be applying their research skills as part of their practice, and indeed the value of conducting pieces of research for schools in order to effectively inform their practice and the development of school policy.

PPRs 1, 3 and 4 also support a 'reconstruction' of educational psychology practice according to Gillham's seminal conceptualisation of this role for EPs in 1978, because these examples of practice involve early intervention and prevention, and working systemically as opposed to with individual children with SEN. These PPRs therefore demonstrate the way in which EPs can be using their research skills to work in a more effective and preventative way.

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CHAPTER 2: PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE REPORT 1

Raising the achievement of pupils who have English as an additional language (EAL)

Abstract

This report examines the research describing ways in which the achievement of learners with EAL can be improved. Theoretical frameworks which can be employed to better understand bilingual learning, and practical applications of these are discussed including Cummins' principles of additive enrichment and linguistic interdependence (Cummins 1998), his conceptual distinction between conversational and academic language proficiency (Cummins 1981a), and Thomas and Collier's Prism Model (1997). Specific pedagogies for use with learners of EAL are explored relating to the use of pupils' first language in the classroom, encouragement of talk between pupils, the role of mediators, and sociocultural factors. The government's current guidance for bilingual teaching and learning is considered in light of the research, and compared with practice in a case study Local Authority. Two case study schools offer examples of such practice. Finally, this exploration will end with reflections upon the role of the Educational Psychologist in raising the achievement of EAL learners.

During Britain's move towards a multicultural society over the last century there have been a range of orientations towards valuing bilingualism expressed through primary education, and diverse methods of translating this into practice. In the last few years there has been much progress towards an understanding of the capabilities of bilingual learners in a more positive and a theoretically-informed manner (Conteh, 2008). There have also been

corresponding shifts in the government's advice and recommendations about appropriate pedagogies for raising the achievement of EAL learners.

Pupils with EAL comprise approximately 13.5% of the population of pupils in primary schools in England (Multiverse, 2007). In the Local Authority being considered in this report, 3.74% of pupils in Year One and above have EAL. This Local Authority shall be referred to by the pseudonym name Rosewell Council. These pupils are not necessarily fluent or literate in both languages they use, but are described as 'living in two languages' and needing to use two or more languages at home and school (Hall, 2001).

The idea that pupils' languages should be valued at school as a part of their identity and culture has been in the government rhetoric for many years. The Plowden Report (DES, 1967) described the importance of acceptance and development of children's home dialects of English. Later, the Bullock (1975) and Swann (1985) reports further endorsed the valuing of languages and cultures other than English in the classroom. The Swann Report recommended the provision of bilingual support within mainstream classrooms, and suggested that schools with a large group of pupils with EAL should have access to a 'bilingual resource' in the form of bilingual staff, parents or older pupils from secondary schools.

Martin-Jones and Saxena (2003) describe the increase in bilingual classroom assistants from 1985 onwards. By 1989, more than a third of Local Education Authorities were making bilingual provision in schools (Bourne, 1989). Since 1999 funding for EAL pupils was devolved to schools, and Bourne (2001) highlights the resulting increased responsibility upon individual schools to develop bilingual support and train members of staff in this role. However, a three year longitudinal study conducted by Hutchinson et al

(2003) suggests that EAL learners are not achieving as highly as their monolingual peers in some areas. This study in the North of England followed forty-three pupils with EAL and forty-three monolingual pupils and found that whilst the pupils with EAL performed similarly on tests of reading accuracy, they did not achieve as well as their monolingual peers in tests of vocabulary and comprehension. Hutchinson et al highlight the importance of closing these gaps in achievement. Ofsted (2005) have also highlighted that very few schools had planned ways in which to build on bilingual pupils' language experience effectively.

The research suggesting ways in which to promote the achievement of bilingual learners will be examined with a focus upon raising the achievement of this group within primary education.

2.1 Should pupils with EAL be learning bilingually?

Peal and Lambert's (1962) landmark study investigating the relationship between bilingualism and cognitive ability changed perceptions about bilingual education and the impact of bilingualism on a child's cognitive development (Hakuta and Diaz, 1985). Bilingual participants outperformed monolingual participants on measures of verbal intelligence and non-verbal measures involving re-organising visual stimuli and mental manipulation and particularly in 'concept formation or symbolic flexibility' (Peal and Lambert, 1962: 14). Many studies since have supported these findings demonstrating advantages in certain cognitive and linguistic abilities such as concept formation (Liedtke and Nelson, 1968), metalinguistic awareness (Cummins, 1978), and cognitive flexibility (Balkan, 1970).

Research has also supported the hypothesis that there are academic benefits to bilingual pupils participating in bilingual learning programmes. For example; Thomas and Collier's (2002) longitudinal study in the US which has had huge impact upon education policy and practice in both the US and in the UK. However, despite this impact on educational practice, Thomas and Collier's study can be criticised on a number of levels. Although comparison groups were utilised, differences between groups were not controlled for before the bilingual teaching took place, and pupils were not randomly assigned to either group (Rossell, 1998). Rossell (1998) also criticised the study because it relied upon school staff members' definitions of their bilingual programmes which could be inaccurate and biased. For example; Rossell (1998) describes the way in which many teachers describe the way they are teaching as bilingual, when in fact they are teaching almost entirely in English.

Studies investigating bilingual teaching programmes across the world in a variety of languages support these findings (for example Williams et al, 1996 in Wales; May et al, 2004 in Samoa; Tuafuti and McCaffery, 2005 in New Zealand; Pérez, 2004 in Texas; and Cummins, 1998 in Canada). However, Cummins found that although pupils' proficiency in understanding and reading their second language was close to that of native speakers by the age of 11-12 years, there were significant gaps in spoken and written language (interestingly in line with the findings of Hutchinson et al, 2003 in the UK which demonstrated a lag in the vocabulary and comprehension of EAL learners). Similarly positive findings were found in the UK in Italian/ English and Panjabi/English programmes (Fitzpatrick, 1987; and Tosi, 1984).

Kenner et al (2008) presented five aspects of learning which could be improved upon through working in a bilingual way which have also been identified through previous research studies. These aspects are described in Table 1.

In conclusion; research has suggested that there are cognitive benefits to bilingualism including concept formation, metalinguistic awareness and cognitive flexibility. Studies investigating bilingual learning programmes have also demonstrated academic benefits for learners, although gaps in achievement in spoken and written language, and vocabulary and comprehension have been found (Cummins, 1998 and Hutchinson et al 2003).

Table 1: Aspects of learning improved by bilingual education

Particular aspects of the learning process that can be enhanced by working bilingually Extracts from Kenner et al (2008: 4-5)	**Summary of Kenner et al's description of this aspect of learning**
Conceptual transfer	Understanding a concept in L1 can aid the child in understanding a similar concept in L2.
Translation and interpretation	Code-switching between two languages draws the child's attention to semantic differences between the languages.
Increasing knowledge about how language works	Children compare vocabulary and structures between the two languages contributing to improved metalinguistic skills.
Linking new material to familiar worlds	Children use their cultural understandings established in L1 when exploring new concepts and vocabulary in L2.
Building learner identities	Children use both L1 and L2 to explore and develop their own identities.

2.2 What theoretical frameworks can be employed to explain these research findings?

Cummins (1998) utilised two theoretical principles of bilingual academic development to interpret the research findings from these bilingual education programmes; the additive enrichment principle, and the linguistic interdependence principle, and formed a conceptual distinction between conversational and academic language proficiency.

The first principle refers to the research finding that children learning EAL are adding to their range of skills without having a detrimental effect on their first language development. This has been coined additive bilingualism (Lambert, 1975). The second principle is that first language and second language skills are interdependent; expressions of the same underlying proficiency. Cummins is suggesting that bilingual learning programmes develop not only the minority language skills, but a deeper linguistic and conceptual proficiency which enables cognitive/academic or literacy-related skills to be transferred across languages. Research by Verhoeven (1991) even suggests that this transfer of skills can occur from both minority to majority language, and also visa-versa.

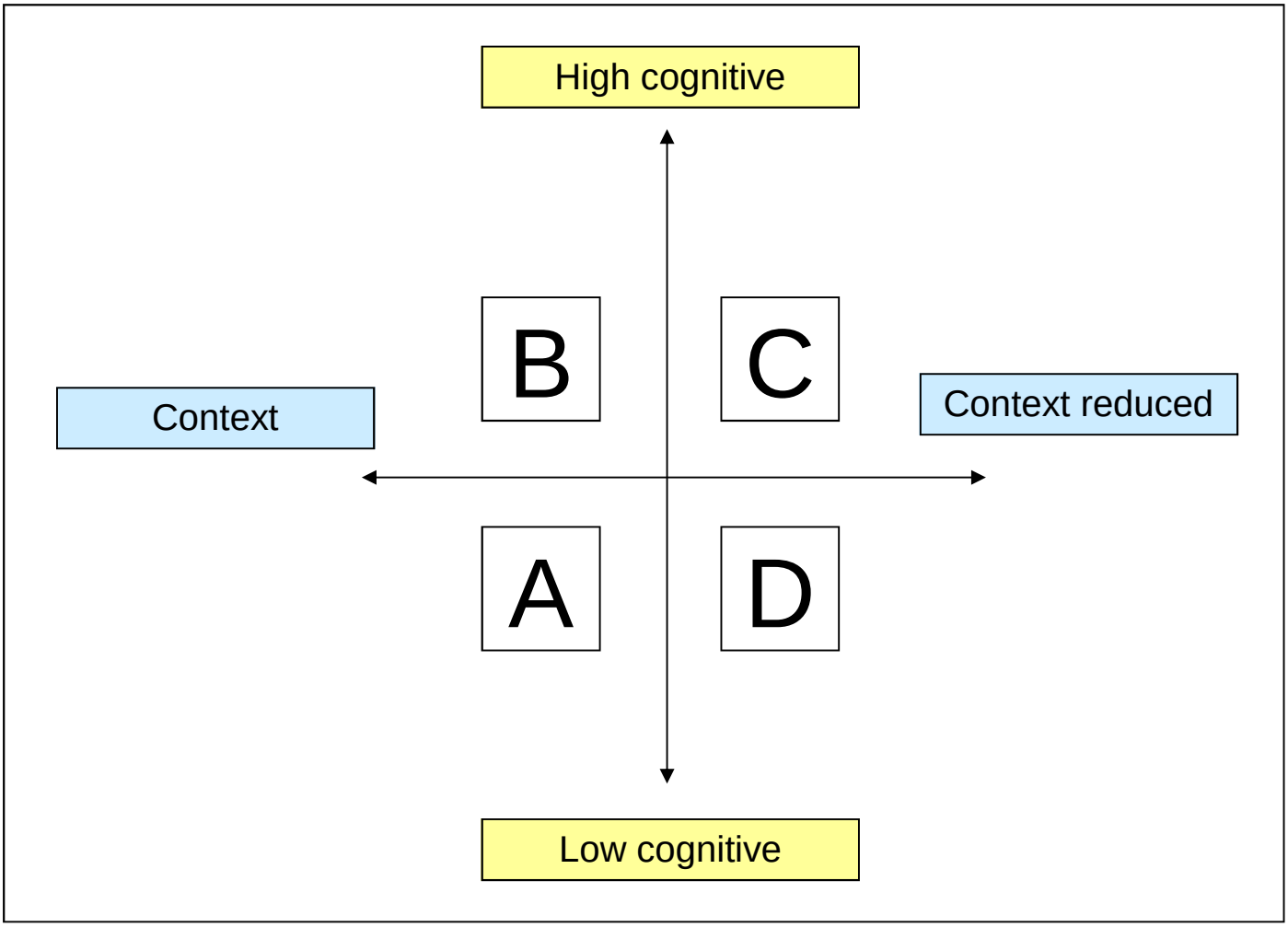
Cumin's formed a conceptual distinction between conversational and academic language proficiency as a result of research. For example Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976) brought to attention the tendency for children learning an additional language to appear to be fluent in both languages yet to be performing well below age expectations in terms of verbal academic proficiency. Cummins (1984) pointed out that ignorance of this can lead to discriminatory assessments of pupils with EAL, and inappropriate educational placements.

Cummins' (1981a) found that even though teachers observed that pupils' were able to develop conversational fluency in English within just 2-3 years, it took many more years for pupils to achieve the expected grades in their academic work (on average 5-7 years). On the basis of this research, Cummins proposed that there is a conceptual distinction between conversational fluency (BICS; basic interpersonal and communicative skills) and academic language proficiency (CALP; cognitive and academic language proficiency). The work of theorists in the field such as Gibbons (1993) support Cummins' distinction between these aspects of language proficiency.

Cummins elaborated upon the BICS/CALP distinction by proposing that there are two intersecting continua (Cummins 1981b) representing the level of cognitive challenge and contextual support offered to pupils in language tasks. A 'quadrants' framework was employed to enable discussion of the instruction provided in pupils' learning environment (represented in Figure A), and Cummins argued that for pupils with EAL to catch up academically, instruction should be both cognitively demanding and embedded in context.

It has been argued that these two dimensions are not absolute, and that a task which is embedded in context and appropriately challenging for one child may not be such for another child due to differences in childrens' experiences, knowledge and interests (Coelho, 2004).

Figure A: Cummins' Quadrants Framework (1981b)



Scarcella (2003) criticises Cummins' distinction between BICS and CALP for being oversimplified and argues that it cannot explain the complexity of academic English nor the range of variables which affect its development. Valdés (2004) also argues against the 'autonomous' and decontextualised view of language articulated by Cummins, and proposes that there are multiple literacies as opposed to a single literacy whereby the context of the situation, the interactions between people present, the experiences and knowledge that people bring into these interactions, and the task itself, all impact upon the learner's development of these literacies.

2.3 Do socio-cultural factors have an important role in second language acquisition?

A three-year study in New Zealand found that teachers and peers were involved in mediating children's bilingual development, along with cultural tools in the child's environment and the language input provided (Haworth and Cullen, 2006). For example, pupils have been found to mediate each other's learning whilst playing board games designed to promote additional language development (Smith, 2006), demonstrating the effectiveness of collective scaffolding in supporting second language learning. The quality of the children's interactions has been found to be highly important, and also the teacher's ability to provide the right kind of interaction for the individual child (Clarke, 1999).

These findings are in line with Vygotsky's social constructivist theory (1962) which highlights the importance of language for a child's conceptual development, and describes the way in which knowledge is socially constructed. Vygotsky emphasises the role of mediators in 'scaffolding' a child's learning and establishing the child's 'zone of proximal development' to which their learning should be targeted.

Walters (2007) argues that strategies pupils with EAL use in the classroom should not be considered in isolation from the context the child is learning within, and issues of identity and assimilation. Tensions between aspects of children's identities have also been highlighted (Pagett, 2006) where schools have encouraged children's use of their home language in the classroom, but children have been reluctant to use their home language at school because their commonality with the other pupils was important to them. Pagett (2006) concludes that 'social capital' is a significant factor in mitigating children's use of

language, and that strategies may need to be employed by schools to emphasise that which bilingual pupils have in common with the school culture. 'Social capital' refers to the child's actual or potential resources linked with a network of relationships (Bourdieu, 1985).

Most of these studies employed ethnographic case study approaches. Case study approaches have been criticised on the basis that the findings cannot be generalised to other contexts in which the intervention occurs. However, Yin (2009) argues that although case studies do not represent a 'sample' and therefore are not generalisable to populations; they can be generalisable to theoretical propositions. The aim being to expand upon and generalise theories through analytic generalisation rather than to enumerate frequencies through a process of statistical generalisation.

There is also a risk of researcher bias occurring, particularly where researchers became 'participant observers' (for example; Walters was working as a classroom assistant). However, these approaches enabled the study of the complex social relationships and interactions occurring within the classroom environment and the way that these impact upon learning.

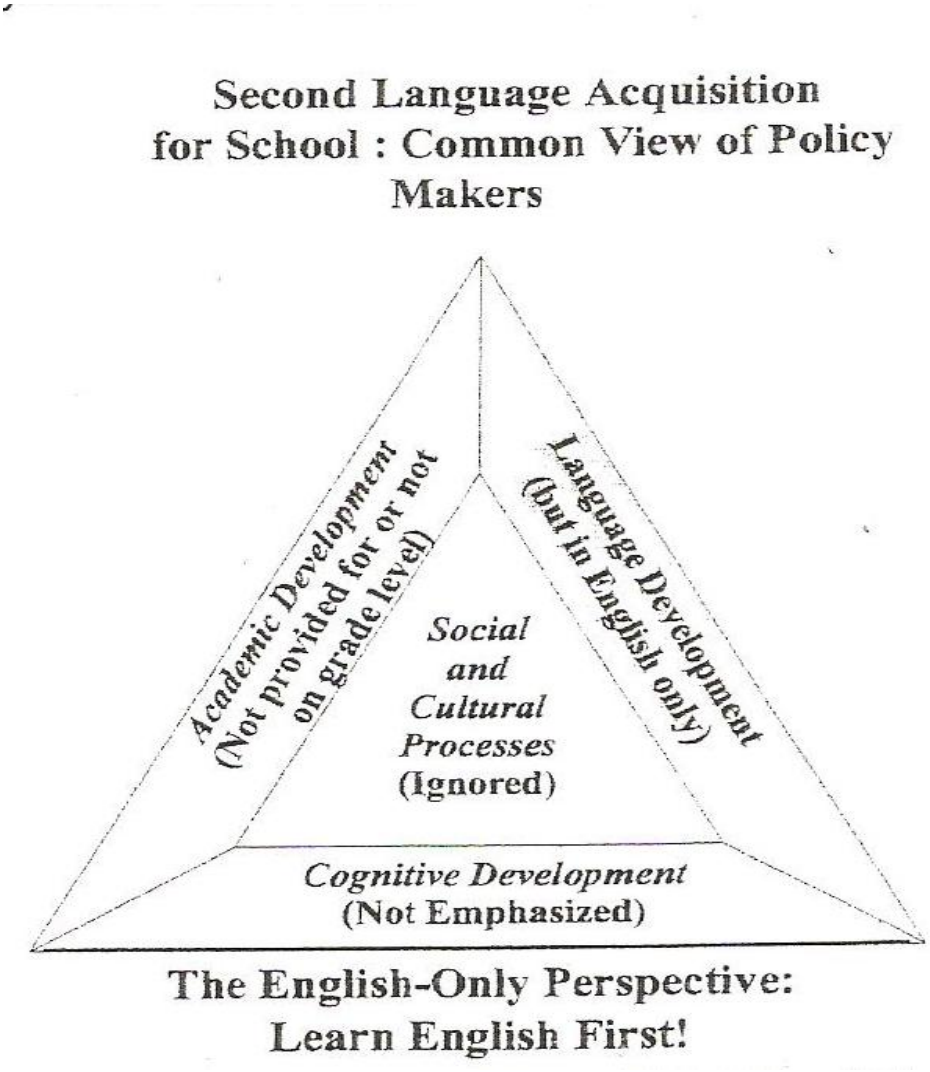
There is also some support for socio-cultural factors from more positivist studies such as Potowski's (2007) finding that investment of pupils' in their identities as Spanish Speakers (speakers of the minority language) was important to their linguistic development.

In conclusion, Cummins' work highlighted the cognitive aspects of learning an additional language, but has been criticised for its lack of recognition of the social and cultural factors

mediating these processes, and the importance of learner identity which other research studies have found to be key to the processes involved in second language acquisition.

Thomas and Collier (1997) incorporate all of these aspects in their conceptual model named the 'Prism Model' describing the process of second language acquisition in the school context. This is represented in Figure B.

Figure B: The Prism Model (Thomas and Collier, 1997: 42)



The model describes four interdependent components 'driving' second language development; sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive processes. The child learning EAL is at the heart of the model surrounded by social and cultural processes happening in all contexts in the child's life in the past, present and future. These sociocultural processes have a strong influence on children's ability to develop linguistic, cognitive and academic skills. This model brings together the areas of development which have been highlighted as key to second language development, and emphasises their dependence on the child's social and cultural environment in which they are learning, and also the interdependence of these different aspects of their development.

2.4 What are the pedagogical applications of the research into bilingual learning?

Taking into account the research findings and the proposed theoretical basis for these findings outlined above, researchers in the field have therefore suggested applications of this research to the classroom.

Cummins (1998) has suggested that since developing biliteracy skills can have metalinguistic, intellectual and academic benefits for the bilingual child, teachers should make language and discourse a particular focus of study. Therefore, teachers should encourage the comparing and contrasting of languages, and project-work which addresses the sociolinguistic, structural and socio-political aspects of language. Cummins proposed a pedagogy for bilingual education incorporating the aspects described in Table 2 in order to promote second language learners' knowledge and understanding of the lesson content as well as their cognitive and linguistic development.

Table 2: A pedagogy for bilingual education

A general guide to the implementation of pedagogy that will promote L2 learners' linguistic and cognitive development as well as their mastery of content matter (Extract from Cummins, 1998: 6)
• Activating students' prior knowledge and building background knowledge (through the L1 where necessary);
• Modifying instruction to build sufficient redundancy into the instruction (e.g. through paraphrase, repetition, demonstration, gestures etc…);
• Use of graphic organizers to transmit conceptual content;
• Hands-on activities in content areas such as Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies;
• Cooperative learning and other forms of project work that encourage students to generate new knowledge rather than just consume information;
• Creative use of technology as a "cultural amplifier" (e.g. research using CD-ROM encyclopedias or the World Wide Web, word processing and data analysis programs to produce reports of project work, sister class networking with distant classes in pursuit of non-trivial bilingual projects, use of video cameras to create video "texts" for real audiences, etc.); and
• Integration of reading and writing in a wide variety of genres with all of the above.

Cummins also proposed strategies to develop further the expressive and written language skills which were found to be lacking in L2 learner's achievement levels in comparison with native L2 speakers (represented in Table 3). He highlights the importance of learners being enabled to express their identities and their intelligence through their L2 (also in line with the views of Walters, 2007, Pagett, 2006 and Potowski, 2007 described above), and the need for learners to be motivated to communicate in oral and written modes; otherwise he suggests that acquisition of L2 will be experienced as abstract and trivial to these learners.

Table 3: Strategies to develop oral and written modes of communication

Activities or projects focused on deepening students' knowledge of language and multilingual phenomena (Extract from Cummins, 1998: 7)
• The structure of language systems (e.g. relationships between sounds and spelling, regional and class-based accents, grammar, vocabulary, etc.);
• Conventions of different musical and literary forms (e.g. rap, poetry, haiku, fiction, country music ballads, etc.);
• Appropriateness of expression in different contexts (cultural conventions of politeness, street language versus school language, the language of everyday speech versus the language of books, language variety as a badge of identity in groups as diverse as gangs, political parties, fraternities, etc.);
• Ways of organizing oral or written discourse to create powerful or persuasive messages (e.g. oratorical speeches, influential written documents, political rhetoric, advertisements, etc.); and
• Diversity of language use in both monolingual and multilingual contexts (codeswitching in bilingual communities, language maintenance and loss in families, political implications of the spread of English worldwide, etc…).

The research which has focused upon the importance of the quality of interactions the child has with those in their environment, and the scaffolding and mediation provided by teachers and peers (Haworth and Cullen, 2006, Smith, 2006 and Clarke, 1999) for language acquisition, has many practical implications for pedagogy.

Dialogue in learning in both L1 and L2 is promoted, and an inquiry orientation towards learning and teaching across the curriculum (Haneda and Wells, 2008). Myhill et al (2006) also summarised research over the past forty years and highlighted the value of talk for learning. An example is the 'Talking Partners' approach which promotes speaking and listening opportunities and has been found to be highly valuable for acquisition of additional languages and conceptual development (Conteh et al, 2008). These

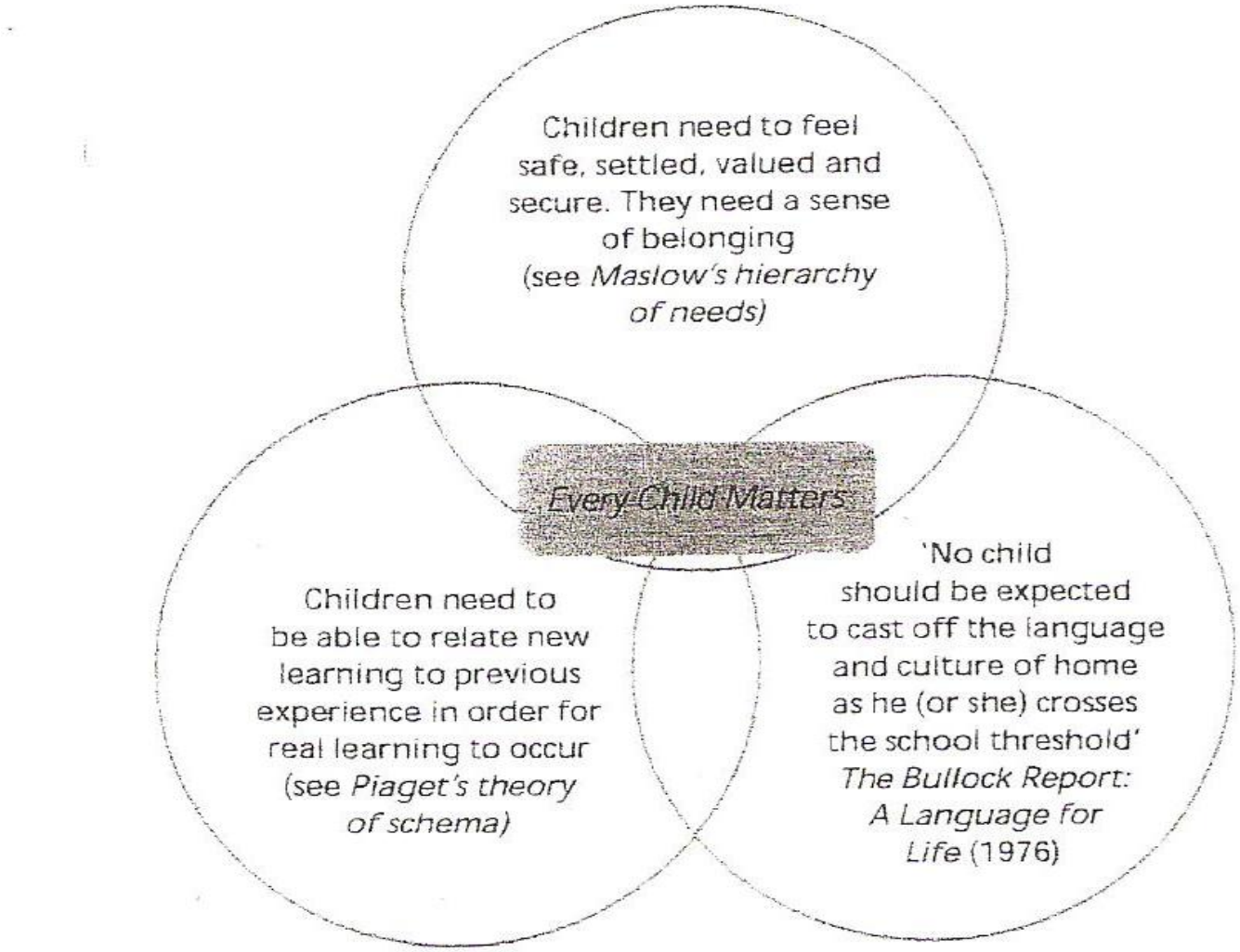
approaches have significant implications for the way in which teachers view their role, and the shift in power in the classroom when the teacher may not share the same languages as his or her pupils and yet allows them to be involved in independent discussions (Bourne, 2001).

In summary, proposed pedagogies to raise the achievement of EAL learners based upon the research described have included a focus upon language and discourse as part of classroom practice, appropriate cognitive challenge, lesson content embedded in context, use of meaningful and motivating bilingual tasks, an inquiry orientation to learning and encouragement of the use of talk between pupils during learning tasks.

2.5 Is current government policy and guidance based upon the research and underpinned by theory relating to effective bilingual learning, and how does Rosewell Council (RC) translate this into practice?

The current government guidance relating to bilingual learning is underpinned by three interrelated propositions regarding the conditions for learning, represented in Figure C. These three propositions are closely linked to many of the research areas discussed which highlighted the importance of the continuing development of the child's first language and access to this language in the classroom, and mediating sociocultural factors for second language acquisition.

Figure C: Conditions for learning (DfES, 2006, Unit 3: 7)



Over the last decade there have been a series of guidance documents issued by the government advising on strategies to raise the achievement of pupils of primary age who are learning EAL. Notably, a separate part to The National Literacy Strategy was issued named *Supporting pupils learning English as an additional language* (DfES, 2002), followed by *Aiming High: Meeting the needs of newly arrived learners of EAL* (DfES, 2005). As part of the Primary National Strategy a comprehensive set of materials was introduced named *Excellence and enjoyment: learning and teaching for bilingual children in the primary years'* (DfES, 2006) (where Figure C originates), and in 2007, guidance relating specifically to newly-arrived pupils also contained specific recommendations for newly-arrived pupils with EAL; *Primary and secondary national strategies new arrivals*

excellence programme guidance (DCSF, 2007). Finally, from 2007 schools were under a new duty to promote community cohesion; *Guidance on the duty to promote community cohesion* (DCSF, 2007) which also had implications for provision for pupils with EAL and their families.

In response to these government agendas which made it a requirement for maintained schools to be promoting community cohesion, RC have been making significant developments in supporting schools to develop provision in this area. RC have responded through provision of funding and expertise in this area, and the central coordination of resources and guidance available to schools. A Centre has been developed to give advice about ethnic minority achievement (EMA) and community cohesion, and forms a base for an EMA team. RC also provides funding for schools with 5 or more pupils with EAL from Foundation Stage to Key Stage 4. Headteachers manage this funding, and put the funding to use to support pupils in different ways.

2.5.1 How was information collected about support provided for pupils with EAL by Rosewell Council?

The information about practice in Rosewell has been gained through interviewing a Subject Advisor for EAL from the Ethnic Minority Achievement Team (EMA), and through reading the guidance and policy documents issued by this team. Two case study schools are also referenced in order to give more practical examples of the way in which this model works in practice. In Greentrees School (pseudonym name provided), observations took place in two classes and a bilingual Teaching Assistant (TA) was interviewed. In Hilltop School (pseudonym name provided), a specialist TA for EAL who worked across the whole school was interviewed about her work. These schools were chosen because they had different populations of pupils with EAL, and utilised contrasting methods for

meeting the needs of these pupils; Greentrees School having bilingual TAs supporting teachers and pupils in one particular classroom, and Hilltop School having one specialist monolingual TA supporting pupils from different classes within the school. In Greentrees School, 41.4% of pupils in Year 1 and above speak EAL whereas in Hilltop School only 4.7% of the pupils speak EAL (January 2009 School Census data).

Interview schedules can be found in Appendix A. A semi-structured interviewing format was employed rather than a formal structured interview in order that the exact wording and order of questions could be changed depending upon the responses of the interviewee (Robson, 2002). This allowed the interviewer to ensure that the information needed was obtained through undertaking a directive interviewing approach whilst at the same time allowing at times the interviewee to direct the discussion and branch away from the interviewer's questions at a tangent (a non-directive approach) (Powney and Watts, 1987). This enabled a greater understanding of the perspective of the interviewee, and the meaning for the interviewee to be derived (therefore this research is underpinned by interpretive epistemological assumptions).

The responses were analysed using a template approach to thematic analysis whereby the researcher had an idea of the themes she was looking for evidence to support, based upon the theory and research examined (themes which were defined *a priori* and then which were modified and added to as the researcher read and interpreted the interview transcripts; King, 2004). Thus, the researcher maintained a *theoretical sensitivity (*Strauss and Corbin, 1998) in interpreting the interviews.

The employment of a template approach to analysis was also applied in the researcher's interpretation of her observations, in her exploration of the documentation about the EMA

team, and in her analysis of the government's guidance and recommendations. This approach has been criticised for the inherent risk of forcing data into predetermined categories that have not originated from the data, (Glaser, 1992). This approach involves a move away from an interpretive position and more towards a positivist stance because the researcher began analysis from an objective standpoint with pre-determined categories in mind.

The researcher concluded that the literature review highlighted the importance of the following themes in raising the attainment of pupil who have EAL:

- Use of the pupil's first language in the classroom;
- Encouragement of talk between pupils in the classroom;
- The role of mediators; and
- Sociocultural factors.

Each of these themes will be revisited and the way in which the government guidance and the practice in RC relates to these themes will be explored.

2.5.2 Use of the child's first language in the classroom

The government's guidance forming part of the Primary National Strategy has a strong focus upon encouraging use of the child's first language in the classroom and the rationale provided to support this makes reference to Cummins' principle of linguistic interdependence (for example; DfES, 2006, Unit 1: 11). This theory also underpins the suggestion that teachers plan for EAL pupils to:

> '…meet new learning first in their strongest language…children who already know broadly what they are going to hear in the new language will have 'hooks' on which to hang their new learning…' (DfES, 2006, Unit 1: 12).

It is suggested that the child's first language is used for learning before, during and after lessons and should involve preparation and pre-teaching, translation and explanations, contrasting and comparing languages and consolidation of learning after the lesson has been delivered.

Greentrees School had bilingual TAs working in the two classes observed where there were a large number of pupils who spoke the same home language. During observations these TAs were observed to be providing translation and explanations during the lesson. For example; explaining the task instructions, providing prompts and reminders about behaviour, and explaining sanctions in the child's first language. One TA was involved in implementing an intervention for a group of three bilingual pupils to promote oral and social interaction skills, and was delivering the intervention bilingually. A TA also worked alongside the teacher in some whole-class sessions. For example; dual-language story books were being used and the TA would read the minority language and the Class Teacher the English.

These TAs were able to provide 'hooks' in for pupils to access the whole-class work, and the rules and routines about appropriate behaviour, in agreement with Cummins' additive enrichment principle and his linguistic interdependence principle (1998). The Class Teacher believed that this had benefitted both those EAL learners who understood little English, and also those who spoke fluent English because their culture and linguistic

background were being valued and given prominence in the classroom. This is supported by Walters (2007), Pagett's (2006) and Potowski (2007) who argue that valuing EAL pupils' identities is important for learning.

Hilltop School took a different approach. There was a specialist TA employed to support pupils with EAL across the whole school. The pupils in this school spoke a variety of first languages. This TA was involved in supporting pupils in the classroom, in small groups and individually outside of the classroom. The individual and small-group support involved pre-teaching of key vocabulary needed by the pupils in advance of a particular topic being introduced, and also use of practical activities and games to teach vocabulary (such as *Pop to the Shops)*. The TA would use visual aids and would translate key words into their first language to enable them to understand concepts and key vocabulary.

The Hilltops approach provides the rich context and cognitive challenge promoted by Cummins' Quadrant Framework (1981b), and encourages the activation of prior knowledge and building of background knowledge, and also hands-on practical and meaningful activities as promoted by Cummins (1998) in Table 2. However, the support provided was very much separate to the activities of the rest of the class and was not integrated into whole-class activities in the same way as at Greentrees. This TA was not able to translate during lessons in order to provide 'hooks' into the learning tasks in the same way, and to encourage the comparisons between languages as occurred during the reading of dual-language books for example. Therefore, these pupils could not reap the same benefits as identified in the research in terms of cognitive skills and valued cultural identity (for example; Kenner, 2008).

2.5.3 Role of mediators

The theories of Vygotsky (1962) are referred to many times in the guidance for pupils with EAL, and particularly the concept of scaffolding the child's learning through appropriate mediation in the child's environment (for example; DfES, 2006, Unit 1: 10, Unit 2: 18, Unit 3: 36). The guidance also discusses the importance of mediators for learning enabling effective modelling of language. It is highlighted in the guidance that children then need to practice and rehearse speaking the new language in a meaningful context, before being asked to use it for writing.

In Greentrees School, the TAs were observed modelling tasks and the pupils were observed to be copying this behaviour. For example; when doing the actions to accompany letter sounds in a whole-class carpet session. The pupils were also observed copying the behaviour of their peers at other points in the lesson when they had not understood the task instructions (for example; when tidying up). The TAs were also observed to be appropriately scaffolding the children's learning during tasks and activities by using children's first language where needed, and allowing them independence where support was not needed.

In Hilltop School, the TA was also acting as a 'mediator' for learning by modelling language, providing translated words and providing visual support. She was also scaffolding learning in a one-to-one learning situation by providing the language support that the child needed depending upon their developmental level. In both schools the principle of Cummins' Quadrants Model was in practice because the TAs all aimed to embed the learning in a rich context so that the children could understand and participate in tasks and activities at an appropriately challenging level. This context was enriched

through modelling, visual aids/pictures, and use of the child's first language. However, the TA at Hilltops was not able to provide the same level of scaffolding because she was not a permanent TA within a particular classroom, and also because she could not use the child's first language to provide a sensitive amount of bilingual support that they needed to perform a particular task.

The RC EMA team promote an enriched environmental context for learners of English as a second language across Rosewell schools through encouraging the provision of visual aids and resources, use of pictures and key vocabulary and phrases, use of practical and kinaesthetic activities, appropriate scaffolding of learning, consideration of language role models available to these pupils, a focus on speaking and listening skills and overall, putting language used in the classroom in context. The strategies the team recommend are therefore in line with the theories of Cummins and Vygotsky outlined above, and are examples of the mediation strategies recommended by the DfES.

2.5.4 The value of talk in the classroom

The Primary National Strategy 2006 guidance has a whole unit dedicated to 'speaking, listening and learning' and particularly emphasises the importance of planning opportunities for talk in the classroom, and the progression from talk which is embedded in context to written language. The research identified oral and written language as areas in which EAL learners are often falling behind (Cummins, 1998; Hutchinson et al, 2003) thus providing support for this recommendation. The importance of interactions with peers for second language acquisition, and the effectiveness of 'collective scaffolding' were also identified in the research (Haworth and Cullen, 2006; Smith, 2006; Clarke 1999).

In Greentrees School during work on the computers, the pupils were observed speaking in their first language amongst themselves as well as in English when they were working out what to do in the computer task, and also conversing socially in both languages. The pupils were also observed speaking bilingually in other learning activities and demonstrated the 'collective scaffolding' described above which contributed to their conceptual understandings of the learning tasks. In Hilltops School there were far fewer pupils with EAL and rarely more than one child with the same home language within a classroom. Therefore it was more difficult to pupils to interact bilingually. The small-group activities and games led by the TA would have provided opportunities for practising expressive and receptive language skills but may not have afforded the same opportunities as result from engaging in bilingual tasks such as concept formation, metalinguistic awareness and cognitive flexibility (Kenner et al, 2008).

The use of techniques to promote talk are recommended in the government's guidance. Talking Partners is a specific approach which is promoted (developed by Bradford Education Department; Frater, 2003) involving a trained adult working with three children for three twenty-minute sessions a week on activities such as news-telling, story-telling, forming descriptions of pictures and barrier games. This directly relates to those strategies recommended by Cummins (1998) in Table 3 to promote oral and written language through motivating and culturally-embedded tasks. Myhill (2006) and Conteh (2008) also highlighted the value of talk and particularly the Talking Partners approach.

The RC EMA team supports teachers with planning for pupils with EAL in their classes and often advises on approaches that schools can use to support the learning of pupils with EAL. Approaches such as Talking Partners are recommended to encourage pupils to learn from each other and to develop understanding through discussion. It is also

encouraged for pupils sharing the same home language to be paired up so that they can use their first language in order to explore the new topic, develop understanding of concepts, and to transfer learning into English. The EMA team are putting into practice the research and the recommendations outlined above, particularly relating to the importance of first language for learning, the value of talk between pupils in the classroom, and Cummins' theories relating to the linguistic interdependence principle and the importance of the development of CALP for EAL learners.

2.5.5 The importance of sociocultural factors

The DfES (2006) guidance also addresses some of the criticisms of Cummins' theories (Valdes, 2004; Coelho, 2004) by taking account of the context of the learning situation and the experiences people bring to their interactions around the child learning EAL. Thomas and Collier's Prism Model is described and it is suggested that the attitudes surrounding the child are important because learners need to feel that their home language is valued, and they need to feel secure, valued and understood. Developing a sense of belonging is highlighted as important for pupils' learning, which is supported by the research described earlier by Pagett relating to conflicting identities between home and school (2006).

Teachers are encouraged to establish a collaborative ethos in their classrooms where pupils' diverse identities are affirmed in order that children will feel that they belong regardless of religious, cultural, ethnic or linguistic background. Suggestions are given as to ways in which teachers should go about establishing this ethos represented in Table 4. This guidance takes account of the research about the importance of children's identities in second language learning (Pagett, 2006; Potowski, 2007; Walters, 2007).

Table 4: Suggestions of ways to establish a collaborative ethos

Children will feel safe, settled, valued and secure when teachers and practitioners: (Extracted from DfES, 2006, Unit 3: 19)
• recognise the central role of relationships in learning and teaching;
• understand and empathise with the social and political factors that impact on children's lives;
• know something about children's languages and their cultural and religious traditions;
• have high expectations;
• build confidence and self-esteem;
• are consistent and fair;
• model and promote values, attitudes and behaviour supportive of equality;
• value diversity and bilingualism;
• encourage children to learn actively and collaboratively;
• are prepared to listen to children and learn from them on occasions;
• recognise parents, carers and families as key partners;
• incorporate children's own interests and experiences into day-to-day teaching.

The Subject Advisor for EAL from the EMA team in Rosewell discussed the team's focus upon whole-school ethos and climate, and upon breaking down barriers to achievement. She also described the way that the team work to change attitudes and ideas about ethnic minority achievement. The team are following the suggestions above particularly relating to promoting attitudes of equality, and valuing diversity and bilingualism, and are putting the Prism Model into practice (Thomas and Collier, 1997).

Greentrees School demonstrated an awareness of the importance of sociocultural factors and promoted a collaborative ethos in the classrooms observed which clearly affirmed pupils' cultural and linguistic identities. For example; there were signs on the door written in children's first language, most likely to welcome in these pupils' families, but also sending out messages about the valuing of this language. The encouragement of pupils to speak their first languages in the classroom during learning activities, TAs speaking with them individually in these languages, and also speaking to the whole class in the minority language, all promoted a sense of belonging, and a recognition and valuing of this language and culture.

In the Hilltop school it was more difficult to establish the same ethos because there were varied languages spoken in the school and by isolated children within classes. Therefore it was likely to be more difficult to encourage the speaking of children's first languages because there were no TAs speaking the same language within classrooms, and there were few other pupils speaking the same languages for them to converse with.

The final section of this report will further this discussion by examining some ways in which Educational Psychologists believe they contribute to raising the achievement of this group.

2.6 Reflections upon the role of the Educational Psychologist (EP) in raising the achievement of pupils with EAL

The reflections contained in this part of the report are based upon telephone interviews and emails with Educational Psychologists from three different EP services including Rosewell and two neighbouring services. A range of experiences and examples were shared with regard to ways in which EPs are currently supporting this group including:

- Use of pupils' home language during assessments;
- Encouraging schools to foster pupils' sense of identity and belonging;
- Working with families, communities and service providers to encourage recognition of the importance of children's home languages, and the speaking of these languages particularly with children in the early years; and
- Systemic work with schools including whole-school development and training, and promotion of parental engagement and involvement in school life.

Some of the research upon which their work was based included Cummins' findings regarding discriminatory assessments (Cummins, 1984), and the importance of first language development in the early years (Cummins, 1998), and application of the Prism Model (Thomas and Collier, 1997).

Several EPs questioned the nature of their role in raising the achievement of this group, highlighting the work of specialist teachers and advisors for supporting pupils with EAL, and their expert knowledge on the subject. The question of whether work with this group is within an EP's remit was discussed, considering that the majority of an EP's work is concerned with pupils with SEN, and the SEN Code of Practice (2002) states that the needs of children learning EAL are not SEN.

In summary, there are differing views amongst EPs about their role in promoting the achievement of this group. Some would argue it is an important part of their role, and have used the research and theory about EAL learning to evidence their practice in schools, communities and with families. This is in line with the government's drive towards preventative work (Every Child Matters; DfES, 2003) and suggests that some EPs are engaging in proactive early intervention and prevention in order to raise the achievement

of this group at a whole-school as well as an individual child level. This reflects the vision for EP practice seminally conceptualised by Gillham in 1978, and subsequently described in working party reports during the last decade (DfEE, 2000 and Farrell at al, 2006).

Considering EP's knowledge of child and language development, effective teaching and learning strategies, their knowledge and understanding of organisational systems and staff development, and their application of psychology to promote change in organisations, EPs are in an ideal position and have much to contribute in raising the achievement of this group in schools, even if this is adding to the expertise already available in the form of specialist EAL teaching staff. EPs also have skills in critically appraising theory and research which is useful in keeping up to date and knowledgeable about current research in this area.

In Rosewell, although this specialist expertise exists it is within a very small team serving a large County and therefore many schools do not have access to this support. Many schools are also using their EAL funding to employ TAs who may not have any knowledge or understanding of the ways in which children with EAL learn most effectively, and who do not have access to much training or support in their role. EPs are in an ideal situation to support and advise schools regarding their use of this support, and also to support families and communities in order to raise the achievement of this group.

2.7 Conclusion

This report has explored the research about the cognitive benefits of bilingualism, and the advantages for EAL learners of experiencing a bilingual education. Theories about learning EAL and implications for practice have been discussed, and practical suggestions

for teaching practice put forward. It has been demonstrated that the government's guidance has utilised this research base; in particular the work of Jim Cummins, Lev Vygotsky, Wayne Thomas and Virginia Collier have been highly influential throughout this guidance.

The model of practice in Rosewell for raising the achievement of EAL learners across the County has been described and examples from two case study schools given. The two different models of practice described demonstrate the varied practice in schools depending on the way in which Head Teachers choose to spend the funding available to support pupils with EAL, and also depending on the number of children speaking each language. The challenges involved in meeting the needs of pupils with EAL when there are many different languages spoken by isolated learners within one school have been discussed, and one school's way of addressing this has been described.

RC's model of practice endorses many aspects of the guidance at both a whole-County level through the work of EAL advisors from the EMA team, and at an individual school and classroom level through the deployment of TAs and teaching strategies recommended for use with this group. It has been demonstrated that schools may interpret the guidance in different ways, and have the freedom of choice as to how they make decisions about using funding for EAL learners to raise their achievement. EPs may have an influential role to play in working with specialist EAL staff and ensuring that schools are effectively providing support for EAL learners.

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2.9 APPENDIX A:

Interview Questions for the Subject Advisor for EAL from the Ethnic Minority Achievement Team (EMA)

1. How did your team come about? What is its purpose?
2. Who works for your team and what are their roles?
3. How does the County provide support for pupils with EAL?
4. What does your team do in practice? How do you work?
5. What kinds of strategies do your team recommend to schools?

Interview Questions for the Specialist Teaching Assistant supporting pupils with English as an Additional Language at Hilltop School

1. What is your role within the school?
2. How many pupils do you tend to support at any one time, what languages do they speak, and how do you work with them?
3. What kind of teaching strategies do you use?

Interview Questions for the Bilingual Teaching Assistant working at Greentrees School

1. What is your role within the classroom?
2. How many pupils do you tend to support at any one time, what languages do they speak, and how do you work with them?
3. What kind of strategies do you use to help these children to cope in the classroom setting?
4. How do you work with the Class Teacher?

CHAPTER 3: PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE REPORT 2

Educational Psychologists Using Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) Interventions with Children and Young People with Anxiety Needs: A Case Study

Abstract

This report explores the use of CBT with children and young people, and focuses particularly upon a case study example of a CBT intervention undertaken by a Trainee Educational Psychologist with an 8 year old child with anxiety needs. The nature of CBT is described in relation to its application with children and young people with anxiety. In particular; developmental issues, the metacognitive abilities of children, the occurrence of faulty thinking processes in children with mental health needs, and the impact of parental influences are aspects considered in more depth. In the Case Study of Jane (referred to by a pseudonym); 6 sessions of CBT were found to be successful in reducing anxiety levels and promoting a more positive self-concept. However, challenges experienced during implementation are discussed including:

the need to adapt the intervention significantly to accommodate Jane's developmental and cognitive level;

- the need to establish Jane's vocabulary for emotions;
- difficulties accessing Jane's thoughts and feelings;
- the need to embed the intervention within the physical context within which Jane experienced the anxieties;
- dependence on staff members; and
- accessing support for Jane's mother.

3.1 Introduction to Cognitive Behaviour Therapy

The Department of Health (DoH) indicated that between 10-15% of children and young people would meet the criteria for having a clinical diagnosis for a mental disorder (DoH, 2004a). However, the DoH also indicated that:

> 'Around forty per cent of children with a mental health disorder are not currently receiving any specialist service' (DoH, 2004; p.6).

Promoting children's positive mental health has become a central political imperative and this emphasis creates an opportunity for EPs to make a major contribution by offering therapy as part of their routine services (MacKay, 2000).

A critical review of interventions and treatments for children and adolescents (Fonagy et al, 2005) suggested that Cognitive Behaviour Therapies (CBTs) lead to positive outcomes in particular when used with children who have mild to moderate psychological difficulties. The DfES (2001) guidance refers to one-to-one therapeutic work delivered by mental health professionals such as psychologists, and describes how:

> 'Often such treatment may be undertaken during school hours, and schools can play an important role in destigmatising help of this kind' (p.31).

There is therefore an opportunity for EPs to take on the mantle of therapeutic work in schools, and CBTs are being increasingly cited as appropriate and effective intervention for a range of psychological difficulties children are experiencing. According to Graham (2005), a narrow definition would describe CBTs as:

> 'interventions to alter cognitions with the aim of changing feelings and/or behaviour' (p.57).

Therefore, the CBT intervention aims to change the individual's dysfunctional thoughts in order to reduce symptoms of emotional distress and maladaptive behaviours. In the case study that will be discussed later in this report, this narrow definition of CBT was assumed.

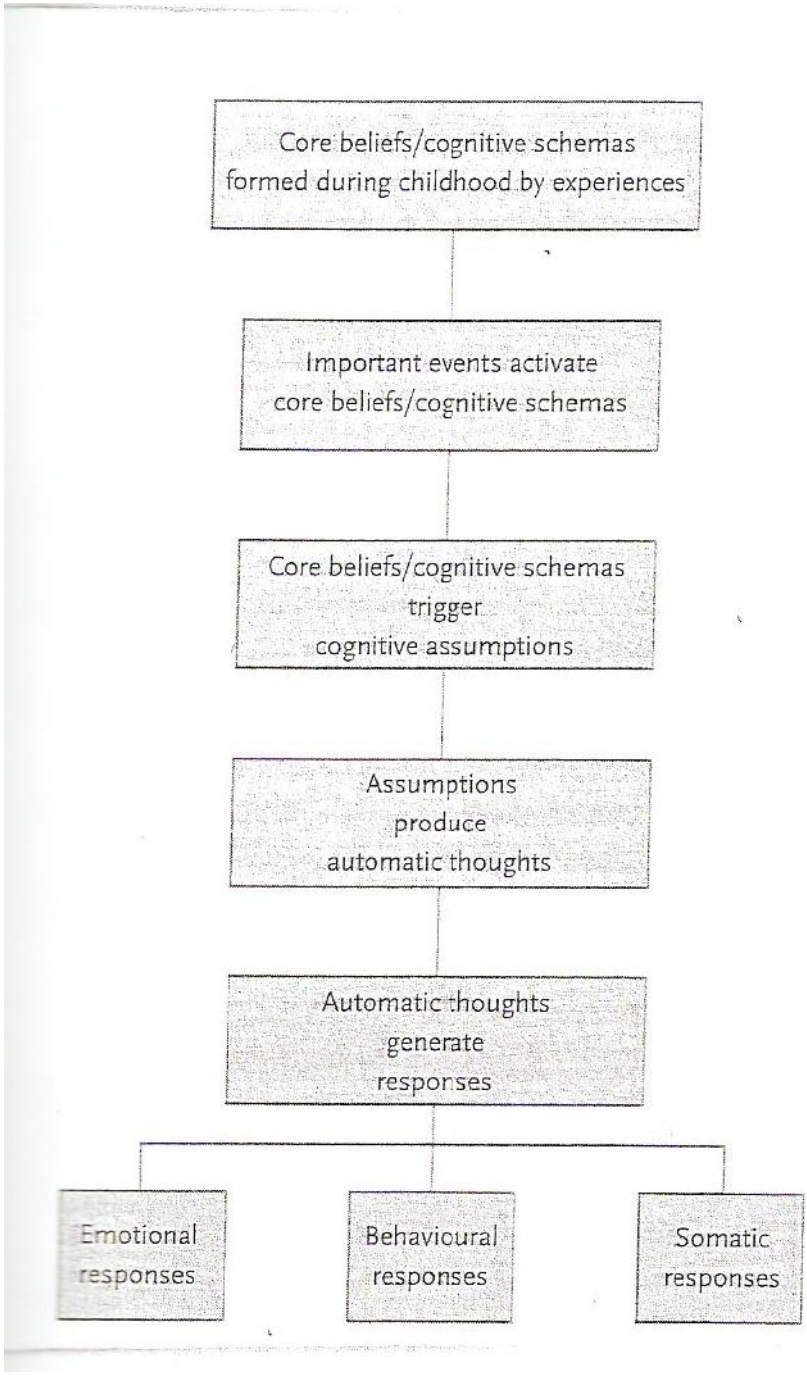
There are two particularly influential researchers in this area; Albert Ellis who founded Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) in 1955 (Ellis, 2003) and Aaron Beck who founded Cognitive Therapy some ten years later (Beck, 1979). The intervention discussed here primarily followed Beck's model of CBT. Beck's Cognitive Therapy was based upon information processing theory, placing importance upon the way in which information from the environment is processed, coded, stored and manipulated by the individual (Beck 1979). Beck focused more upon dysfunctional cognitive processes or thinking errors, and the importance of questioning the individual's thinking errors and encouraging a collaborative scientific approach to test these beliefs through behaviour and cognitive experiments.

Rait et al (2010) criticise the Cognitive Therapy approach for the lack of information and evidence provided regarding the way in which dysfunctional processing styles develop, the absence of consideration of the role of memory and language development, and the limited control that children and young people may have to be able to set up behaviour experiments in the context of their school or their home. These aspects will be considered later in relation to this case study.

Stallard (2002) describes the 'Cognitive Model' upon which CBT is based (represented in Figure A). He describes the way in which, through CBT, faulty thoughts and beliefs are identified which are having a negative impact upon the individual. Through self-monitoring and education followed by experimentation and testing, these dysfunctional thoughts and

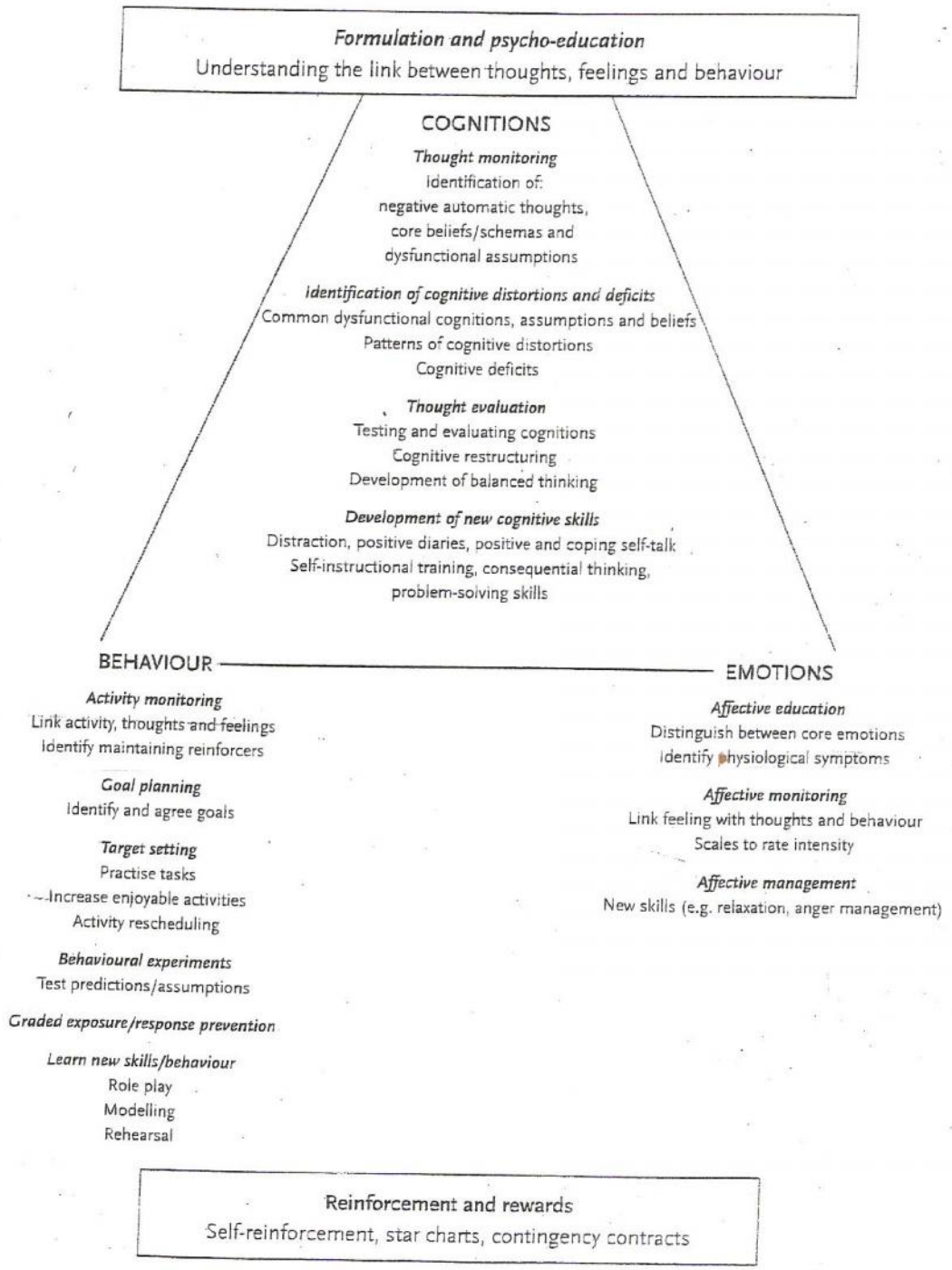
beliefs are then replaced by more positive and adaptive thoughts and beliefs. Cognitive problem-solving skills and behaviours are identified and learned, tested, evaluated and reinforced in order that new and difficult situations can be approached more successfully by the individual.

Figure A: The Cognitive Model. Taken from Stallard (2002, p.4).



The particular components of a CBT intervention depend upon the formulation of the child's needs rather than being prescribed in a 'cookbook' type approach. Figure B represents many elements often used as part of a CBT programme (Stallard, 2002, p.8).

Figure B: The Clinician's Toolbox. Taken from Stallard (2002, p.8).



3.2 Applying CBT with children and young people

3.2.1 Developmental considerations

Clinicians have highlighted that there is a difficulty in simply transferring the CBT model developed for use with adults to use with children (Reinecke et al, 1996; Stallard, 2002). Barrett (2000) argued that intervention programmes for anxiety in childhood must be sensitive to developmental factors. For example; there are developmental patterns in fear experiences with early childhood fears being related to immediate, concrete and specific threats (Barratt, 2000), that should be taken into consideration.

Stallard (2002) and Barratt (2000) therefore argue that new theoretical frameworks should be developed for child anxiety and the development of maladaptive cognitive processes in children. These should encompass individual, family, interpersonal and broader systemic variables which impact upon the child's development of anxiety. These researchers argue that developmental theory, systemic models and CBT should be integrated into theoretically sound models which are testable.

Another challenge in applying CBT with children and young people is that this client group seldom self-refer, which means that their readiness to change must be established primarily (Prochaska et al, 1992). Greig (2007) discusses the need to engage children through adapting the programme to their interests, establishing trust and rapport, and using a variety of methods such as play, drawing, music and dance.

3.2.2 Children's metacognitive abilities

The impact of developmental constraints and differences on emotional and cognitive awareness is important when considering children's reports of their thoughts. How able children are at different ages to describe their thoughts and feelings, and the degree of second order logic required to be able to be aware of a thought and to describe it is a key question (Kendall and Chansky, 1991).

Greig (2007) describes the way in which the dominance of Piagetian views on children's cognitive abilities contributed to a belief that CBT could not be used with children due to their concrete thinking style. However, Donaldson (1978) theorised that children try to make sense of tasks and situations and that when the task is embedded within a familiar context that makes 'human sense' then they are more likely to be able to understand it (an argument supported by the conservation experiments of carried out by McGarringle and Donaldson, 1974).

Indeed, later research into children's 'theory of mind' suggested that even children as young as three can understand that their own thoughts and feelings may be different to those of another person (Bartsch and Wellman, 1989). Greig (2007) emphasised the importance of the quality of the child's environment and relationships in developing theory of mind, and argued that developmentally appropriate ways to engage young children are important in developing these skills.

Many clinicians now argue that with appropriate adaptation, children can understand the key principles and engage successfully in CBT interventions (for example; Ronan, 1992; Kendall, 1992). Clinicians have developed CBT interventions with developmentally

appropriate adaptations such as ‘Coping Cat’ (Kendall, 1992) and ‘Think Good, Feel Good’ (Stallard, 2002). Recent research has focused more upon the ages at which children will be able to complete the fundamental cognitive tasks involved in CBT interventions. For example, research has suggested that children from 4 years of age can reflect upon their cognitive processes (Spensley and Taylor, 1999). Research has also indicated it is likely that age is a significant factor in children’s ability to distinguish between thoughts, feelings and behaviour (Quakley et al, 2003; Quakley et al, 2004).

However, Doehrr et al’s (2005) study suggests that it is intelligence rather than age which is linked with children’s ability to name and recognise emotions, link thoughts and feelings and generate post-event attributions (with children 5-7 years of age). Although interestingly, Doehrr et al found that there was a significant difference in performance depending on which of two schools the participants attended, with those attending a school using a ‘thinking skills programme’ performing better. This supports Greig’s (2007) argument that environmental influences are important in children’s development of these metacognitive skills. However, in Doehrr et al’s study researcher bias could have impacted upon the results as the study raters were not blind to the different educational philosophies of the two schools.

Differentiating tasks to make them more concrete through use of visual cues such as glove puppets and posting boxes (Figure C) was also found to improve performance in 4-7 year olds (Quakley et al, 2004). This supports the theories of Donaldson (1978) that provision of a more familiar context that ‘made sense’ to the children enhanced their performance.

Figure C: Thoughts, feelings and behaviour posting boxes.

Taken from Quakley et al (2004, p. 347).

3.2.3 Occurrence of thinking errors and irrational beliefs in children and young people

Underlying the CBT model is the concept that faulty thinking patterns or irrational beliefs exist in children and young people experiencing mental distress (although some faulty thinking processes are endemic to the human condition, and it is the nature, scale and impact of these processes that are significant for these children and young people). There is some research which has supported the existence of these thinking errors in young people experiencing a range of psychological difficulties (Stallard, 2002), and a number of studies have suggested that there is a link between dysfunctional thinking and anxiety in particular. For example; Prins (1986) found that the amount of fear children experienced in anxiety-provoking situations was correlated with children's negative self-talk and

negative expectations. However, this assumes that negative self-talk is a manifestation of faulty thinking.

Interestingly, Kendall and Chansky (1991) also found that following the completion of a video-taped improvised speech about themselves, young people aged 9-14 years with a diagnosed anxiety disorder reported thoughts of coping strategies both when they were told about making the speech, and when they were at their most nervous. However, children who were not diagnosed with an anxiety disorder reported significantly fewer coping-strategic thoughts when they were at their most nervous than when they had been initially told about the speech. Coping cognitions were also found to be significantly correlated with the severity of the anxiety reported.

Children who experience an excess of coping cognitions, may experience interference with functioning because these coping cognitions are unmodulated (Kendall and Chansky, 1991). Therefore, for these children and young people, the increased frequency of these coping cognitions may not be functional, but may indeed be descriptive of their anxiety disorder. Kendall and Chansky (1991) suggest that whilst young people with anxiety disorders have a natural source of coping cognition, this needs to be shaped and controlled in order to be of benefit rather than a distraction to these individuals. This is good support for the potential benefit of a CBT intervention with this group. However, Stallard (2002) points out that the role of these thinking errors in the onset and maintenance of mental health problems is not yet well understood.

3.2.4 Parental influences

There has been controversy regarding the optimal role that parents can play in CBT interventions. Kendall et al (2008) completed a randomised controlled trial (RCT) with a parent involvement condition and an individual CBT condition, and concluded that inclusion of parents in the CBT was not essential to positive gains through the intervention. Barmish and Kendall (2005) completed a meta-analysis of the research on active parent involvement in CBT for anxious children and young people and concluded that that was no consistent pattern of evidence to support a relationship between parental involvement and outcomes in terms of changes in anxiety. Silverman et al's meta-analysis (2008) also concluded that further research is needed to clarify this relationship.

Creswell and Cartwright-Hatton (2007) reviewed family-based CBTs and investigated factors which could impact upon efficacy. Their tentative conclusion is that:

> 'where a parent is anxious and this is not addressed, outcome for the child is also likely to be worse' (p.248).

They indicate that there is some evidence to suggest that when parents are anxious, family CBT may be more beneficial to the child that individual CBT. Therefore, it appears that there may be circumstances when involvement of family is helpful particularly when the parental anxiety is likely to be impacting upon the child.

However, more recently the findings of a study by Silverman et al (2009) suggest that changes in youth anxiety impact upon parental anxiety, and therefore that treating parental anxiety or focusing upon parent to youth influences may have a limited effect on the young person's anxiety. These findings suggested that there is a stronger youth to parent influence in CBT interventions than parent to youth influences. However, the correlational

nature of these analyses means that it is difficult to establish cause and effect. Silverman et al (2009) suggest that these possible mechanisms be taken into account in theoretical accounts of CBT in young people, and that future research should look to investigate the direction of the parent-youth influences in CBTs and should seek to develop not only evidence-based treatments but evidence based explanations for treatments. This evidence for circular causality in anxiety between the child and the parent, supports the value of more systemic CBT formulation (for example, Dummett, 2010).

3.2.5 The evidence base for applying CBT with children and young people

A meta-analysis by Durlak et al (1991) of 64 reports found an effect size for CBT interventions of 0.92 for children aged 11-13 years, which was almost twice the effect size of that achieved for younger children (5-7 years; 0.57 and 8 -11 years; 0.55). The 64 reports (49 of which were published, and 15 unpublished dissertations) included only studies reporting on CBT interventions from the United States or Canada between 1970 and 1987, which had compared an intervention group with a control group from the same population of children. The criteria for studies also included targeting children with either behavioural or social maladjustment with a mean age of 13 years or younger, who were the direct and only recipient of the intervention, which was targeting their behavioural or social functioning. Therefore, the transferability of the findings to the UK should be considered, and the wide range of difficulties the children may have had in this study, in comparison with the more specific anxiety difficulties that Jane experienced in this case study.

However, Durlak et al's (1991) interpretations of their findings are of relevance to this case study. They suggest that the greater effect size with older children could be related to the

cognitive developmental level of the child (with a greater effect of the intervention when children had reached the Formal Operations Stage; Piaget, 1952). However, the results were not consistent, and relationship between age and outcome was not linear. Stallard et al (2002) suggest that it may be possible that the effectiveness of CBT with younger children could be more reliant upon therapists' skills in ensuring that concepts and strategies are being presented at an appropriate developmental level, rather than upon children's cognitive limitations.

A range of studies has examined the efficacy of CBT interventions with children and young people with anxiety disorders using waiting-list control groups (for example; Kendall, 1994). In this study, significant gains were maintained one year and three years later (Kendall and Southam-Gerow, 1996). Barratt et al (1996, 2001) also found that that young people followed up six years post-intervention (aged 14-21 years) maintained positive gains. Cartwright-Hatton et al (2004) in their review of 10 RCTs with children and young people with anxiety disorders concluded that CBT is useful for children over 6 years of age. However, only two studies were found where CBT had been compared with another alternative intervention and in both of these cases the alternative treatments contained cognitive-behavioural elements (Beidel et al, 2000 and Bernstein et al, 2000). Therefore, the evidence base is lacking in that it is not possible to conclude whether or not CBT is more effective than alternative interventions.

Cartwright-Hatton et al (2004) also pointed out that although there have been a few longer-term follow-up studies, these rarely compared findings with a no-treatment control group (as was the case in Barratt et al's study); ethical criteria are likely to explain why this has not been pursued. Therefore, other variables cannot be ruled out such as the effects of

maturation which some studies have indicated can lead to equal recovery rates between treatment and control groups (Last et al, 1996).

Cartwright-Hatton et al (2004) point out that if the CBT treatment group were instead compared with another alternative treatment group, then longer-term follow up studies would be ethically possible and would enable the long-term effectiveness of CBT to be investigated. Cartwright-Hatton et al (2004) also highlighted the lack of studies which have investigated CBT interventions with children younger than 6 years who experience anxiety. Further limitations highlighted in this review included the lack in generalisability of studies due to strict exclusion criteria, a lack of investigation of CBT with young people with co-morbid conditions, and also of participants from non-clinical settings.

The evidence for CBT interventions with children and young people has been generally discussed in terms of RCTs (considered the 'gold standard' of evidence for treatment efficacy; Sackett et al, 1997) and meta-analyses of RCTs. However, there are limitations associated with this kind of evidence, and it has been differentiated from 'clinical expertise' which originates from clinician's experience and practice (Graham, 2000).

Resonating with Graham's argument; Kuyken et al (2008) discuss the question that therapists often ask themselves when presented with complex cases;

> "How do I use my training and experience along with evidence-based therapy approaches to help this person with these particular issues presented at this time?" (p.758).

Kuyken et al argue that the answer is case conceptualisation; in this process the client's history and presentation is integrated with theory and research to enable a description and understanding of the client's needs to be formulated which then informs the therapist's

decisions. Kuyken et al's description of the functions of this process is outlined in Table 1. In this case study Kuyken et al's model of case conceptualisation was employed to guide intervention.

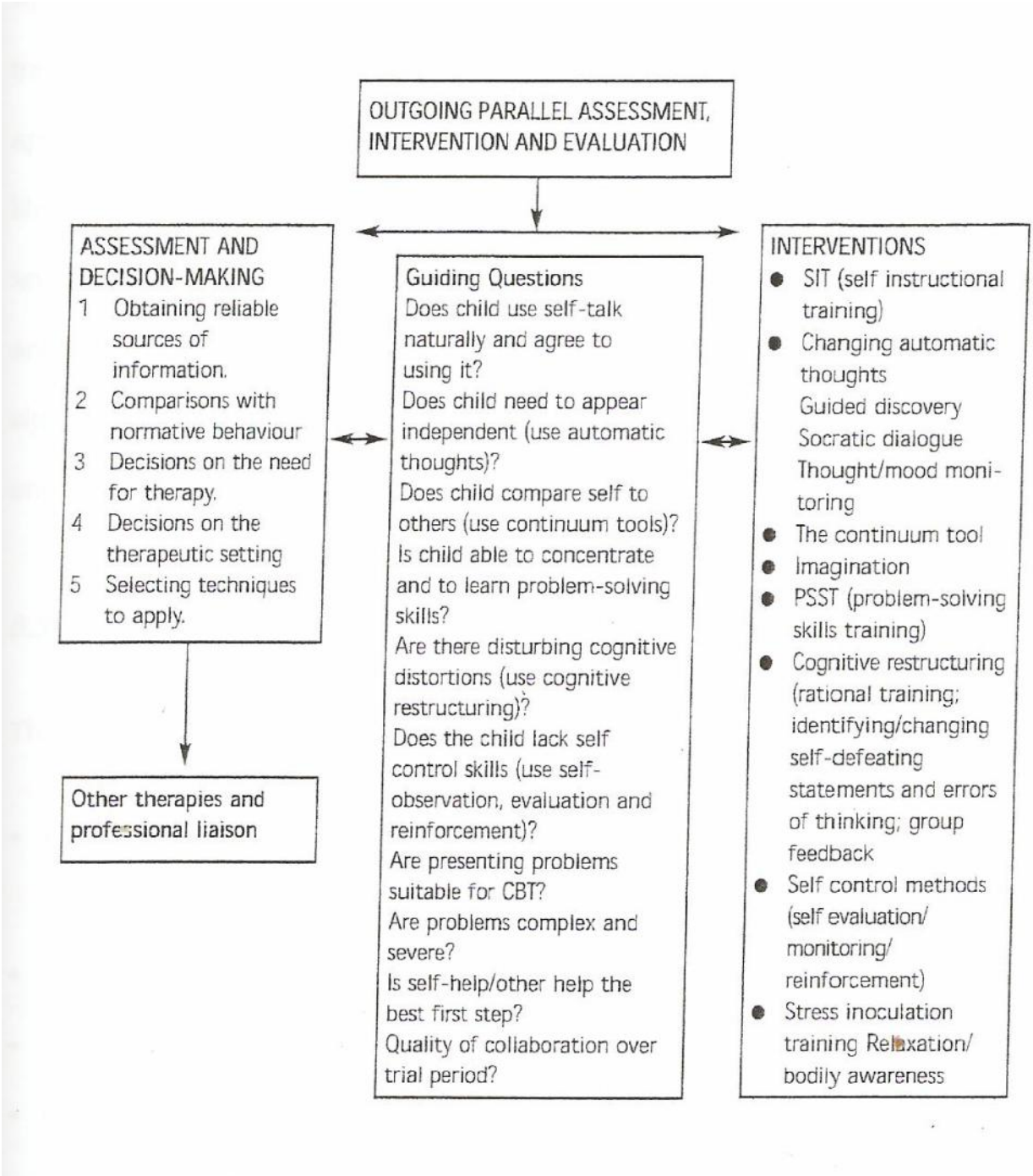
Table 1: Functions of Case Conceptualisation. (Kuyken et al, 2008, p. 769)

Ten functions of case conceptualization in CBT (Taken from Kuyken et al, 2008; p.759)
1. Synthesizes client experience, CBT theory, and research
2. Normalizes presenting issues and is validating
3. Promotes client engagement
4. Makes numerous, complex problems more manageable
5. Guides the selection, focus, and sequence of interventions
6. Identifies client strengths and suggests ways to build client resilience
7. Suggests the simplest and most cost-efficient interventions
8. Anticipates and addresses problems in therapy
9. Helps understand non-response in therapy and suggests alternative routes for change
10. Enables high quality supervision

Kuyken et al (2008) highlight some of the difficulties with the evidence base for case conceptualisation including the reliability of therapists' conceptualisations, and the validity of the conceptualisation. This is in agreement with Greig's (2007) discussion that in EP practice there is a reliance on the child's self-report and also upon the accuracy of parent and teacher reports in case formulation.

Greig proposes that Ronan's (1997) developmental model of assessing and making decisions in CBT with children addresses some of these issues including: obtaining reliable information upon which to base intervention; comparing with normative behaviour; and making decisions about the nature of therapy required. Greig used Ronan's model to inform her framework for using CBT with children and young people (Figure D). Greig proposes that this framework with guiding probes should support the practitioner to decide whether therapy is appropriate or not, and if so in what ways the therapy should proceed. A number of the CBT interventions listed (for example; self-instruction training, continuum tools) have been used mainly with adults and therefore their selection for use with children and young people must be carefully considered. This framework was followed in the case study reported here in order to decide whether CBT was an appropriate intervention for Jane.

Figure D: A cognitive-developmental framework for using CBT with children and young people. Taken from Greig (2007, p.28).



3.3 A case study: Jane, aged 8 years

At the time of intervention, Jane was in her final year of First School (Year 4), and about to transfer to a Middle School. The main concern identified related to Jane's levels of anxiety apparent particularly through Jane's expression of worry about a range of aspects of her life including learning, toileting, her mother's health and her interactions with peers. These anxieties had been expressed to myself, her mother and to teaching staff at her school, and were reportedly impacting upon all aspects of her life at home and at school, having a significant effect on Jane's emotional wellbeing, her social development and her engagement in school life and learning.

3.3.1 Assessment and case conceptualisation

The assessment approaches I used in order to inform intervention included:

- two observations of Jane at school including observations in the classroom, when working individually with a supporting Teaching Assistant (TA), and in the playground;
- meeting with Jane's teacher and her TA;
- meeting with Jane's mother at home;
- meeting with Jane twice in school to interview her and to administer various assessment tools including the Beck Youth Inventory Self Concept and Anxiety Scales (Steer et al, 2005), and the Child Role Play Measure (Dodge, McClaskey and Feldman, 1985) to explore how Jane would respond in a range of social situations.

This information was synthesised into a case conceptualisation represented in Appendix A. Jane's core assumptions which appeared to be at the root of many of her negative automatic thoughts related to her ability to remember and to learn new things, other children's negative perceptions of her, and her mother's poor health. These thoughts

appeared to be leading to increased anxiety particularly in learning situations, in her interactions with peers, and when going to the toilet, and were affecting her behaviour at these times. Jane would often misinterpret situations according to these assumptions, particularly situations involving her peers, leading her to respond inappropriately such as by hitting out at her peers. There were also some psychosomatic symptoms that appeared to be associated with Jane's anxiety including stomach aches and a sore throat, which were also contributing to Jane avoiding school.

Following Greig's framework; evidence was triangulated to maximise accuracy and reliability, and using Greig's guiding questions through assessment I established that:

a) Jane used self-talk naturally and had clear negative automatic thoughts occurring around areas of her anxiety;

b) Jane had various cognitive distortions in her thinking processes around these anxieties;

c) Jane often compared herself with other children; and

d) Jane was able to concentrate and to engage in self-evaluation and self-help.

A series of CBT sessions was therefore offered to Jane herself, and consent sought from her mother. On the basis of my case conceptualisation, the following intervention aims were formulated:

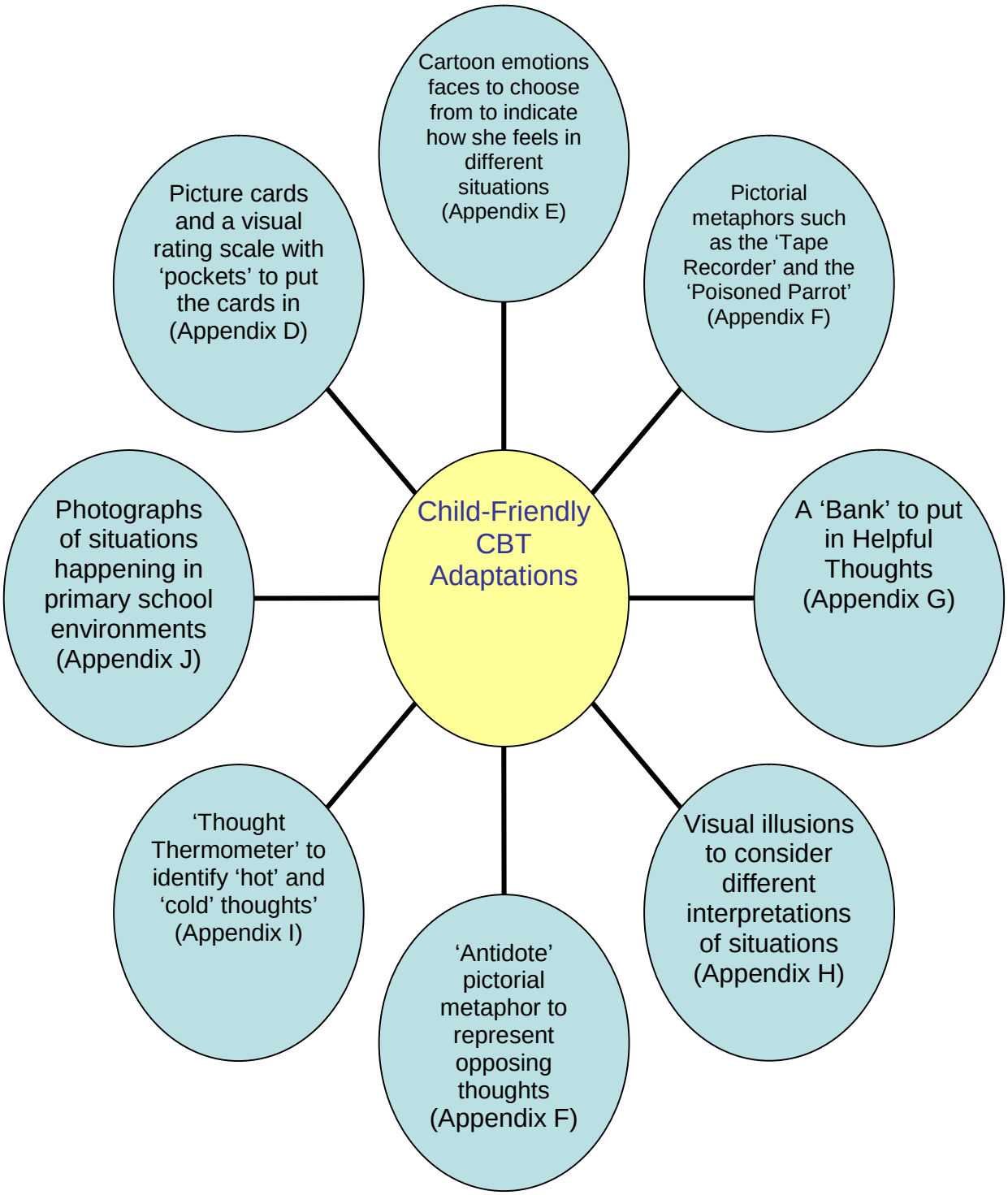
1) to develop Jane's understanding of her own thoughts, feelings and behaviour and the links between these;
2) to identify the triggers for Jane's anxieties;
3) to encourage Jane to recognise and challenge her negative automatic thoughts;
4) to help Jane to develop more balanced thinking patterns; and
5) to develop strategies with Jane to be able to manage her anxieties.

3.3.2 Content of the CBT intervention

Overall, six weekly one-hour sessions were delivered at school (with a one-week gap between sessions two and three due to half-term break). Five sessions were individual sessions with Jane, one session also involved her supporting TA. Several weeks after the end of the intervention, Jane was presented with a folder containing all her work as well as some laminated resources (Prompt Cards, Thoughts Thermometer and Emotions Key-Ring), and a certificate presented by her Head Teacher.

The research described earlier was considered in designing the content of the intervention. For example: embedding the activities within familiar contexts to ensure that they made 'human sense' for Jane to be able to access them (McGarringle and Donaldson, 1974); making activities visual and concrete (Quakley et al, 2004); tailoring the intervention to Jane's interests to engage her (Greig, 2007); and seeking to access and make use of Jane's coping cognitions (Kendall and Chansky, 1991). These principles were considered throughout the intervention but particular examples which were successful are represented below in Figure E.

Figure E: Examples of adaptations to the CBT content.

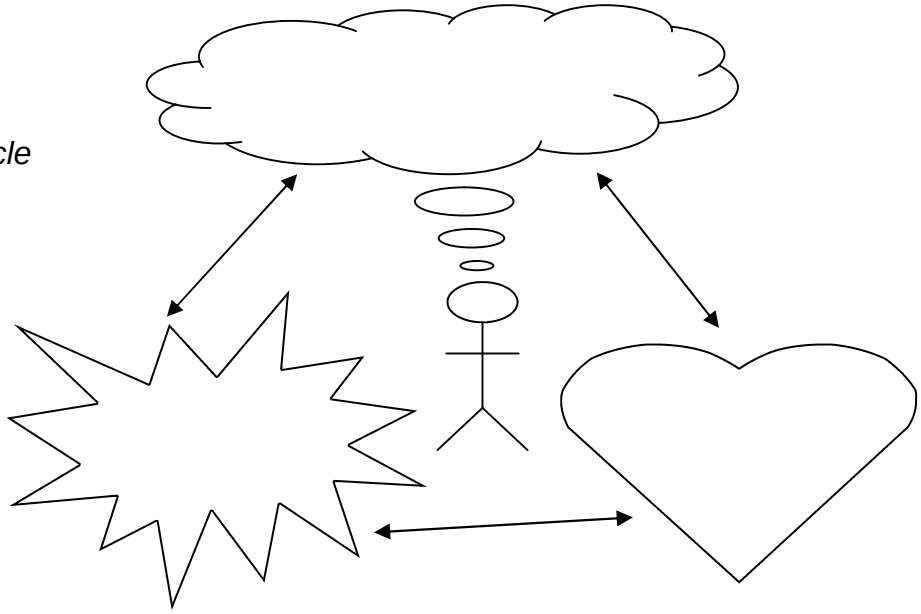


The resources were either developed myself in response to Jane's needs and her developmental level, or resources developed by others were utilised as a source of discussion with Jane, and adapted to increase the relevance to Jane's particular situation. For example; the 'Poisoned Parrot' and 'Antidote' story (Vivyan, 2010; Appendix F) described a parrot who would constantly make unhelpful comments, and an antidote to stop these unhelpful comments. The story itself was changed in order to become more relevant Jane's particular context, but the visual metaphor was helpful to her in developing her understanding of negative automatic thoughts. The visual rating scale was borrowed (Buron and Kurtis, 2003; Appendix K) and used with my own pictures and photographs of school-based situations relevant to Jane. This involved encouraging her to consider how stressed each situation made her feel. She would then place the picture in the relevant pocket (1-5 scale of stress) depending on how stressed she felt in the situation. This supported Jane to increase her awareness and understanding of her own feelings, and to begin to recognise triggers for her feelings of anxiety. This activity also enabled the identification of calming and enjoyable activities which were school-based which we were able to return to later in order to develop strategies. Similarly, the 'Thought Thermometer' (Appendix I) was adapted from Stallard (2002) in order to support Jane in a visual way to consider the strength of her thoughts.

Resources developed myself included finding photographs of school-based situations (Appendix J) which appeared to represent some of the situations in which Jane might experience anxiety, to provide a concrete and visual focus for discussion and to support Jane to be able to bring to mind some of the unhelpful and helpful thoughts that she experienced at these times. I then tried to make the idea of Jane storing up her helpful thoughts more concrete by using a picture of a bank (Appendix G) and encouraging her to consider her helpful thoughts to be valuable like money, which she could hold onto and use again to help her to be successful.

The sessions centred around the use of the Magic Circle (adapted from Stallard, 2002; Figure F) which aided Jane to identify thoughts, feelings and behaviours associated with particular situations.

Figure F: The Magic Circle



Jane found it very difficult to identify her thoughts during our sessions. Therefore, I made the task more concrete by using pictures and photographs of situations that made sense to her (thus enhancing the contextual cues available). She was very able to identify the thoughts of the characters, and then later was eventually able to imagine herself in the picture and identify her thoughts in that particular situation. She did not appear to have the metacognitive abilities to be able to identify her thoughts without a visual cue available.

Consequently, I decided to involve the TA supporting Jane whom I hoped would be able to support Jane to identify her thoughts and feelings associated with particular behaviours and events happening at school as they occurred (thus enabling the intervention to be highly embedded within the context in which the triggers for anxiety were occurring). This was timely as Jane's trips to her new school were just beginning and the TA was able to accompany her and then to use the Magic Circles to reflect on Jane's experiences before and after the events. This ad-hoc support was found to be crucial to the intervention in

identifying Jane's negative automatic thoughts and, from these, developing more balanced thought patterns.

Another difficulty I encountered relating to Jane's ability to participate fully within the sessions was her lack of vocabulary to represent her emotions. Jane had very little vocabulary for emotions beyond 'happy,' 'sad,' 'angry,' and 'worrying' and struggled to identify emotions of characters in the photographs as well as her own emotions. I therefore needed to incorporate some work into the sessions to develop her knowledge of the labels for a range of emotions and also her recognition of her bodily response to different emotions and the kinds of situations where she tends to feel each emotion. The TA working with Jane was able to use the 'emotions faces' (Appendix E) from the sessions with Jane in other contexts which did improve her understanding and recognition of these feelings and when they occur in context.

The content of the intervention followed Stallard's (2002) structure (*Think Good Feel Good)* based primarily upon Becks' Cognitive Therapy. However, the content of the sessions was on a much-simplified level to enable Jane to engage. For example; we explored negative automatic thoughts but did not explore core beliefs and assumptions, and different kinds of thinking errors. The only homework tasks that could be set relied on access to TA support as Jane had limited literacy skills. The 'Magic Circle Diary' (containing thoughts, feelings and behaviours relating to particular events) was therefore always completed by the TA rather than by Jane herself, and consequently could only be completed when the TA was available.

A brief summary of the CBT sessions is presented in Appendix B, and detailed descriptions of each session written as feedback for Jane are contained in Appendix C as well as worksheets developed. At the beginning of each session the feedback sheets

were used and the worksheets from the previous session to revise what had been previously discussed.

Following the findings of Silverman et al (2009) I decided to address Jane's difficulties through one to one sessions, without involving her mother directly in the intervention. It would have also been more difficult to negotiate the work in a family-based context due to the nature of my role as a Trainee Educational Psychologist with a particular time allocation to Jane's school setting. The school would have been very reluctant for me to use my allocated time for their school to support Jane and her mother with home-based difficulties. In the region in which I am employed, this is viewed as the remit of a Clinical Psychologist, or alternatively a Family Support Worker, and my work is tied more to children's school-based difficulties. However, a referral was made to the Child and Adolescent Mental Health Service for the family to be able to access family-based support. Unfortunately, due to Jane's mother's difficulties in leaving the house and the lack of possibility for a home-visiting service, she was unable to access this support.

3.3.3 Assessment measures

Two measures were used with Jane in conjunction with the CBT intervention for different purposes. Firstly, the Beck Youth Inventories™ Second Edition For Children and Adolescents (BYI-II) Self Concept and Anxiety Scales (Steer et al, 2005) were completed with Jane once before and once after the intervention in order to evaluate whether the intervention was successful in reducing Jane's anxiety level and also whether the intervention had any impact on her self-concept. The findings also informed my conceptualisation of Jane's needs.

Secondly, the Young People's CORE Assessment (Twigg et al, 2009) was completed at three time points during the intervention itself. In this case; I chose this assessment in

order to assess risk throughout the intervention, particularly for potential self-harm, suicidal thoughts, sleep disturbances and to check that Jane felt confident to talk with an adult about her feelings if she needed to. This assessment was developed for older children of 11-16 years but in discussion with other senior CBT practitioners, I decided that it was fit for risk-assessment purposes but not for measurement of progress in this case. It is therefore inappropriate to report quantitative information, but the measure was used as a basis for discussion and for qualitative purposes.

Due to Jane's literacy difficulties, I assisted her to read each statement in both measures, checked her understanding, and then she circled her chosen response. After completion of each assessment, I then discussed with Jane her answers which informed the content of the intervention. Jane's scores on the Beck measures are reported in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Beck Youth Inventory Self Concept and Anxiety Scales

Scale	**Date**	**T-Score**	**Range**
Self-Concept	Pre-intervention	25	Much lower than average
	Post-intervention	40	Lower than average
Anxiety	Pre-intervention	61	Moderately elevated
	Post-intervention	56	Mildly elevated

The scores indicate that Jane's anxiety level decreased throughout the intervention although remained mildly elevated after the intervention. Jane's self-concept also remained low but was more positive after the intervention.

Using the Young People's CORE assessment, Jane indicated that she felt more able to talk to others and to ask others for help throughout the intervention, that she worried less that she would hurt herself, and increasingly indicated that she had done all the things she

wanted to do that week. There was no change demonstrated in the distress her thoughts and feelings caused her, and also her feeling that sometimes her problems felt like too much. There was some improvement in how difficult Jane found sleeping but this then became worse at the end of the intervention. Jane indicated that she felt more nervous part-way through the intervention, but this then returned to 'sometimes' feeling nervous at the end (which is identical to how she felt at the beginning). Jane reported feeling unhappy sometimes towards the end of the intervention, but did not report ever feeling unhappy at the start of the intervention.

Jane's progress was also reviewed through regular meetings with her Class Teacher and regular feedback from her TA. These members of staff reported a positive improvement in Jane's main areas of difficulty, and particularly that she was more positive about attempting work-related tasks, more confident to ask for help, and appeared to be more positive about going to Middle School.

3.4 Discussion

This 6-week CBT intervention led to decreased anxiety levels and a more positive self-concept as measured by the Beck Youth Inventories. Qualitative findings also suggest improvements in Jane's feelings of being able to access support from others, decreases in her worries about being hurt or bullied by others, and also improvements in some aspects of her feelings of self-competence. The indicated increase in feelings of unhappiness at the end of the intervention, and nervousness part way through the intervention, could have been a result of Jane's increasing awareness of her feelings. These findings are in agreement with studies discussed earlier which investigated the effect of CBT

interventions with children of this age with anxiety needs (such as Cartwight-Hatton, 2004, Barratt et al,1996, 2001).

Difficulties and challenges experienced during the intervention included;

- adapting the intervention to Jane's developmental and cognitive level;
- simplifying the psycho-educational input;
- Jane's lack of vocabulary for emotions;
- accessing Jane's thoughts and feelings (taking account of Jane's metacognitive skills);
- embedding the intervention in the physical context within which Jane experiences the anxieties in order that she could be supported to access her thoughts and feelings associated with particular anxieties;
- dependence on staff members to record Jane's thoughts and feelings in order to have a reliable record for reference and discussion in the CBT sessions; and
- accessing support for Jane's mother.

In this section of the report, each of these challenges will be discussed in relation to theory and previous research findings.

As Barratt (2000) discussed, interventions for anxiety need to be sensitive to the developmental level of the child with early experiences of fear being related to concrete, immediate and specific threats. Quakley et al (2004) found that making CBT tasks more concrete through use of visual aids significantly improved children's performance. In this case, Jane needed visual, concrete and immediate support specific to the anxiety trigger to be able to then access her thoughts and feelings and generate post-event attributions. The opportunity to reflect upon this was dependent upon an adult being present to support her at the time. In line with Donaldson's ideas (1978) discussed earlier, Jane needed

tasks to be embedded within a context that made sense to her through use of related photographs for example, or preferably the real-life context of the anxiety trigger.

This had several implications with regard to the nature and validity of the intervention. Firstly, close collaboration with the school was crucial in order for this timely ad-hoc support to be achieved. Providing some informal training for Jane's supporting TA and involving her in the sessions was necessary. Research has suggested that the competency of the clinician delivering CBT is important in determining intervention outcomes (Kingdon et al, 1996) but this has not been investigated with regard to school staff as co-facilitators in interventions. Rait et al (2010) suggest that EPs are in an ideal position to be able to support staff to understand the theoretical models and principles underpinning CBT interventions, to enable CBT interventions to be adapted in a way which is both coherent and theoretically robust. However, as Stallard (2002) and Barratt (2000) argue; there is not yet a coherent theoretical framework which has been developed for CBT with children. Rait et al (2010) also promote a supervisory role for EPs with school staff delivering CBT; elements of this role were relevant in this case.

Another implication of the role of the TA was that Jane's thoughts and feelings were being interpreted and recorded by the TA. This could have compromised the validity of the intervention because some of the information upon which it was based was obtained via a secondary source. Jane may not have had the skills to communicate her thoughts and therefore some of the information may have actually been based upon the TA's assumptions. Therefore, Jane's metacognitive ability did form a barrier to her ability to access the intervention to the extent to which it was intended. Moreover, the content of the sessions was much simplified and Jane could not access all of the elements of the *Think Good Feel Good* programme. Jane's academic levels were low for her age and as

Doehrr et al (2005) found; IQ level is linked to some of the core components of the intervention which Jane struggled with including the ability to name and recognise emotions, understand how thoughts and feelings relate and generate post-event attributions (Doehrr et al, 2005). This is likely to have affected the effectiveness of the programme.

However, as suggested by Doehrr et al; environmental influences also appeared to have an impact upon effectiveness of CBT interventions (such as a 'thinking skills programme' within the school). Jane's school did not have a 'thinking skills' programme or similar. If Jane had had access to such a universal programme; she may have been in a better position to access the CBT programme content more fully. This has implications for the role and usefulness of universal interventions (Albee and Gullotta, 1997; Prilleltensky and Nelson, 2000, Department of Health 2004; DfES 2005). Further research is needed in this area to investigate the interaction between universal 'thinking skills' programmes currently provided by schools (for example; the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning Programme; DfES, 2005, and the PATHS® Promoting Alternative THinking Strategies programme; Channing Bete Company, 2010), and the effectiveness of CBT interventions.

Rait et al (2010) raised concerns regarding the limited control that children and young people may have to be able to set up behaviour experiments in CBT interventions. This was also highly relevant in this case and is another drawback of implementing the intervention with a child of Jane's age and ability. The experimentation stage of the intervention was not fully implemented as this would have required more sessions and also greater input from the TA. Jane was encouraged to challenge her thoughts during the sessions, and was given a Prompt Card detailing her chosen strategies. However, the extent to which Jane tried these strategies is not known and would likely have required

reminders from an adult at the time of the anxiety before Jane would have been able to internalise the strategies. This is a major criticism of this intervention and limits the maintenance and generalisation of the strategies Jane developed during the intervention.

The maintenance of the skills Jane developed may also have been improved by involvement of Jane's mother in the intervention. A limitation of the intervention was that it was restricted to the school context and covered only Jane's school-related anxieties and not her home-related anxieties. Jane's mother's own anxieties were also likely to be having a significant impact upon the development and maintenance of Jane's difficulties. Creswell and Cartwright-Hatton (2007) suggest that where parents are anxious, this should also be addressed through an intervention such as family CBT. There is a service which could offer this but unfortunately Jane's mother's panic attacks formed a barrier to her leaving the house and accessing this support in a clinic setting.

Stallard (2002) proposes that further research is needed in order to establish the most effective parental role in CBT interventions. As the investigations of Barmish and Kendall (2005) and Silverman et al (2008, 2009) suggest however; this relationship is complex; it is very difficult to establish the direction of causal relationships in changes in cognitions during intervention, and it is likely that the most effective role will depend on individual familial circumstances.

Therefore, a multi-agency approach from the outset involving other agencies which could have supported the family may have been beneficial. This reflects the views expressed by Rait et al (2010) that:

> 'School-based CBT is likely to be more successful and effective if undertaken jointly with school staff, educational psychologists and

> other allied external agencies such as CAMHS, as it would enable follow-up and if needed more in-depth specialist therapeutic input,' (p.115).

This may have facilitated more active involvement of Jane's mother, support for Jane at home as well as at school, and also enabled Jane's mother's own needs to be addressed.

In this case study, use of a more coherent theoretical framework incorporating models of the development of faulty cognitive processes relevant to anxiety in children and encompassing family, school and broader systemic factors impacting upon children with anxiety would have been helpful in planning the intervention. For example, using Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological Systems Theory (2005) would have afforded a valuable executive and conceptual framework to consider the different interacting systems impacting upon the child's development (Appendix K).

Through my reflections upon the issues and limitations experienced during this intervention; it would have been helpful to consider the key questions represented in Table 3 at each systemic level of Bronfenbrenner's model, prior to implementation of the CBT programme.

Table 3: Key Questions for EPs to Consider Prior to Offering CBT Interventions

Layer of Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological Systems Theory (2005)	**Key Questions Prior to Implementation**
Macrosystemic factors	- Does your EPS have a model of service delivery which accommodates therapeutic working? - Can your time be prioritised for 1:1 intervention with this child? - Are there appropriate CBT supervision networks available to support you? - What is the culture within which the parent and the child are living? Is it acceptable to access help and support? Is it less stigmatising to access help at home, in a clinic, or at school?
Exosystemic factors	- Are there factors within the child's community impacting upon their difficulties? (For example in this case; bullying in the neighbourhood, parent isolation from support network of family and friends, feelings of vulnerability on the Estate in which the family lived).
Mesosystemic factors	- Would a multi-agency approach be beneficial to the family? Which other agencies could help? CAMHS? Family Support Services? The Police? Housing Associations? Adult mental health services? - How could agencies work together to support the family?
Microsystemic factors	*School factors* - Has the school already implemented universal or small-group interventions involving this child to address the development of 'thinking' skills? Does some pre-requisite work need to take place prior to the intervention to establish these skills? - Are the child's peer group contributing to or maintaining the child's anxieties? - Is the school willing and able to allocate the time and support of teaching or non-staff to the intervention? - Does the child have a positive relationship with a particular member of staff? - Does the school value the intervention? Have they prioritised the intervention? - Is there a protected, private and quiet space within the school within which to deliver the intervention?
	Family factors - What are the family circumstances? - How are parental cognitions affecting the child? - How are the child's cognitions affecting the parent? - How are siblings impacting upon the child? - How can parents and siblings support the intervention? Would the role of facilitator, co-therapist or client be most appropriate?

	Assessment questions adapted from Greig (2007,p.28): - Have I been able to access reliable information about the child's needs? Have I triangulated this evidence? - How does this information compare with normative information?
Within-child factors	- What are the child's cognitive abilities? What are their language skills? What are their memory skills? - What are their meta-cognitive skills? Can the child recognise their own thoughts? Can the child name and recognise their own emotions? Can the child understand how thoughts and feelings relate? Generate post-event attributions? - What are the child's coping cognitions? Is the child utilising them? *Guiding questions from Greig (2007. p.28):* - Does the child use self-talk naturally and agree to using it? - Does the child need to appear independent (use automatic thoughts)? - Does the child compare self to others (use continuum tools)? - Is the child able to concentrate and to learn problem-solving skills? - Are there disturbing cognitive distortions (use cognitive restructuring)? - Does the child lack self-control skills? - Are presenting problems suitable for CBT? - Are problems complex and severe? - Is self-help/other help the best first step? - What is the quality of collaboration over a trial period?

3.5 Conclusion

Although there is a developing evidence base regarding the use of CBT interventions with children and young people with anxiety needs, there are significant gaps in the research. Research studies need to compare CBT interventions with alternative treatments rather than waiting-list control groups, and studies also need to compare progress over time. The relationship between parental and child cognitions in anxiety disorders needs to be researched further in order to develop theoretical frameworks to inform intervention for childhood anxiety.

There is a mixed picture regarding the usefulness of involving parents in CBT interventions and in the role the parent should play. It seems likely that different theoretical models will apply depending on the nature of the family situation and that therefore differing types and levels of involvement will be most effective in differing circumstances. As Graham (2000) highlighted, RCTs are not the whole answer, and in the absence of theoretical frameworks encompassing developmental models for childhood anxiety, an approach utilising clinical expertise and experience as well as the existing evidence base seems to be appropriate. A route to effective intervention may be to utilise models such as Bronfenbrenner's to consider the broader systemic factors impacting upon the child in each individual case, and also to take into account the research findings thus far regarding the accessibility of CBT interventions for children and to consider these findings in relation to the individual child's case. For example; in this case study pertinent considerations included the meta-cognitive abilities of the child, the child's vocabulary for emotions, IQ level, and appropriate involvement of systems around the child impacting upon her anxiety including school, home and community.

Finally, as highlighted by MacKay (2007), in response to current government rhetoric and the rising mental health need, it is an ideal time for EPs to re-claim their therapeutic skills and put them into practise. EPs' training in research skills, their knowledge of child development, and their tendency to work with systems and to take an holistic view of children's needs can also be put to good use in the development of coherent theoretical frameworks for CBT interventions.

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Appendix A: Case conceptualisation

APPENDIX A: Jane's Case Conceptualisation

PROTECTIVE FACTORS

Protective and vulnerability factors from previous life experiences

- Good relationship with Teaching Assistant (TA), can speak to TA about worries
- One friend lives nearby and is in her class
- Good concentration
- Good listening in class
- Can complete tasks independently when Jane feels she understands task
- Wants to please adults
- Responds to school reward systems

- Low academic levels particularly in reading
- Low language levels
- Mother suffers from panic attacks and rarely leaves the house
- Mother's worries about Jane and her belief that Jane suffers from hallucinations
- Mother smokes frequently which concerns Jane
- No contact with father
- Isolation from family and friends due to move away from previous home area due to ongoing difficulties with father and new partner
- Moving schools four times
- Difficulties with neighbours, name-calling from other children in neighbourhood, mother does not allow Jane out to play

PRIDE IS POSING FACTORS

Core beliefs

- My Mum loves me
- I have some friends
- There will be some friends and people I know at Middle School

- Other children hate me
- I can't learn
- I am at the bottom of the class
- My Mum is ill

Core assumptions

- Adults will help me
- I can please adults
- I can achieve rewards
- I am liked by some others

- I will fail at my work, I won't be able to remember, I won't be able to learn new things
- I will fail at Middle School
- Other children will laugh at me
- Other children will hurt me
- If my Mum continues smoking she might die
- I need to help my Mum so that she doesn't get ill
- If I use the toilet other children will stare and laugh at me

Unhelpful strategies Jane uses:

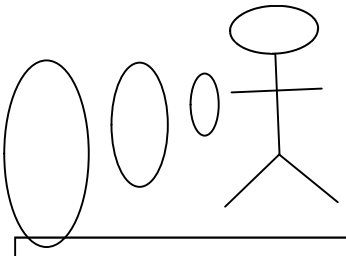
-Avoiding written work
-Not attending school
-Avoiding group activities
-Avoiding using the toilet
-Anticipating negative peer behaviour and acting on this

Feelings and Physical Sensations

High anxiety
Very low self-esteem
Frustration
Anger
Unhappiness/sadness
Tummy ache, sore throat
Sleep disturbance

Thoughts

'I can't do it'
' I can't keep things/learning in my head'
'I can't get rid of things in my head' (silly things)
'People will stare at me and laugh at me when I go to the toilet'
'People are looking at me'
'If I don't go to the toilet I will be ill'
'Children will pick on me/push me over/be nasty to me'
'At Middle School the work will be too difficult and people will laugh at me'
'My mum might die'



Behaviours

Writing a note to mother telling her that she wants to die
Not wanting to leave mother
Not wanting to go to school
Avoiding written work
Attaching to particular TA—needing her reassurance before beginning tasks or activities
Ruminating on particular events—past or future
Not able to cope with change
Not going to the toilet at school
Oversensitivity to peers' comments
Misinterpreting peer behaviour—assuming negative intentions
Inappropriately seeking out interactions with peers
Hitting out at peers
Crying at school (e.g. when Middle School is discussed, at the start of work tasks)

Triggers

-Feeling sick
-Working in a group
-Crowds
-Peer comments/responses
-Failure
-Success
-Mother being ill
-Forthcoming important events/change

Helpful strategies Jane uses:

-Seeking out and talking to TA about worries
-Telling her mother her worries
-Seeking to please teacher

Appendix B: Summary of the CBT sessions

Session	Content
1	- Seeking of informed consent. - Use of visual illusions to discuss different interpretations and perspectives. - Drawing of a school playground and considering different interpretations of a situation and how this would affect feelings and behaviour. - Introduction of the Magic Circle and application to positive examples from Jane's experiences. - Identifying trigger situations for anxiety.
2	- Exploration of emotions, vocabulary for emotions, situations in which they occur, and bodily responses. - Application of the Magic Circles to characters in photographs of social school-based situations involving peers. - Use of the Tape Recorder metaphor. - Introduction of a Magic Circle Diary.
3 (After Half-term break)	- Involvement of Teaching Assistant during the session. - Reflections on Jane's experiences during the past week. - Re-visiting of the Magic Circles and revision of work carried out at previous sessions. - Application of Magic Circles to characters in photographs of learning-based classroom situations. This time Jane was asked to imagine the character was her and that she was there in the photograph.
4	- Use of Magic Circles Diary to identify helpful and unhelpful thoughts and to rate these according to usefulness. - Use of the story of the 'Poisoned Parrot' to introduce negative automatic thoughts. - Identifying 'antidotes' to these negative thoughts. - Worksheet to encourage understanding of differentiation between thoughts, feelings and behaviour.
5	- Use of a Thought Thermometer to classify 'hot' and 'cold' thoughts. - Use of Magic Circles for events causing anxiety. - Identifying helpful and unhelpful thoughts (poisonous parrot and antidote metaphors used). Introduction of the Bank of Helpful Thoughts to record coping cognitions. - Use of visualisation as a relaxation strategy when feeling anxious. - Homework to draw the Calm Place visualised in the session.
6	- Revision of all the sessions. - Deciding on coping strategies. - Writing an Action Plan. - Completing Jane's Bank of Helpful Thoughts.

Appendix C:

Descriptions of each session written as feedback for Jane

What we did in our first session

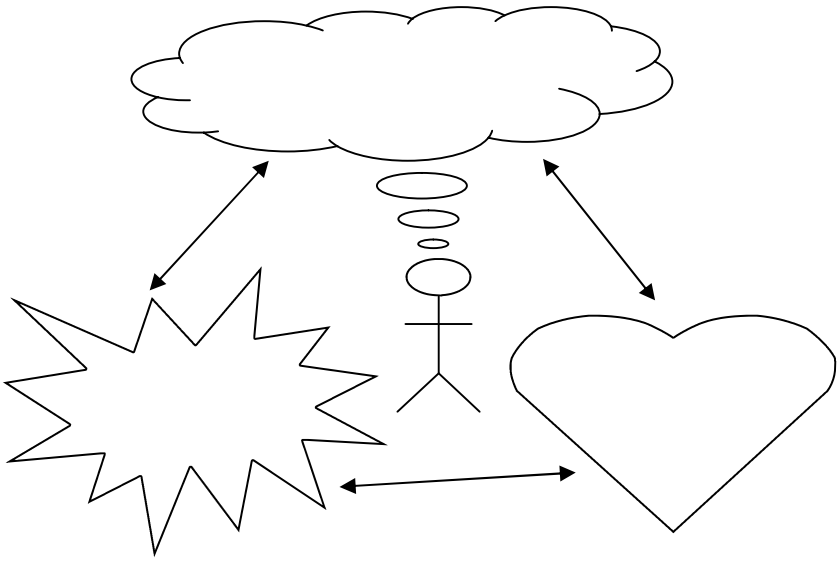
1. At the beginning of our session we talked about how I have some time to come and see you every week for 5 weeks to help you to think about things that worry you and to see if I could help you with your worries. I explained that we would be talking a lot about your feelings and the kinds of thoughts you have and what kinds of things make you feel good or bad. I explained that we would be doing some activities and worksheets during the sessions. I asked you if you would like to do some of this kind of work with me and you said Yes. I explained that I would keep the things we talk about private and would not talk to other people about them except for if you told me something that I thought might be harmful or dangerous for you or anyone else, or anything that worried me, and then I would have to talk to other people like your teachers and your Mum to make sure you were OK and to see if we could help you.

2. During this session we talked about the Visual Illusions and the different things we could both see in the same picture. We talked about the way that there are often different ways of seeing the same thing and different ways of thinking about the same thing which might affect what we see.

3. I then drew a picture of a school and a playground with a little girl standing alone while the other children in the playground were playing. We thought about what you might think if you saw her standing there. We thought about the different things you might do depending on what you were thinking. We thought of 3 things you might think about the little girl standing alone:
   - She might be in trouble and might have been told off. If this was what you were thinking you thought that you probably would not play with her.
   - She might be scared because this might be a new school. If this was what you were thinking you thought that you probably would go and ask her to play with you.
   - She might have hurt her knee. If this was what you were thinking you might go and stand and talk to her and check she is OK.

   We talked about how what you were thinking would change what you would choose to do in that situation, and also how you might feel about the little girl.

4. We talked about the Magic Circle and how what you are thinking can change how you are feeling which can change what you do.



5. We talked about a time when you were enjoying yourself, what you were doing, how you were feeling and what you were thinking. You told me about a time when you were riding your bike and you were thinking about the wind blowing past you and you were also thinking that you might tip over. You were feeling happy and cooling down, but when you thought about tipping over you felt a bit sad because you don't like tipping over. What you were thinking changed how you were feeling when you were riding your bike.

6. We talked about the kinds of things that make you feel worried. We talked about the words you use to talk about how you are feeling on a 5-point scale with some pictures of faces showing different feelings. Your words to describe these feelings were:
   1. Happy
   2. Not sure
   3. Worrying
   4. Really worrying. Bit angry.
   5. Really really worrying. Really angry.

   We looked at lots of picture cards of different situations like being at school, breaktime, going to see a show, being sick and using toilets at school. Things that you thought were really worrying or really really worrying (4 and 5 points) were:
   - Being sick
   - Smelling breath
   - Being touched
   - Being in a group
   - Working in a group in class
   - Someone looking at you
   - Looking at someone
   - Losing a game.

   We talked about the reasons why these things bothered you so much.

What we did in our second session

1. We did a questionnaire to check out how you were feeling this week.

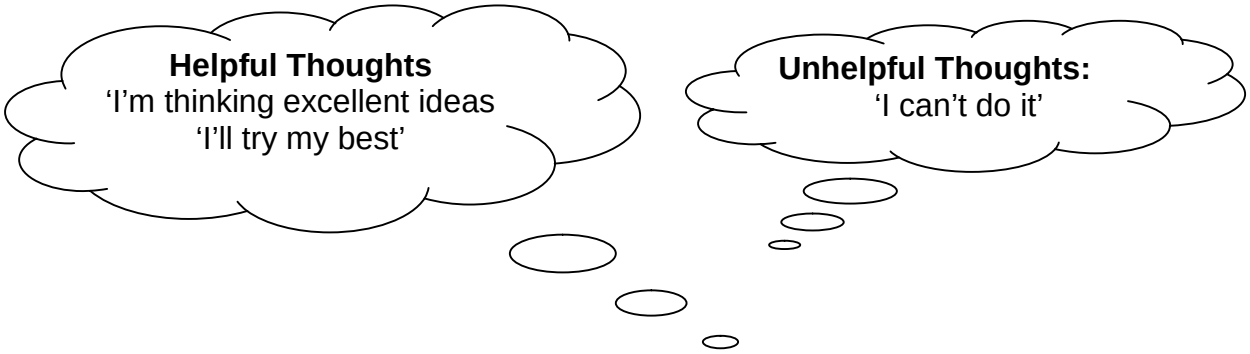
2. We looked at some faces showing different feelings and you told me about when you might have this feeling, how you can tell when you are feeling this way and what some other words are for the feeling.

3. We looked at lots of photographs of things that sometimes happen at school. We talked about what the person in the picture was doing, how they might be feeling, and what they might be thinking. We filled in some Magic Circles about your ideas.

4. We talked about imagining that there is a Tape Recorder inside our head recording all of our thoughts. Your task for this week was to try and catch some of your thoughts and write them down in your Magic Circle Diary.

What we did in our third session after the Half-Term Holiday

Mrs Green came to this session with you and we showed her all the things we had been working on. You told her all about the Magic Circle and we showed Mrs Green what it was all about using some more photographs of children doing their work in their classrooms. You imagined that it was you in the photograph and you told us what you might be thinking and feeling. We thought about which of your thoughts were Helpful Thoughts and which were Unhelpful Thoughts:



We also talked about some of the things you were thinking about moving up to Green Trees School in September.

We decided that you and Mrs Green would use the Magic Circles to write down how you were feeling after your trip to see Green Trees School on Friday.

What we did in our fourth session

1. We did another questionnaire to check out how you were feeling this week.

2. We looked at your 'Magic Circles' red book and read through all the Magic Circles you had been doing with Mrs Green. They were excellent, well done!

3. We looked for Helpful and Unhelpful thoughts and wrote them down. Then you rated the thoughts with stars – you gave 3 stars to really Helpful Thoughts and 0 stars or 1 star to Unhelpful Thoughts.

Helpful Thoughts
'I liked Green Trees School' ★★★
'There'll be lots of friends I know' ★★★
'I will see Jess' ★★★
'I will see my friends from Harry Taylor' ★★★

Unhelpful Thoughts:
'I might slip on the stairs' 0
'There will be lots of children' ★
'It's big' ★

4. We read the story of the Poisoned Parrot and thought about some 'Antidotes' that we could use when the Poisoned Parrot tells us our Unhelpful Thoughts. Some of the Antidotes you thought of were:

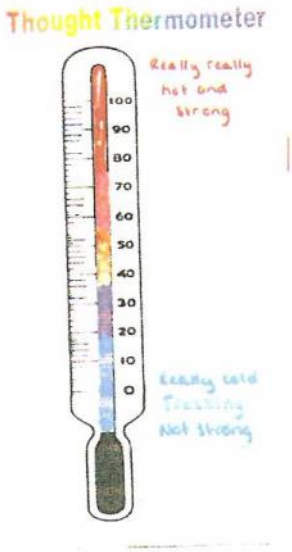
5. Then we looked at a list of thoughts, feelings and things we do and you decided whether each was a thought, a feeling, or something you do.

6. At the end of the session we went to show Mrs White your wonderful work on your Magic Circles. Mrs White was very pleased with your work. Me and Mrs White are both very proud of you for all your hard work.

Jane, 22nd June 2010

What we did in our fifth session

1. You used the Thought Thermometer and coloured it in. Then you rated how 'hot' and how 'cold' your thoughts were. You put really really strong thoughts at the 'hot' end of the Thermometer and the thoughts that were not that strong (not favourites of the Poisonous Parrot!) at the cold end of the Thermometer.



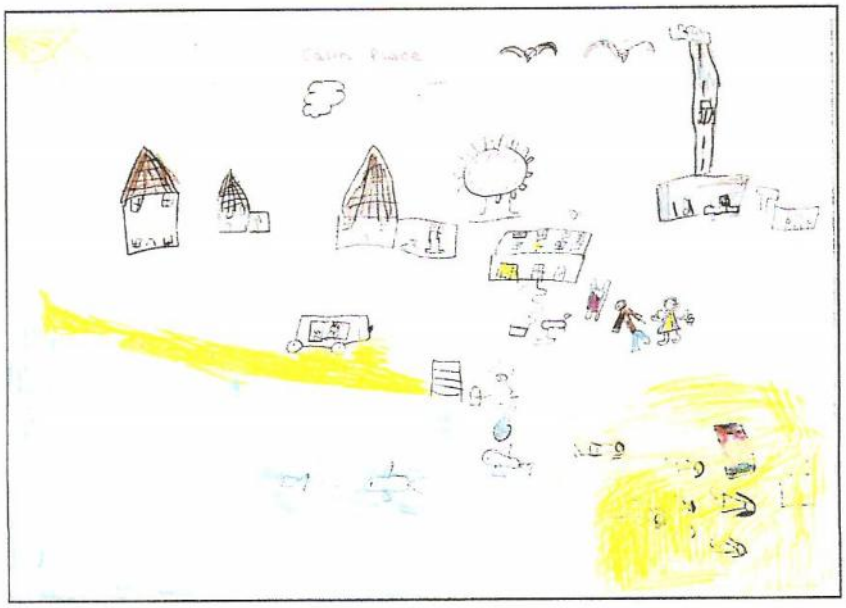
2. We did some more Magic Circles about how you are feeling about Green Trees School to go in your red 'Magic Circle' book.

3. We thought about which were Helpful Thoughts and which Helpful Thoughts would be good Antidotes for the Poisonous Parrot.

4. We put all your Helpful Thoughts in a 'Bank of Helpful Thoughts.'

5. We talked about how we could shut up that Poisonous Parrot and how we could turn off our Tape Recorder if it was beginning to sound like the Poisonous Parrot. You practised saying 'STOP!!!' to the Tape Recorder.

6. Then you thought of a really Calm Place that would help you to stop listening to the Poisonous Parrot and to switch off the Tape Recorder when it is telling you your Unhelpful Thoughts. You closed your eyes and imagined being in your Calm Place. In your Calm Place you are lying on a beach. You can hear birds, water crashing into the boats and the rocks, and people chatting on the beach and in the shops nearby. You feel warm and can feel the sun on your face. You can also feel a bit of wind on your face which makes you get really cool. There are some boats a bit far away from the beach. There are other people on the beach including your Nan, Mum, your friend your Grandad and some other people. You are feeling calm and chilled-out.



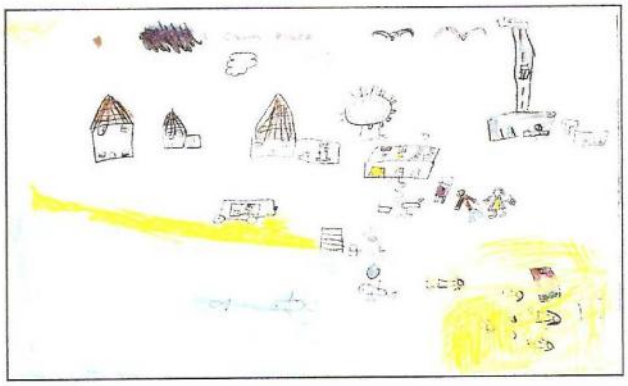
14th July 2010, Jane

What we did in our last session

In our last session you finished off your drawing of your Calm Place. It was brilliant.

We talked about all the things we had done and added some more Helpful Thoughts to your Helpful Thought Bank.

You decided that when you noticed your Unhelpful thoughts you would try and think of your Calm Place and imagine you were there.



You thought that when you were feeling calm you would try to think of your Helpful Thoughts instead.

You came up with an Action Plan for Middle School:

1. Telling the Tape Recorder to STOP when it's being unhelpful.
2. Just ignore the Tape Recorder when it's telling me unhelpful things.
3. Try thinking of my Calm Place when I feel worried.
4. Think of my helpful thoughts.
5. Using my happy and not happy faces to tell people how I am feeling (my Mum or my teacher).

22nd June 2010, Heather Webb, Educational Psychology Service

Ways for school to support s Cognitive Behaviour Therapy sessions:

1. Continued use of Magic Circle Diary to identify houghts and feelings associated with different activities wherever possible – this is working really well and we draw upon these in her sessions. For example; when she has done a really good piece of work, or when she is struggling with a piece of work, when she has fallen out with friends, when she has had a really good playtime etc… ould decorate this book and be encouraged to take ownership and complete it herself. She could be encouraged to take the book home too as long as it is brought back into school. Mrs nay be able to support to complete it at home too – I can speak to Mrs about this.

2. Use of the emotion faces laminated on a Key Ring to encourage to indicate to her supporting adult how she is feeling. It would be helpful if Mrs could continue work I have been doing on recognising each emotion as nly understood *happy* and *sad* when I began working with her. I have worksheets I can give to Mrs – one for each emotion face. This would involve getting o think about other words for the feeling and what it means, how our faces look when we feel this way, how our bodies react to this emotion (hot/cold, red face/pale face, heart rate, sweating, butterflies in stomach etc…), and when times are when feels like this. Magazine pictures could be used to cut and stick onto the sheets to represent either people demonstrating the emotion or places where feels this way.

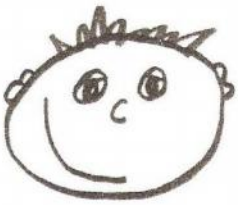
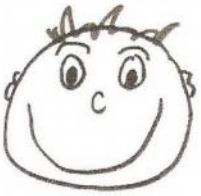
It would be great if Mrs could complete some more magic Circles with during / after some of the activities suggested above so that I can use them to identify helpful and unhelpful thoughts.

Please could also finish her picture of a Calm Place for next week?

Thank you.

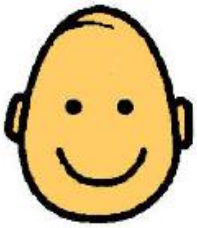
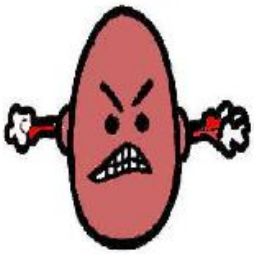
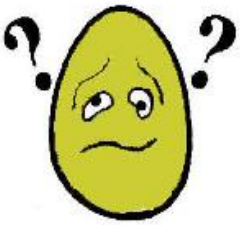
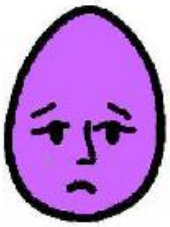
Appendix D: A visual rating scale for stress

Fill in your own Stress Scale

Level	Person, place or thing	Makes me feel like this:
5	Being sick, smelling breath, being touched, being in a group, working in a group in class.	This could make me lose control!!!! Really really worrying. Really Angry 
4	Someone looking at me, looking at someone, losing a game	This can really upset me. Really worrying Bit Angry 
3	Someone talking to me, Breaktime, Fire Drills, going to the toilet at school	This can make me feel nervous. Worrying 
2	walking to school, walking into the school building, Art, maths, Learning new things, Cleaning up, Showering, Cinema / show, zoo.	This sometimes bothers me. Not Sure 
1	English, Classrooms, looking at photos, cats computer time, not being first in line, being cold, horses, PE, bedtime, lunchroom, eating, sweets, leaving for school.	This never bothers me. Happy 

Appendix E: Cartoon emotions faces

What do I feel?

happy	sad	angry	scared
			
frustrated	confused	hurt	surprised
			

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Appendix F:

Pictorial metaphors such as the ‘Tape Recorder’

the ‘Poisoned Parrot’ and the ‘Antidote’

Imagine that there is a Tape Recorder inside
your head recording all your thoughts.

See if you can ‘catch’ some of your thoughts
this week and write them down in your
Thought Diary!

The Poisoned Parrot

Imagine you're given a parrot. This parrot is just a parrot - it doesn't have any knowledge, wisdom or insight. It's bird-brained after all. It recites things 'parrot fashion' – without any understanding or comprehension. It's a parrot.

However, this particular parrot is a poisoned and poisonous parrot. It's been specifically trained to be unhelpful to you, continuously commenting on you and your life, in a way that constantly puts you down, criticising you.

For example, the bus gets stuck in a traffic jam, and you arrive at work 5 minutes late. The parrot sits there saying: "There you go again. Late. You just can't manage to get there on time can you. So stupid. If you'd left the house and got the earlier bus you'd have arrived with loads of time to spare and the boss would be happy. But you? No way. Just can't do it. Useless. Waste of space. Absolutely pathetic!"

How long would you put up with this abuse before throwing a towel over the cage, or getting rid of the parrot?

Yet we can often put up with the thoughts from this internal bully for far too long. Decades. We hear that 'parrot', believe the 'parrot', and naturally get upset. That then affects the way we live our lives – the way be behave towards others, how we are, what we think about others, what we think about the world, and how we think and feel about ourselves.

We can learn to use the antidote: just notice that parrot, and cover the cage! "There's that parrot again. I don't have to listen to it – it's just a parrot". Then go and do something else. Put your focus of attention on something other than that parrot. This parrot is poison though, and it won't give up easily, so you'll need to keep using that antidote and be persistent in your practice!

Eventually it will get tired of the towel, tired of you not responding. You'll notice it less and less. It might just give up it's poison as your antidote overcomes it, or perhaps fly off to wherever poisoned parrots go.

Adapted from "The Malevolent Parrot" – source unknown

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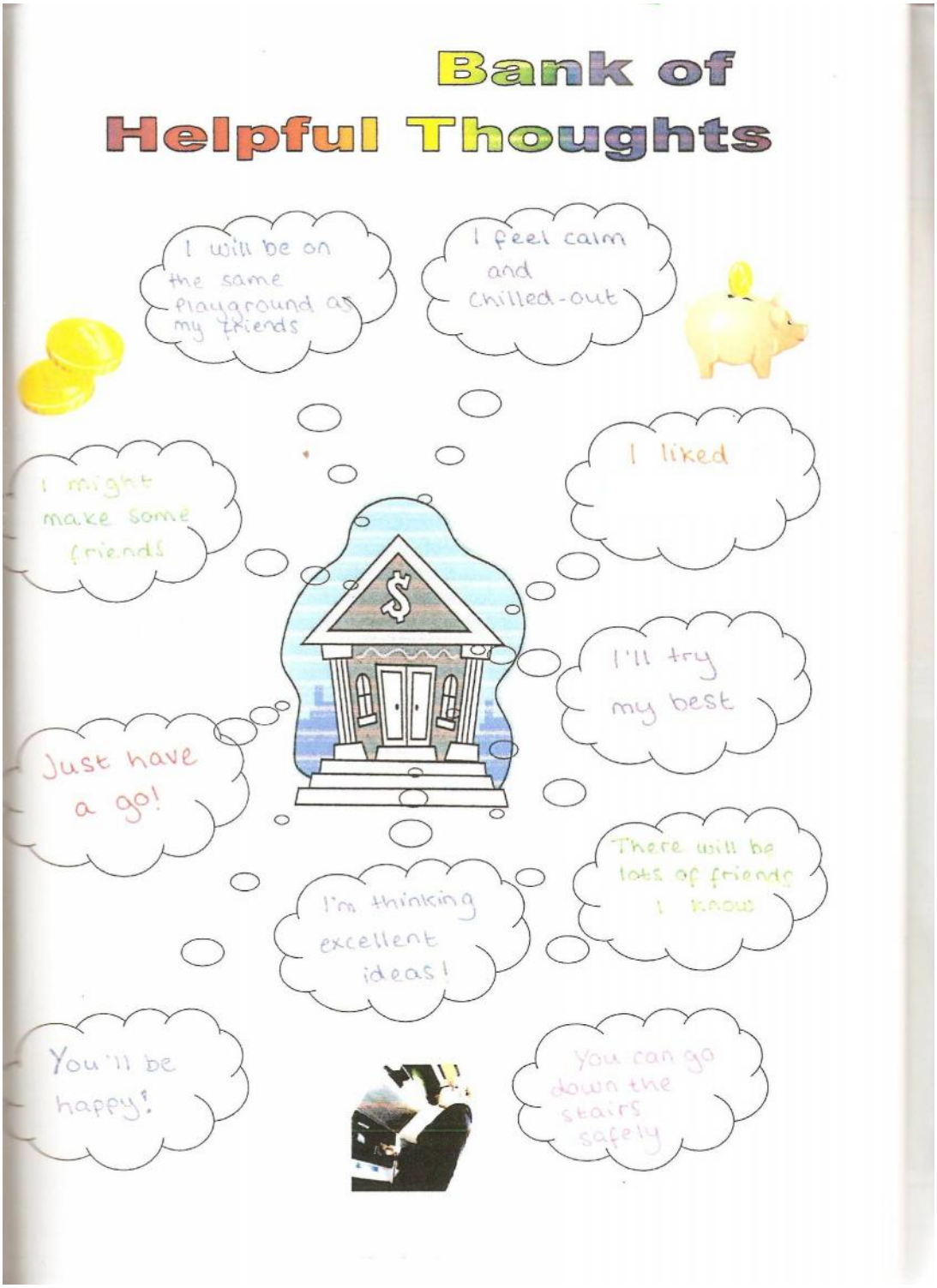
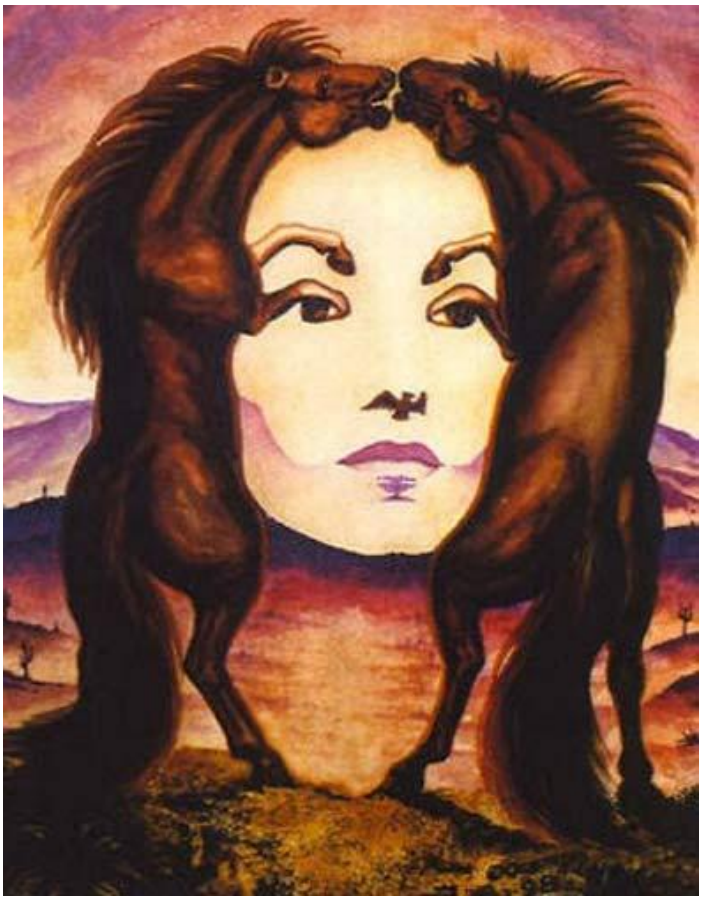
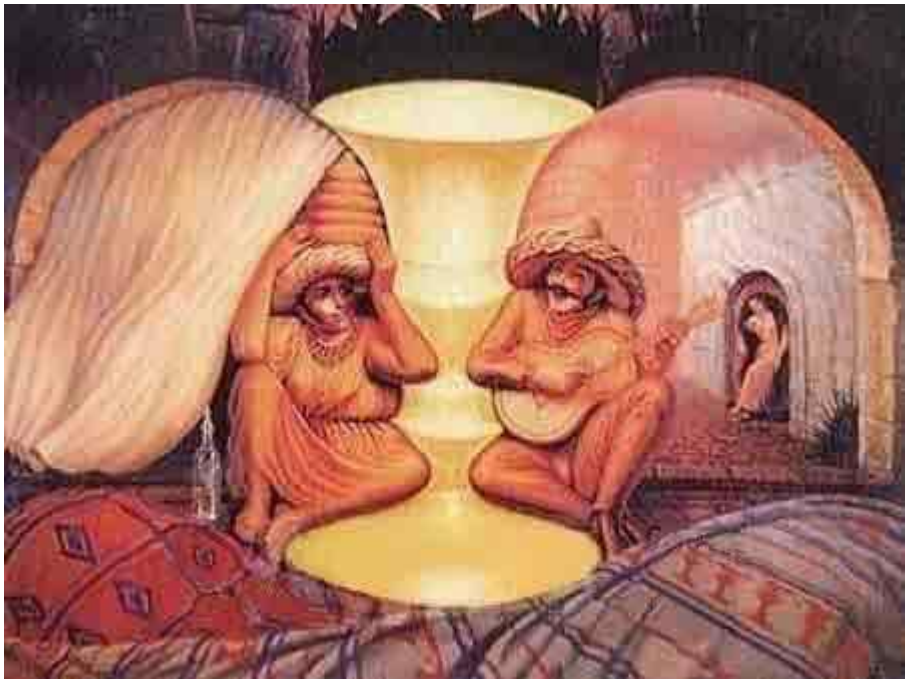
Appendix G: A 'Bank' to put in Helpful Thoughts



Appendix H:

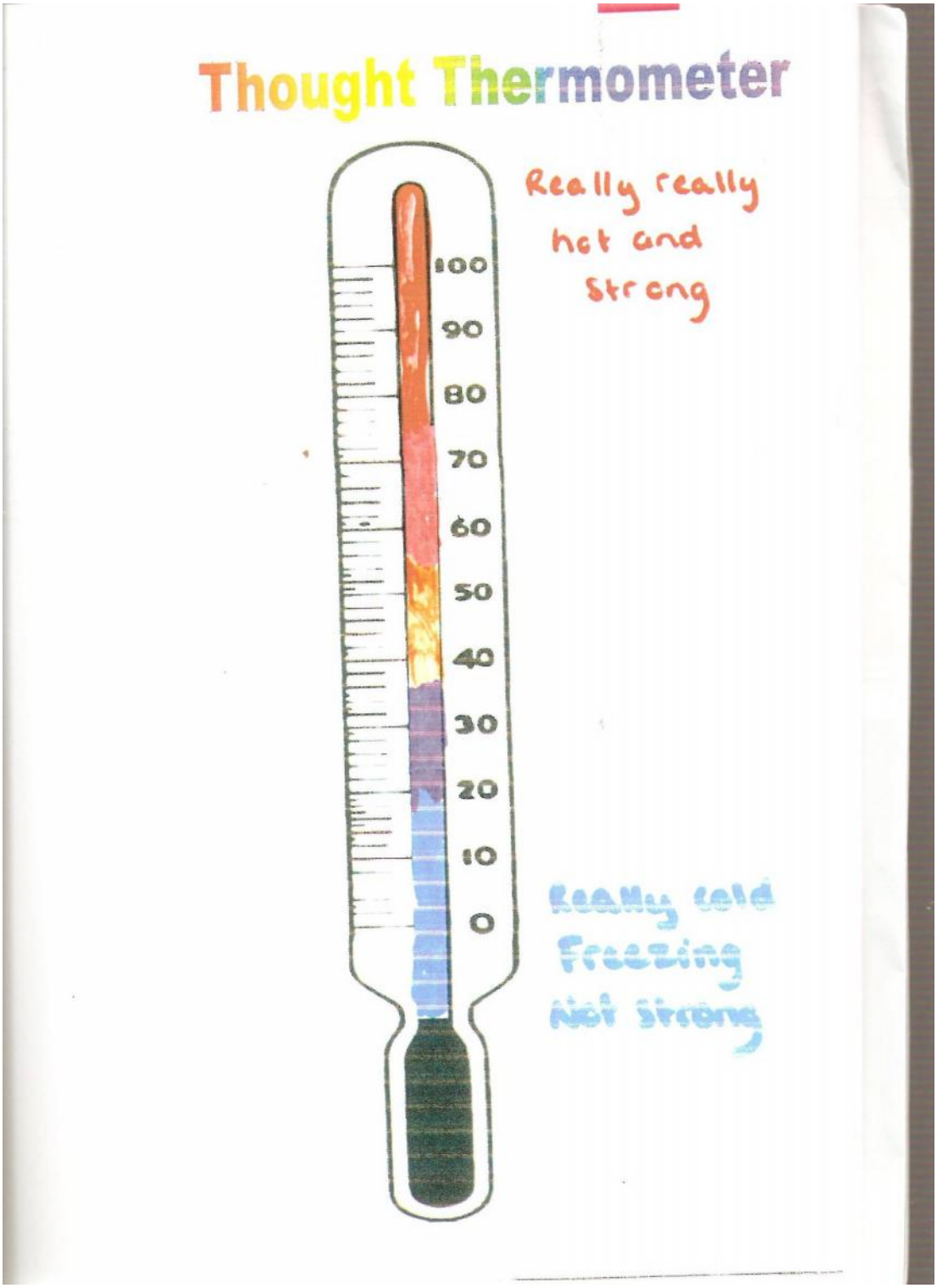
Visual illusions to consider different interpretations of situations



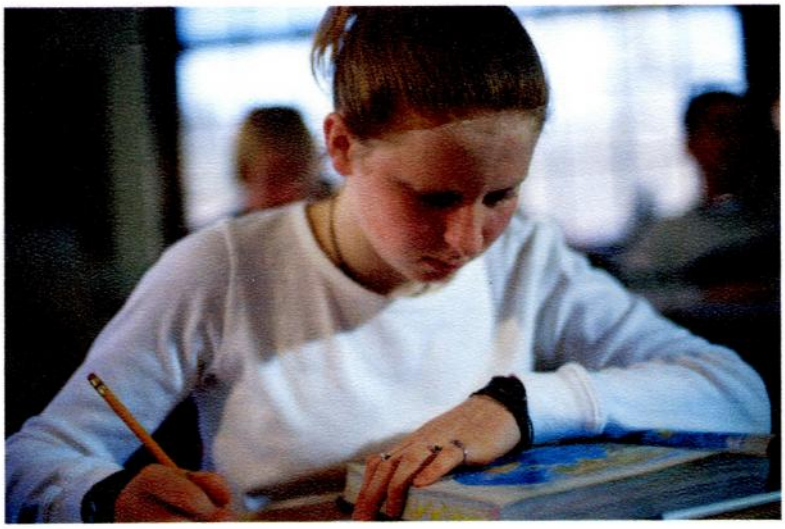


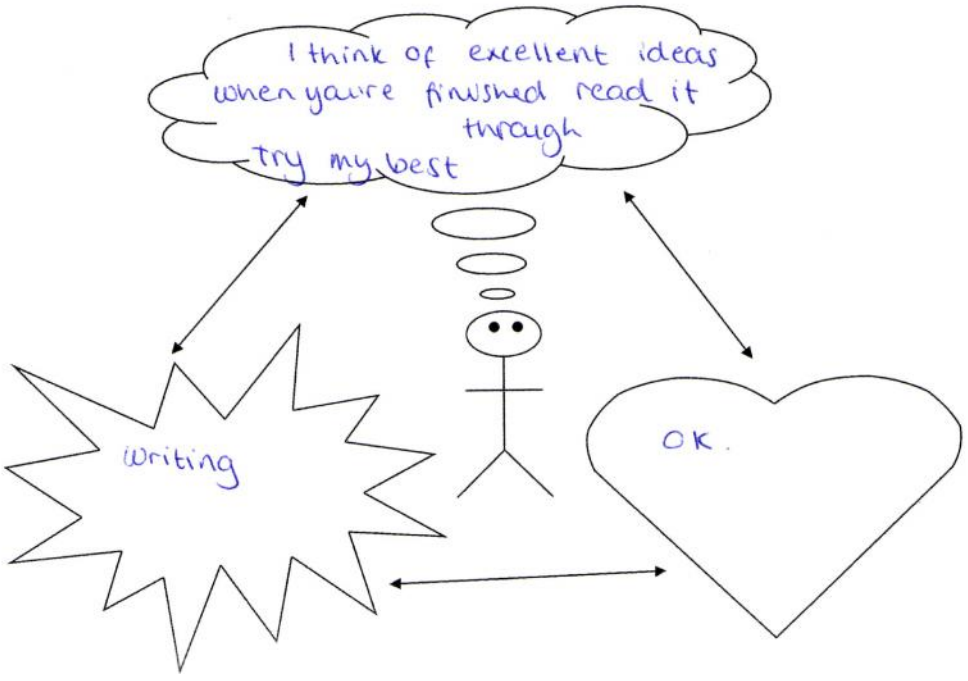
Appendix I:

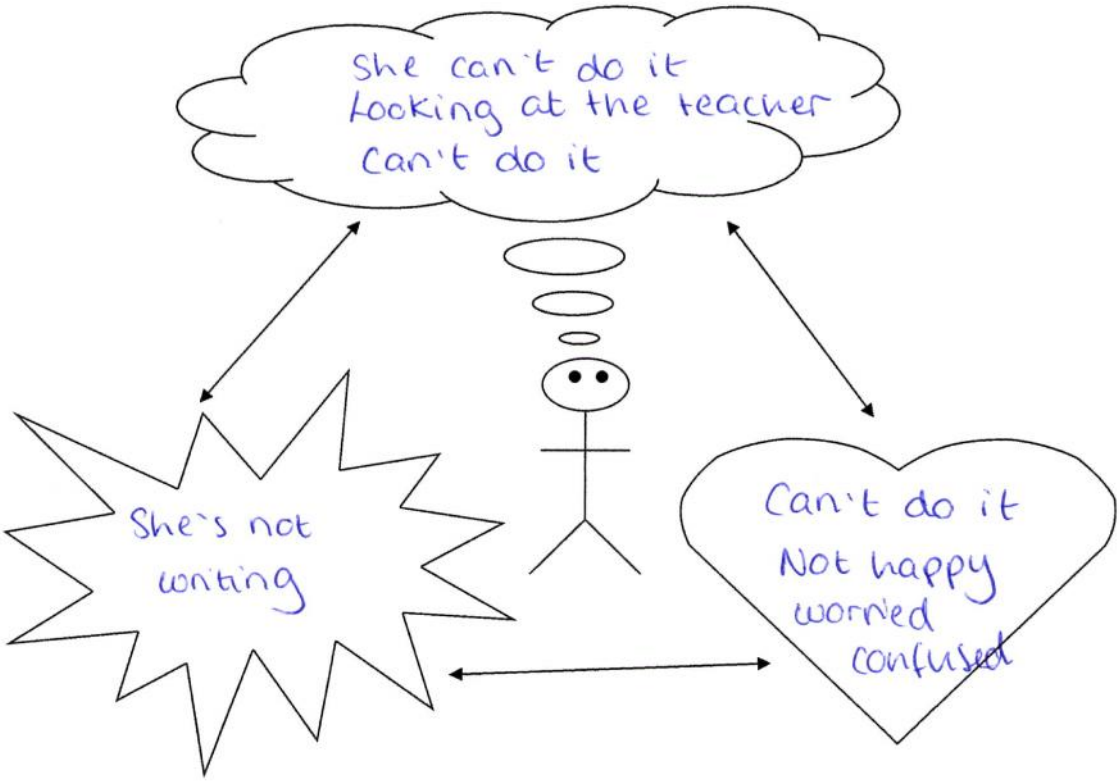
‘Thought Thermometer’ to identify ‘hot’ and ‘cold’ thoughts



Appendix J: Photographs of situations happening in primary school environments



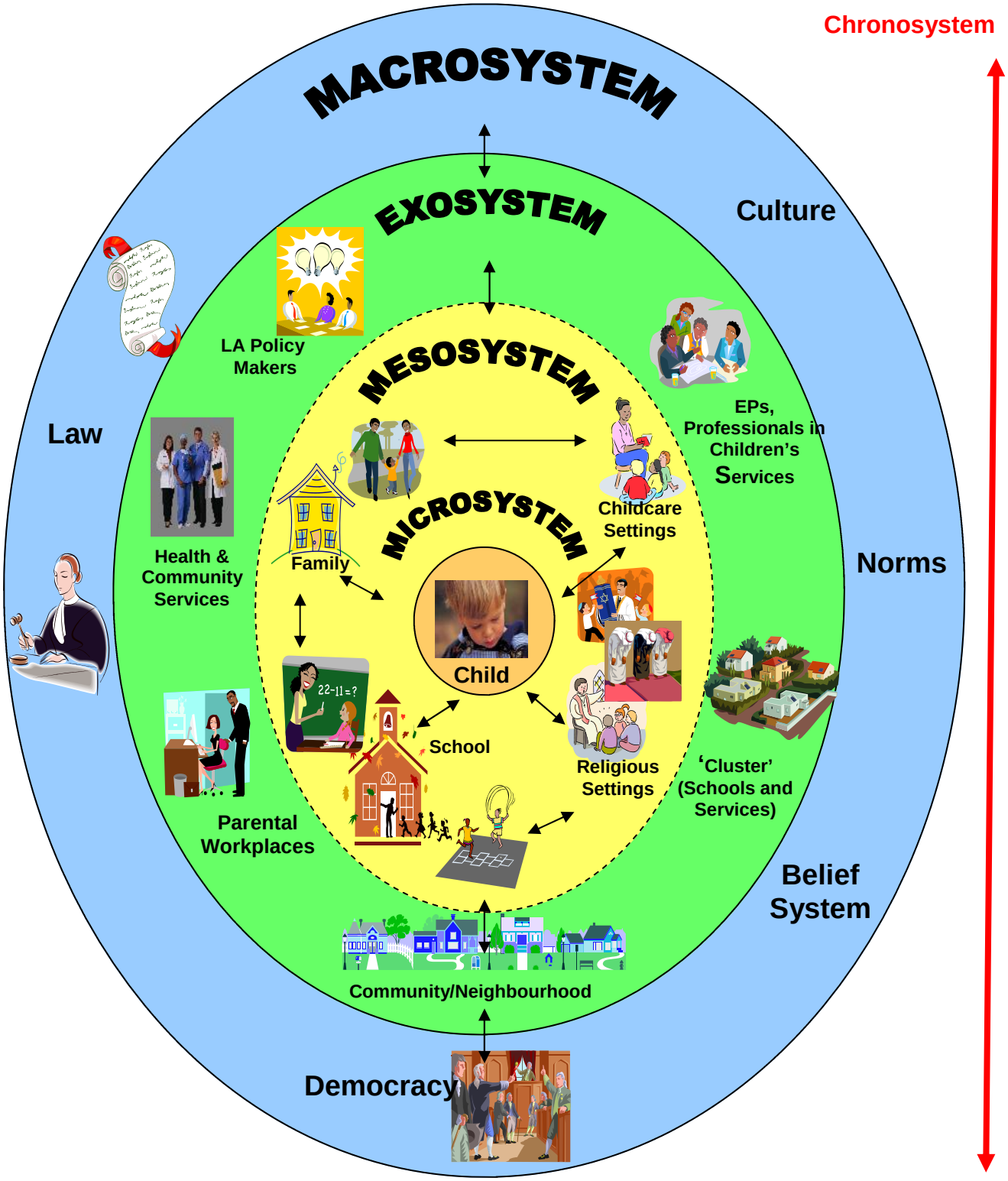



She can't do it
Looking at the teacher
Can't do it
She's not writing
Can't do it
Not happy
worried
confused

Appendix K: Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological Systems Theory (2005)

APPENDIX K: BRONFENBRENNER'S BIOECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS THEORY

(Adapted from Bronfenbrenner, 2005)



CHAPTER 4

Reconstructing educational psychology:

A case study in one Local Authority service of the changing role of the Educational Psychologist (EP)

Abstract

Since the time of Gillham's (1978) publication of '*Reconstructing Educational Psychology*,' there has been a recurrent theme of '*reconstruction,' 'refocusing'* and *'reformulation'* within educational psychology (Fallon et al, 2010; Stobie et al, 2002a). This study describes the change within one county's Educational Psychology Service (EPS) towards reconstructing the role of educational psychologists (EPs). This EPS changed their service delivery to schools by moving towards working more systemically and preventatively through providing opportunities for schools to 'bid' for EP-led projects. In this study a questionnaire method was employed to ask EPs in the service about their views, including asking them to conduct a SWOT analysis on their role in project work. The findings are considered in the context of Kurt Lewin's (1947) theory of social change, as a basis for exploring reconstruction of the role of the EP. The findings suggest that driving forces acting towards the change in EP role included the wider impact of this kind of work, working systemically with schools, using psychology, and working collaboratively with stakeholders. Building capacity in schools, and sharing psychology with others were also seen as fundamental aspects of the EP role in project work. EPs were coming to a shared understanding and way of doing things, and there was some consensus about the nature of their role, and where their team is currently located within the change process.

4.1 Introduction to the literature review

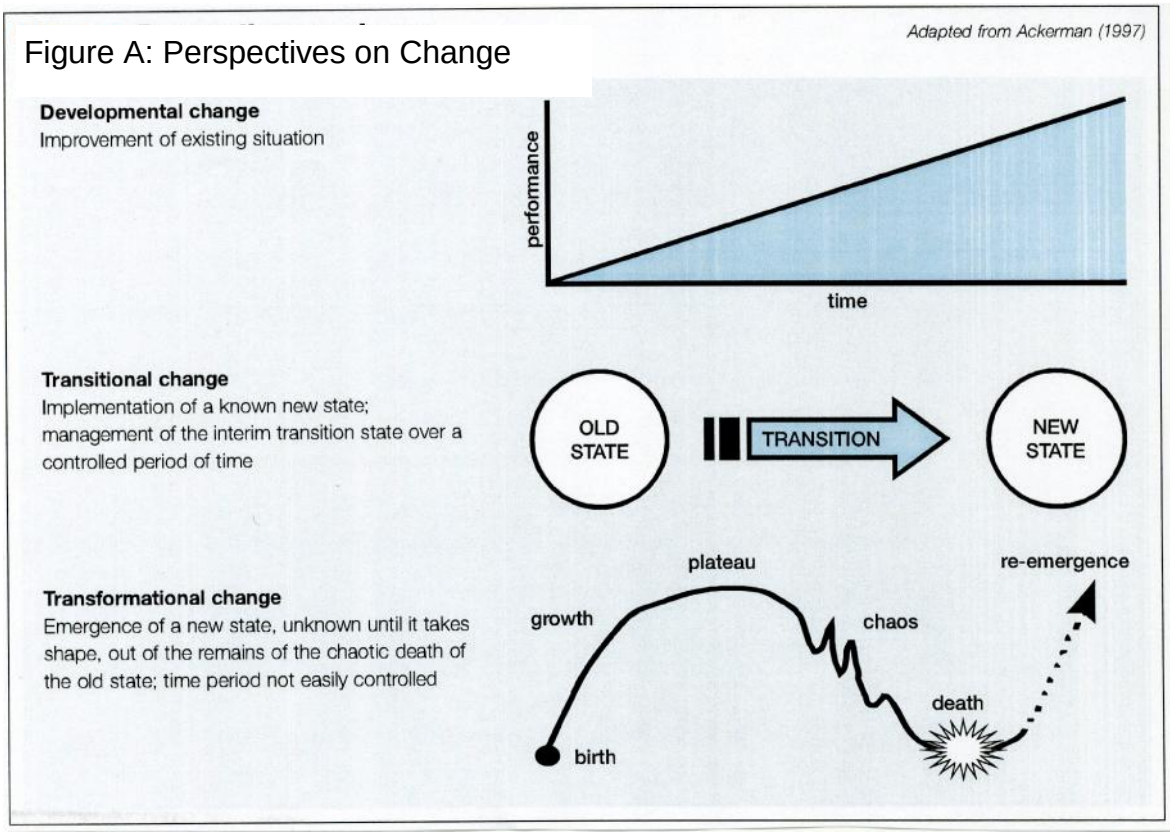
Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) was a social psychologist whose major contributions to understanding of social change processes (Burnes, 2004) will be utilised within this study to explore changes in the role of the educational psychologist. Lewin (1947) considered the way that organisations change and remain stable, and particularly the conditions that promote or inhibit these states of being. Lewin's three-stage model (unfreezing-moving to a new level-freezing), and his use of force-field analysis to explore the driving and inhibitory forces involved in change processes, will be explored in the next section (4.2). The use of the SWOT analysis tool to explore the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats impacting upon change in organisations, will also be considered in the context of this study (section 4.3).

Processes of change and continuity which have been apparent within the field of educational psychology since the 1950s will be explored (section 4.4). In particular, the impact of the reconstructing movement (Gillham, 1978) and the promotion of 'giving psychology away' through systemic working (Miller, 1969) (section 4.5). Factors which have been identified through research studies that impact upon change processes in EP practice will also be considered. The changing landscape of the role of EPs in statutory assessment processes in response to policy and legislation changes, and issues of professional identity will be discussed in relation to changes in EP practice (sections 4.6 and 4.7). Finally, Lewin's (1947) force-field analysis will be applied to the changes in EP practice, and the strengthening and inhibitory forces acting upon changes in EP role will be identified (section 4.8, Figure D).

4.2 Change theory

Ackerman (1997) distinguished between developmental, transitional and transformational change (Figure A). This exploration addresses transitional change because the EP service is seeking to achieve a new state that is different to the existing state, whereby project work is an integral part of the EP role. This change was a planned change. This kind of change has its origins founded in the work of Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) who completed many studies investigating social change.

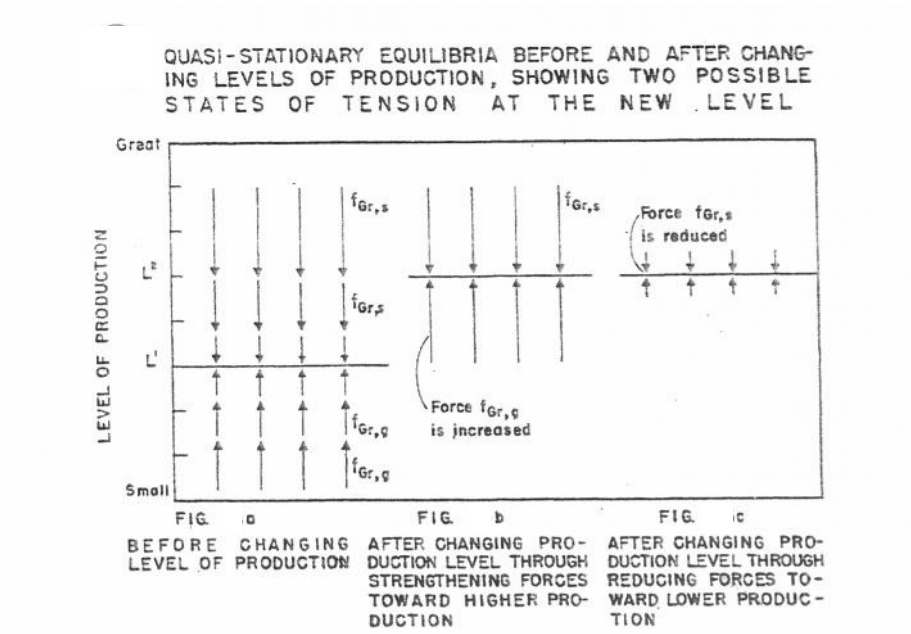
Figure A: Developmental, transitional and transformational change (adapted from Ackerman, 1997, by Iles and Sutherland, 2001; p.16)



Lewin (1947) believed that the conditions of social change and the conditions of social stability should be considered together because they are relative concepts. He theorised that to understand the stability of group life, it is necessary to relate the degree of constancy in the group to the strength of the forces acting towards or away from the current situation of the group. He therefore formulated a system of analysis to enable the social forces at work in a group setting to be represented. He represented the group and the setting of the group as a *social field* and explained that what happens within this social field is dependent upon the distribution of forces acting throughout the field.

Lewin (1947) defined the stability of the group as a *quasi-stationary equilibrium* and described the way that driving and restraining forces can equalise and may fluctuate around a particular state of equilibrium in a given activity. He viewed the present situation or *status quo* as being held in place by particular conditions or forces. Figure B demonstrates the way that greater productivity of an organisation can be achieved by either strengthening the driving forces or restraining the inhibitory forces. However, as indicated by the longer arrows, Lewin suggested that greater tension is experienced when the driving forces are increased, which leads to greater fatigue, greater aggressiveness, greater emotionality, and lower constructiveness. Lewin also noted that often adding a driving force leads to a counterforce being immediately produced in order to maintain the equilibrium. Schein (1996) highlighted that if the restraining forces are removed then equilibrium can be more easily altered because of existing driving forces.

Figure B: Changes in quasi-stationary equilibria leading to increased productivity. Taken from Lewin (1947), p. 27.



Lewin (1947) suggested that in order to bring about social change the social equilibrium needs to change and therefore the constellation of the whole of the social field must be considered. He noticed that change to a higher level of group performance is often short lived, with group life usually soon returning to the original level. Permanency of the change is therefore important. Lewin (1947) theorised that successful change involves the three aspects of unfreezing (when necessary), moving to the new level, and freezing group life on this new level. In order for the change to become permanent Lewin argued that a new force field must be relatively secure against changes.

Lewin's theory has been applied in many organisations to facilitate change processes and further evidence has supported Lewin's own findings that reducing the restraining forces acting upon a social field is likely to be more effective than increasing driving forces (such as Zand, 1995).

One of the major criticisms of Lewin's theory is that change in practice is more of a continuous and chaotic process involving discontinuous activities, surprising events and shifting goals, rather than being stable, controlled or orderly, and discretely linear or sequential as the *freeze-change-refreeze* model might seem to suggest (Dawson, 1994; Kanter et al, 1992; Garside, 1998; Hamlin et al, 2001; Iles and Sutherland, 2001). However, in some cases these interpretations of Lewin's theory involve a dilution of the theory and a rigid application of these three stages, which is not congruent with the theoretical foundations of this model. As Burnes (2004) argued; in fact Lewin viewed '*stability*' as quasi-stationary at best, and always in a fluid way where complex and dynamic forces act together to bring about the state of the group.

Lewin's (1947) theory has been perceived to be a top-down approach to change management which is not relevant to modern organisational cultures (Dawson, 1994). However, again if the underlying principles upon which his change theory is based are considered; Lewin believed in a gestalt approach whereby he was interested in how the parts of a group contributed to the whole *social field* and he emphasised the importance of members of the group agreeing upon new standards for change to be effective.

Further support for the continuing relevance of Lewin's field theory is provided by Elrod and Tippett's (2002) meta-analysis of change models encompassing a range of disciplines which concluded that contemporary models of change build upon Lewin's theory rather than diverge away from it.

In conclusion, although Lewin's contribution to change theory has been criticised extensively particularly during the 1980's, many of these criticisms are based upon an extremely narrow interpretation of his theory without consideration being given to the

underlying principles of field theory upon which his three-stage-model and force-field analysis have been based.

4.3 SWOT analysis

More recently, the SWOT analysis tool has been employed by organisations to promote consideration of the driving forces and inhibitory forces impacting upon change in organisations (Iles and Sutherland, 2001). This tool is therefore also considered in relation to this study. A SWOT analysis involves gathering information from stakeholders within organisations regarding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats apparent to that particular organisation in order to promote action. A key principle underpinning the SWOT analysis is that consideration must be given to both internal and external factors in planning change (Iles and Sutherland, 2001). As part of a programme of change in EPS', strengths must be identified, sustained and built upon; and the personal qualities, skills and techniques identified need to be fostered and promoted to schools (Stratford, 2000). Weaknesses can be understood as development and training needs; and training and preparation can therefore be introduced to reduce these (Stratford, 2000). An analysis of the opportunities available to the EPs is also crucial to develop sufficient opportunities for the new kinds of work to develop. Threats to EPs working in this new way are also important to consider in order to promote those strengths identified.

The SWOT analysis is one of the most widely implemented strategic planning tools across a broad range of sectors (Glaister and Falshaw, 1999). However, the approach has been criticized because it can often result in long lists of factors, meaningless and general descriptions, and does not have a mechanism for the prioritising of issues (Hill and Westbrook, 1997). For these reasons, Hill and Westbrook found that the generated

outputs from SWOT analyses were rarely utilised by companies. Therefore; this approach needs to be carefully employed with the desired end point kept in mind rather than a reliance on the process (Iles and Sutherland, 2001).

4.4 A brief history of the EP role

The inception of the EP role began with a focus upon helping to make decisions about which schools pupils should be placed in, in the early twentieth century. The role then broadened with a role within child guidance clinics with diagnosis and remediation. Child Guidance was reorganised following The Summerfield Report (DES, 1968) and the subsequent Education Act (DES, 1970), and this led to the development of separate Educational Psychology Services in 1974. The 1981 and 1993 Education Acts then had a dramatic influence upon EP practice, by affording EPs status in statutory assessment of children's special educational needs (SEN) (Fallon et al, 2010).

Stobie et al's (2002a) study of change and continuity in educational psychology describes a change in EP practice from a predominantly differential and individual psychology approach in the 1950s and 1960s, involving routinised psychometric testing based upon a diagnostic model of assessment and advice on educational placement. Later in the 1970s some child-focused therapies became a greater part of practice, and this progressed to a more varied practice in the 1990s with a mixture of traditional child-focused assessment and intervention, and consultation with school staff and parents which tended to be more systemically oriented. Problem-solving and solution-focused approaches were more frequently used which involved viewing the presenting difficulty as multi-factorial in origin, and therefore requiring intervention at different levels including the child, family, classroom, school or Local Authority (LA).

Fallon et al (2010) argue that there has been resulting role confusion from expectations on EPs to bring a pragmatic stance to scientifically conceived issues, brought to light particularly through EPs' role in contributing to decisions about school placement. There has been a recent move towards conceptualising the role of the EP as a '*scientist-practitioner'* (Lane & Corrie, 2006) which to some extent reconciles the pragmatic and scientific aspects of the role.

Fallon et al (2010) conclude that;

> *''EPs are fundamentally scientist-practitioners who utilise, for the benefit of children and young people (CYP), psychological skills, knowledge and understanding through the functions of consultation, assessment, intervention, research and training, at organisational, group or individual level across educational, community and care settings, with a variety of role partners''* (p.4).

4.5 The reconstructing movement

The desire to shift the balance of EP working towards proactive early intervention and prevention, and more systemic level working; as opposed to reactive assessment and support of individual children with SEN has been articulated since the time of Gillham (1978), and has more recently been described in working party reports during the last decade (DfEE, 2000; Farrell at al, 2006). In taking a systems perspective in EP practice, interventions are directed towards the system of which the child is part, rather than being directed towards the individual child (Kelly et al, 2008). Norwich (2005) describes a systemic model of working as focusing upon;

> *''…affecting organisational structures in schools to the benefit of all; targeting staff development; management and support of learning and behaviour; and altering peoples' values, belief and attitudes'' (p.2).*

Stobie et al (2002) provide a wider explanation; incorporating problem definition and intervention, real world research, and contributions to LA policies.

Macleod et al (2007) discuss the greater emphasis within a systemic approach on EPs sharing expertise with school staff in order to impact more broadly upon the difficulties facing educators. This idea of *giving psychology away* was initially promoted in the 1960s by George Miller in America (Miller, 1969) in order to use psychological knowledge to promote human welfare by working through ordinary people. Knoff (1997) described the best practice in EPs' organisational work with schools, and believed that the organisational change process EPs engage with should be focused upon primary and secondary prevention, and furnishing staff working in education with the skills to enable them to engage in tertiary prevention. The impact of *giving psychology away* in this way is that psychology is often built into the practices and resources which teachers, teaching assistants and other professionals are using, but the theoretical concepts upon which they are based are often unknown, hidden or ignored by those using them (Norwich, 2005).

Younger EPs in Stobie et al's (2002a) study referred to a *broad philosophical shift* which had been influenced by the *reconstructing movement* as well as other developments in psychology. Stobie et al described this move towards EP practice becoming more systemically conceptualised but highlighted that practice was highly varied and that therefore it was not possible to conclude that there had been a unified change in EP

practice. Table 1 describes factors which were identified as contributing to this variety in practice.

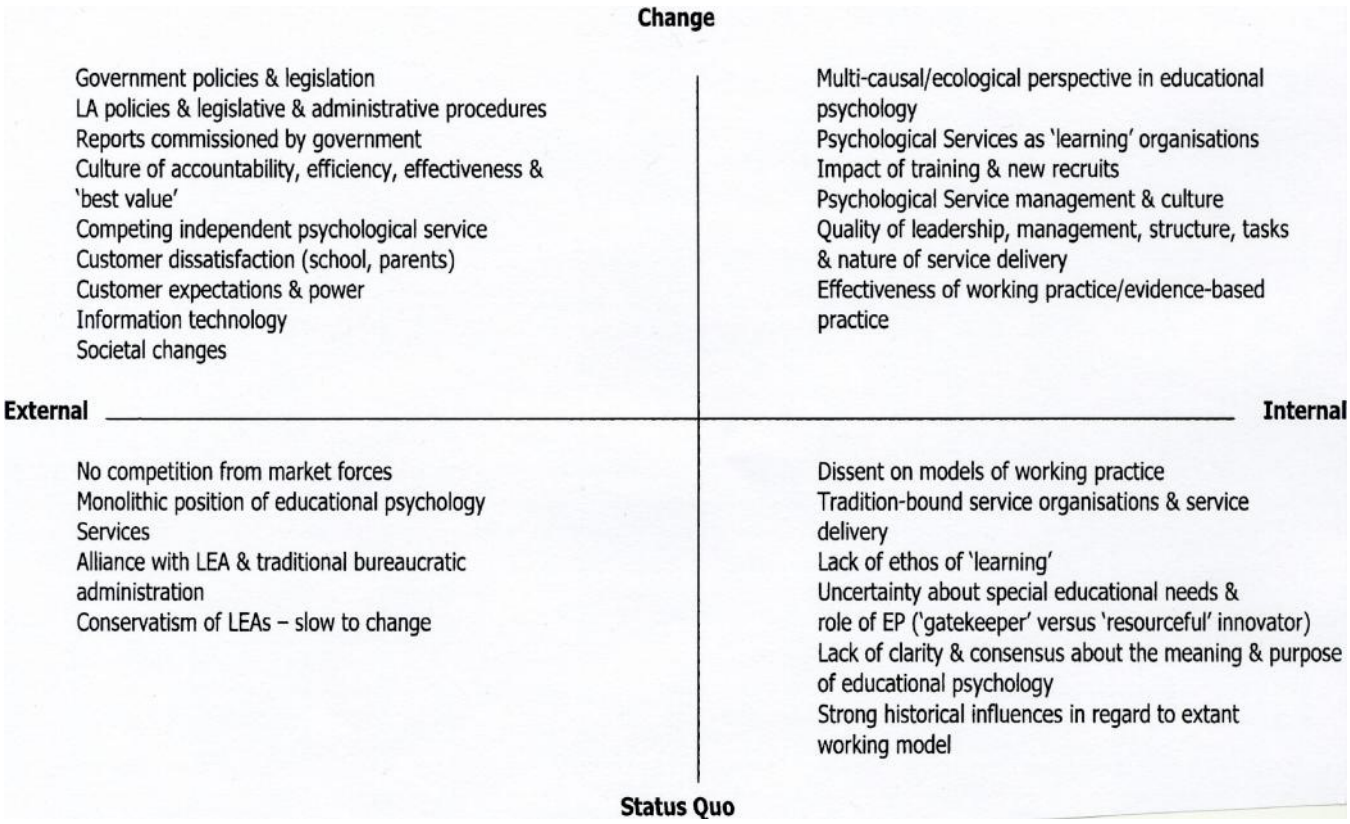
Table 1: Factors identified contributing to variety in EP practices

Factors contributing to varied EP practice **(Taken from Stobie et al, 2002a; p.222)**
Educational psychology service characteristics
Competency levels of individual EPs
Levels of interest and commitment by EPs
Expectations of and direction imposed by employing LEA
Consumer expectations (i.e. schools, parents)
Schools' definition and understanding of what the function of educational psychology is
Wider societal culture within which EPs operate; encouraging diverse practices but also being influenced by modern management concepts concerned with 'best value.'

Specific factors identified by Stobie at al that were perceived to be either contributing to change, or restraining change and contributing to maintenance of the status quo (preventing the unfreezing stage of change from beginning) from the mid 1970s to the mid 1990s are represented in Figure C.

Criteria for selection of participants in Stobie et al's study included a current or previous career in educational psychology, recommendations from other professionals, and having varying views on practice. A snowball sampling technique was utilised. The small sample and the biased nature of selection therefore severely limits the generalisability of the findings, but did however guarantee the researchers access to EPs with the knowledge and experiences that they required.

Figure C: External and internal factors contributing to change or maintenance of the 'status quo' in EP practice from the mid 1970s to the mid 1990s. Taken from Stobie et al, 2002a; p.228.



Stobie et al (2002b) undertook another study with 11 Educational Psychologists in Training (EPiTs) who had experience and practice in more than half of the Scottish psychological services, and in two English psychological services. Although this study represents the views of a small number of EPiTs; Stobie points out the advantage of investigating EP practice with a fresh interpretative and analytical stance without the biases attached from long-established working within the profession. Many of the themes identified with qualified EPs were also identified by these newer entrants to the profession. However, some new themes have emerged; represented in Table 2.

Table 2: Challenges and barriers to change identified by EPiTs (Stobie et al 2002b; p.247-256)

Challenges leading to change in educational psychology	**Barriers to an 'ecological educational psychology practice'**
Working within a supportive network where views and findings are exchanged	Lack of examination of the effectiveness and quality of service delivery
Working together with professionals from other disciplines to share and complement respective skills	Heavy case loads
Understanding and being concerned with the impact of change both within and outwith psychological services	A 'jack-of-all-trades' role
EPs taking on a practitioner-researcher role involving use of naturalistic research methods and contextual assessment	Lack of confidence of EPs
Promoting school effectiveness through empowering 'learning' communities (improvement, management and pupil support)	Lack of a pressure group/network/forum
Early intervention and prevention	
EPs being an evaluative consultants	
A professional code of ethical practice regarding inclusion, relevance of children's views, and parental rights and powers	

Stratford (2000) also collected information about the forces acting towards change and maintaining the status quo in EP practice with 75 self-selected EPs. Many themes recur, supporting Stobie et al's findings (2002a, 2002b). Additional forces identified which were acting towards change included EPs' knowledge of organisational processes, consultation skills, and pupil-focused input skills. Constraints identified included perceptions about SEN, and EPs' tendency to work with Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCos) who may not have sufficient status within schools. Stratford's study also suggested that EPs needed to be more confident and assertive in presenting a whole-school approach to schools. Making schools more aware of the gains from this kind of work, providing examples of successful work, and being able to work in pairs or larger groups with other psychologists to carry out collaborative training and research projects in schools were identified development needs.

4.6 The changing landscape of the EP role in statutory assessment

Farrell et al's review in 2006 on the functions and contribution of EPs found that a range of stakeholders (such as Headteachers, EPs, PEPs, other professionals and parents) viewed EPs' involvement in statutory assessment to be too heavy, which had prevented expansion of work into these other areas. However, Batten (2007), questions whether this research was politically neutral, and highlights the unrepresentative sample and low response rate in the study. Boyle and MacKay (2007) also found that schools in Scotland valued EPs involvement in strategic issues, but alongside their other work with the school.

The *Every Child Matters (ECM) Green Paper* (DfES, 2003) and the resulting legislation *The Children Act* (2004) presented a significant shift in focus for the whole of Children's

Services in its focus on early intervention and preventative work. Following this, government strategy also recognised the need to reduce reliance on SEN structures and processes in the 2004 *Removing Barriers to Achievement*. This legislation presented an opportunity for EPs to take advantage of the trend in reducing statutory assessments to expand and develop activities in other areas of their work where their skills and knowledge can be used to a greater effect; for example, in offering more systemic and preventative work in order to promote positive developmental outcomes for all children (Baxter and Frederickson; 2005, Farrell et al, 2006).The new Coalition government have recently called for views to inform a forthcoming Green Paper about children and young people with SEN and disabilities (September-October 2010), and the responses to this consultation also support a reduction in the bureaucratic elements of statutory assessment of children's SEN.

4.7 Professional identity

As Cameron pointed out in 2006 and is still just as relevant today; the practice of educational psychology is taking place in an ever-changing, complex and challenging context which makes professional confidence difficult for EPs to maintain. A lack in confidence in EPs' skills and competence in taking on a wider role, and a need for additional training has been articulated in many studies (DfEE, 2000; Kelly and Grey, 2000; Stobie et al, 2002). The move to three year doctoral level EP training in 2006 (from the 1 year masters level training previously in place) was hoped to furnish new entrants to the profession with the skills to take on a more strategic role (Cameron et al, 2008). A driving force for this change in training has been uncertainties regarding the status and function of EPs within the newly structured Children's Services (Booker, 2005), and a resulting crisis in professional identity (Cameron and Monsen, 2005).

Fallon et al (2010) argue that professional flexibility and adaptability in the way in which EPs apply psychology are now essential skills in order to respond to the changing functions of their role within the social and political context of public services. The reconstruction of educational psychology is perceived therefore as a continuous professional orientation.

4.8 A force-field analysis

A force-field analysis has been undertaken based upon this literature review which details the forces acting towards a reconstruction of EP role, and the forces resisting this reconstruction (Figure D).

Figure D: Forces acting on the reconstructing of the EP role based upon a review of the literature

DRIVING FORCES

Internal Factors: Strengths

- Psychology Services as **learning organisations**, EPs being concerned with the impact of change, working within a supportive network (Stobie et al, 2002a; Stobie et al, 2002b)
- A service culture aiming to **investigate the effectiveness** of its own practice (Baxster and Frederickson, 2005; Stobie et al, 2002a)
- Using the **knowledge base** within psychology (including research and theory) (Cameron, 2006; Stobie et al, 2002a)
- EPs becoming **'scientist-practitioners'** and using psychological frameworks for practice (Cameron 2006, Lane and Corrie, 2006)
- EPs taking on **a practitioner-researcher role** using their research skills, EPs acting as evaluative consultants (Stobie et al 2002b; Stratford 2000)
- Adopting **a psychological perspective** to human problems including use of a systemic perspective, an interactional and transactional perspective, and an organisational psychology perspective (Cameron, 2006; Fox, 2009; Stobie et al, 2002a; Stratford, 2000)
- EPs' working practice involving **working systemically** at varying levels within school organisations, involving parents and teachers in order to help a greater number of children (DfEE, 2000; Fallon et al; 2010; Farrell et al, 2006; Gillham, 1978; Norwich, 2005; Stobie et al, 2002a)
- EPs working together with professionals from other disciplines to **share and complement** respective skills (Stobie et al, 2002b)
- Promoting school effectiveness through **empowering** 'learning' communities and supporting the professional development of others, '**giving psychology away'** (Kay, 1972; Knoff, 1997; Miller,1964; Norwich, 2005; Stobie et al, 2002b)
- Use of **consultation skills** (e.g. collaborative problem-solving, empowerment of staff) (Cameron, 2006; Stobie et al, 2002b)
- Holding onto **psychological identity** (Fallon et al, 2010; Jensen et al, 2002)
- Use of **pupil-focused input skills** (e.g. behaviour management, emotional literacy, inclusion, social skills) (Stratford, 2000)
- **Interest and commitment of EPs** (Cameron, 2006; Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a).
- Professional **flexibility and adaptability** in the application of psychology (Fallon et al, 2010)
- Involvement of **customers** of the EP service in decision making (Baxster and Frederickson, 2005; Stobie et al, 2002a)
- Professional code of **ethical practice** (Stobie et al, 2002b)

External Factors: Opportunities

- **Government legislation**, policies and initiatives promoting early intervention and prevention, inclusion, reducing categorisation, and reducing bureaucracy (e.g. Baxster and Frederickson, 2005; ECM, 2003; Removing barriers to achievement, 2004; Stobie et al, 2002a; and forthcoming Green Paper on children and young people with special educational needs (SEN) and disabilities),
- Getting a **critical mass of support** for change (Jensen et al, 2002)
- The **'reconstructing movement'** (Fallon et al, 2010; Stobie et al, 2002a)
- **Postgraduate training** in educational psychology (Cameron et al, 2008; Stobie et al, 2002a)

Internal Factors: Weaknesses

- Management and leadership factors. **A clear vision** of how things should be and a desire to achieve this. (Jensen et al, 2002)
- Service **organisational structures** (Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a; Stratford, 2000)
- Lack of awareness of societal changes and the need for **proactive planning** and responding on the part of services (Fallon et al, 2010; Stobie et al, 2002a)
- An absent **ethos of 'learning'**, lack in **confidence in skills** needed for wider role, lack of **opportunity to update** knowledge and skills needed (DfEE, 2000; Jensen et al, 2002; Kelly and Grey, 2000; Stobie et al, 2002a,Stratford, 2000)
- Disproportionate amount of time spent on **statutory assessment**, detracting from more effective contributions (DfEE, 2000; Farrell et al; 2006; Stobie et al 2002a).
- Tradition-bound working practices; over-emphasis on work with **individual pupils** reducing opportunities to creatively problem-solve with schools and organisations (Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al; 2002a; Stobie et al, 2002b)
- EPs working with schools often at the **level of the SENCo** rather than at senior management level (Stratford, 2000)
- Lack of experience and **confidence to ask** or do something different and to change ways of working (Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a; Stobie et al, 2002b)
- Lack of **understanding in schools** of the EP role and the effectiveness of alternative ways of working (Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a; Stratford, 2000)
- Lack of **consensus** about what professional educational psychology is, highly varied EP practice (Farrell et al, 2006; Stobie et al, 2002a; 2002b)
- **Role confusion**; expectations on EPs to bring a pragmatic stance to scientifically conceived issues (Fallon et al, 2010)
- Lack of examination of the **effectiveness and quality** of service delivery (Baxster and Frederickson, 2005; Stobie et al, 2002b)
- Need for EPs to work **collaboratively** on training and research projects with other EPs (Stratford, 2000)

External Factors: Threats

- **LA employment status and LA expectations**; increased LA 'control' and less 'independent practitioner status' (Stobie et al, 2002a; Stratford, 2000)
- Conservatism and **slowness to change of LAs** (Stobie et al, 2002a; Stobie et al 2002b)
- Linking of SEN assessment with resources; **'gate-keeping' role** in terms of educational resources (Stobie et al, 2002a; Stratford, 2000)

RESISTING FORCES

DESIRED STATE

CURRENT STATE

4.9 The case study EPS

A new model of working through *projects* was introduced within this case study EPS to complement the established model of EP working, which was based in the main upon EPs agreeing a number of pupil referrals at the beginning of school terms (although some EPs were negotiating some project-type work before the new model was introduced, such as offering training opportunities). It was anticipated that projects should be collaborative, impact on a wider audience, and support organisational change. The aim was for EPs to begin to have a greater emphasis in their work upon working systemically with schools, organisations and communities in order to become more time-effective, more preventative and to impact more at a systemic level.

Project work involves EPs working either independently or in pairs or groups to respond to issues of priority in individual schools, school clusters or communities. Project work was intended to support initiatives identified in school development plans, provision maps or community issues impacting upon children and young people. In order to create time for EPs to undertake project work, the time allocated to each school was 'top-sliced' by a fifth, and this 'top-sliced' time was then pooled in order to create time to undertake project work. For example; a school allocated 29 hours of EP time a year would have 23 hours for casework and 6 hours for project work. Table 3 describes some examples of EP projects.

Table 3: EP Projects

Examples of Project Work
Supporting the development of Nurture Groups
Developing the role of Emotional Coaches within a school
Training and support for anger management groups

Developing resilience of vulnerable pupils
Cognitive Behaviour Therapy for groups of pupils struggling with exam anxiety
Anti-bullying work
Introducing Social Stories
Parent groups e.g. for ADHD and managing behaviour
Developing a peer mentoring programme
Promoting social inclusion of pupils through whole-class Circle of Friends interventions
Developing small-group interventions for pupils with social and emotional needs
Training on behaviour management, Restorative Justice approaches, attachment, dyslexia, Precision Teaching, literacy interventions, awareness of Autism Spectrum Conditions, and emotional literacy
A project addressing playground/lunchtime environment and behaviour, developing adult skills and interactions with children
Developing numeracy interventions
Building capacity to identify and assess specific learning difficulties
Providing group supervision for staff
Research projects including investigating behaviour management approaches and conducting an Appreciative Enquiry

4.10 Methodology

This section will consider the epistemological stance assumed in this research study, the method employed, the procedure, the sample of participants, and the process of analysing the results.

4.10.1 Epistemological position

An interpretive epistemological stance was adopted in this study because I sought to interpret a social context (relating to the EPS being investigated), and to derive meaning from this. I sought to understand the perspectives of the EPs in this study, and for this reason my questionnaire contained qualitative, open-ended questions. I was not seeking to generalise, predict or control (as a positivist stance might have sought to achieve), but rather to develop an understanding of this particular social context. Indeed, as argued by Godamer (1975), a positivist approach to social research is inappropriate because the researcher's understanding of the research object (the participants or EPs in this study), is inherently biased. This is because the researcher must interpret and project meaning in order to approach the object, and interprets the object from their perspective within history, culture and society. Godamer (1975) contends that the objective positivist approach would not be appropriate in social research because it is through the interaction between the researcher's own interpretive framework and the research object, that knowledge advances.

4.10.2 Method

Given the size of the geographical area covered by this shire county, the nature of EPs' limited availability, and the time limitations facing the researcher, it was decided that a questionnaire would be the most appropriate method because it allowed a greater number of EPs' views to be included in the study than would have been possible otherwise, and therefore a greater breadth of information to be gathered. This method also allowed a rapid analysis of the findings.

However, Robson (2002) highlights issues with questionnaires or surveys including difficulties with internal validity (where valid information is not gained relating to participants' true feelings, thoughts and behaviours). There was no guarantee that participants were honest in their answers, particularly as the researcher is also a work colleague which may have influenced the information given (there may have been a social desirability response bias; Robson, 2002). A poor relationship between participant attitudes and their behaviours has also been identified as a difficulty with questionnaire methods (Hanson, 1980). In an ideal study, the questionnaires would have been supplemented by analysis of evaluation data from the project work, and observations of EPs' involvement in project work. This would have allowed me to triangulate information gathered through a mixed-method design, in order to ensure that the information gained through the questionnaires was consistent with what was happening 'on the ground' in EP practice. This was beyond the scope of this study due to practical and time constraints.

Mishler (1991) also warns against the decontextualisation of the meaning of participants' responses, and the inter-related problems of discourse, context and meaning. This is a significant disadvantage in questionnaires, because the researcher interprets the responses away from the context in which the responses are relevant, and has no means to follow up on participants' responses. In an ideal study, interviews would have supplemented the use of questionnaires to enable greater exploration of the meaning of participants' responses. This would have also been more in line with an interpretive approach because it would have enabled the development of a more insightful understanding of participants' perspectives. However, in this study questionnaires allowed the optimal exploration of participants' perspectives as was possible within the practical and time constraints acting upon the researcher.

Robson (2002) highlighted difficulties in securing a sufficient degree of participant involvement through questionnaire methods (which can be related to the design of the questionnaire). I aimed to improve upon the degree of involvement of participants by making the questionnaire attractive and colourful in design in order to attract and maintain attention. I also carefully designed the questionnaire to be straightforward and clear to complete, without being too lengthy. I also allowed time to send out reminders to complete the questionnaire on two occasions, which also improved the involvement of participants.

Robson (2002) also describes difficulties in generalising from questionnaires if there is a limited sample. This study did not seek to generalise to other settings, but rather to understand and interpret the social context of this particular EPS. However, it should be recognised that there were only 5 participants from Team A and 7 participants from Team B, which does create some bias in the sample towards Team B participants. However, reliability of responses was good in this study due to the standardised questions in the questionnaires. Questionnaires also enable 'useable knowledge' to be obtained which can be influential (Lindblom and Cohen, 1979), and the methods and procedures are more transparent and accessible to others than in other designs involving interviewing for example (Hakim, 1987).

4.10.3 Procedure

A questionnaire was emailed to all the EPs in the case study EPS in July 2010, and then subsequently reminder emails were sent out again in October 2010 and December 2010. Responses could be in electronic or paper format. The questionnaire is included in Appendix A. Greater anonymity of EPs was also enabled by using this approach, should

they have wished to respond in paper form rather than email (one respondent utilised this format).

Altogether 11 Educational Psychologists responded to the questionnaire (2 of whom were in their first year of being qualified) and 1 Trainee Educational Psychologist. 5 respondents were from Team A who had been implementing the new way of working for over 2 years, and 7 respondents were from Team B who had been implementing the new way of working for 1 year. Thematic analysis was applied to the data following the 6 steps of Braun and Clarke (2006) represented in Table 4. An example of the coding of responses is included in Appendix B.

Table 4: Phases of thematic analysis. Taken from Braun and Clarke, 2006; p. 87.

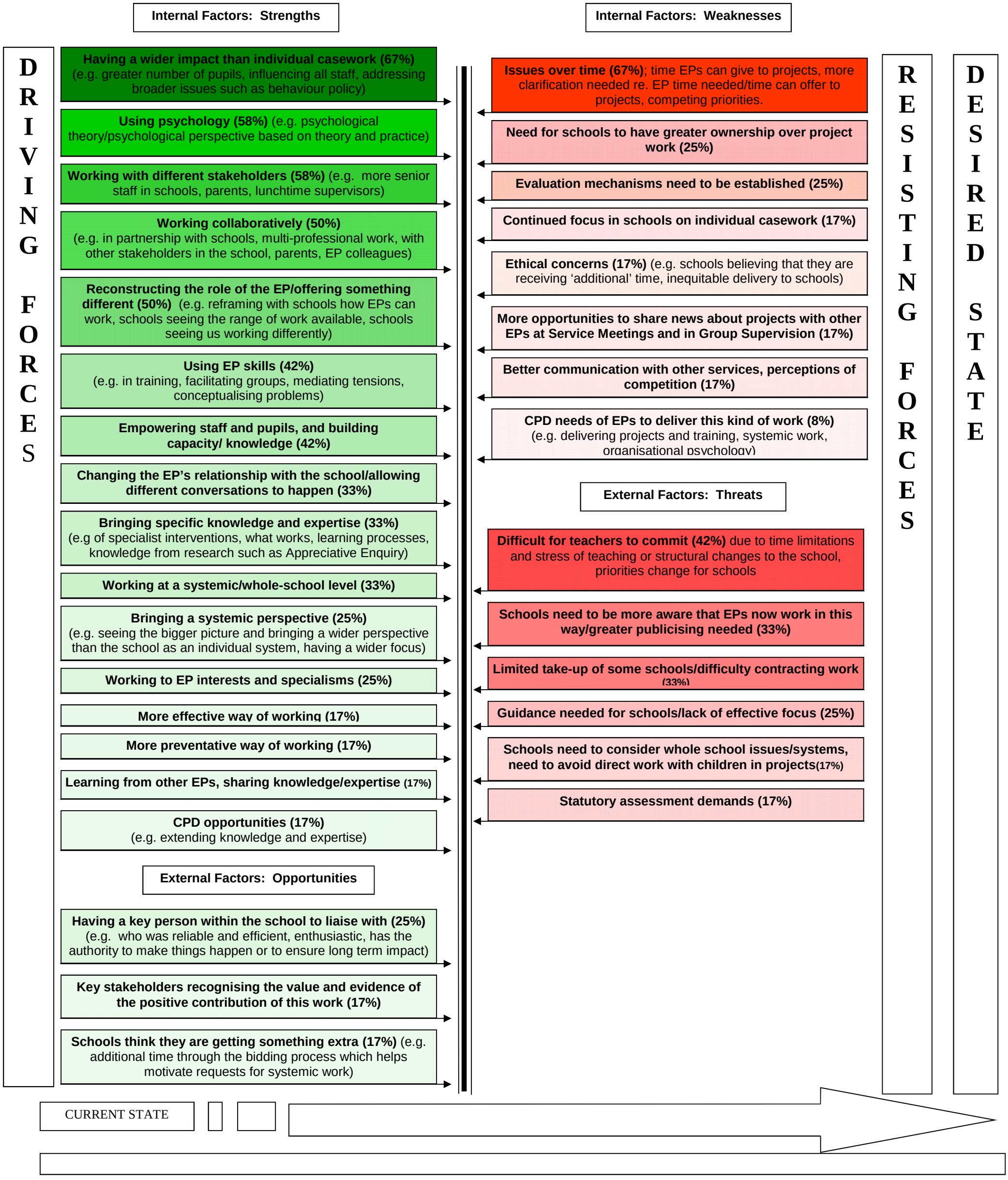
Phase	**Description of the process**
1. Familiarising yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the whole data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.

6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

4.11 Results

The findings of the SWOT analysis are represented in a force field analysis (Figure E; adapted from Lewin, 1951). The percentage of respondents who referred to that particular theme is indicated in brackets, and the darker the shade of the arrow; the more respondents referred to this theme.

Figure E: Force field analysis of the forces acting upon the change in EP role



4.11.1 Introduction to the results

Key themes identified which were driving forces towards change (strengths and opportunities) and resisting forces acting against change (weaknesses and threats) will be discussed (sections 4.11.2 - 4.11.3), including examples of questionnaire responses relating to the identification of these themes. The ways in which EPs felt that their role had changed, and the level of prevention at which they were working will then be explored (sections 4.11.4 - 4.11.5). The following sections will consider the issue of 'giving psychology away' in systemic working as promoted by Miller (1969) in relation to the practice within this EP service (4.11.6), the impact of project work upon the psychological perspectives which EPs utilised (4.11.7), and finally where these EPs felt that their team was located in terms of Lewin's (1947) three-stage model of change (4.11.8). The findings from this study will then be discussed in relation to change theory (Lewin, 1947), and the wider research literature relating to change in EP services. A force-field analysis will be described indicating those forces which were either strengthened or reduced within this particular EP context (section 4.12).

4.11.2 Strengths and opportunities

A clear theme emerged in the strengths and opportunities identified by EPs around the wider impact of systemic and whole-school work. An example of a comment relating to this theme is;

> *''It felt more effective as I was implementing change at a systemic level, therefore delivering to more children''* (Participant D, Team B).

Another key theme was that EPs felt that their strength was their ability to apply psychology based upon theory and practice through project work.

The benefits were highlighted of being able to work more collaboratively with other EPs and with different stakeholders who may hold more power and status within the school, or may be able to affect change at different levels within the school system. Some EPs referred to the difference in their relationship with the school that project work had brought, and the opportunity to have different conversations to affect change. For example;

> *''Projects allow EPs to have completely different conversations with schools and often with more senior managers who want to be involved''* (Participant D, Team A).

The gradual changing of schools' perceptions of the EP role and the value of working in this way was referred to by half of the EPs in the sample. For example;

> *''An emerging reframing with schools as to how EPs can work beyond casework''* (Participant D, Team A).

EPs also referred to the opportunity that project work had brought to use their skills more effectively, and to apply their distinctive psychological skills, knowledge and expertise which they felt there had been fewer opportunities to apply in a casework-only model, and to apply these skills to build capacity within schools. EPs also valued the chance to develop their interests and specialisms and to use the projects as CPD opportunities.

The importance of the commitment and capacity of the stakeholders in the project within the school setting, their understanding of the positive contribution of working in this different way, and the way in which project work was being framed in conversations with

schools, were also seen as important factors by some EPs in take-up of this model of working.

4.11.3 Weaknesses and threats

The main weakness identified by the majority of the respondents related to issues around the time that EPs needed to give to project work and the 'time pot' that this time should come from. The need for greater clarification about the time available to offer towards projects and the preparation time needed was articulated by some EPs. For example;

> *''Time – in order to contract, complete and evaluate a project well, more than 20% top-sliced time is required''* (Participant B, Team B).

The demands of statutory assessment work were also raised;

> *''Statutory assessment demands took up a large majority of time, which reduced the chances of project work in some schools''* (Participant A, Team B).

Ethical concerns relating to the equity of the time that schools are receiving from EPs for this work, and schools thinking that it is additional time that they are receiving for this work, were also highlighted. Schools were not seen to be taking the lead in negotiating project work in some cases, and some referred to a continuing focus upon work with individual children which did not support project working.

Some EPs felt that evaluation mechanisms needed to be more firmly established. Several EPs identified development needs in order to take on this wider role such as developing

EPs' skills in delivering training, developing knowledge and understanding of systemic work and organisational psychology, and sharing examples of practice with colleagues in a formalised way. A few EPs also referred to the need for improved communication with other services to maintain relationships and to avoid resistance and perceptions of competition from other services.

The most common external threat identified was the commitment of members of staff in schools to the project. For example;

> *''The schools were too stressed or going through a lot of structural changes to be able to focus on thinking about a project''*
>
> (Participant D, Team B).

Another threat related to schools' awareness of what project work entails, the need for schools to consider systemic issues, and the need to publicise this work better.

4.11.4 The impact upon perceptions of role as an EP

The majority of EPs felt that their perception of their role as an EP had changed somewhat, with some EPs describing their new role as involving working more systemically, and some articulating a role involving work at different levels beyond working with the individual child. Table 5 represents responses to this question.

Table 5: Changes in perceptions of role

Have the recent changes in service delivery had an impact upon the way in which you perceive your role as an EP?	Percentage of respondents
Perception of role has changed	75%
Perception of role has not changed	25%
Viewing role as involving work at a systemic level	42%
Having a wider role than individual casework (e.g. working at different levels not just at an individual level)	25%
Involvement in preventative working	17%
Greater opportunity to apply skills and knowledge	17%

4.11.5 Preventative working

A third of the EPs that responded felt that they were impacting upon all three levels of prevention; just under half indicated however that the main impact was at the level of primary prevention (in line with a more systemic model of working), and only one EP indicated that another level was the main focus of their work, which was secondary prevention.

Table 6: Level of prevention project work is targeting

Do you feel that through the project work you have been engaged in you have been able to focus on: **a) primary prevention** (e.g. cross-curricular work/modifying whole-school environment to intervene prior to problem occurring); **b) secondary prevention** (e.g. groupwork to help targeted pupils/intervention carried out when problems are in the early stages before becoming severe); **or** **c) tertiary prevention** (e.g. individual pupils needing intervention to prevent difficulties from getting worse)**?**	Percentage of respondents
All 3	33%
Mainly primary	42%
Mainly secondary	8%
Mainly primary and secondary	25%

4.11.6 'Giving psychology away'

A third of EPs thought that 'giving psychology away' was a positive aspect to EP work, and two EPs disagreed. For example;

"...has led to other professionals trying to take over our role but diluting the psychological underpinnings" (Participant G, Team B)

A third of participants felt that psychology was shared rather than '*given away'* and two EPs indicated that their expertise was still needed in these instances.

Table 7: The losses and gains of giving psychology away

Do you feel that you are 'giving psychology away' as part of your role in project work? Do you feel that this is a loss or a gain?	Percentage of respondents
Gain	33%
Loss	17%
We are 'sharing psychology' rather than giving it away	25%
The EP is still needed (e.g. assessment and understanding of particular situations and when to apply which part of psychology; in order for things to be applied appropriately or to make it work)	17%

4.11.7 Impact on psychological perspectives utilised

Most EPs felt that the change to project work had impacted upon the perspectives that they were employing in their practice, through either widening their perspectives, or more specifically taking either a systemic or organisational psychology perspective.

Table 8: Psychological perspectives utilised by EPs

Do you feel that the changes in your role have had any impact upon the psychological perspectives that you are using during your work? If so, in what way?	Percentage of respondents
Yes	67%
No	25%
Using more of a systemic perspective	33%
Widened awareness of psychological perspectives through project work(ideas/theories/research/reading)	25%
Using more organisational psychology	17%

4.11.8 Stages of change in the reconstruction of the EP role

Responses differed slightly between the two teams of EPs included in the study. Team B were more likely to believe that they were still in the unfreezing stage of change with half of the EPs in this team indicating that they had not yet progressed to the transition stage of change. All of the respondents from Team A believed that they had progressed beyond the unfreezing stage and were either in the transition stage of change, or even moving towards the re-freezing stage. Several EPs who felt that they were still in the unfreezing or the transition stages suggested that the reason was because a shared understanding, and shared ways of thinking and doing had not yet been established. Two EPs also expressed concerns that other pressures will prevent the change process from progressing.

Table 9: EP Teams' positioning in the change process

Where do you feel that our team is in the change process? Using the 3 stages of Lewin's Change Management Theory, where do you think we are in this process and why?	Overall percentage of respondents	Percentage from Team B	Percentage from Team A
Stage 1 (unfreezing stage)	25%	25%	0%
Stage 2 (transition stage)	50%	17%	33%
Stage 3 (re-freezing stage)	8%	8%	0%
Between stage 1 and 2	8%	8%	0%
Between 2 and 3	8%	0%	8%
Shared understanding/ways of thinking and doing are not yet developed	25%	17%	8%
Concerns re. other pressures such as restructuring preventing project work	17%	8%	8%

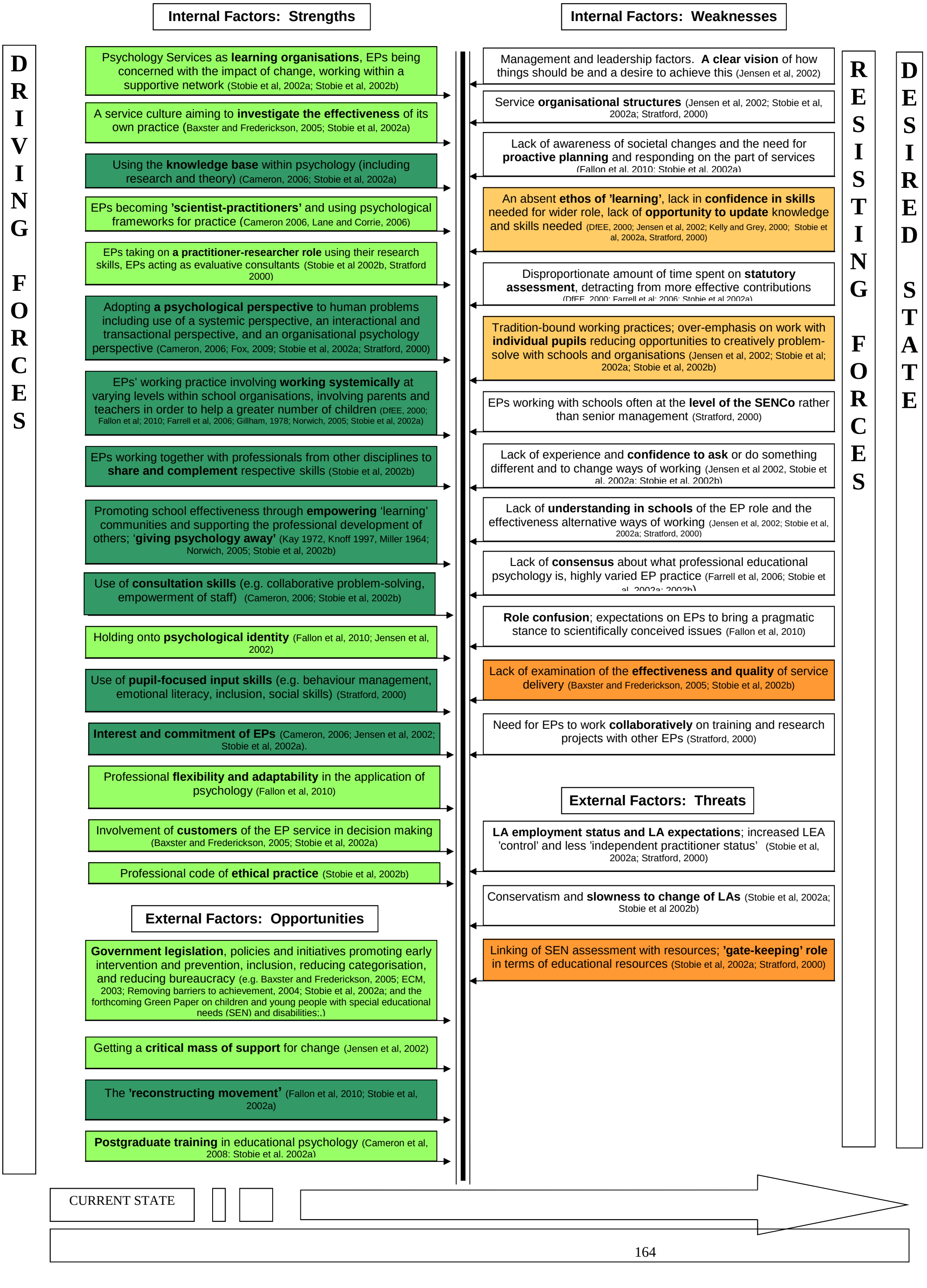
4.12 Discussion

In terms of Lewin's (1947) theory of change, there is evidence to suggest that this EPS is moving forward in the change process. Lewin suggested that it is important for new group standards and expectations to be agreed in order for change to be effective. There was some homogeneity in participants' responses particularly in communicating the message that this new way of working aimed to have a wider impact than casework, involved systemic working, using psychology, and working collaboratively with stakeholders. There was also a sense that this way of working was some kind of *reconstruction* of the EP role, with the aim of enabling schools to perceive the role differently. The strength of these key

themes and driving forces for change suggests that there was some clarity and consensus within the service about EP work, which is an issue which has been raised time and again in previous studies as a restraining force acting against changes in EP practice (Farrell et al, 2006; Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a).

Lewin (1947) asserted that for change to occur, driving forces within the social field must strengthen and inhibitory forces must be restrained. Schein (1996) described the way that taking away the restraining forces would be the most successful way to alter the equilibrium (to *unfreeze*). If the force field analysis of the social field within which EPs are operating is considered (Figure D, based upon the literature review); and the restraining forces that have been reduced as part of this EPS' change programme are taken away, or reduced (represented by colour being absent from this force in the diagram), and the driving forces which have been identified as part of this EPS' change programme are strengthened (represented by a darker shade of green), then the force field analysis would suggest that the distribution of the forces acting currently in this social field are acting in favour of change (Figure F).

Figure F: Force field analysis based upon the literature review with an indication of which forces are strengthened or reduced within this EPS context



A key theme emerging from responses in the SWOT analysis was the ability of EPs to empower others and to build capacity in schools through project work, suggesting that these EPs viewed this as a fundamental part of their new role. Whether or not this involved 'giving psychology away' (Miller, 1969) was more contentious in this study with a third of participants indicating that they felt that they were 'sharing' psychology rather than necessarily giving it away, and two EPs pointing out that their expertise was still needed in these instances. Elements of Norwich's (2005) argument that psychology becomes built into practice but with the theoretical underpinnings unknown, hidden or ignored, could be seen in one EP's response which highlighted that psychological underpinnings to work can become diluted through 'giving psychology away.'

Knoff (1997) suggested that EPs should be focusing upon primary and secondary prevention in their organisational work in schools, and upon giving staff the skills to be able to engage in tertiary prevention. EPs' responses in this study were loosely in line with this with just under half of the respondents indicating that the main impact was through primary prevention, but a third indicating that they were impacting at all three levels through this work.

Some participants referred to the service organisational structure acting in favour of this work due to the *bidding* process, although there were some ethical concerns raised about this process. This new structure also allowed EPs the opportunity to actively try to reconstruct their role and to make schools more aware of their wider role. This formal opportunity to have these

conversations seems to have acted to counter some of the restraining forces identified in the literature around having the confidence to ask to try something different and to change ways of working, and to increase awareness of this alternative role (Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a; 2002b; Stratford, 2000).

Some EPs also felt that the opportunity for key stakeholders to see the value and evidence for the positive contributions of working in this way also acted to bring about change. However, this study suggests that these restraining forces had not been entirely quashed with some EPs suggesting that schools need to be more aware of this way of working and that greater publicising of this work is needed; in line with Stratford's (2000) suggestions. Also, the difficulty expressed in this study that schools tended not to necessarily consider whole-school issues as a focus of EP work and needed a high level of guidance and leading by the EP in order to formulate project ideas and to maintain projects.

A major restraining force identified related to the time needed for project work, which was in part related to the structure of the service delivery, but also in part to the continued focus of some schools upon individual work with children and the demands of EPs' involvement in statutory assessment demands. These demands were also highlighted as significant factors in previous research studies preventing the expansion of the EP role into more systemic level work (BPS, 1998; DfEE, 2000; Farrell et al, 2006; Jensen et al, 2002; Stobie et al, 2002a; Stobie et al, 2002b; Stratford, 2000).

There was no indication of any role confusion or crisis of professional identity or confidence, which had been a concern raised in previous studies (Fallon et al, 2010; Cameron and Monsen, 2005). However, 25% of respondents indicated that a shared understanding and shared ways of thinking and doing had not yet been fully established, as one might expect at this stage in the change process. There did appear to be some agreement amongst teams however about where they were in the change process; with half of Team B feeling that they were in the unfreezing stage of change, and all of Team A believing that they had progressed beyond the unfreezing stage; again suggesting some consensus and shared understanding about where they were heading as teams in terms of their changing role.

Interestingly, all of Team A also indicated that they felt that their own perceptions of their role had changed, whereas only 57% of Team B felt that their own perceptions of their roles had changed. Schein (1996) built upon Lewin's (1947) theories and proposed that a re-framing process takes place when the individual has become 'unfrozen' and therefore motivated to change, whereby the individual takes in new information which leads to cognitive restructuring. The unanimous feedback from Team A in recognition of their own perceptions of their role having changed, suggests that this re-framing process had occurred and that the EPs were able to reflect that this process of cognitive restructuring had taken place.

As Stratford (2000) advised with the findings from a SWOT analysis, as part of a programme of change within EPS'; strengths should be sustained and built upon, personal qualities, skills and techniques fostered and promoted to schools, and training and preparation implemented to address development and training needs identified. In order to counter the criticisms of this approach that meaningless and general lists of factors are generated without priorities being identified (Hill and Westbrook, 1997); in this study the factors have been considered and as Stratford advises, suggestions are made about future use of the information gleaned. Table 10 describes these ways forward.

Table 10: Priorities identified through the SWOT analysis

Strengths which can be built upon, fostered and promoted to schools	**Development and training needs identified**
The wider impact of project work through helping more pupils, influencing more staff and addressing broader whole-school issues	Clarification regarding time allocation to project work and exploration of equitable delivery of project work
Applying and sharing with others psychology based upon theory, research and practice	Developing schools' ownership and commitment to projects
Using psychological perspectives enabling EPs to work effectively with systems and organisations	Supporting schools to consider more preventative whole-school foci for EP work
Using EPs' skills in problem-solving, facilitating groups, mediating tensions and training staff	Formalised opportunities to share news about projects with other EPs
Offering specific knowledge and	CPD opportunities to foster and

expertise based upon research	promote the skills needed to effectively deliver projects
Empowering staff and building capacity in schools	Developing evaluation mechanisms for projects
Collaboratively working with a range of stakeholders to affect change	
Fostering and developing EPs' specialisms, interests, and CPD opportunities	
Liaising with a key adult in school with authority who is committed to the project	
Providing evidence of the positive contribution of project work, publicising this work, and promoting awareness in schools	

This study sought to identify the factors driving and restraining change within this EPS, and to explore this organisation's journey of change and reconstruction using Lewin's change management theory (Lewin, 1947). A questionnaire was the chosen research method utilised in order to collect this information. This had the advantages of being efficient in terms of researcher time and effort, and allowing a larger number of participant views to be collected. However, it had the disadvantage of being somewhat superficial without a check on the seriousness or honesty of participants' answers, and the risk of the researcher's imposition of her own predetermined questions and response structures preventing participants from getting across their true opinions (Robson, 1993).

There is a high degree of interpretation needed on the part of the researcher which may have detracted from the intended meaning of the respondent, without any built-in means to check back with participants as to whether the researcher had indeed interpreted their views in the way in which they were intended. There was also a degree of interpretation of responses through conducting a thematic analysis, based upon the researcher's experiences as part of the EPS under investigation, and also based upon an examination of the previous research literature (therefore contributing to a degree of theoretical sensitivity; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This contributed to the researcher's ability to give meaning to the data and to decide which ideas were pertinent, but therefore prevented her from taking an objective stance as a researcher. The coding of the responses was also not inter-rated and therefore the reliability of the themes derived from the data is questionable.

As argued by Godamer (1975), in this study knowledge and understanding advanced due to the interaction between the researcher's interpretive framework and the research object, and therefore objectivity in the positivist sense could not be achieved. This study was concerned with interpreting the social context within which the EPs in this particular service were operating, and deriving meaning from this. Therefore an interpretive approach was taken in interpreting the findings. There is some incongruity between using an interpretive epistemological position but applying a more positivist analysis technique through use of Lewin's force field analysis (1947), which is based upon a more objective view of the world and the idea that there is a'*truth* to be discovered upon which predictions and generalisations will be possible. In

this study, the force field analysis is only applicable to this particular social context and is not generalisable to other settings.

This study is in line with the recommendations of Fallon et al (2010) which suggest that a detailed understanding of the development of EP role in a local context for use by commissioners of services is not best provided by broad survey methodologies, but instead by showcasing the effectiveness and flexibility of case study EPS responses over time, which this study has attempted to begin the process of achieving. In order to fully achieve this, this study should be followed-up over time within this EPS to investigate the longer term outcomes of this change in EP role.

4.13 Conclusion

This study has implications for the EPS under investigation, and suggests ways in which this EPS can continue to move forward in the change process towards a reconstructed EP role by fostering and promoting its strengths, using the opportunities and reducing those forces acting against the change happening. The EPS will need to be vigilant against external threats identified which are more difficult to control or to act upon. In particular, the demands of statutory work will be affected by the forthcoming Green Paper relating to children and young people with SEN and disabilities, which may create new opportunities or threats to this work. Several EPs also highlighted concerns that current restructuring and financial constraints that are acting upon the service may also become threats in the future to this way of working. The

findings may also be useful to other EPS' who are also considering or are perhaps also within the process of reconstructing the EP role, who are likely to be facing similar challenges and opportunities nationally in response to the new Coalition government's agenda. The forcefield analysis based upon the literature in this area (Figure C) may become a useful audit tool for services to consider which of the driving forces they might also be able to foster and promote, and ways in which to reduce the impact of the resisting forces acting within their particular context. As Fallon et al (2010) have argued; the reconstruction of educational psychology is a continuous professional orientation, and continuing to behave as a '*learning organisation*,' (Stobie et al, 2002a) and to reflect on change processes, and to assertively and confidently present and develop a new reconstructed role to schools (Stratford, 2000), will enable the EPS to continue to develop its new role.

4.14 References

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4.15 Appendices Index

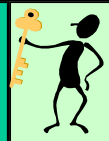
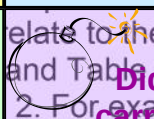
Appendix A: Project work questionnaire

Appendix B: Examples of coding of participants' responses

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETED BY PARTICIPANTS

PROJECT WORK QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please could you complete a SWOT analysis about your involvement in project work since September? There are prompt questions given below to give you an idea about what to put into each section. Please feel free to type into the boxes below (you can delete the prompts if more space is needed) or alternatively print off the document and jot your ideas down on the sheet.

FACTORS INTERNAL TO EPS	 **Strengths** **What were you able to offer through project work?** It gave us a chance to use psychology to impact on issues broader than just individual casework. I feel this makes us much more time effective. A peer mentoring project established at a high school has had good initial feedback from pupils acting as mentors in terms of developing their skills/confidence etc. School hoping to deliver similar scheme next year themselves without us leading, thus have empowered their staff. Skills in facilitation of groups / mediating tensions between them, particularly where subtext of the project was improving practice in certain areas. Support to staff in certain areas of SEN e.g. dyslexia/precision teaching etc Projects help to demonstrate breadth of possible support and hence potential value of EPs. Important in times of cuts…!	 **Weaknesses** **Are there any development needs for work at this level?** Numbers of projects requested; they seemed to tail off after the first term. We did a project to support playground/behaviour but their timescales/ the fact they had already started planning meant we couldn't use as creative / psychological methods as I might've liked e.g. appreciative inquiry. The project was still effective but I think we could've got more psychology into it rather than just strategies. Haven't had any negative feedback.
FACTORS EXTERNAL TO EPS	 **Opportunities** Having one person to liaise with who was reliable and efficient in terms of logistics, keeping kids informed, booking rooms etc Having opportunities to speak to all those with a vested interest in making the project work e.g. lunchtime supervisors as well as teaching staff for a playground project	 **Threats** **Did anything prevent you from carrying out this kind of work?** Headteachers/ SENCos having the time and/or motivation to complete the request form to start with. Once they had done it once I suspect they would find it easy to do it again (but have no evidence to back this up as none of my schools asked for more than one project! This may be something to look at next year) Continued focus on casework generally can limit people's thinking as to our role. It's up to us to keep trying to make suggestions for project work, emphasise it's 'extra time' etc Having said that we could improve take up, I was not needing to look for extra work during the spring and summer terms!

2. Have the recent changes in service delivery had an impact upon the way in which you perceive your role as an EP?

No, as a recently qualified EP I always hoped our work would look like this and we were trained with this kind of work in mind.

3. Do you feel that through the project work you have been engaged in you have been able to focus on: a) primary prevention (e.g. cross-curricular work/modifying whole-school environment to intervene prior to problem occurring);

Yes, playground/lunchtime environment and behaviour, developing adult skills and interactions with children. Projects for next year planned to develop curriculum for PMLD pupils and improving practice for ASD kids in special school.

b) secondary prevention (e.g. groupwork to help targeted pupils/intervention carried out when problems are in the early stages before becoming severe);

Yes, delivered via Senco for learning support at SA+; dyslexia, precision teaching

c) tertiary prevention (e.g. individual pupils needing intervention to prevent difficulties from getting worse)?

Yes: peer mentoring from older students to vulnerable year 7s

4. Do you feel that you are 'giving psychology away' as part of your role in project work? Do you feel that this is a loss or a gain?

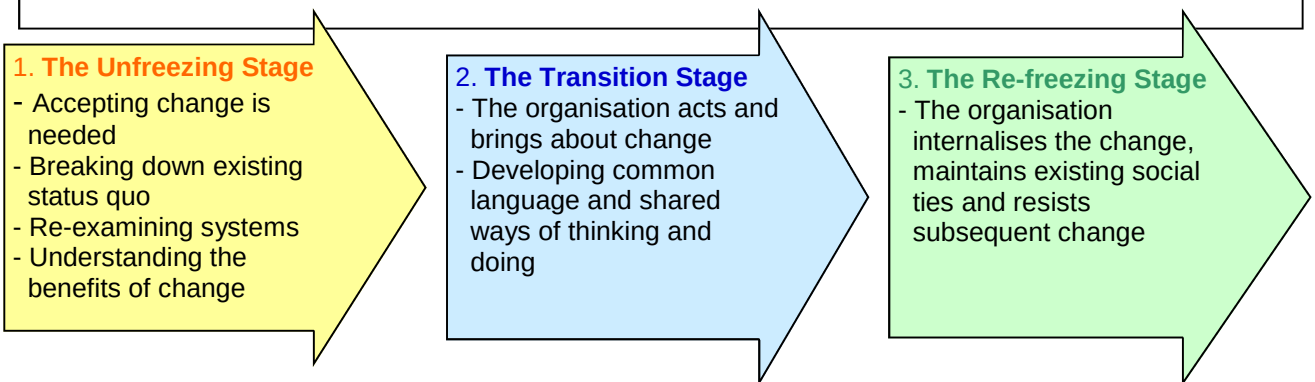
Yes in lots of cases we are sharing knowledge and experiences of psychology which we leave with them. Overall it's a gain as fundamentally we are trying to improve outcomes for children, not just protect our jobs. Having said that there is a slight nervousness about it but it is always quickly squashed by the knowledge that there are many more school/settings which could benefit from our support across a huge range of themes, not just relating to SEN.

5. Do you feel that the changes in your role have had any impact upon the psychological perspectives that you are using during your work? If so, in what way?

More opportunities for sharing organisational change ideas and systems thinking which can be hard to convey when it's only related to one child. It sets these ideas within a more accessible context. It can also be easier to get away from the expert role and be more of a facilitator.

6. Where do you feel that our team is in the change process? Using the 3 stages of Lewin's Change Management Theory, where do you think we are in this process and why?

I think we've been in the transition stage this year but hopefully will be ready for re-freezing next year if things continue as they have.



APPENDIX B: EXAMPLES OF CODING OF PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES

This section gives examples of the following of Braun and Clarke's (2006) stages of thematic analysis:

1. The responses to each question were transcribed into an electronic format and were read and re-read.
2. Interesting features were coded across the data set according to colours for each theme identified. This stage can be seen in the extracts by the coloured highlighters used to identify initial themes that first became apparent upon re-reading the data.
3. These colour coded themes were then re-analysed and over-arching themes were decided upon. An example of these initial over-arching codes are shown in Table 1 which relate to the strengths identified by participants in the SWOT analysis, and Table 2 which relate to participants' responses to Question 2. For example; 5 participants referred to Code '1' in the strengths they identified in their SWOT analysis responses, and 3 participants referred to Code 'a' in their answers to Question 2. In the extracts given the researcher's coding at this stage can be seen by the numbers or letters representing the codes hand-written next to the text wherever each code had been identified.
4. Those themes were then reviewed and further refined. Table 3 gives an example of this process based upon the strengths identified by participants.

Extract demonstrating coding process:

SWOT Analysis: Strengths

Team 8

Participant A:

1) Skills in training/presenting
2) Psychological theory
3) The projects provided school staff with knowledge that allowed them to use on a daily basis (e.g. setting up precision teaching programmes, effective behaviour management systems)

Participant B:

Opportunities to do work linked to area of interest/specialism.

CPD through reading etc that may be required for the project

Chance to share psychology with schools

Work should impact upon a wider range/greater number of pupils

Way of reconstructing the role of the EP

Participant C:

It gave us a chance to use psychology to impact on issues broader than just individual casework. I feel this makes us much more time effective.
A peer mentoring project established at a high school has had good initial feedback from pupils acting as mentors in terms of developing their skills/confidence etc. School hoping to deliver similar scheme next year themselves without us leading, thus have empowered their staff.
Skills in facilitation of groups / mediating tensions between them, particularly where subtext of the project was improving practice in certain areas.
Support to staff in certain areas of SEN e.g. dyslexia/precision teaching etc
Projects help to demonstrate breadth of possible support and hence potential value of EPs. Important in times of cuts...!

Participant D:

It created a different or additional element to the relationship I had with the school. – I think the SENCo saw me as able to offer something other than casework which I really valued. It felt more effective as I was implementing change at a systemic level, therefore delivering to more children. It challenged me and made me prepare more thoroughly for meetings. I enjoyed the change of focus and also working with senior members of staff within schools.

Participant E:

Chance to demonstrate understanding of systemic influences in a school
School liked the focus on building strength in staff and pupils

1
2
3
19
4
2 + 3
5
6
2
5 + 7
3
1
6
8
9 + 6
7
5 + 15
10
41
24
3

Extract demonstrating coding process:

Page 2 Questionnaire

2) Have the recent changes in service delivery had an impact upon the way in which you perceive your role as an EP?

team B.

Participant A:

- My skills in research and development are being used to greater effect
- My perception of the role hasn't changed (e.g. I was always aware of the skills we had to offer) but this has given us the opportunity to apply our research skills since 'project work' has been made a specific part our service delivery.

Participant B:

I think it has encouraged me to view my role as being able to impact at a more systemic level but I am not sure if this is how schools perceive us. I am more conscious now of tensions in our role. I am very keen to try and engage schools with projects but it can feel like hard work, trying to reconstruct long held views about what an EP does.

Participant C:

No, as a recently qualified EP I always hoped our work would look like this and we were trained with this kind of work in mind

Participant D:

Yes. I hope we can continue the project work as I felt as if I was offering something other teams such don't. Gave me hope that not all EP work is going to be Statutory and diagnosistc.

Participant E:

I feel that we have a more balanced focus on work at systems levels other than that of casework

Participant F:

Yes. To be honest I've only been actively involved in two projects, but they have increased my confidence about working at different levels (not just the individual level). It's reminded me that as EPs we do have loads of relevant knowledge and skills to offer. In both cases I have also done some additional literature searching and reading.

Table 1: Analysis of responses during Stage 3 of Braun and Clarke's (2006) process for thematic analysis involving forming codes for relevant themes and then gathering all of the data relevant to that theme.

Strengths/Opportunities	Code	Total	Team B	Team A
EP skills e.g. in training, facilitating groups, mediating tensions, conceptualising problems	1	5	4	1
Using psychology/psychological theory/psychological perspective based on theory and practice	2	7	4	3
Empowering staff and pupils, and building capacity/knowledge	3	5	4	1
CPD opportunities (e.g. extending knowledge and expertise)	4	2	1	1
Having a wider impact than individual casework (e.g. greater number of pupils, influencing all staff, addressing broader issues such as behaviour policy)	5	8	5	3
Reconstructing the role of the EP/offering something different (e.g. reframing with schools how EPs can work, schools seeing the range of work available, schools seeing us working differently)	6	6	4	2
More effective	7	2	2	0
Demonstrating potential value of EPs	8	1	1	0
Changed the EP's relationship with the school/allowing different conversations to happen	9	4	2	2
Challenge	10	1	1	0
Working with different stakeholders e.g. more senior staff in schools, parents, lunchtime supervisors	11	7	5	2
Working collaboratively e.g. in partnership with schools, multi-professional work, with other stakeholders in the school, parents, EP colleagues	12	6	2	4
Bringing specific knowledge and expertise e.g of specialist interventions, what works, learning processes, knowledge from research e.g. Appreciative Enquiry	13	4	1	3
Young and vibrant team	14	1	1	0
Working at a systemic/whole-school level	15	4	2	2
Schools think they are getting something extra/additional time through the bidding process which helps motivate requests for systemic work	16	2	0	2

More preventative working	17	2	0	2
Learning from other EPs – sharing knowledge and expertise	18	2	0	2
Working to EP interests and specialisms	19	3	1	2
Problem-solving	20	1	0	1
Promoted a shared understanding of issues	21	1	0	1
Key stakeholders recognising the value and evidence of the positive contribution of this work	22	2	1	1
Deleted	23			
Bringing a systemic perspective (seeing the bigger picture and bring wider perspective than the school as an individual system, having a wider focus)	24	3	2	1
Flexibility of EPS	25	1	0	1
Having a key person within the school to liaise with (e.g. who was reliable and efficient, enthusiastic, had the authority to make things happen or to ensure long term impact)	26	3	1	2
Offering follow-up work to ensure understanding and embedding of ideas and strategies	27	1	0	1
Protecting time to do projects within the service	28	1	0	1

Table 2: Analysis of responses during Stage 3 of Braun and Clarke's (2006) process for thematic analysis involving forming codes for relevant themes and then gathering all of the data relevant to that theme.

2) Have the recent changes in service delivery had an impact upon the way in which you perceive your role as an EP?

Have the recent changes in service delivery had an impact upon the way in which you perceive your role as an EP?	Code	Total	Team B	Team A
Perception of role has not changed	a	3	3	0
Perception of role has changed	b	9	4	5
Viewing role as involving work at a systemic level	c	5	2	3
Having a wider role than individual casework (e.g. working at different levels not just at an individual level)	d	3	2	1
More conscious of the tensions in our role	h		1	
Greater opportunity to apply skills and knowledge	i	2	1	1
Using skills in research and development to greater effect	f		1	
Hard work to try and reconstruct long held views about EP role	j		1	
We were trained with this kind of role in mind	k		1	
More distinctive role from other services	l		1	
Reminded me of the relevant knowledge and skills we have to offer	g		1	
Involvement in preventative working	e	2	1	2

Table 3: Stages 4 and 5 of Braun and Clarke's (2006) process.

Strengths	Code	Total	Team B	Team A
Having a wider impact than individual casework (e.g. greater number of pupils, influencing all staff, addressing broader issues such as behaviour policy)	5	8	5	3
Using psychology/psychological theory/psychological perspective based on theory and practice	2	7	4	3
Working with different stakeholders (e.g. more senior staff in schools, parents, lunchtime supervisors)	11	7	5	2
Working collaboratively (e.g. in partnership with schools, multi-professional work, with other stakeholders in the school, parents, EP colleagues)	12	6	2	4
Reconstructing the role of the EP/offering something different (e.g. reframing with schools how EPs can work, schools seeing the range of work available, schools seeing us working differently)	6	6	4	2
Using EP skills (e.g. in training, facilitating groups, mediating tensions, conceptualising problems)	1	5	4	1
Empowering staff and pupils, and building capacity/knowledge	3	5	4	1
Changing the EP's relationship with the school/allowing different conversations to happen	9	4	2	2
Bringing specific knowledge and expertise (e.g of specialist interventions, what works, learning processes, knowledge from research such as Appreciative Enquiry)	13	4	1	3
Working at a systemic/whole-school level	15	4	2	2
Bringing a systemic perspective (e.g. seeing the bigger picture and bringing a wider perspective than the school as an individual system, having a wider focus)	24	3	2	1
Working to EP interests and specialisms	19	3	1	2
More effective way of working	7	2	2	0
More preventative way of working	17	2	0	2
Learning from other EPs, sharing knowledge and expertise	18	2	0	2
CPD opportunities (e.g. extending knowledge and expertise)	4	2	1	1

CHAPTER 5

Approaches to behaviour management found to be effective in a specialist provision for pupils with Moderate Learning Difficulties (MLD) and Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD)

Abstract

Although there is a rich evidence base and continually developing conceptual and theoretical models relating to effective behaviour management, there is little in the literature which describes the way in which these models apply specifically to specialist provisions. This study aimed to explore approaches towards behaviour management experienced by teachers as being effective in a specialist provision catering for pupils with MLD and ASD, and to investigate the extent to which these match up with the developing research and theory in this field. Ten teachers were interviewed and thematic analysis applied to the findings. It was found that within this specialist setting teachers viewed five principles of behaviour management to be particularly important: (1) a unified approach to behaviour across the school; (2) an overarching orientation towards behaviour within classrooms which is clearly communicated through rules and systems applicable to all pupils in each particular class; (3) approaches to behaviour management which are child-centred, taking into account individual pupils' motivations, interests and needs; (4) expectations communicated to pupils in a highly structured and visual way; and (5) development of pupils' social and emotional skills so that pupils can learn to manage their own behaviour more effectively. The approaches which were being employed and found to be effective within this context related to

behavioural, humanistic and attachment theoretical orientations towards behaviour. The findings are considered in light of Ellis and Tod's (2009) 'behaviour for learning' conceptual framework for understanding behaviour.

5.1 Introduction

The report begins with setting the political context for behaviour management in schools, and then discusses behavioural approaches, humanistic approaches, and approaches from attachment theory which are relevant to behaviour management in schools. Ellis and Tod's (2009) 'behaviour for learning' conceptual framework for promoting pupils' learning behaviour is also explored. This study is described and the findings discussed in relation to the research literature. The specialist provision in which this study took place caters for pupils aged 4-19 years who have MLD as their primary need, but many of the pupils also have a diagnosis of ASD and there are classes within the school geared up particularly to meeting these particular needs. Therefore, there is an additional focus within this report upon supporting pupils with ASD.

5.2 The political context for behaviour management in schools

The Elton Report (DES, 1989) was commissioned by the government in the wake of significant media interest in a perceived deterioration in standards of pupil behaviour in schools. The report pointed to a growing evidence base

supporting school-based influences on pupil behaviour, and the importance of schools having a positive atmosphere based upon shared values and a sense of community. The report indicated that low-level persistent disruptive behaviour was teachers' main concern (rather than threats of violence), and that this disruption could be reduced through supporting teachers to become effective classroom managers. The report countered the view that a more punitive approach was needed in schools, commenting that the schools with more punitive regimes tended to be associated with worse standards of behaviour.

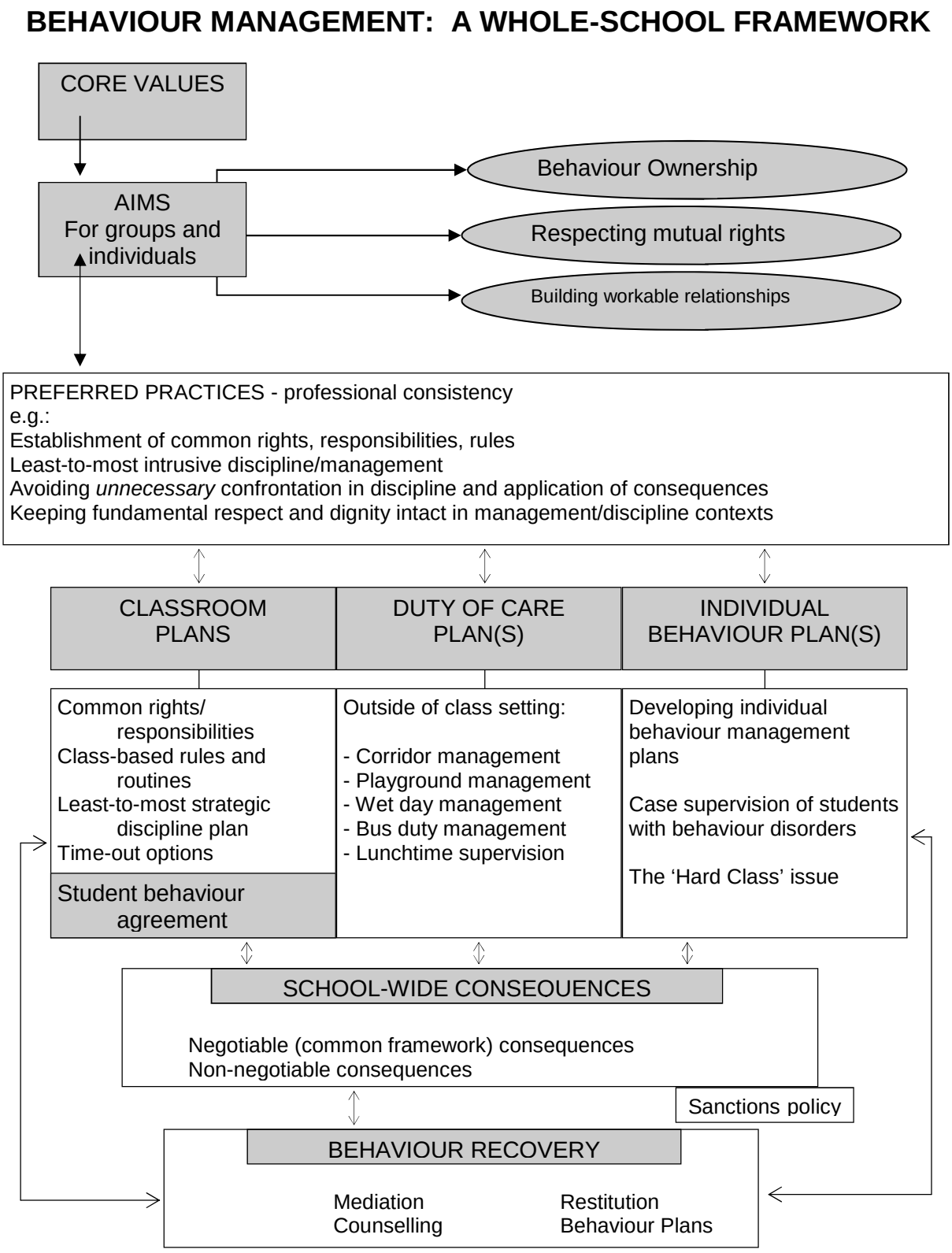
The Elton Report had an enduring legacy emphasising whole-school approaches to behavioural change, behaviour policies and codes of conduct in schools. It underlies much of the current legislation including the National Strategy Behaviour and Attendance materials (DfES, 2003). Following the Education and Inspections Act (2006) guidance was issued (DfES, 2007) covering the statutory power to discipline pupils and emphasising the *''rights and responsibilities of staff and pupils based on mutual respect''* (DfES, 2007, p.62). This guidance also included advice regarding consideration of individuals' special educational needs or disabilities, and the requirement for schools to differentiate their responses to pupil behaviours accordingly.

Ellis and Tod (2009) describe the way in which there has developed an increasing concern relating to pupils who are not responsive to whole-school behaviour policies. This has been paralleled with a drive towards explicitly teaching pupils social, emotional and behavioural skills, and attempts to

improve the resilience and social responsibility of pupils (DfES, 2005). However, there is still a requirement that schools maintain behaviour policies that aim to ensure a degree of compliance, conformity and control. Bill Rogers (2010) promotes the establishment of a whole school approach to behaviour management (reproduced in Figure A) and explains that within this framework there are three critical areas which schools should focus upon: classroom plans; playground plans; and individual plans (for those pupils demonstrating more frequent and durable patterns of behaviour). This study focused in upon these three areas in particular within a special school setting.

Figure A: Behaviour management, a whole-school framework.

Reproduced from Bill Rogers (2010); p. 8.



Hart (2010) suggests that the particular experiences and skills of educational psychologists (EPs) in supporting schools with pupil behaviour mean that they are well placed to be able to contribute to conceptualising ways to manage children's behaviour in the classroom. Frederickson and Cline (2002) report that the interventions most frequently recommended or implemented by EPs in one county in one term were behavioural strategies, with almost half the psychologists reporting medium frequency of use or higher. Behavioural strategies were reported to be employed three times more often in primary than secondary schools, while counselling and other cognitive interventions were more frequently employed in secondary schools.

A more recent study of forty-seven EPs' views on classroom behaviour management (Hart, 2010), also found that behavioural strategies were identified by over 90% of the EPs. EPs' recommended strategies were found to stem from predominantly a behavioural, attachment or humanistic/child-centred theoretical position. Table 1 describes the psychological processes underpinning EPs' recommended strategies (arrived at through a thematic analysis of the EPs' responses).

However, the EPs in both of these studies were working in particular areas of the UK, and the findings therefore may not be representative of EPs' views in other areas in the UK. Evidence based upon expert report or opinion, or clinical experience, has also been rated as less reliable than evidence based upon randomised controlled trials, controlled studies and quasi-experimental studies (Wolpert et al, 2006). It has been suggested that the use of this kind

of evidence should be counterbalanced with systematic research (Kazdin, 2000; Kuyken et al, 2008).

Table 1: Psychological processes underpinning EPs' recommended strategies. Taken from Hart (2010); p. 364-366.

Eight core psychological processes	**Strategies**
Contingency management	Applying behavioural principles to reinforce positive behaviours and punish or promote extinction of negative behaviours
Feeling safe/secure	Strategies that fostered emotional security in terms of promoting consistent, positive experiences where emotions are recognised and acknowledged
Managing setting conditions	Pre-emptive strategies to reduce the occurrence of incidents which could trigger poor behaviour, such as poor communication, boredom, disengagement with learning activities and environmental distractions
Promoting positive beliefs about self	Strategies aimed at altering pupil self-perceptions, promoting controllable attributions and self-efficacy
Promoting pupil autonomy	Strategies that encourage the exercise of control by pupils, pupil participation and collaborations
Pupils feeling valued	Creating situations within which pupils can establish positive relationships with staff and the experience of positive regard

Understanding of school systems/expectations	Ensuring that pupils are aware of rules, expectations regarding work and behaviour, and regarding the consequences of behaviour
Vicarious learning	Identifying opportunities for pupils to attend to staff and peers modelling appropriate, desired behaviour

Therefore, key findings from the research literature in each of the three theoretical fields which have been identified by these EPs as important in management of pupil behaviour, will each be considered (behavioural, humanistic/child-centred and attachment).

5.3 Behavioural approaches

Behavioural approaches assume that a child's behaviour has been learned through interactions with his or her environment, and can therefore be changed through focused intervention upon aspects of this environment. Behavioural theories focus upon the mechanisms through which behaviour is learned, such as through associations between a particular stimulus and a response (classical conditioning; Pavlov, 1927); through stimuli in the environment (operant conditioning; Skinner, 1993), or through observing the actions of others and the consequences of those actions (social learning theory; Bandura, 1977).

Wheldall and Merrett (1984) explained that a behavioural approach to teaching is based upon five general assumptions, which are described in Table 2. They describe the crucial elements of the behavioural approach as

centred around a three-term analysis of behaviour (otherwise known as the *ABC Model*). *A* relates to the *antecedent* conditions, which are concerned with what is happening in the child's environment before the behaviour occurs, or the context in which the behaviour happens. For example: a) antecedent conditions which either physically constrain or give opportunities for behaviour such as the brightness or temperature of a room, furniture or provision of resources, or crowding; or b) antecedent conditions which have acquired power over a behaviour through association with a particular rewarding or punishing consequence such as the presence of peers which may then act as a reinforcer for calling out in front of the teacher.

Table 2: Five assumptions to a behavioural approach to teaching.

Adapted from Wheldall and Merrett, 1984; p. 14-15.

Five Assumptions to a Behavioural Approach to Teaching	
1. The concern of psychology (and hence of teaching) is with the observable	- What the child actually does - No speculation regarding unconscious motives or underlying processes - Objective
2. For the most part, and certainly for most practical purposes, behaviour is learned	- As a result of the individual interacting with his environment - One can help a child to learn behaviours by exercising control over his/her environment
3. Learning means change in behaviour	- Observable changes in the child's behaviour
4. Such changes in behaviour (that is, learning) are governed primarily by the 'law of	- Consequences of behaviour are critical to learning - Children learn on the basis of tending to repeat behaviours that are followed by consequences

effect'	which are desirable or rewarding - Children tend not to repeat behaviours when they find the consequences to be aversive or punishing
5. Behaviours are also governed by the contexts in which they occur	- Children learn which situations are appropriate for which behaviours - Behaviours appropriate in the circumstances are likely to be rewarded, whereas behaviours that are inappropriate in the circumstances are likely to lead to punishing consequences

B relates to the actual *behaviour*; what a child does in physical terms. An emphasis is placed upon describing behaviours in a very precise and objective manner as part of a behavioural approach. *C* relates to the *consequences* that happen after the child has demonstrated a particular behaviour. For example, behaviour followed by punishment leads to a decrease in frequency of the behaviour, whereas rewarding consequences known as *positive reinforcers,* instead lead to an increase in the frequency of the behaviour. Token economy is a system of reinforcement which allows children to earn tokens (for example; points, smiley faces, or stickers) by performing a particular behaviour, which can be accumulated in order to achieve a particular reward (Fargo et al, 1970; O'Leary & Drabman, 1971). Removing a punishing consequence can also lead to an increase in the frequency of a behaviour, which is known as *negative reinforcement*, whereas removal of a positive consequence for a behaviour can reduce the frequency of the behaviour, known as *response cost*. Behavioural studies with children have emphasised the importance of home-based reinforcement through

providing reward or sanction at home based upon the teacher's feedback (for example; Atkeson and Forehand, 1979; Barth, 1979).

In line with this approach, Wheldall (1987) goes on to discuss the use of applied behaviour analysis (ABA) in education, or the 'behavioural science of teaching', which he explains goes beyond the idea of teachers as *''Smartie dispensers''* and instead focuses upon antecedents as well as consequences to pupil behaviour (Wheldall, 1987; p.2). ABA is concerned with: antecedents to pupil behaviour such as the content of the curriculum and teacher variables; setting events such as teacher-child interactions; and ecological variables such as the physical geography of the classroom.

Baer, Wolf and Risley (1968) first formalised the dimensions of ABA, describing the approach as a research procedure with the purpose of studying behaviour, which was discovery-oriented, self-examining and self-evaluating. Their view of ABA was that it should:

> *''…make obvious the importance of the behavior changed, its quantitative characteristics, the experimental manipulations which analyze with clarity what was responsible for the change, the technologically exact description of all procedures contributing to that change, the effectiveness of those procedures in making sufficient change for value, and the generality of that change''* (Baer et al, 1968; p. 97).

Therefore , Baer et al (1968) described seven criteria for ABA, explaining that it should be:

> *''…applied, behavioral, analytic, technological, conceptual, effective, and capable of appropriately generalized outcomes''* (Baer et al, 1987; p. 313).

This means that the approach concerns itself with:

- behaviours which can be objectively measured and which are socially important;
- experimental analyses to clarify changes in behaviours as a result of deliberate changes in environmental events;
- effectiveness of the technique according to the size of the effect produced and the durability and generalisability of the effect found; and
- being conceptually systematic (for example related to a particular set of principles or a particular model) (Wahler and Fox, 1981).

A number of whole-class interventions developed in the 1960s based upon behavioural approaches to improving pupil behaviour. Interventions typically involved working with teachers to use increased positive feedback (praise) contingent upon positive behaviour, and decreased negative feedback (criticism) (Harrop, 1978; Madsen et al,1968; Merrett, 1981; Ward, 1971). A number of educational packages have been developed following these early studies to train teachers in classroom behaviour management using contingent teacher praise (for example; the package whose use has been most widespread in America and in Britain is *Canter's Assertive Discipline*

(AD) Programme; Ferguson and Houghton, 1992; Swinson and Harrop, 2005, more recently found a shorter training programme to be successful).

Contingency contracting is another application of behavioural theory based upon the Premack Principle (Premack, 1965) which indicates that behaviour performed at a lower probability can be increased by a behaviour performed at a higher probability. Therefore, if high probability behaviours are made conditional upon the lower probability behaviours, then these lower probability behaviours become more likely to occur. The high probability behaviours are those which the child would be spending more of their time doing if they were allowed to do so, such as playing on the computer or being outside at playtime.

The widespread use of reward systems in schools stems from the basic behavioural principle of positive reinforcement (Skinner, 1993). There has been some debate relating to the value of extrinsic rewards such as smiley faces, gold stars, points or stickers, which encourage children to work towards reward rather than achievement, and may therefore reduce intrinsic motivation, and also encourage competition instead of collaboration with peers (Kohn, 1999; Lepper et al, 1973). However, a meta-analysis of ninety-six experimental studies shows that reward did not decrease intrinsic motivation; indeed verbal praise was found to increase intrinsic motivation (Cameron and Pierce, 1994). However, there are serious concerns relating to the credibility of these findings due to questions relating to the meta-analytic procedures employed (Lepper et al, 1996).

Alternatively, the use of ‘golden time’ has been promoted by Jenny Mosley (Mosley and Sonnet, 2005), where pupils can choose an activity from a range offered for a period of time, as a reward for their behaviour. If a pupil misbehaves by breaking any of the ‘golden rules’, then they ‘lose’ minutes of their golden time. The use of visual warnings is advocated so that the pupil has an opportunity to put the behaviour right before losing minutes.

Group contingencies are another behavioural approach used frequently in classroom settings, based upon social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). In this approach, the behaviour of one or more members of the group brings reward to the whole group (Barrish et al, 1969; Litow and Pumroy, 1975). This approach relies upon members of the group applying social sanctions to one another.

Ellis and Tod (2009) explain that in the application of these behavioural approaches, the impact upon the pupils’ relationships should be considered. This depends upon the way in which the child interprets a sanction: as a consequence of their actions; or as an adult attempting to embarrass or hurt them. Similarly, they warn against creating a system whereby there is a degree of competition between pupils which threatens the processes of collaboration and cooperation. Ellis and Tod (2009) warn that traditional sanctions carry a risk of damaging the relationships underpinning learning behaviour.

5.4 Behavioural approaches used with pupils with ASD

Behavioural approaches such as Applied Behaviour Analysis (ABA) have also been applied successfully to working with individuals with autism (Lovaas and Smith, 1989; Dempsey and Foreman, 2010; Jordan and Jones, 1999). Responses/behaviours are broken down into small steps which are then taught through presentation of a specific instruction or cue, and through use of prompts such as gestures or physical guidance where necessary. When the step is completed, the child is rewarded.

ABA has been well established with not only children with ASD, but also children with a range of learning needs (Jordan and Jones, 1999). The specific application of ABA in programmes with children with ASD has been particularly promoted through the Lovaas Programme (Lovaas, 1987) which is traditionally delivered one-to-one with preschool children in the home environment, but has been extended to highly intensive one-to-one tutoring programmes throughout the day. Lovaas' evidence base has been criticised due to lack of rigour including lack of controls, gender bias, lack of representativeness and the quality and ability to compare measurements (Jordan and Jones, 1999). However, reviews by Matson et al (1996) and Hall (1997) suggested that use of ABA has made significant contributions in providing practical strategies effective in a range of behavioural difficulties associated with autism.

The Treatment and Education of Autistic and related Communications Handicapped Children (TEACCH) has also been implemented widely in the UK and also in the US and Europe (Schopler and Mesibov, 1995). The focus of TEACCH is upon provision of an environment conducive to the needs and specific difficulties of pupils with ASD (described in Table 3).

Given the widespread use of TEACCH, the evidence base is surprisingly limited (Fletcher-Campbell, 2003). However, Mesibov et al (2004) convincingly outline the rationale and theoretical basis of the programme relating to the difficulties of individuals with ASD. Schopler et al (1982) also found that parents had found the programme to be successful, but there were flaws in the methodology in terms of lack of a comparison group and non-random selection. Panerai et al (1997) also found improvements in adaptive behaviour, cognitive, motor and perception skills over a twelve month period, but again there are concerns relating to the methodology employed, because there was no control group in this study.

Table 3: Components of the TEACCH intervention

Aspects of the TEACCH intervention (Fletcher-Campbell, 2003; p. 11-12)
A structured environment which reduces potential distraction, and increases routine and predictability
Different areas for different tasks
Use of a visual timetable (using photographs, symbols or words depending on the individual pupil)

Workstations with related work systems (for example; tasks to do are in a tray to the left and completed tasks go into a tray on the right)
Clear task instructions

Whilst the behavioural approaches and methodologies discussed had huge influence in the educational community; they also generated a significant degree of controversy and opposition. The kinds of behaviours targeted through behavioural intervention are often those viewed as 'inappropriate' or 'challenging', which is highly dependent on who it is that is finding the behaviour difficult and why. For example, this could differ depending upon the teacher's interpretation of the behaviour, the context and the purpose of the pupil's behaviour (Rigoni and Walford,1998). Fowler (2007) argues that traditional approaches to classroom behaviour have concentrated too heavily upon the management of unproductive behaviour, rather than focusing on creating an environment encouraging productive behaviour and learning. Curwin and Mendler (1988) criticise the focus upon obedience rather than responsibility, and Lake (2004) suggests that children should be given more opportunities to learn from their experiences and to practice pro-social skills.

5.5 Humanist approach

This approach concerns itself with the way in which individuals function as whole beings with feelings and thoughts (Maslow, 1968; Rogers, 1961). The humanistic approach promoted a shift in focus from teaching to learning, and from the role of a teacher to that of a facilitator (Rogers, 1977). Rogers

encouraged consideration of the way in which the curriculum is experienced from the learner's perspective, including its relevance to their lives. In his book *Freedom to Learn for the 80's*, Rogers (1983) promotes the following processes in the classroom:

- creating a climate of trust which nourishes curiosity and a natural desire to learn;
- providing a participatory way of decision-making including both pupils and adults;
- supporting pupils to value themselves and build self-esteem;
- uncovering excitement in emotional and intellectual discovery, enabling pupils to become life-long learners;
- developing attitudes in teachers that facilitate learning;
- enabling teachers to find satisfaction in their interactions with pupils and to grow as people; and
- deepening an awareness that *''good life is within, not something that is dependent on outside resources''* (Rogers, 1983; p. 3).

Rogers (1983) cited research conducted by the National Consortium for Humanizing Education (NCHE) in seven countries over seventeen years supporting the application of such person-centred principles in education, and summarised the findings as follows:

> *''Students learn more and behave better when they receive high levels of understanding, caring, and genuineness, than when they are given low levels of them''* (Rogers, 1983; p.199).

Audio-recordings of classroom interactions were rated according to empathy, congruence and positive regard, and inter-rater reliability was consistently high amongst the crew of raters. Where pupils' teachers were highly facilitative, pupils were found to have higher attendance rates, increased scores in measures of self-concept, greater improvements in academic achievement, fewer disciplinary problems, engagement in fewer acts of vandalism, improved IQ scores, improved creativity scores and to use higher levels of thinking and be more spontaneous. These benefits also increased with the years spent with a 'high functioning' teacher. In these teachers' classrooms there was more pupil talk, problem-solving, verbal initiation, verbal responses to the teacher, asking of questions, involvement in learning, eye contact with the teacher, physical movement, higher levels of cognition and greater creativity.

Underhill (1989) explained that humanistic psychology takes into consideration *process* issues in the classroom such as:

> *''…authority and self-determination; co-operation and competition; expectation and motivation; the individual and the group; security and risk; failure and success; self-esteem and its absence; personal meaning; and how participants feel, think, and act in relation to themselves, to each other, and to what they are doing.''* (Underhill, 1989; p. 251).

Bentham (2002) contrasts a traditional mode of teaching with a person-centred mode, as promoted by the humanistic tradition (reproduced in Table 4). She explains that at a class level the humanistic approach advocates:

- pupil choice and control over activities;
- a curriculum focused upon issues the pupils perceive as important to learn;
- a focus upon life skills including thinking skills, and personal skills such as communication and sharing (for example through cooperative learning);
- self-evaluation, self-monitoring and working to personal goals; and
- supportive and genuine *facilitators* rather than *teachers*.

Table 4: Traditional and person-centred modes of teaching (Bentham, 2002; p.31)

A comparison between traditional and person-centred modes of teaching		
	Traditional mode	*Person-centred mode*
Relationship between teacher and student	The teacher is the possessor of knowledge; the student receives the knowledge.	The teacher is secure with themselves and their relationship with their students, and from this relationship has a firm belief in the students' capacity to learn for themselves.
Teaching style	The lecture or textbooks are the means by which the teacher imparts knowledge.	The teacher shares with the students the responsibility for learning.

Teaching Environment	◆ The teacher is the possessor of power and it is the student's role to obey. ◆ Trust is at a minimum. ◆ The emphasis is on authority. ◆ Students are governed by being kept in an intermittent or constant state of fear. ◆ Democracy and its values are ignored in practice. ◆ There is no place for the whole person.	◆ Students alone or in groups develop their own programme of learning. ◆ A learning climate is provided which encourages personal growth. ◆ Emphasis is placed on the continuing process of learning.
Evaluation	Examinations measure the extent to which the student has internalised the required knowledge.	The learner primarily makes the evaluation of learning.

'Affective teaching' is one humanistic approach which has been found to be effective in promoting positive pupil behaviour with pupils with learning difficulties in special education classes (Shechtman and Leichtentritt, 2004). This approach to teaching involves reference in lessons to pupils' personal lives and experiences, including pupils' emotions, perceptions and behaviour. Shechtman and Leichtentritt (2004) argue that a learning process that involves the learner's own needs and interests increases their motivation to learn and therefore decreases misbehaviour. However, their study took place in Israel and therefore may not be easily generalisable to differing special education classes in the UK.

Supporting evidence for the importance of positive pupil-teacher relationships has also been provided by a meta-analysis of 119 studies conducted between

1948-2004 (Cornelius-White, 2007). This study found that learner-centred teacher-pupil relationships were associated with positive cognitive and behavioural/affective outcomes for pupils. However, Cornelius-White (2007) recognised that this study is not indicative of whether it is the teacher relational variables leading to the pupil processes and outcomes, or in fact the pupils' participation which then leads to empathetic teacher behaviour (there is a potential bidirectional relationship between the teacher and the pupil variables).

Nie and Lau (2009) also investigated the way in which classroom management practices of 'care' and 'behavioural control' impacted upon pupil behaviour (linking the humanistic and behavioural approach). 'Care' referred to the teacher's sensitivity to the pupils' needs for relatedness through demonstrating friendliness, acceptance, openness, concern and respect. Both care and behavioural control were found to be positively related to pupil engagement, but behavioural control was found to be a negative predictor of misbehaviour, and care was found to be a positive predictor of satisfaction with school. Nie and Lau (2009) therefore propose that classroom management should aim to blend both care and behavioural control. However, again this was a correlational study and therefore one cannot conclude whether it was the classroom management strategy that led to the outcome or visa versa. This study also lacks generalisability to the UK context due to being based in Singapore and also limited to Grade 9 pupils (mean age of participants being 15.5 years).

A recent application of the humanistic framework has been through the work of Daniel Goleman (1996), who promoted school-based emotional literacy programmes in his bestselling book, *Emotional Intelligence.* Goleman (1996) describes the benefit of emotional literacy courses for children's emotional and social competence, their ability to learn, and their behaviour both within and outside of the classroom (within the five areas of: emotional self-awareness; managing emotions; harnessing emotions productively; empathy/reading emotions; and handling relationships). This work contributed to the development of a national Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) programme (DfES, 2005) which began to be implemented across England following a pilot from 2003-2005, and is now reported to be used in approximately 90% of primary schools and 70% of secondary schools nationally (Humphrey et al, 2010).

Goleman's work has not been without its critics, and has been criticised particularly for its lack of academic rigour, and its assumptions about the construct of emotional intelligence (Ciarrochi et al, 2001; Mayer and Cobb, 2000; Weare, 2010). However, the SEAL programme was also based upon research by Weare and Gray (2003) which supported a whole-school holistic approach towards social and emotional learning aiming to foster warm relationships, pupil and teacher autonomy, participation, and clear rules, expectations and boundaries, with an explicit focus upon teaching emotional and social competence. More recently, reviews of social and emotional learning programmes by Durlak et al (2011) and the National Institute for

Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE, 2008) have also supported this approach towards promoting pupils' social and emotional development.

Overall, the humanistic approach has offered an alternative framework to behavioural approaches for understanding pupil behaviour which takes into account the perspective of the child, and their thoughts and feelings which may impact upon their behaviour and their response to behavioural methods of classroom management. This approach has also been applied alongside behavioural approaches with some success (for example, Nie and Lau, 2009).

5.6 Attachment theory

Psychodynamic approaches, from which attachment theory was derived (Bowlby, 1951), have become a major developmental paradigm for understanding social and emotional development over the last 50 years. Bowlby used evidence from studies of institutionalised children, children in residential nurseries and juvenile delinquents (such as *Forty-Four Juvenile Thieves*, 1944) to support his views about the impact of maternal deprivation upon children's intellectual, social, emotional and physical development (Maternal Care and Mental Health, 1951). Bowlby (1988) believed that individuals are happiest when life involves excursions from a Secure Base which their attachment figures provide. The infant's needs are met in the context of this relationship (in terms of warmth, food and protection), and a preference and proximity with this attachment figure develops regardless of the infant's survival needs. The infant is alarmed by this figure's absence and

can be soothed on their return, and as the infant develops physically they become able to explore the world feeling safe with the availability of the Secure Base when they experience stress.

Bowlby's theories about attachment had a significant impact upon practices such as separation of babies at birth, accommodation of parents in hospitals when their children are undergoing treatments, and social policies supporting early infant/parent relationships such as Surestart (Geddes, 2006). Ainsworth (1967) later went on to develop experimental work on attachment through the Strange Situation Procedure. This involved observations of infants between one and two years of age, and their responses to separation from and reunion with either their mothers, or a stranger. This allowed investigation of the infant's exploration of their environment and their attachment behaviour towards their caregiver. Ainsworth initially identified three patterns of attachment behaviour: securely attached; insecure-avoidant; and insecure-resistant (Ainsworth et al, 1978). Later, Main and Solomon (1986) went on to establish another category; insecure-disorganised, for those infants whose behaviour did not fit into Ainsworth's three patterns. Longitudinal studies have supported an association between early attachment style and later behavioural and emotional difficulties (Prior and Glaser, 2006). Neuroscientists have also begun to link early interrelational experiences with brain development (Gerhardt, 2004, Schore, 2001; Siegel, 2001).

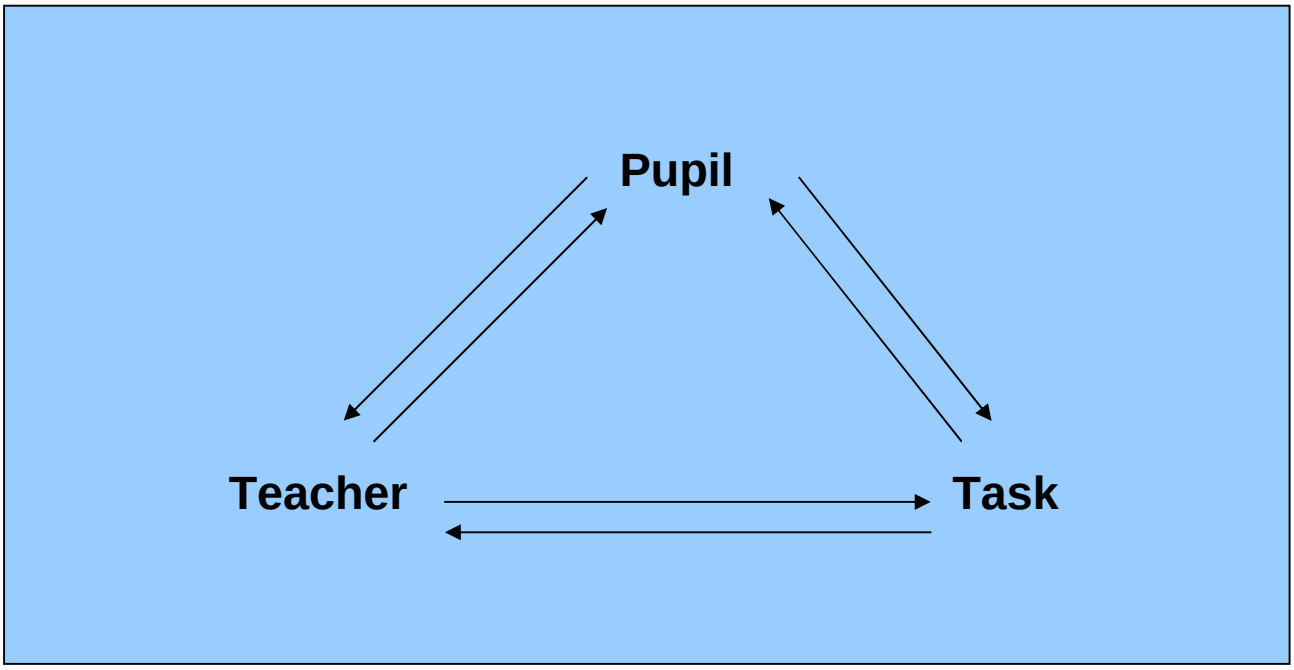
Attachment theory has developed understanding of the influences of early relationships upon patterns of behaviour, which has also been applied to

education to promote understanding of pupil behaviour in learning situations (Bomber, 2007; Geddes, 2006).

For example; Geddes (2006) explains that learning situations involve the pupil's capacity to relate to the staff member supporting them, and also their capacity to relate to the learning task (represented by the Learning Triangle in Figure B). The Learning Triangle is therefore balanced between the needs of the pupil, the presence of the teacher, and the demands of the learning task.

Geddes (2006) linked Ainsworth's (1967) and Main and Solomon's (1986) four attachment styles to the learning triangle to describe the learning profiles of children with different attachment styles, and therefore to suggest the implications for intervention to support these pupils in education. Bomber (2007) also applies Attachment Theory to education, and particularly emphasises the importance of the Secure Base (Bowlby, 1988) and the provision of an additional attachment figure in school for children with attachment difficulties (known as the 'Key Adult'). These approaches focus upon the importance of trusting and secure relationships, emotional containment and expression (Frederickson and Cline, 2002).

Figure B: The Learning Triangle (Geddes, 2006)



Nurture Groups (NGs) have developed from within this paradigm (Boxall, 2002) in order to support children to improve developmentally inappropriate behaviours through exposure to social interactions and opportunities (Bennathan and Boxall, 2000). The rationale behind NGs is to compensate for missed nurturing experiences that the children targeted for this intervention are believed to have missed in their earlier years (Bennathan, 2001). NGs aim to support the child to develop caring and supportive relationships with members of staff and their peers so that they are able to experience being cared for and valued, as well as gradually increasing self-control and autonomy (Boxall, 2002). Research studies have provided supporting evidence that NGs can improve the social, emotional and behavioural functioning of at-risk children (for example: Sanders, 2007; Seth-Smith et al, 2010).

Hart (2010) suggests that the theory underpinning NGs could be pertinent to classroom behaviour management. Scott and Lee's (2009) case-control study is cited to support this argument; this study showed that a less intensive variation on the traditional NG (also including an extended age range of age 4-10 years), was able to produce statistically significant improvements in children's social and emotional functioning (as measured by the Boxall Profile; Bennathan and Boxall, 1998). This intervention followed the principles derived from the NG Network literature (Lucas et al, 2006; described in Table 5). Hart (2010) argues that nurturing principles could provide a model for effective classroom behaviour management, given the success of NGs for the children with social, emotional and/or behavioural difficulties who attend them for the majority of their time during the intervention.

Table 5: Principles of Nurture Groups. Taken from Scott and Lee (2009; p.6)

Principles derived from the Nurture Group Network literature
Structured daily routines to promote a sense of security
A curriculum which includes both personal and social development, and the formal curriculum; especially language and mathematics (as tailored to each child's level of development)
An emphasis on language and clear communication, ensuring understanding by the child
Fostering of close, supportive and caring relationships between children and staff
Opportunities for social learning through co-operation and play with other children
Adults providing a positive model of appropriate social interaction
Shared eating experiences as an expression of care as well as opportunity for social learning
Efforts made to engage positively with parents

However, the reliability and validity of the Boxall Profile as an assessment tool has been questioned. The subjectivity of the measure has been raised as a concern (King and Chantler, 2002; O'Connor and Colwell, 2002). Davies (2011) points out that the Boxall Profile was standardised in 1984 and therefore may not still be valid in the current day, and also questions the representativeness of the sample it was based upon (with over half the sample being children in NGs), and the lack of information available about statistical analysis of the measure.

Overall, attachment theory has offered another way to understand pupil behaviour based upon the way in which children relate to others. This approach has emphasised the importance of opportunities to develop secure and trusting relationships with school staff, and the application of nurturing principles in the educational context.

5.7 Concluding synthesis

The three theoretical approaches discussed each offer a different perspective towards understanding pupil behaviour (summarised in Table 6). Behavioural interventions have focused upon observable and measurable pupil behaviours, and have promoted an approach to behaviour which involves detailed analysis of pupil behaviours and of the environment within which these behaviours occur. Research in the area of behaviour management within the applied behavioural psychology paradigm has contributed considerably to the practice of practitioners within education, and continues to

have a prominent role in publications and training resources for effective classroom management and whole-school policy development. The painstaking and determined quest for evidence demonstrated by researchers in this field has also left a major legacy, and has led to improved methodology and more objective research techniques being employed to operationalise and measure the impact of interventions on pupil behaviour.

However, humanists view the emphasis on compliance as an inappropriate goal for educators (Porter, 2007) and suggest that the emphasis on punishment and reward could have a negative impact on the relationship between the adult and child (Kohn, 2001). Curwin and Mendler (1988) maintain that although achieving short-term results, these approaches teach pupils obedience rather than responsibility. They assert that a behavioural programme based on a responsibility model is more likely to have long term effects. Rigoni and Walford (1998) also criticise the approach because it urges teachers to avoid reflecting on the complexity of pupils' behavioural difficulties.

The humanist perspective offers an alternative approach which focuses more upon the thoughts and feelings of individuals rather than upon observable behaviours, and counters some of the criticisms described above with its focus upon learner-centred teaching, and shared responsibility with pupils. However, some studies have suggested that when both behavioural and humanist approaches are employed together, then they can complement each

other in order to most effectively promote pupil engagement, as well as to promote pupils' satisfaction with school (for example; Nie and Lau, 2009).

Some researchers have also suggested that in the application of behavioural approaches, it is vital that consideration be given to the potential impact of these approaches on pupils' relationships (Ellis and Tod, 2009), which an attachment perspective would promote. An attachment approach to managing pupil behaviour emphasises the importance of the child's relationships with others, and considers the complex unconscious processes which may be underlying patterns of behaviour, based upon the influences of early relationships upon the child's development.

Ellis and Tod (2009) recognised the importance of the child's relationships with others and the ways in which these relationships underpin learning and behaviour within the classroom context (also in line with the Learning Triangle discussed earlier; Geddes, 2006). Their conceptual framework brings together aspects of all three of these theoretical approaches.

Table 6: A summary of the three theoretical approaches to behaviour management

Approach	Assumptions	Methods	Examples of intervention
Behaviourism	- Behaviour learned through interactions with the environment - Interested in the mechanisms through which behaviour is learned -Only interested in observable behaviours - Changes in behaviour are governed by the 'law of effect' (consequences) -Behaviours are also governed by the contexts in which they occur (antecedents)	- Using Applied Behaviour Analysis to investigate the antecedents and consequences of a target behaviour -Changing aspects of the child's environment - Using experimental analyses to clarify changes in behaviour and to establish effectiveness of the intervention, durability and generalisability	- Training teachers in classroom behaviour management using contingent teacher praise - Contingency contracting - Positive reinforcement -Group contingencies
Humanism	-Individuals function as whole beings with feelings and thoughts -The teacher is a facilitator and their role is to identify and create a psychological climate which supports learners to grow and to learn	-Pupils are encouraged to self-direct their learning -Pupils' own interests, needs and motivations are taken into account -Emphasis is placed upon providing an enabling learning climate -Research focuses upon the teacher-pupil and pupil-teacher interactions happening in the classroom, and the ways in which pupils are supported to learn	- Affective Teaching - Promoting learner-centred teacher-pupil relationships -Teachers demonstrating high levels of understanding, caring, and genuineness -Emotional literacy courses
Attachment	-Early relationships impact upon a child's emotional, social, intellectual and physical development -It is important for children to have a Secure Base provided by their attachment figures	-The Strange Situation (Ainsworth, 1967) led to the identification of four attachment patterns which can be applied to understand pupil behaviour in education settings -Geddes' (2006) Learning Triangle provides a framework for understanding a pupil's capacity to relate to the staff member supporting them, and also their capacity to relate to the learning task	-Focus upon the importance of trusting and secure relationships, emotional containment and expression

5.8 Integrating theoretical approaches to promoting positive pupil behaviour

A systematic review of how theories explain learning behaviour in school contexts took place with the aim of promoting the use of research and evidence to improve teaching and learning (Powell and Tod, 2004). The review involved comparing and contrasting the findings from 46 relevant empirical studies or reviews of empirical research (known as *mapping*). Powell and Tod (2004) found that theory was rarely driving experimental studies, but tended to be more often 'associated' with learning behaviours in the background literature or in the explanations for the study outcomes. They suggested that the costs involved (for example if a longitudinal study were required), methodological difficulties, and time pressures were likely to be factors that restricted a more theory-driven research endeavour. Their review was also focused upon the three variables *theory, learning behaviour* and *school contexts*, and excluded those studies that did not focus upon behaviour management, which may have limited access to studies with a theory-driven focus. Another caution also relates to selection of studies because in adopting only empirical studies in the review, pieces of work that could have been influential were excluded (for example, theoretical discussion pieces). Studies linked to settings outside of schools were also excluded, which limited exploration of the influences of family or community factors, and psycho-biological factors, upon learning behaviours.

Powell and Tod's (2004) review suggested that learning behaviour develops through the interactions of the individual with social and contextual factors, supported by their evidence that the most frequently occurring learning behaviours in the review were described by the terms 'collaboration', 'communication', 'participation, 'engagement' and 'independent activity'. Powell and Tod (2004) suggest that:

> *''Intrinsic to these descriptors are notions of interaction and interdependence within, and between, the individual and his/her social and academic environment''* (Powell and Tod, 2004; p.83).

The review supported a *behaviour for learning conceptual framework* (Ellis and Tod, 2009; reproduced in Figure C), which endorses the idea that the quality of relationships characterising interactions occurring in the classroom influences pupils' learning and behaviour. The *behaviour for learning conceptual framework* places the promotion of learning behaviour at the heart of the model with central importance for those providing learning experiences for pupils. This framework views the management of behaviour and the promotion of learning as the same fundamental issue, and therefore uses the term 'learning behaviour' to reduce the perception that these are two separate issues.

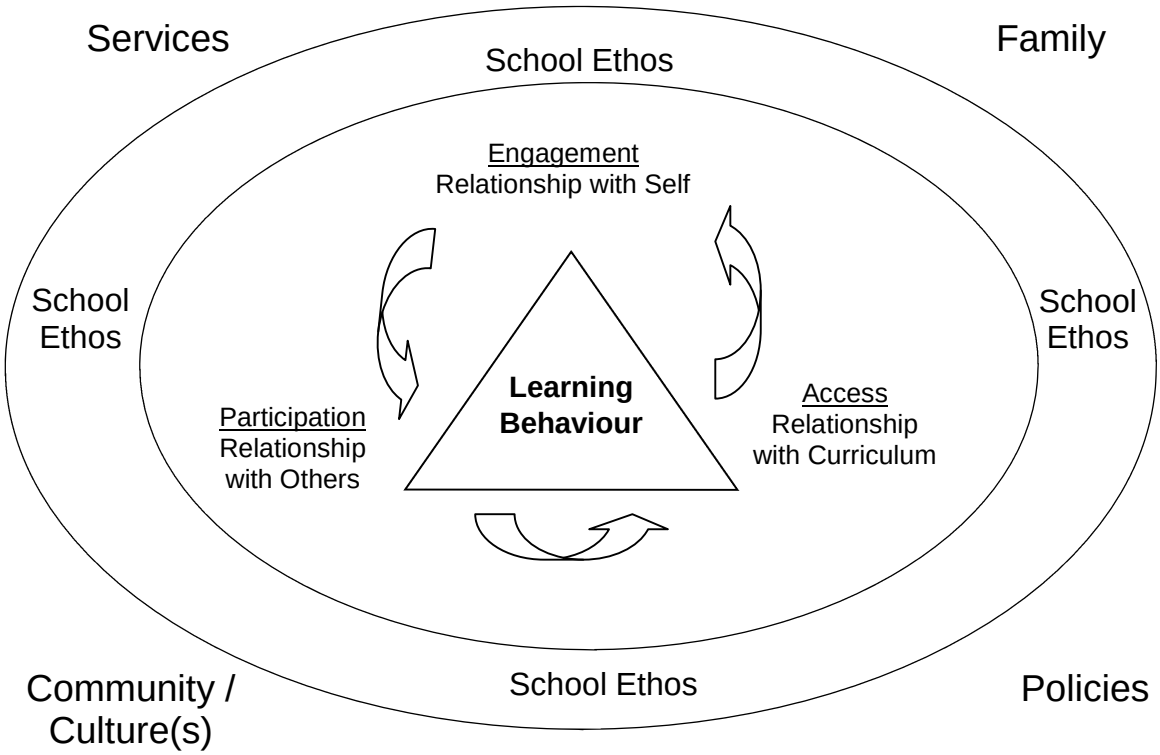
Powell and Tod's (2004) review also found that the dominant theories contributing to an understanding of learning behaviours were: 'cognitive' (curriculum access); 'social' (social/participation)' and 'affective'

(self/engagement), although Powell and Tod recognised that a combination of theoretical perspectives might be needed in order to fully understand the complexity of the relationship aspects of learning behaviours.

The surrounding triangle depicted in the model (Figure C) symbolises the social, emotional and cognitive factors identified that influence learning behaviour; referred to as the 'triangle of influence' (Ellis and Tod, 2009, p. 51).

Figure C: The behaviour for learning conceptual framework.

Reproduced from Ellis and Tod (2009); p. 52.



As a result of Powell and Tod's (2004) review, this conceptual model was extended further to include the essential processes of 'engagement', 'access'

and ‘participation’. These components refer to the accessibility of the curriculum to learners, who must also be able to engage with the curriculum, respond to the curriculum, and participate with their peers and their teachers within a group context. These three processes are believed to be nurtured through three core relationships: relationship with others (for example, how well the pupil gets on with the teacher or their peers); relationship with self (for example, how the pupil is feeling emotionally); and relationship with the curriculum (for example, how interested and capable the pupil feels in the subject area). This identifies strongly with attachment theory, and in particular Geddes’ (2006) Learning Triangle described earlier. The framework also recognises the importance of contextual factors influencing learning behaviour, including the ethos of the school.

The framework has sought to describe the theoretical links and components involved in learning behaviours in order to support the conceptualisation of the complex issues involved in behaviour management. Although the model is not able to reflect the dynamic interaction between some of the factors involved, or the complexity of the theoretical components of the model, it does however attempt to bring together a range of factors influencing learning behaviours into a clear and useful framework for conceptualising learning behaviour.

The National Autistic Society (NAS) has also developed a framework used by NAS schools and services, for understanding and responding to the individual needs of pupils with ASD. This framework effectively integrates aspects of

behavioural, humanistic and attachment theory particularly pertinent to individuals with ASD (NAS, 2011), and is represented by the acronym SPELL (described in Table 7).

Similarly, Connor (1999) explains that educational methods need to meet the fundamental needs of children with ASD for routine, generalisation of skills, reduction in anxiety and developing positive relationships. Therefore, he promotes use of the classroom strategies listed in Appendix A to promote behavioural, social and scholastic behaviours.

Table 7: Components of the SPELL framework

The SPELL Framework (NAS, 2011)	
Structure	Ensuring the world is a safe and predictable place, supporting independence and autonomy
Positive	Positive approaches and high expectations, building on strengths and interests to reinforce self esteem
Empathetic	Understanding the perspective of the child with ASD, reducing anxiety and building a quality relationship with supporting staff
Low arousal	Calm and ordered approach to reduce anxiety and aid concentration, controlling sensory and other stimulation)
Links	Links between the different components of the child's life such as parents and teachers, to provide a holistic approach to supporting the child

In a review of the research literature examining educational interventions for children with ASD, Fletcher-Campbell (2003) concluded that:

‘‘There is no cogent research evidence that any one intervention is more favourable across the cohort of pupils with ASD.’’

However, Fletcher-Campbell (2003) did find evidence that pupils with ASD tended to have highly individual needs with regard to intelligence, level and preferred means of communication, and other special educational needs. These needs also alter as the child grows up. She therefore suggests that practitioners working with pupils with ASD need to have a broad repertoire of skills and knowledge relating to a range of interventions.

5.9 Aims of this study

This study took place in a special school for pupils with MLD, but with a high number of pupils who also have a diagnosis of ASD. The school caters for 109 children from Reception age through to Sixth Form (4-19 years), and places pupils mainly in ability classes, and some in classes based upon need (for example; some classes comprised only pupils with ASD). The Head Teacher wished to review the behaviour management systems in use within the school. Therefore, this study was undertaken to support the school in reviewing its behaviour management systems. Specifically, I aimed to find out about:

- the range of behaviour management strategies in use across classrooms in this specialist setting;
- which strategies staff were finding to be most effective;

- how Individual Behaviour Plans were being used with pupils with significant behaviour needs; and
- views on the development of a whole-school behaviour policy.

5.10 Methodology

I took an interpretive epistemological stance in this study because my goal was to understand the interviewees' perspectives and to derive meaning from this. My purpose was not to be able to generalise, predict or control, as might be the purpose in a positivist paradigm, but rather to explore the nature of the behaviour management strategies in use within this particular setting. Rather than allowing only access to facts and behaviour (as might be achieved through a questionnaire, or observation); the interview allowed insight into the beliefs and attitudes behind the facts and behaviours (Robson, 2002). In this case, rather than exploring only the behaviour management strategies in use, the interview enabled me to develop an understanding of why these strategies are important to the teachers, and those values, beliefs and underlying 'theories' that underpin their use of these approaches.

This study allowed exploration of members of staffs' 'espoused theories' as opposed to their 'theories-in-use' (Argyris and Schon, 1974), which refers to the theories which actually govern what they do in the classroom. Within the time constraints and practical constraints of my work within the school, it was not possible to explore both aspects. However, ideally a mixed-method design involving observations for example, might have afforded some further

exploration of the ‘theories-in-use’ through gathering more independent evidence. This evidence could have been compared with the information gleaned through the interviewing process to establish whether there was any disparity between participants’ ‘espoused theories’ which were discussed with me, and their ‘theories-in-use’ within their day to day teaching. Another consideration was that of my working relationship with the school which was based around collaboration with school staff, and following this alternative route to data collection might have threatened this working relationship if staff were to feel threatened by my observations to ‘check’ that they were doing what they said they were doing. Therefore, within the constraints of the study, I decided that the information I would gain through interviewing would be richer and would better enable me to support the school in reviewing its behaviour systems as requested. If observation had been employed instead of interviewing, I may not have experienced the range of strategies in use, which teachers were able to discuss with me at length, as well as to show me examples of their resources. This approach was also more in line with my interpretive epistemological stance in allowing me to explore participants’ perspectives and beliefs.

The interview schedule used in this study is included in Appendix B. Members of staff were given information sheets prior to the study (Appendix C) and were asked to inform the Head Teacher if they would like to take part in the study. The Head Teacher then formulated a timetable with appointments for each member of staff who had volunteered. In total, ten members of teaching staff were interviewed and each interview lasted

between 30 minutes, and an hour. There was only one member of the teaching staff who was not interviewed due to time constraints, although s/he had volunteered to take part. Teaching staff, rather than support staff were chosen because it was the teachers who held responsibility for the behaviour management systems in use in their classrooms, and also for the writing of Individual Behaviour Plans for pupils with more significant behaviour difficulties.

I decided to write notes during the interviews rather than to audio-record for two reasons. Firstly, I did not wish members of staff to feel inhibited through use of a recording device or concerned that their confidentiality would be compromised. Secondly, according to the scope of this study I decided that notes would be quicker to analyse than transcribing audio recordings which often contain information irrelevant to the study. However, I recognise that this increases the potential for researcher bias due to a degree of selection involved in deciding which information to record.

The interview notes were analysed using thematic analysis following the steps recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006), represented below in Table 8.

Table 8: Phases of thematic analysis.

Taken from Braun and Clarke, 2006; p. 87.

Phase	**Description of the process**
1. Familiarising yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the whole data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

5.11 Results and Discussion

The key themes identified throughout the interviews relating to the behaviour management strategies which staff found to be effective are listed below in Table 9. Table 9 also indicates the number of interviewees that discussed this particular approach (with the most popular approaches indicated at the top of the table), and the coding applied to this theme (a-o).

Table 9: Effective behaviour management strategies

Behaviour management strategies found to be effective	No. interviewees using this approach
a. Unified approach to pupil behaviour	8
b. Earning 'time' with preferred toy/person/game/activity	8
c. Individualised approaches to behaviour management	7
d. Varying forms of Zone Boards	6
e. Classroom rules	5
f. Communicating information with home about behaviour	5
g. Visibility of reward system and rewards	5
h. Focus on positives	4
i. Immediate response/feedback about behaviour	4
j. Sticker/star charts	4
k. Knowing individual pupils and their needs	4
l. Work on recognition and regulation of emotions	4
m. Use of calming down strategies	3
n. Time Out e.g. within the classroom, in another classroom or outside the classroom	3
o. Providing structure	3

These themes were further condensed into five broad overarching principles for behaviour management which appeared to be particularly important to staff within this specialist provision (Table 10).

These five principles will each be discussed in turn, and the related interview findings will be considered in light of the theory and research discussed in sections 5.3 to 5.7.

Table 10: Five broad overarching principles identified from the thematic analysis

Five overarching principles for behaviour management:	**Themes this principle refers to:**
1. A unified approach to behaviour across the school	a
2. An overarching orientation towards behaviour within classrooms which is clearly communicated through rules and systems applicable to all pupils in each particular class	d, e, f, h, i, j
3. Approaches to behaviour management which are child-centred, taking into account individual pupils' motivations, interests and needs	b, c, k
4. Expectations communicated to pupils in a highly structured and visual way	g, o
5. Development of pupils' social and emotional skills so that pupils can learn to manage their own behaviour more effectively	l, m, n

5.11.1 A unified approach to behaviour across the school

Eight of the ten staff interviewed discussed the need for some kind of unified approach to pupil behaviour. Some members of staff viewed this as important across the whole school, and some as more appropriate across particular Key Stages, or across Primary and Secondary age groups. One member of staff also highlighted that having an ethos which underpins behaviour management for everybody is important. One member of staff also felt that it was very important that any whole-school policy should be focused upon positive behaviour and should celebrate the achievements of pupils. However, some members of staff suggested that whilst having an agreed format was important, this should also allow for individual approaches within classrooms, and for the individual needs of pupils. These findings are supported by Bill Rogers' (2010) whole-school model towards behaviour management depicted earlier in Figure A.

5.11.2 An overarching orientation towards behaviour within classrooms which is clearly communicated through rules and systems applicable to all pupils in each particular class

Half of the staff interviewed referred to having general classroom rules in place. Two of these staff members also pointed out that it was important that the pupils themselves had been involved in devising these rules. This follows Bill Rogers' (2010) recommendations and follows a behavioural orientation to

behaviour management. This is also in line with the recommendations of government policy (for example; DfES, 2003).

Overall, the most popular behaviour management strategy reportedly used by members of staff involved varying forms of Zone Boards. One teacher was using a Zone Board with three colours like a Traffic Light, several others were using Zone Boards with five colours. Pupils begin the day in the green zone and could be moved up the Zone Board into silver or gold for positive behaviour, and moved down the Zone Board to amber and red for negative behaviour (there was usually either a photograph of each child or a name card for each child on the Zone Board which was moved up and down). Some staff were using symbols or pictures as well as a colour to indicate each level (for example; a thumbs up picture or an unhappy face). Some were relating each level of the Zone Board to more concrete rewards and sanctions including stickers or minutes missed of Playtime. In some cases the Zone Board formed one part of a larger hierarchical reward system.

Advantages of the Zone Board approach which were highlighted by staff included: the fresh start pupils have each day; the immediacy of the feedback to the child; the way that use of the Zone Board could still be individual to the child (behaviour one child may be moved up or down for may be different to behaviour another child may be moved for); and use of the approach to provide proximity praise by drawing attention to those children demonstrating desired behaviours so that those misbehaving could then be prompted to change their behaviour. Traditional sticker charts and star charts were being

used either independently or linked to Zone Boards. Staff members appeared particularly to value systems which allowed immediate feedback to be given about behaviour, although this was being given to pupils in a variety of ways.

The use of the Zone Board as well as the more traditional approaches to reward and sanction (often linked with the Zone Board), contingent upon pupil behaviours, are very much in line with a behavioural approach (Skinner, 1993). Some of the ways in which it was being used also suggested that social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) was influential because some children were responding to the Zone Board through observing other children's behaviour being reinforced. This highly visual and structured approach is in line with suggestions from Connor (1999) for supporting pupils with ASD. However, some of the criticisms of extrinsic rewards discussed earlier in terms of limiting pupils' intrisinc motivation (Kohn, 1999; Lepper et al; 1973) could be levelled at the use of some of these reward systems.

One member of staff viewed the amber zone more positively by naming it the 'Thinking Zone' where pupils were expected to decide what they could do in order to change their behaviour. Four members of staff also discussed the way in which they actively involved pupils in decisions about moving them up or down the Zone Board by asking them for their views about where they should be, why they think they have been moved, or how they could get to where they would like to be on the Zone Board. This promotion of working towards personal goals, encouraging pupils' sense of responsibility and their self-evaluation and self-monitoring skills, suggests an orientation to a more

humanistic approach (Bentham, 2002) alongside the use of behavioural strategies, taking into account individual pupils' thoughts, feelings and motivations towards achieving behavioural goals. This may therefore promote pupils' intrinsic motivation.

Another common theme identified related to communication with parents, which five members of staff highlighted as an important aspect of their behaviour management practice. Examples of this were sending home certificates, stickers, making phone calls, and putting green or red notes in pupils' diaries. This is supported by early behavioural studies which showed that home-based reinforcement of pupil behaviour was beneficial (Atkeson and Forehand, 1979; Barth, 1979). Involvement of parents is also supported by Nurture Group studies (Scott and Lee, 2009).

5.11.3 Approaches to behaviour management which are child-centred, taking into account individual pupils' motivation, interests and needs

The majority of staff members highlighted the importance of providing individualised approaches towards pupil behaviour, and allowing for individual programmes for behaviour which were often crystallised through the use of Individual Behaviour Plans (IBPs). Nine of the ten staff interviewed taught pupils who had an IBP. Staff referred to the need for consideration of the:

> *"…individual needs of children within the classroom;"* and for *"…knowing them and what*

motivates them…tailoring to individual needs and interests.''

Knowledge and understanding of particular pupils was viewed as highly important by four members of staff: for example, knowing how to speak to particular children, how to motivate particular children, how far to take consequences, and considering pupils' individual needs. In relation to a class of pupils with ASD, one teacher explained that there were no set class rules because what worked with one child is very different from what might work for another child in her class.

The focus on individual pupils' interests was also linked by eight members of staff to the reward systems in place. This suggests a humanistic focus upon individual pupils' interests and motivations (Bentham, 2002; Shechtman and Leichtentritt, 2004), but also uses an underpinning behavioural approach by reinforcing learning behaviour with a reward (Skinner, 1993). Members of staff referred to reward systems involving pupils 'earning' time with a toy of interest, to play or engage in a game with an adult, to spend time with an adult, or to have free time for choice activity at the end of the day. A 'Choice Box' idea was being used by some members of staff in this way. In one case the pupil could builld up the time allowed on the choice activity by building up time on work tasks. Some members of staff had also introduced earning 'treats' at the end of the week or the term along the lines of pupils' interests.

Allowing pupils some choice and control over activities is also in line with a humanistic approach (Bentham, 2002). These approaches also follow the

guidance from the DfES (2007) in terms of differentiating responses to pupil behaviour according to the nature of their special educational need, and similarly are supported by findings of Fletcher-Campbell (2003) for pupils with autism.

These approaches often followed the principles of Mosley and Sonnet's 'golden time' (2005) with pupils earning time to spend on the chosen activity. The approaches also used contingency contracting in some cases which is another application of behavioural theory based upon the Premack Principle (Premack, 1965) where high probability behaviours such as engaging in the chosen activity, were made contingent on a low probability behaviour such as engaging in a work task. This approach is also supported by recommendations for individuals with ASD (Connor, 1999) in allowing access to special interest or obsessive behaviours as a reward for completing work tasks. For example; one member of staff discussed the reward systems in place for her class of pupils with ASD:

> ''*Choose box under work station and choose from each others' too…chosen items of interest to them, one child likes straight edges, has rulers… in his box, sensory items… 3 tasks to complete. Now, Next, 3 activities then box. Very structured.''*

The principles of group contingency were also followed in some cases (particularly with older and more able pupils), with the group needing collectively to achieve the preferred activity (Bandura, 1977).

5.11.4 Expectations communicated to pupils in a highly structured and visual way

Half of the staff interviewed discussed the importance of having visible reward systems. Three members of staff also indicated that provision of structure was important for behaviour management, and often these structured approaches were highly visual. For example: use of Now/Next Boards; the TEACCH approach; Visual Timetables; and displaying morning routines above pupils' pegs, were all said to have a positive impact upon behaviour. Two members of staff also indicated that posters or display boards detailing visually the reward and sanction system were helpful for staff and pupils. For example, one classroom had a colour coded behaviour system displayed visually with red for consequences, amber for rules and green for rewards.

Similarly, two members of staff emphasised the importance of structuring tasks by breaking them down into very small steps for pupils for which they could achieve rewards. One approach involved a pupil moving a football forward a space each time he demonstrated a positive behaviour/task component and then after four spaces he could choose an activity for two minutes.

The breaking down of tasks with rewards for each component part is very much in agreement with the ABA research (Baer et al, 1968; Lovaas and Smith, 1989) which is well established with pupils with ASD as well as a range of other special educational needs (Jordan and Jones, 1999). The high level

of structure, and calm and ordered methods are supported by the recommendations of the National Autistic Society (2011) in order to reduce pupil anxiety. The use of visual organisational systems such as visual timetables, Now-Next Boards and routine boards, and specifically the TEACCH approach, are also in line with the research and theory about approaches which are particularly beneficial to pupils with ASD (Fletcher-Campbell, 2003; Mesibov et al, 2004).

5.11.5 Development of pupils' social and emotional skills so that pupils can learn to manage their own behaviour more effectively

Four members of staff also discussed work that they considered to be very important in promoting self-management of behaviour which related to pupils being able to recognise and regulate feelings. Some staff used specific approaches to facilitate this such as a 'Comic Strip Conversations' approach to encourage reflection on children's own and others' feelings in particular situations, a 'Feelings Board' where pupils were encouraged to move their picture to a chosen feeling, and a 'Feelings Box' where pupils could put their name in the box if they needed to discuss something with an adult.

Another member of staff discussed the way she reflects back to the pupil *"I can see you're feeling…"* to encourage them to understand their emotions. Three members of staff also viewed calming strategies to be an important component of their behaviour management. For example, use of sensory items, encouraging pupils to recognise escalation of emotions and choose a

calm-down strategy, encouraging pupils to use particular calming area to work in, or to choose to walk away from a situation likely to trigger a negative emotional or behavioural response. Some 'Time Out' strategies were being used around the school to facilitate this, including Time Out spaces within the classroom, just outside the classroom, or Time Out in another staff member's classroom. One member of staff explained that:

> *''Teacher stepping back has been useful, take more control over managing themselves, act as observer and facilitator, rather than a punishment try to help them to manage themselves.''*

The promotion of pupils' emotional intelligence through improving emotional self-awareness and self-management of emotions, as well as being able to recognise emotions in others, follows Goleman's (1996) suggestions as well as the research promoting social and emotional learning more generally (Durlak et al, 2011; Hallam et al, 2006; NICE, 2008). The role of the teacher as a 'facilitator' in supporting children to learn to manage themselves fits with the humanistic approach promoted by Carl Rogers (1977) through promoting a psychological climate encouraging the child to grow and to learn. This is also supported by Curwin and Mendler (1988) who maintained that a responsibility model is important in behavioural programmes in order for long term effects to be maintained.

Whilst the use of Time Out strategies was discussed by staff members generally as part of a child's options for managing their emotional response,

these strategies are also supported by behavioural theory because they take the child out of the environment where their negative behaviour is being reinforced (Wheldall and Merrett, 1984).

One member of staff discussed the importance of developing personal relationships with pupils and being able to relate to children. She referred to the use of 'Talk Time' as a space for pupils to reflect and to express their feelings through talking or drawing. Another member of staff reported that she felt it was important to talk to pupils individually when their behaviour became more difficult, to find out if personal circumstances were having an impact on them:

> *''Take out and have a chat and see if something's happened at home.''*

One member of staff also offered 'Toast Time' for 15 minutes in the morning and viewed this as an important 'social time'. This member of staff also gave pupils in her class the option of sitting next to her if they were feeling upset, and called this area the 'Safe Zone'. Another member of staff also viewed having a 'meet and greet' with pupils in the mornings as important in order to check on their wellbeing.

The use of these approaches is particularly well supported by the humanistic studies discussed earlier by Cornelius-White (2007) supporting learner-centred teacher-pupil relationships, and Nie and Lau's (2009) study demonstrating the importance of teachers showing 'care'. These approaches are also supported by attachment theory (Bowlby, 1951; Bomber; 2007;

Geddes, 2006), and one teacher in particular specifically referred to using these approaches to support pupils with attachment needs and looked-after children. She explained that she sought to avoid use of an *''institutionalised regime''* with these pupils, and felt that it was important not to become an:

> ''*enforcer of rules and not relating to the children…*
>
> *seeing children's needs is important.''*

This links directly to the warnings given by theorists such as Kohn (2001) and Ellis and Tod (2009) that behavioural approaches could have a negative impact upon relationships between the teacher and the child if these issues are not considered. The Nurture Group literature also supports use of these approaches including the fostering of supportive and caring relationships, and particularly the use of 'Toast Time' as a key social time (Scott and Lee, 2009).

5.11.6 Summary

In summary, within this specialist setting catering for pupils with MLD and ASD, the behaviour management systems reported by teaching staff as being in place reflect several different theoretical approaches including a behavioural approach, a humanistic approach and a psychodynamic approach. These approaches are in line with those that EPs tended to recommend in Hart's (2010) study. The strategies in place are largely supported by the research evidence base within these three areas.

A behavioural approach and a humanistic approach often appeared to be blended (as suggested by Nie and Lau, 2009) in order to have in place an overarching behavioural approach but with recognition and personalisation depending on the individual child's needs and motivation, and an emphasis on development of individual responsibility and autonomy and pupil-teacher relationships. It is suggested that this might help to overcome some of the criticisms which have been levelled at use of extrinsic reward (Kohn, 1999; Lepper et al, 1973).

There were some tensions highlighted between the *''institutionalised regime''* which was associated with a pure behavioural approach applied to the whole school context regardless of individual children's needs, and a more psychodynamic approach which took into account children's attachment needs and the importance of being able to relate to members of staff.

Many staff referred to the importance of developing positive relationships with pupils and ways in which this relationship could support the child's behaviour, and many staff also referred to the way in which the pupils' relationship with the curriculum could be supported positively (for example, through use of TEACCH, through providing structure and breaking tasks down into component parts). Staff also discussed ways in which the child's emotional development and wellbeing could be supported. These three relationships are understood in the 'behaviour for learning' framework (Ellis and Tod, 2009) to be fundamental to pupil engagement, access and participation.

The conceptual structure of the 'behaviour for learning' framework may therefore be useful for EPs to use to bring together the approaches that they are recommending to schools (Frederickson and Cline, 2002; Hart, 2010) into a coherent framework, and to encourage members of staff to consider the way in which their chosen behaviour management strategies impact upon pupils' relationships with others, themselves and with the curriculum. This framework would also support members of staff to consider pupil behaviour from a behavioural, humanistic and attachment perspective, in order to meet different pupils' needs effectively. This study supports the use of the 'behaviour for learning' framework to conceptualise and develop understanding of approaches towards behaviour management within a specialist provision.

5.11.7 Limitations of this study

There are several limitations that must be recognised in interpreting the findings from this study. Firstly, I did not observe or collect information in any other way than through interviewing the staff. Therefore, the findings relate only to staff members' perceptions and understandings about the behaviour management strategies that they are employing, which may be different from what they actually do when they are in the classroom, and could be interpreted by an observer as a different approach entirely. Secondly, there could potentially have been a high level of researcher bias due to the nature of the recording of participants' responses and the degree of interpretation of

their responses. I did not 'check back' in any way with participants that I had interpreted their responses as they had intended.

There are also limitations with regards to the sampling methods because the Head Teacher was involved in organising the interviews and staff may have therefore felt obliged to take part, and this may have influenced their responses, particularly because they were aware that the information would be fed back to the whole staff (anonymously).

As highlighted earlier, the findings are not generalisable to other settings (which was not the purpose of this study). This point is particularly pertinent because this study was in a specialist provision catering for pupils with very complex needs. However, the study can contribute to the development of a knowledge base about the strategies employed by specialist provisions, of which there is scarce information in the research literature currently.

5.12 Conclusion

This study suggests that within a specialist provision for pupils with MLD and ASD, behavioural principles are a strong influence on behaviour management strategies in use, but these tend to be applied within a framework which also takes into account pupils' individual needs and the importance of supporting the child's relationship with the curriculum, with others and with themselves, and supporting them in their emotional and social development. Ellis and Tod's (2009) 'behaviour for learning' framework has been found to be helpful

in conceptualising and understanding behaviour management in a specialist provision. The findings also show how this framework can apply to individuals with ASD. It is hoped that these findings will contribute to the knowledge base relating to behaviour management in special schools, and strategies which are found to be effective when working with children with highly complex individual needs.

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5.14 Appendices Index

Appendix A: Basic classroom strategies for pupils with ASD.

Appendix B: Interview Schedule

Appendix C: Green Trees School Information Sheet

APPENDIX A:

Basic classroom strategies for pupils with ASD.

Reproduced from Connor (1999); p. 84-85.

Behaviour and 'social' management	Scholastic management
Providing a clear structure and a set daily routine.	Focusing the child's attention before any communication.
Using clear and unambiguous language.	Clear, simple requests or instructions, one at a time.
Making clear which behaviours are unacceptable.	Task analysis, to ensure tasks are manageable and within the child's attention span.
Avoiding sentences like 'Would you like to do this?' or 'Why did you do that?'.	Always checking understanding and repeating/rephrasing instructions as necessary.
Addressing the child individually at all times.	Practising newly acquired skills in different settings, in order to foster generalisation.
Providing warning of any impending change of routine, or switch of activity.	Using various means of presenting, such as visual, physical guidance, peer modelling.
Ensuring consistency of expectation among all staff.	Teaching what 'finished' means.
Recognising that some change in manner or behaviour may reflect anxiety or stress.	Simple and shared charts to record progress, and regular use of praise or more tangible rewards to mark good performance.
Not taking apparently rude or aggressive behaviour personally; and recognising that the target for the child's anger may be unrelated to the source of the anger.	Emphasising visual cues and signals as *aides-mémoires.*
Specific teaching of social rules/skills.	Specific teaching of common similes and metaphors, to reduce over-literalness and demonstrate that words are not always to be taken on face value.

Specific teaching of how feelings are expressed and communicated, and how they can be recognised.	Seeking to link work to the child's particular interests.
Protecting the child from teasing at all times, and providing peers with some insight into the needs of children on the autistic spectrum.	Exploring word-processing, and computer-based schemes for literacy development.
Regular opportunity for simple conversation, with increasing use of 'how' and 'why' questions.	Gradually increasing the complexity of reading material.
The use of charts as a record of behavioural progress and a basis for reinforcement.	Allowing the child to avoid certain activities which s/he may not understand or like, and supporting the child in open-ended and group tasks.
Enhanced supervision during practical or physical activities.	Allowing some access to obsessive behaviour as a reward for positive efforts on tasks set.
	Removal or minimising of distracters, or providing access to an individual work area, when a task requiring concentration is set.

APPENDIX B:

Interview Schedule

1. What kinds of behaviour management strategies have you been using, and which have you found to be most effective?

2. Are there any approaches being used that you feel are not effective?

3. What do you feel are important elements of an effective approach to managing pupils' more challenging behaviour; for example, conflicts between pupils?

4. In your view, what are important elements/important things to address in a whole-school behaviour policy?

5. Do any children in your class have Behaviour Plans? What's helpful about these? Could any improvements be made?

6. How are plans about behaviour communicated between staff? Could any improvements be made?

7. How are the pupils themselves involved in planning for better behaviour?

8. Are there any issues around behaviour management in the school that you feel need to be addressed?

9. What kind of support do you feel is needed to be able to achieve this? For staff members? For pupils?

APPENDIX C:
Green Trees School
Information Sheet: Behaviour Management Project

Heather Webb, Trainee Educational Psychologist, Educational Psychology Service

What's the purpose of these interviews?

The main reason for these interviews is to inform the development of your whole-school approach to behaviour management, and particularly to inform the development of a new behaviour policy in your school. I understand that you will be meeting together on the 9th November to discuss this and I aim to be able to provide you and all of the staff with a picture as to the strategies being used across the school, and the views of staff members about behaviour management. I will not be including any names of individual staff members, but rather aim to provide you with a whole-school picture.

I am also in the process of writing an academic paper for the University of Birmingham (where I am studying currently for my Doctorate) which is about behaviour management strategies used in special education. I plan to include some of the findings from my work with your school as a part of this more comprehensive report.

Will the information I give be kept confidential and anonymous?

I won't be naming individual teachers in my feedback from these interviews. However, there will be an opportunity to share the strategies or approaches you have found to be successful with other staff members at your meeting on the 9th November if you should wish to share this information.

In my University report I will not include the name of the Local Authority, the school, or any of the teaching staff; this report will be fully anonymous.

All information will be kept confidential.

What happens to the information I give in the interview?

I will be providing feedback about the findings from these interviews for your school.

The report I write for the University of Birmingham will be marked by three examiners. The information will also be disseminated to other schools and professional groups interested in behaviour management with pupils with special educational needs (for example; other Educational Psychologists). A shorter version of the report could also be submitted for publication in a professional journal. Information relating to the school's identity, and any individuals involved will be kept anonymous in all of these cases.

Do I have to take part?

No, involvement is entirely voluntary at all times, and you can change your mind and decide not to take part at any time without giving a reason.

Please contact Heather Webb, Trainee Educational Psychologist, for further information on X or at X.

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