THE CAUSES AND ALLEVIATION OF EBD IN

PRIMARY AGED CHILDREN : SCHOOL,

PARENTING AND COGNITIVE STYLE

by

PAMELA FAIRHURST

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Education of the

University of Birmingham for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

UNIVERSITY^{OF} BIRMINGHAM

University of Birmingham Research Archive

e-theses repository

ABSTRACT

This thesis considers the behaviour of 5 groups of primary aged children in the context of school, parenting and cognitive style. **Study 1** began with a survey across the author's Local Education Authority to ascertain how schools work in partnership with parents whose children exhibit challenging behaviour in school. It also explored perceived difficulties and ways to alleviate these. The replies indicated that the schools attributed pupil difficulties to the resistance of parents in the collaborative process and a mismatch between home and school expectations. Suggestions for improvement recognised the duty of schools to build good relationships, enhance communication and educate parents. Following the survey the case details of 13 pupils who were experiencing behaviour problems were studied and from these a booklet for parents (Better Behaviour) was developed alongside a guide for professionals in supporting them. The booklet was evaluated with 25 parents over 3 months, during which time they received support and guidance in parenting skills. The parents reported personal benefits from this support, which resulted in improved behaviour in 24 of the children. **Study 2** describes a matched group design of 180 pupils from 4 schools. Their behaviour was rated by teachers across 6 aspects. The parents of 1 group were sent a copy of the booklet and encouraged to follow its guidance via a series of letters from the school. After 2 months the pupils' behaviour was re-rated. The most striking outcome was the major influence of school in both the main and interaction effects. The variability of results highlights the multiplicity of factors, which determine behavioural change. The implications of these findings for the methodology are discussed. **Study 3** comprised 109, 9-11 year old pupils from 1 primary school. The teachers rated their classroom behaviour and home background across a 5 point scale. The position of the pupils on the Wholist-Analytic Cognitive Style Dimension was assessed by means of the Cognitive Styles Analysis. There was a significant effect of Wholist-Analytic style on behaviour, with Wholists having the most challenging behaviour. There was also a significant interaction between gender and home background, with females being better than males. This was most pronounced when the home background was rated as poor. **Study 4** describes 5 case studies and the relationship between cognitive style, behavioural characteristics and parenting methods. The mothers of 5, year 5-6 boys whose behaviour was beyond their control were supported in their use of the booklet over a 3 months period. Types of behaviour were found to vary with style. All of the boys' behaviour improved in response to changes in parenting strategies. The results of all 4 studies were considered to have implications for the causes and management of challenging behaviour with respect to teaching, parenting and school partnership with parents.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CONTENTS

CHAPTER SIX – STUDY FOUR

INTRODUCTION

My interest in the causes and management of Emotional and Behavioural problems (EBD) has its genesis in my first teaching post in the 1970s. Streaming was de rigueur at this time and I was struck by an apparent difference between the general demeanour of the able pupils and the less able; also it appeared that the less able were doubly disadvantaged in that the preponderance of EBDs were to be found in the lower streams. The work of Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore and Ouston (1979) drew attention to the effect schools could have on the learning and behaviour of their pupils and, the view that schools can create emotional barriers to learning and destroy the individual's motivation grew, as did the notion that if there was a mismatch between the needs of children and the support provided by the school, the vulnerable child would become more vulnerable.

At the time of the research by Rutter et al (1979) I was teaching in a secondary school in an educational priority area, there were 1,450 pupils on roll and only 590 were expected to gain any qualifications. Out of a ten form entry, there were three 'remedial' classes, my own form was the least able of the Year 8 remedial classes: 10 boys and 5 girls, aged 12-13 years: they were badly behaved, had low levels of attainment, poor social skills and low self-esteem. All of the children came from homes which were impoverished, where the parenting methods were dubious and interest in education minimal; of all the factors known to affect learning,

these children were disadvantaged in every way... but they proved to be an ideal group for a research project which I undertook for an Advanced Diploma in Language and Reading.

The research focussed on improving reading ability by using individualized reading programmes based on the pupils' interests in topics, type of reading material and their attitude to reading; consideration was given to where in the classroom the pupils wanted to read, whether they wanted to read alone or have someone share the reading. The project ran for eight weeks and the success judged by the progress of a matched group of pupils who were given a standard reading scheme and for whom no allowances were made of personal preferences. The pupils in the individualized reading programme group made more gains than the control group at the end of the intervention; however, a Mann-Whitney U-test showed the difference was not statistically significant. What did transpire from this work was the positive impact on the pupils' self-esteem having considered their views and personal preferences, factors considered vital when considering the emotional needs of pupils with learning difficulties (Pumfrey and Reason, 1991). Similarly, the behaviour of the pupils improved demonstrably correlating with their sense of being valued and having materials matched to them instead of vice versa; producing a self-reinforcing sequence of self-esteem and behaviour as espoused by Coopersmith (1967 p. 133).

In 1989, having been a teacher of pupils with EBD for 6 years, I had the opportunity to study self-concept further and conducted a survey in three secondary schools. 493 year 9 pupils' self-concepts as learners, reading status and self-perceived problems were the topics of

interest, along with suggestions for alleviating these problems. The results obtained from this research showed that pupils with reading difficulties had markedly lower self-concepts than independent readers; whilst this may not have been unsurprising, what was of interest were the views of both pupils and teachers as to what could be done about this situation. The majority of pupils welcomed parental interest in their schoolwork and expressed the desire for help from their parents. The teachers raised several implications for the schools in order to facilitate a better understanding of and provision for pupils with low self-concepts; these were:

- an awareness of the emotional needs of pupils

- acknowledgement of pupils' perceptions, especially boys

- attention to well presented and suitably matched lesson material

- the value of fostering home-school links, (Fairhurst and Pumfrey, 1992).

The overall findings supported the view of Burns (1979) that there is a circular process between self-concept, behaviour and feedback; also that home is considered to be of paramount importance in the formation and evaluation of the self-concept (Coopersmith, 1967).

In 1990 as a trainee Educational Psychologist, a fieldwork placement in an inner city Child Protection Project highlighted the devastating effects on children who had been subjected to abusive or neglectful parenting. One aim of the Project was to change parenting behaviour, detailed observations of parent-child interaction formed the basis for discussing changes needed.

I was given the opportunity to conduct some research at the centre which focussed on the assessment of parent-child interaction during play and the parents' views on the assessment process. The parents identified personal problems which hindered their enjoyment of their children and which made playing with them difficult. Observation of the parent-child interactive relationships revealed the dynamic two-way process involved in the interactions, also the necessity for the parents to set the pace of interaction and the difficulties in achieving this with unresponsive, irritable children. Fogel (1977) stresses the importance of turn taking during interaction and warns of the cumulative effects on a child's emotional and behavioural development if this does not occur.

Differences in the behaviour of children whose parents had been able to alter their parenting style, compared to the children whose parents were struggling, was striking; the former smiled, approached known and familiar adults and explored their environment productively; the latter were unresponsive or frustrated, they wandered aimlessly picking up and dropping toys or occasionally throwing them in anger – as a result, reciprocal interactive behaviour was inhibited and ambivalent behaviour produced by the children made positive parent-child interaction difficult. Furthermore, observations in this setting brought to life the beliefs and views of Winnicott (1965), Kellmer-Pringle (1975) and Bowlby (1988) who all stressed the importance of parents being aware of their child's needs and being able to provide love, recognition and discipline to facilitate healthy psychological development. The

4

deleterious effects on children, where parenting was inadequate or inappropriate was plain to see, in children who, through no fault of their own were labelled as having EBD.

As a practising Educational Psychologist during the 1990s to the present, I developed a specialism in working with pupils who have EBD, their teachers and parents. It soon became apparent, as voiced by Rutter, Tizard and Whitmore (1970) that children may show different behaviour in school than at home or, vice versa. I found parents and teachers to have different views in these situations, quite naturally as they would quite often be observing different behaviour.

Working with teachers in schools proved to be relatively straightforward, as did working with parents; however, where it was deemed necessary to encourage teachers and parents to work together, emotions often ran high between the two: feelings of hostility, blame, helplessness abounded. I developed a conviction that investigating the barriers which existed was prerequisite to trying to facilitate partnership with parents in the domain of EBD. Whilst accepting the views of such writers as Bastiani (1987) and Miller (1996) that there are legitimate barriers between home and school, I was encouraged by the work of Miller which demonstrated that these barriers need not become barricades.

I discovered, perhaps not unsurprisingly, that teacher training and practice was largely circumscribed by the National Curriculum, teachers proved to have little knowledge of broader

child development issues, thus felt unconfident and disempowered in communicating let alone supporting parents whose children had EBD.

Anecdotal, but heartfelt comments from parents, teachers and the media have and continue to resonate during my 30 years of practice and highlight the complexity of the causes and solutions to EBD's, for example:

Parents' comments:

"You become so involved with what the child is doing wrong, you lose sight of how to put it right."

"It's gone on for so long now I can't see it ever changing."

"So many things are wrong that I don't know where to begin to put them right."

"How can I judge if I have the 'balance right' with my child(ren)?"

"If the whole family's falling out, where do I begin?"

"You blame yourself and think that no other parent can feel like this."

"When you get called into school you know that the teachers won't have a good word to say, and you feel as bad as your child."

Teachers' comments:

"It's the ones you want to see that never come."

"We can identify them in the Infant school, early intervention is the key."

"I'm a teacher, not a social worker."

"Once EBD, always EBD and if they get a statement, they're a lifer."

"They get all the extra help and attention and still nothing changes."

"It's the home background that makes the difference."

Media comments:

"Early intervention must involve the family."

"Teachers have no rights nowadays, they should bring back the cane."

"When I was at school the ones who got caned once, got caned umpteen times and it made no difference."

"It's the quality of parenting that matters whether you've got one parent or two."

"Is it just too complicated a problem to expect to solve in school and the educational services?"

"We need something to bring parents and schools together."

Although anecdotal, such comments as the above draw attention to the variety of perceptions adults have about EBD, the feelings of helplessness which parents have, the frustration felt by teachers and the ongoing consternation held by members of society. Robins (1991 p. 208) in discussing conduct disorders wrote:

> "There is so much well-confirmed data on early correlates of conduct disorder it seems time to undertake some systematic efforts to prevent its appearance in children of high risk."

He asserted that poor school success and low self-esteem were to be found in children with conduct disorder and that such children appeared aggressive, impulsive and impatient. He recommended directing support towards helping parents in their parenting methods and

providing well-run Nurseries with curricula designed to teach and reward prosocial behaviours. Ideals to which I have endeavoured to aspire to in courses I have run for schools and parents (see Appendices 1-5, pages 359-363). One aim of the present research was to build on my experiences of providing these supports to developing a way of bringing schools and parents together.

In contrast to my work in mainstream schools, involvement with and observation of pupils in a Pupil Referral Unit (PRU) and EBD Residential schools presented a different picture of these pupils labelled EBD. For example, with the exception of a small number of pupils whose home lives were particularly problematic, over a period of 8 years, I observed pupils attending the PRU either full or part-time who consistently improved their behaviour and developed appropriate prosocial behaviours; data collected for an Ofsted inspection confirmed raised academic standards and higher levels of self-esteem; several factors were highlighted as being responsible for the improvement the pupils had made: the centre held as its guiding precepts the characteristics highlighted by Charlton and David (1993, p. 11) and the variables for provision espoused by Cole, Visser and Upton (1998, p. 146-166). Although the small class sizes, expertise of the staff and consistency of approach will undoubtedly have been important variables, these contextual factors allowed the staff to create an environment where relationships were important, communication clear, the teaching geared to the contrasting learning styles of the pupils and liaison with parents was constructive.

The "style led" differentiation found in the PRU led me to question the importance of individual differences and to look further into teaching and learning styles; this search led to the notion of cognitive style and learning strategies, a variable that could well explain the differences in learning and coping styles of people in general and in particular pupils with EBD. Thus my endeavour to consider key factors in the causes of and solutions to EBD, broadened to research on cognitive style, something which presented itself as a potentially important characteristic when considering individual differences and which could explain why children from apparently similar situations can respond entirely differently to learning and social situations.

My aims in embarking on this research were therefore grounded in many years of working with children with EBD, their teachers and families. I considered the investigation into cognitive style important, as individual differences are consistently quoted in literature on the causes of EBD even from birth. Furthermore, I am committed to facilitating the second most influential agency in a child's life: the school, in making partnership with parents more than an appealing rhetoric. I determined to investigate the obstacles which inhibit schools supporting parents whose children have EBD; also to find a method to help parents support their children better and a way to encourage teachers to support parents in their endeavours.

The research questions emanating from my aims are linked to the literature on the causes of and solutions to EBD, in particular, well established research into the link between parenting style and child behaviour (Bowlby, 1988; Maccoby and Martin, 1983); more recent research on

the optimal way to support parents and encourage generalisation of improved child behaviour (Webster-Stratton and Herbert, 1995; Sutton, 1999); also studies of cognitive style and behaviour (Riding and Burton, 1998; Riding and Craig, 1998 and 1999).

In considering the quality of research, Salmon (2003) asserts that "....research......has to matter to others." p26. This research has been designed to be informative to the participants and the following questions are informed not only by my own beliefs and curiosity, but by those of the teachers and parents I have worked closely with during the preparation for the research.

Research Questions

- In what ways do schools work in partnership with parents whose children have EBD?
- Is partnership with parents more difficult to achieve in relation to EBD than to work?
- What difficulties are there in working collaboratively with parents in relation to EBD?
- What would make working with parents whose children have EBD easier?
- What are the most common EBDs in primary school children that outside intervention is sought for?
- What family factors are associated with the foregoing and what interventions do parents and schools use?

- Would parents be successful in alleviating their child's EBD if they were made aware of the psychological needs of children and provided with strategies to develop an authoritative parenting style?

- Could intervention at home result in improved classroom behaviour?

- Is there a relationship between cognitive style and behaviour in primary school aged children?

- Is there a relationship between cognitive style, type of behaviour problem and personal characteristics?

- Can parents whose children are beyond their control be helped to improve their behaviour at home?

An understanding of the wider context in which these questions and the research was set, is considered important. During the early 1990's there was a massive overspend on the special needs budget in the county where the research took place: this was due in part to the closure of many special schools and strategic facilities, also to the reduction of peripatetic teams. As a result of this schools gradually felt forced to seek resources for pupils with special needs through Statements which led to wholesale labelling of children and a growing helplessness of class teachers in respect of classroom intervention. The numbers of pupils with Statements for EBD grew and in a relatively short time, the county was amongst the highest with Statements in the country.

Following the original Code of Practice (DfE, 1994d) the opportunity was seized to try to empower teachers to deal with EBD at Stages 1 and 2 of the Code. I was instrumental in devising and delivering county wide training courses in relation to EBD to raise teachers' skills in identification, monitoring, intervention and evaluation. One focus was writing Individual Education Plans (IEPs) and involving parents and pupils in target setting and strategies; schools were also encouraged to review their behaviour policies and to improve partnership with parents. The County's aim at this time was to change practice and policy, to encourage teachers to adopt a problem solving approach to EBD, to reduce labelling of pupils and to direct intervention strategies towards each aspect of the ecosystem a pupil with problems was in.

The official definition of what constitutes EBD (DfE, 1994) acknowledges that it can be behaviour which is within normal bounds but which challenges teachers; it appeared to the EBD professionals that many children whose behaviour was normal but unacceptable were being given the label EBD without regard to the intensity, duration or frequency of the behaviour. Indicative data from 144 Local Education Authorities showed on average 4% of pupils were on the Code of practice for EBD; in the author's county the figure was over 7%. As Kauffman (2001) said of EBD:

> ".....it is not a thing that exists outside of a social context
> but a label assigned according to cultural rules. Typically
> it is behaviour that is perceived as threatening stability,
> security or values of a society. Therefore defining EBD is
> unavoidably subjective in part."
>
> (Kauffman, 2001, p23)

Indeed many of the teachers in the author's county felt threatened by changes in the continuum of provision, by disturbances to their lessons and, anxious about balancing the requirements of Ofsted with a growing policy of inclusion in the county. The schools who took part in the studies for this research were not only engaged in trying to involve parents in supporting the pupils with EBD, but were receiving training, as part of the county's brief, in a whole school approach to teaching positive behaviour, monitoring, assessment and planning intervention for behaviour change. This wider work is not included in this research but is pertinent, as it provides the backcloth for the studies chosen. Details can be found in Fairhurst (2000) and Fairhurst (2nd edition, 2003).

The studies which formed this research were as follows:

Study 1 comprised several investigations:

- a county survey to ascertain how schools worked in partnership with parents, perceived difficulties and ways of alleviating these

- case studies of 13 pupils who were experiencing EBD, their parents and teachers

- the development of a booklet, to help parents of children with EBD, and a professionals' guide, to assist them in supporting the parents

- an evaluation of the booklet with 25 parents over 3 months during which time they received support and guidance.

Study 2: A matched group design – 180 pupils in 4 schools. Their behaviour was rated on 6 aspects by the teachers. The parents of one group were sent a copy of the booklet and encouraged to follow the guidance in it via a series of letters from the school. After 2 months the pupils' behaviour was re-rated. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data and qualitative information was collected.

Study 3: Teachers rated the behaviour and home background of 109 pupils from one primary school on a 5 point scale. Their cognitive style was assessed on the Wholist-Analytic dimension using the Cognitive Styles Analysis. Inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

Study 4: 5 case studies of pupils with EBD and known to be out of parental control. The mothers of these pupils were supported over 3 months and the teachers and pupils themselves received some support. The advice in the booklet: Better Behaviour was used as the basis for discussions with the parents and the pupils' behaviour in school was monitored over a 12 month period.

Although my research began some years ago I believe it is more pertinent now than when I started, especially in view of the Revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) and The Green Paper, Every Child Matters (HM Treasury, 2003) The former document devotes a whole chapter to Partnership with Parents and stresses strongly the requirement schools have to promote a culture of cooperation with parents and active involvement with them. It

acknowledges the challenging nature of this task but charges teachers with understanding the feelings and needs of parents also that they should be prepared to give practical and emotional support for parents.

LEA's have a responsibility to provide teachers with training on good communication and relationships with parents, also to help teachers to provide support for them. The Special Educational Needs Toolkit identifies one critical success factor as: professionals and parents working in partnership, I believe this research and peripheral work I have done (see Fairhurst, 2000 and 2004) can provide substantial support to make this ideal a reality and provide new insight into the causes of and solutions to EBD in young people.

CHAPTER ONE – LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1   Overview

This Review begins by considering the historical perspectives of EBD and the impact of social context in shaping perceptions of pupils with emotional and behavioural problems. The major theoretical perspectives are presented and the ways in which they have influenced views on causes of and solutions to EBD, explored.

The difficulties in achieving a definition of EBD are discussed and reasons given for adopting that of the DFE (1994) for the purposes of this research. The nature of EBD, its manifestations and the impact it has on the child and others is described and the view that early intervention in more than one area of a child's life is crucial, is asserted.

The complexity of the causes of EBD is acknowledged and literature is presented to cover the major variables of parenting, schools, within child factors and cognitive style. The quality of parenting and different parenting styles are examined and their link to behavioural outcomes in children proposed.

The quality of relationships between pupils and teachers, the school ethos, working with parents and school behaviour policies are identified as factors that can magnify or alleviate EBD: teacher training issues in relation to pupils with EBD are raised.

Studies on cognitive style and behaviour are described and it is argued that this important variable has a significant impact on a person's behaviour, interacting with home background and gender. With regard to gender the vulnerability of boys is highlighted.

Following a discussion on the causes of EBD, this Review turns to the factors and methods which can prevent, alleviate or solve EBD's. The importance of early experiences in a child's life as being either a protective or a risk factor is emphasized but what is stressed throughout this discussion are the cumulative effects of risk factors during development. The importance of the influence of interacting factors in furthering or reversing a particular developmental pathway is recognized as being a precursor to the future.

The factors which contribute to successful parent-child interaction and successful parenting are presented, alongside a discussion of Parent Education and Support. A key issue which emerges from the latter is that of the necessity to empower parents to intervene with their children, rather than to merely train them. The research in this area points to the need for professional development in those working with parents, to facilitate empowerment.

Following on from the latter, the Review covers the development of legislation over the last 20 years on the topic of Partnership With Parents. It is argued that more needs to be done to make this phrase a reality and the obstacles to this are explored. It is posited that for things to change teachers need to change their view of their role and incorporate the notion that

working with parents is integral, not additional to their role. Once more the issue of teacher training courses and professional development needs are raised.

Finally this Review turns to school effectiveness studies, with the conclusion that schools can make a difference to pupil behaviour, especially at the Primary level. Important variables are collated from the literature, namely: whole school policies, good classroom management, the quality of relationships, teaching and learning styles and home-school relationships. The Review concludes with the assertion that it should be realistic to expect schools to develop good home-school links and that parent-teacher cooperation is essential to helping children understand what is acceptable behaviour; literature is drawn upon to highlight the conditions necessary for partnership to occur and the need for additions to teacher training once more, is underlined.

1.2   Historical Perspectives of Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties

Troubled and troublesome children have been defined and dealt with in a variety of ways in response to societal context. The views of society have determined attribution, treatment, publications and theoretical models (Kauffman, 1977; Coleman, 1992; Greenhalgh, 1994; Jones, 2003).

From the Early Middle Ages to the 1600s those regarded as deviant from the norm were segregated and isolated from society; what Coleman (1992) described as a 'transition phase'.

occurred from 1700-1800, followed by a 'service phase' where attempts at humane treatment and training programmes were made. A range of provision has developed steadily since Victorian times each reflecting the beliefs and perceptions of society and influenced by the increasing awareness of factors associated with child development by Health, Education and Child Study Movement figures (Kauffman, 1977: Cole, 1989).

Official recognition of children now deemed Emotionally and Behaviourally Disordered (EBD), was given in the regulations which followed the 1944 Education Act and the term 'maladjusted' became a catch-all descriptor for children showing a wide-range of behaviour and learning difficulties (Ministry of Education, 1953).

The recommendations of the Underwood Committee (Ministry of Education, 1955) saw the genesis of a move to refine the term maladjusted and to classify difficulties in order to match provision to children's need. However, identification, placement and provision for maladjusted children remained a haphazard process until the mid-1970s and a medical perspective of within-child problems dominated the research (Greenhalgh, 1994; Wolfendale and Maras, 1996; Cole, Visser and Upton, 1998).

A growing dissatisfaction with terminology (Gulliford and Upton, 1992), findings that diverse difficulties affected a range of children's progress and adjustment in school (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore and Ouston, 1970) and an awareness that context and interactions with

others affected children's adjustment (Greenhalgh, 1994), all contributed to the Warnock Report's findings (Department for Education and Science, 1978).

Warnock pointed out that one in five children would require special Educational Provision at some time and the term maladjusted was replaced by EBD. Many of Warnock's recommendations were incorporated into the 1981 Education Act (Department for Education and Science, 1981) which abolished the categories of handicap brought into being by the 1944 Act and brought into law the concept of Special Educational Needs.

A report by Fish (Inner London Education Authority, 1985) did much to change perceptions to incorporate context and interactive dimensions in defining Special Educational Needs. This change was strengthened by the Elton Report (Department of Education and Science, 1989) which not only raised the profile of EBD but which recognised the influence schools can have on pupil behaviour.

> "The behaviour of pupils in a school is influenced
> by almost every aspect of the way it is run and
> how it relates to the community it serves."
> (Elton Report, 1989, p.8)

Despite a clear rejection of the view that misbehaviour was entirely the fault of the pupil, Gulliford and Upton (1992) assert that the Elton Report did not go far enough in taking the pupil's view which may have identified poor teaching as causing EBD. In accord with this assertion, Cooper (1993) gently criticizes it as being rather eclectic and negative in

recommending punitive measures thereby dismissing the issue of teachers who fail to control or cater for pupils with EBD.

The move to embrace children with EBD continued with the Education Reform Act (ERA) (Department of Education and Science, 1988) which provided a legal framework for an entitlement to a broad and balanced curriculum, with assessment and record keeping assisting the process of evaluation and diagnosis. However, some view ERA and subsequent Government initiatives (standards, league tables, Governor power) as shifting the focus from Special Educational Needs and making the protection of a Statement more pressing along with a return to seek segregated provision for EBD in special schools (McCall and Farrell, 1993; Greenhalgh, 1994; Wolfendale and Maras, 1996).

By the early 1990s concern was mounting that the accountability climate created by Government legislation during the 1980s made all children with Special Educational Needs vulnerable, especially those with EBD. Her Majesty's Inspectorate (DES, 1987) confirmed this concern by suggesting that schooling for pupils with EBD was giving particular cause for concern.

Fortunately, as society's view on the nature, causes of and provision for pupils with EBD changed, so a plethora of research studies emerged along with proposals for Models of EBD. Each model includes a set of assumptions about why children behave as they do and what must be done to correct behaviour. As a result of the latter, a shift in perceiving EBD as

emanating from solely within the individual has occurred and the influences of schools and wider social factors was acknowledged in the government 'green paper' (Department for Education and Employment, 1997). In this, children with EBD were the only named group of pupils with Special Educational Needs and the desirability of finding ways of tackling their difficulties early was stressed. There followed a Programme of Action (DfEE, 1998), which emphasised working with parents, developing a more inclusive education system and developing the knowledge and skills of staff. There was surprisingly little attention given to EBD, given the devotion of a whole chapter in the 'green paper'.

The call for greater inclusion was hailed as timely given the increased segregation for pupils with EBD up until 1999 (Cole, Daniels and Visser, 2003). Cole et al (2003) collected data on the prevalence of EBD by examining 144 LEA's Behaviour Support Plans (BSP). They found that most pupils with EBD remained on the roll of mainstream schools, with the average figure being 4%.

The views of what EBD was, varied, from exaggeration of normal behaviour to disruptive and dangerous behaviours. What Cole et al found encouraging, was some LEA's strong statements about their vision to include all children: however, cavaats about when this was desirable and practicable were typically included.

The BSP's did reflect the LEA's commitment to seeking to move towards inter-agency working, early identification and preventative interventions – although they did not state what

these would be. This research and other studies before it, does reflect the ongoing nature of the evolution of thinking about and supporting pupils with EBD.

1.3   Theoretical Perspectives of EBD

Beliefs about the aetiology of EBD have broadened in scope from the earliest assumptions that problems reside within the individual to the view espoused by Cooper and Upton (1990) that human behaviour is developed and maintained through interactional processes.

Different theories have waxed and waned in popularity as their applicability to medical and educational practices have been appraised; it is now generally held that no theory can be shown to be right in any absolute sense but that all can offer a perspective and point the way to asking appropriate questions about each individual's case (Davie, 1986; Ayers, Clarke and Murray, 1995; Cole et al, 1998). A theoretical stance must suit the purposes of the social agents who use it therefore it seems unlikely that one perspective will be useful to a range of agencies. Whilst accepting the validity of a biophysical explanation for some behaviour problems, Ayers et al (1995) suggest the usefulness of four major models for those involved in educating children with EBD:

Psychodynamic

Behavioural

Cognitive

Ecosystemic.

1.3.1 The Psychodynamic Perspective

Prior to 1950 virtually all work with those displaying disturbed behaviour was derived from Freudian theory or variations of the psychodynamic model. Common ideas can be extracted from the many varieties to form an identifiable general theory based on the belief that unconscious processes influence conscious behaviour through unconscious conflicts arising in early childhood (Kauffman, 1977; Apter, 1982; Provis, 1992; Ayers et al 1995). Although assessment techniques and interventions demanded by this model would seem to be beyond the expertise of teachers, it offers the notion of an individual's experiences being an influential variable in EBD. Furthermore it introduces the importance of the family meeting a child's basic needs to ensure healthy personality development and stresses the disruption which can occur to emotional growth by overly restrictive or overly indulgent nurturance (Cullinan, Epstein and Lloyd, 1983). A person's feelings and their reactions to experiences are also accorded importance.

1.3.2 The Behavioural Perspective

This view derives from classical / operant conditioning and is exclusively concerned with observable behaviour. The behaviourist's central tenet is that behaviour which is reinforced, whether intentionally or not, will persist and that which is not reinforced will diminish. The simplicity of this theory led to a range of behaviour modification techniques and

methods for assessing behavioural problems which were popular during the 1960s and 1970s (Herbert, 1978; Apter, 1982; Ayers et al. 1995; Wolfendale and Maras, 1996). The behavioural per-spective is not without its critics, notably for the question of values in modifying another's behaviour by manipulating variables in the environment. The usefulness to teachers and others caring for youngsters, however, has been unarguably demonstrated; the need for specificity in adopting this model has helped teachers and carers focus on children's good points as well as EBD, also to look at the effect of their own behaviour towards the children.

1.3.3   The Cognitive (or Cognitive Behavioural) Perspective

This focuses on cognitive processes: beliefs, attitudes, expectations and attributions in accounting for a person's behaviour, problem behaviour being seen as a result of maladaptive thinking. Behaviour is viewed as being mediated through cognitive processes thus any intervention must focus on changing the maladaptive thinking processes through strategies such as problem solving, self-regulation and attribution retraining; evaluation of the efficacy of such methods is by changes in cognitive processes which would be seen as reattribution, greater self-regulation and problem solving (Ayers et al. 1995). Whilst this model has led to a variety of interventions available to both educational and health professionals it is criticized as deficient by Maras and Kutnick (1996) due to its lack of focus on emotion and emotional relations. Furthermore they point out that the cognitive perspective does not take account of environmental, social and relational effects, even though working with others and making appropriate attributions about others' behaviour are key problems for pupils with EBD.

Maras (1998) acknowledges that the cognitive perspective does refer to environmental features but reiterates that it primarily takes a within child stance. She posits the notion that a more fruitful approach to understanding and alleviating EBD may be gained by taking account of the context and interpersonal relationships of the child with EBD.

1.3.4 The Ecosystemic Perspective

Ayers et al (1995) describe the ecosystemic perspective as focussing on positive and negative interactions between systems within the school and those externally that affect the school. EBD is viewed as a result of a disturbance in the equilibrium of a system. The notion of emotional disturbance and the ecological concept of a child acting upon and being acted upon by the social environment, has been stressed by many authors such as: Kauffman (1977), Apter (1982), Cullinan et al (1983), Reinhart and Huang (1987) and Coleman (1992). This view takes the focus off the pupil by considering the whole behaviour setting and how a person's behaviour helps or hinders them in a particular milieu.

Cooper and Upton (1990) developed an ecosystemic approach to classroom behaviour problems; they drew on three major approaches to family therapy, described in some detail in Cooper, Smith and Upton (1994, ch. 5). Each model was considered to offer tools for a systemic analysis of classrooms and other interactional systems. Assessment of EBD from this

perspective focuses on the interaction within and between systems and subsystems, interviews and observation techniques being used to establish the problem.

Intervention lay in facilitating positive interactions through such techniques as: re-framing, sleuthing, symptom prescription, positive connotation of function and motive (Ayers et al. 1995). Evaluation is based on observed changes in interactions resulting in a new cycle of positive interactions. Molnar and Linquist (1989) describe a school focussed approach which involves class teachers and other personnel using the above systemic techniques in the normal course of their work; Cooper and Upton (1990) suggest that these techniques are most appropriate for dealing with oppositional behaviour as described in the Elton Report (DES, 1989).

Attractive aspects of the ecosystemic perspective as applied in schools, are that the to-tality of a problem is recognized and the importance of the quality of the interpersonal in-teraction between teachers and pupils is stressed (Apter, 1985; Reinhart and Huang, 1987; Cooper and Upton, 1990; Cooper et al, 1994).

1.3.5   The Social Constructionist Perspective

Social constructionism rejects traditional notions of child development and personality. Behaviour is viewed as being determined by the child's context and especially by the

interactions between people. From this perspective, EBD is viewed as a construct or part of a belief system, thus when the label EBD is applied to a child it will have different meanings for different people. Travell (1999) argues that the term has a collective meaning within any society as a whole and that the construct draws on societal, cultural and individual histories and perspectives. Indeed Jones (2003) reports that cross cultural studies have indicated that teachers' ideal of the well adjusted pupil is culture specific; she goes on to suggest that teachers who claim that a pupil has a problem, need to question their expectations.

Considering the learning environment, Gerschel (1998 and 2003) highlights when a school's concept of normality isolates or rejects those who are different, they are participating in the social construction of deviance. In this way pupils who do not conform to the established norms are labelled and treated accordingly. Conversely, such labelling of what is and what is not considered the norm, can lead to some pupils special needs being missed; for example, Newham (2001) refer to the legislative framework (DfE, 1994b) as militating against identifying girls' EBD as the emphasis is on observable behaviour, whereas girls' EBD is commonly characterised by internalising behaviour resulting from unobservable emotional issues.

The language of policy makers and associated legislation can be seen to have shaped the construction of EBD. Visser and Stokes (2003) argue that the social constructivist view is a political issue and that local variables produce different working definitions and different practical application of the terms in different areas. Gerschel (2003) points to the tension

created for teachers in balancing the requirements of Ofsted; giving pupils the opportunities to learn without interference and disruption, with challenging their beliefs about whether or not a pupil has EBD.

Salmon in Greenhalgh (1994) identifies the educational process as the interface between the personal constructs of both teachers and pupils; however, as Travell (1999) asserts, if a concensus of adults decide a child has EBD, they rarely take account of the child's constructions.

The social constructionist perspective highlights the variability and prevalence of EBD and helps to shed light on the tensions which can arise both within and between agencies and between teachers and parents. It also points to the relevance of examining personal constructs when studying relationships in an educational environment.

1.3.6 Summary

Davie (1986 p. 2) emphasized the need for thinking about trends in conceptualising EBD as opposed to dwelling in-depth on any one theoretical perspective. He also stressed the necessity for practitioners to adopt an eclectic or pragmatic stance. He postulated the thesis that in forming an understanding of and, planning intervention for EBD, one should view EBD from a cyclical perspective, wherein each part of the process feeds back into an informative loop (p. 4); an approach he recommends for parents, social workers and teachers alike.

Rutter et al (1979) identify factors within the school that can exacerbate or alleviate EBD; furthermore researchers such as Bronfenbrenner (1979) presented a canvas with a range of variables which can be implicated in EBD.

The work of Cooper et al (1994) contributed to a change in thinking about EBD from being located in the individual to a social, contextual perspective; one which according to Davie (1986) has: "... substantial implications for professional training ..." (p. 8). In accord with Davie (1986), Ayers et al (1995) suggest that no one theory can be absolutely right and that cognizance of a multifactorial view of EBD is likely to be the most illuminative to practitioners – an option which Davie (1986) states "... will demand teamwork and cooperation within and between professionals ..." (p. 10). As early as 1982, Apter noted an increasing emphasis on environmental and interact ional responses to troubled children, a view shared by more recent researchers: Charlton and David, 1990; Cooper, 1993; and Maras, 1998. In this era of inclusivity it would seem that the days of locating the problem of EBD and subsequently the solution, *solely* within the child, are long gone.

1.4   The Nature of EBD

EBD is the preferred term in Britain as an umbrella descriptor for children who display behaviour and/or emotional expressions that have a deleterious effect upon their own and/or the learning environment, for other pupils. EBD's can be transient or chronic; they can occur in

one context and not in another; they can be present on one day and absent on another. If a group of professionals were asked to list, for example, five critical features which most accurately describe a child with EBD, it would be likely that no two lists were the same. This illustrates the difficulty in achieving a definition of EBD, or perhaps the futility of attempting to give one.

Kauffman (2001) stated that the definition of EBD (in America, the D stands for disorder, not difficulty) is not simple as it is not a thing that exists outside of a social context, rather a label assigned according to cultural rules. It is behaviour which is perceived as threatening the stability, security or values of a society; Kauffman asserts that defining EBD is unavoidably subjective, in part.

Visser and Stokes (2003) add to the views espoused by Kauffman and point out that there are many local variables that determine what EBD is deemed to be; consequently they suggest that fluctuating working definitions of EBD are produced which lead to different practical application of the terms in different contexts.

Jones (2003) goes a step further in her paper on the construction of EBD and suggests that the term is being separated from matters of discipline and that there is a danger that the 'disruptive pupils' will be grouped separately. Indeed, at the time of writing this research, Ofsted are conducting a study into young people who present challenging behaviour. It would seem that this group of pupils, who disturb the teaching – learning environment beyond levels

of tolerance, may well be regarded as a distinct group, separate and different from those who have EBD as a SEN. (Cole, Daniels and Visser, 2003). However, in the educational setting, some consensus as to definition is necessary for the purposes of ensuring equality of assessment, intervention and provision.

Some assistance in the definition of pupils with EBD has been provided by the Department for Education and Employment in Circular 9/94, which states:

> "Their problems are clearer and greater than
> sporadic naughtiness or moodiness and yet
> not so great as to be classed as mental illness...
> There is no absolute definition."
> (DFE, 1994, p. 9)

Examples of descriptions of pupils who might be considered to have EBD are given:

> "Emotional and behavioural difficulties
> range from social maladaption to abnormal
> emotional stresses. They are persistent
> (if not necessarily permanent) and constitute
> learning difficulties ... They may become
> apparent through withdrawn, passive,
> depressive, aggressive or self-injurious tendencies."
> (DFE, 1994, p. 7, para 3)

Although many appealing definitions can be found in the literature, for the purposes of this research the DFE (9/94) definition will be adopted; the belief that EBD's constitute learning difficulties is shared also that EBD may manifest itself in a myriad of ways either by

acting out behaviours or internalising ones. This definition also reflects recognition of the bio – psycho – social and ecosystemic nature of EBD.

Children who misbehave arouse negative feelings and negative interactions from others, they tend not to be popular, experience academic and social failure which they perceive, and consequently suffer from low self-esteem. (Galloway, 1987; Herbert, 1987; Maras, 1996).

Kauffman (2001) points out that EBD is one of degree rather than kind and reminds the reader that at some time most children have tantrums, whine, destroy things, exhibit fearfulness, fight or refuse to do something; what sets children labelled EBD apart from the norm therefore, is the degree, duration or the frequency of the behaviour or, the context where the behaviour occurs. He comments that professionals observing EBD are always comparing with a nebulous and constantly changing standard; consequently, what is considered deviant, how is it designated, interpreted and treated is viewed as much as a function of the perceiver as of the one with such behaviour.

Herbert (1987) identified that parents' and teachers' enjoyment of children rapidly diminishes when children show signs of abnormal emotions or behaviour, which in turn influences their own feelings and behaviour: they can become anxious, concerned, angry and re-

sentful. Gray (1993) argued that disruptive behaviour is poorly understood and that due to the negative impact a child's behaviour has on the perceiver, little sympathy is given.

As to what exactly constitutes EBD, Cullinan et al (1983) found that teachers described the most troublesome as aggressive, disobedient, overactive, disinterested, sluggish, preoccupied, withdrawn, fearful, depressed. Similar findings were noted by the Elton Committee (DES, 1989) who stressed that serious misbehaviours were rare but it was the low level, frequent misbehaviours which interrupted the teaching / learning situation that most concerned teachers. Of concern both to researchers and practitioners is the enduring nature of many EBD's and the possibility that teachers, especially of young children, put up with irritating behaviour (Varma, 1993). Chazan, Laing and Davies (1994) state that many EBD's arise between the ages of seven to eleven but that many have a history of disturbance going back to the early years. As early as 1973, Graham and Rutter found that if behaviour patterns are 'set' at 7 to 11 years of age then seventy-five per cent still had behaviour problems in mid-adolescence. Similarly, Robins, West and Farrington (1977) found many adolescents and young adults who are persistent offenders, had a history of childhood EBD, other findings to support these views are documented by Loeber (1982), Richman, Stevenson and Graham (1982), Robins (1991) and Rutter (1991). Boys are especially at risk of developing EBD, conduct disorders and eventually delinquency (Bullock and Brown, 1972; Herbert, 1978; Cullinan et al 1983; Kazdin, 1995; Smith, 1995; Rutter and Hersov, 1997; Sutton, 1999).

Bennathan (1992) has warned of the consequences of not recognizing and addressing early signs of severe EBD, suggesting that early intervention and support is essential. This view is echoed by Fortin and Bigras (1997) in their review of risk factors exposing young children to behaviour problems. They note the dynamic nature of risk factors which, in combination, are said to multiply the chances of negative consequences for individuals; as they suggest the causes of EBD are multifactorial, they recommend that intervention should be directed in more than one area of a child's life, a belief which underpins this research.

1.5   Causes of EBD

1.5.1   Introduction

Emotional and behavioural development is common to all human beings yet, as stated above some children have greater difficulties in these areas than others. Understanding the influences on human development is critical therefore to the understanding of EBD. However, it is important to recognise the differing views of different researchers and theorists and their subsequent emphases on influential factors (as outlined in Major Perspectives above). For the purposes of this research it is considered that useful insights can be found from each major perspective, that both internal and external forces conjoin to produce a child's behaviour and that the various perspectives are drawn together in the ecosystemic view outlined by Cooper et al (1994). In sum, the causes of EBD are likely to be complex interactions of factors within the home, the school and the child; extensive lists of variables which lend support to this view can

be found in: Charlton and George (1993, pp. 23-48); Farrington (1995, pp. 98-110) and Smith (1995, pp. 176-185).

1.5.2   Parenting

"... successful parenting is a principal key to the mental health of the next generation..." (Bowlby, 1988, p.1). Bowlby's concept of parenting is based on the provision of a secure base by two parents from which a child ventures steadily further and for longer periods of time. Bowlby describes his view of mother – infant interaction and the development of attachment and subsequent attachment behaviours, which, he states have episodic appearances and disappearances at times of increased risk from birth to death. The importance of a secure attachment for the development of the capacity for intimacy and relationship satisfaction is stressed by Levy and Davis, 1988; Pistole, 1989 and Collins and Read, 1990. Detailed explanation of attachment and the various theoretical perspectives on it can be found in Bee (1992, pp. 411-434) or Shaffer (1996, pp. 421-461). Loeber and Stauthamer-Loeber (1986) in considering the results of various studies on family factors and behaviour, concluded that parental neglect, lack of active interest in and a relationship with their children was a primary influence on the development of behaviour problems.

Winnicott (1965, p. 145) coined the phrase "good enough" parenting, suggesting that the perfect parent does not exist. However, to be "good enough" is to provide an environment wherein a parent is aware of, and sensitive to the child's needs and who facilitates healthy psy-

chological development. Most research (e.g. Waters, Wippman and Sroufe; Sroufe, Fox and Pancake, cited in Shaffer, 1996, p. 448) indicates that children who do not develop a secure attachment to their primary caregiver experience some form of emotional difficulty later in life. Kellmer – Pringle (1975 p. 37) stated "... It is the quality of family relationships which is of basic importance to the child's psychological development", and she warned of the deleterious outcomes for children if their psycho-social needs were not met.

Similarly Bowlby (1988) suggested that lack of love and recognition leads to feelings of insecurity, low self-worth and potential difficulties in interpersonal relationships. Bowlby also comments on parents' methods of controlling children. There is obviously a need for discipline but researchers advocate a clear, consistent system of rules and lovingly applied discipline: poor or inappropriate parental control has been found to be related to problem behaviour (e.g. McCord, 1979; Wilson, 1980; Riley and Shaw, 1985). It appears that if the control structure is not applied, or applied in less than a loving way, an internalised self-control system will not develop.

Bowlby (1988) provides evidence that infants who are physically chastised find it difficult to make relationships either with their caregivers or peers; furthermore they are likely to become aggressive themselves. Kazdin (1995) refers to antisocial behaviours as being present in most children at some point during their development; however he stated that when the frequency, intensity or chronicity of such behaviours lead to impairment of everyday functioning, a child can be deemed to have a conduct disorder. He stated that 2-6 per cent of

school age children display conduct disorders, with boys 3-4 times higher rate than girls. Of concern is Kazdin's view that a conduct disorder can be a pattern of functioning over the life span, also that their origins lay primarily in ineffective parent-child interactions. He described harsh, lax, erratic or inconsistent parental control as having adverse effects on children. Tattum and Tattum (1992, p. 28) stated:

> "... interactional quality of parent-child relations
> is the key to a two-way learning process".

The notion that interactional patterns of parent-child behaviour can be supportive or destructive to a child's social emotional development has been widely written about (e.g. Rutter and Giller, 1983; Campbell, 1990; Cohen, Brook & Cohen, 1990; Cooper, 1993; Pugh, De'Ath and Smith, 1994). In their work : Pathways from childhood to adulthood, Caspi, Elder and Herbener (1990) suggest that interactional styles persist because they directly provoke the environment to respond in characteristic ways; thus reciprocal person-environment interactions are set up which may be replicated in new situations; for example, children who display temper tantrums as a response to frustration and unhelpful adult authority are likely to have difficulties in adulthood when faced with frustration and controlling authority. Such findings attest to the body of evidence suggesting that EBD in a child's early years is likely to lead to chronic difficulties in later life : low self-esteem, poor social relationships, lack of empathy, drug or alcohol abuse, delinquency or homicide (e.g. Garbarino and Gilliam, 1980; Rutter and Giller, 1983; Akers, 1997).

In addition to weak parent-child relationships, Rutter and Giller (1983) point to family discord and disharmony as causes of EBD, a point also asserted in the work of Newson and Newson, 1976; McCord, 1979; Patterson, 1982; West and Farrington, 1982; Kazdin, 1995. McCord (1979) stated that parental behaviour has a stronger impact than family structure, a point emphasised by Schaffer (1998) who posited that the influence of discord was greater than that of marital break up. Quinton and Rutter (1988) suggested that parents' behaviour increased the probability of a stressful parenting environment, reduced sensitvity to a child's needs, generated problems predisposing children to show disruptive behaviour and creating further stress. Howling, Wodarski, Kurtz and Gaudin (1993), reporting on the University of Georgia Maltreatment Project, concluded that high stress levels in families proved a more powerful indicator of socio-emotional problems than abuse or neglect per se.

Kazdin (1995) identifies risk factors which would predispose a family to engage in adverse parent-child interactions that would sustain or accelerate antisocial behaviour. He drew attention to factors such as:

- parent psychopathy and maladjustment

- criminal behaviour and alcoholism

- unhappy marital relations / interpersonal conflict

- overcrowding and poor housing.

He asserts that although it is useful to enumerate risk factors individually, the important thing is to understand they come in "packages" (pp. 60-61). A view shared by Schaffer (1998)

who stressed the variability of intra- and inter-individual factors and propounded that combinations are the key.

In the Soodak and Podell research (1994) teachers cited problems related to the home as the main cause of student difficulties; problems were listed as : general home conditions, divorce, lack of a father. Ashford (1994) suggested that children from single parents or reconstituted families are more likely to develop EBD which would result in exclusion from school, findings confirmed by Hughes (1994).

1.5.3 Protective Factors

Despite the bleak picture painted by the above research, not all youngsters living with discord or in less than adequate situations, will develop EBD, due to protective factors, which can outweigh risk factors and so protect the child. Kazdin (1997 pp. 63-65) describes some factors which can help children become more resilient in adverse circumstances; for example he mentions the child's temperament, academic success, a same sex role model and an emotionally responsive care-giving adult, who is not necessarily the parent. Similarly, Schaffer (1998) suggests that any break in an existing relationship, for example : bereavement, divorce, rejection, is likely to cause distress; however, he asserts that if there are significant others to attach to, then the results of separation need not be deleterious.

Furthermore, he suggests that it is the emotional disharmony and bewilderment which causes EBD not the event per se. For example in divorce if the quality of family relationships is good and the parents remain emotionally available to the children, these factors will have a mediating effect upon the children and even teach them how to deal with conflicts in the future.

Hetherington (1989) conducted a longitudinal study on children 6 years after their parents divorced; he found that although boys showed more problems in adjustment, children who adapted well had one supportive carer who encouraged their children; also girls who had assumed some responsibility for caring for others, fared well.

It is known that early attachment difficulties or overprotective and permissive parenting can lead to extreme anxieties in children and possibly school phobia (Kauffman, 1977; Herbert, 1978; Dworkin, 1985; Chazan, Laing and Davies, 1994; Winkley, 1996). The same authors report that parents can be supported to help their children by, expressing confidence in them, encouraging self-belief through encouraging age appropriate responsibility and by providing social learning opportunities to build a repertoire of coping strategies in stressful situations. It would seem that individual protective factors combine to produce successful trans-actions between the child and the environment, and allowing the child to develop coping strategies, a sense of agency, competence and the capacity to act when stressed.

1.5.4 Parenting Styles

One may legitimately ask the question : what is a family? The diversity of contemporary life and social acceptance of cohabitation, remarriage, divorce, single parenthood and same sex relationships means that family households are a various mix of adults and children. Whilst research shows that on average, children who have experienced family disruption do less well both in personal development and at school, the protective factors outlined above support the notion that there is no inevitable downward path for such children (Pugh, et al, 1994).

Skynner and Cleese (1983) describe a number of characteristics of successful families whatever their constitution. Similar findings have been documented by a long list of researchers who link different styles of parenting to successful or unsuccessful child outcomes: (for example Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986; Montgomery, 1989; Cohen, Velez and Garcia, 1990; Cooper, 1993; Ryan and Adams, 1995; Smith, 1995; Winkley, 1996; Kauffman, 1997).

Gross (1989) cited in Pugh et al (1994 pp. 54-55) summarized research on parenting styles and outcomes, with the following description:

- **Overprotective** parents tend to have passive, submissive, dependent children;

- **Permissive** parents tend to have aggressive, disobedient children;

- **Authoritarian** parents tend not to internalise standards, and have children who (author's emphasis) have low self-esteem;

- **Authoritative** parents tend to have children who are compliant, well behaved, with a highly developed sense of right and wrong, who can resist temptation and resist blame."

The literature which has identified factors which are, or maybe, linked to unacceptable behaviour in children has been drawn upon for Study 2 of this research; the summary of parenting styles by Gross (1989) has formed the basis for the intervention in Study 4. It is consider-ed that understanding the processes leading to family dysfunction provides an excellent basis for preventative interventions; also understanding the outcome of various parenting strategies can inform better parenting. This is in accord with the recommendations of the Elton Committee (DES, 1989) who affirmed that the Government, LEAs and schools should impress on parents the need to provide firm, affectionate guidance, consistent example and avoid a permissive or harsh response to misbehaviour. They referred to Parent Education as a curricula issue. Similarly many proposals in the circulars on Pupils with Problems (DFE, 1994) derive from the Elton Report. It would seem that several years on educators still have a circumscribed role and have not generally 'reached out' to parents to encompass them in the development of their children. Part of this research will try to establish why this is.

1.5.5 Schools

Rutter et al (1979) found that the ethos of certain schools had a profound effect upon its pupils. Whilst a direct causal link is not asserted many writers point out that behaviour problems may be precipitated by something in the school environment and/or unwittingly reinforced by teacher behaviour (Charlton and George, 1993; McGuiness, 1993; Rogers, 1994; O'Brien, 1998). In the Croll and Moses (1985) survey of teachers' views of the causes of EBD, the majority of teachers considered home background to be the most significant factor. Of interest in this study was the finding that the teachers felt helpless in dealing with discipline issues; whilst this view may have emanated from their attribution of EBD it is of concern that, as Mongon (1987) states, if teachers believe themselves to be incompetent, they are likely to be so. Furthermore, the likelihood that pupils will be unmanageable would be high in schools where teachers felt EBD was theirs to manage alone, due to expectancy effects (Jones, 1995).

Montgomery (1989) suggests that the school ethos, teaching and disciplining styles are inextricably related, a point implicit in the Circulars on Pupils With Problems (DFE, 1994a; DFE, 1994b; DFE, 1994c). Contained in these circulars inter alia was advice to class teachers as to how much and for how long they should deal alone with a child with EBD; the Code of Practice (DFE, 1994d) did much to not only encourage but to expect a whole school approach to managing EBD, hopefully to avoid individual teachers feeling powerless and stressed, also to provide a more appropriate response to the pupils.

Teaching style is a variable which is deemed to be important in the teaching-learning situation (Cooper, 1993; Rogers, 1994; O'Brien, 1998). It is generally agreed that a preferred teaching style can reinforce or alleviate EBD just in the same way that parenting styles can. This knowledge has led to a shift from controlling pupils' behaviour to managing it and signifies a change in the way EBD is regarded; consequently the onus of managing EBD should not fall to individual teachers, rather that a number of variables should be examined : institutional arrangements, school behaviour policy, working with parents, curriculum, staff pupil relationships, teacher behaviour and school ethos; it is generally held that the quality of the above can have the effect of magnifying or reducing EBD and, raising or lowering pupil self-esteem and performance (Rutter et al, 1979; Hargreaves, 1984; Reynolds, 1984; Charlton and David, 1989; Cooper et al, 1994). These findings appear to be unequivocal and have implications about attributions teachers hold about the causes of EBD, as quoted in the survey by Croll and Moses (1985). If schools are to be effective in teaching pupils with EBD, there are implications for the continuous training of teachers in understanding and dealing with pupils who exhibit EBD. An understanding of the ecosystemic perspective of EBD and of dynamic psychotherapy, can be translated into meaningful and realistic terms for those working with children with EBD, by pointing the way to establishing empathy and productive and meaningful interactions with pupils (Cooper et al, 1994, pp. 25-26, 68-70).

1.5.6 Within Child Factors

Genetics

The nature – nurture debate has highlighted the relative contributions of heredity and the environment in causing EBD. Most researchers agree that both have a part to play and in his book 'Genetics and Experience : The interplay between nature and nurture', Plombin (1994) questions whether there are scientists who seriously believe that genetics has no part to play in human behaviour. Plombin boldly asserts that there is substantial genetic influence on measures of the environment. He cites studies of twins which strongly suggest that identical twins are alike in their behaviour whether raised together or apart; also when they become parents them-selves the environment they provide demonstrates genetic influence. Whilst such information may create a fatalistic view of children with EBD and even perpetuate a notion of biological determinism, it must be remembered that a person's genes are one of many **predisposing** factors and that other without – child factors are important in determining whether the predisposition is acted upon (Rutter and Hersov, 1997).

Gender

One of the most widely held concepts is the difference in the prevalence and nature of behaviour problems between boys and girls. Girls generally display misbehaviour more passively in a manner which does not cause disruption, in contrast to boys whose behaviour is obvious and has disruptive effects (Schwartzman, Varlaan, Peters and Serbin, 1995). Research shows that while emotional difficulties seem to affect girls as much as boys at the preschool

level, boys appear to present up to four times more behaviour problems at the primary level (Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1981; La Freniere, Dumas, Capuano and Dubeau, 1992). Whilst Chazan et al (1994) suggest that School Phobia affects boys and girls equally in peaks, at age 5-6, 11-12, 13-14 years, Rutter (1985) suggests that on the whole boys are more vulnerable to stress and are more reactive, giving rise to more aversive reactions to stressing environments; Mittler (2000) stated that boys are more susceptible to social disadvantage in the early years whereas girls are more vulnerable in adolescence. Rutter and Hersov (1997) reviewed studies on the antecedents of aggressive behaviour which revealed a preponderance of boys as conduct disordered. In terms of ethnicity African-Caribbean males are substantially and distinctively over-represented in the crime studies and the population of children in Special Schools and facilities for children with EBD (Cooper, Smith and Upton, 1991). They suggested that boys are more active, overtly aggressive and combative, thereby reinforcing each other's aggression; consequently boys are seen to elicit more aggression from others and differential handling from adults. Newsom and Newsom (1976) conducted interviews with 700 Nottingham mothers at home and found that forty-one per cent used smacking as a control strategy routinely; this variable was related to social class and boys. Holman and Coghill (1987) assert that hitting and punitive homes fill children with aggression which markedly increases aggressive tendencies in boys.

As early as 1972, Bullock and Brown (1972) stated that the prognosis for aggressive boys was not good and indicated they may develop delinquent behaviour, a view later

supported by a number of researchers (West and Farrington, 1973; Rutter & Giller, 1983). There is converging evidence to support the views that:

- gender differences are not marked in pre school

- there are higher rates of externalising behaviours in boys

- girls are more likely than boys to show internalizing behaviours in adolescence

- boys are more vulnerable to family stresses

- boys who develop antisocial behaviour during infancy are highly likely to develop more serious EBD during primary school, which in turn may lead to delinquency and eventually crime. (For example : Richman et al, 1982; Loeber and Dishion, 1983; Campbell, 1990).

With regard to girls' EBD the authors of the Girls' Project (Newham, 2001) found that a low priority was given to the 'E' in EBD and that there was not enough awareness amongst staff of the emotional needs of girls. Thus, although the girls interviewed reported anxieties both at Secondary transfer and throughout their Secondary education their needs were often ignored or seen as health problems.

Within the national policy context within which EBD is framed it is the pupils with acting out, disruptive behaviour who are the focus of many teachers' attention as they interrupt the teaching process. Whilst it is probably true that many girls EBD's go unrecognised, it is the boys who form the largest vulnerable group especially if they

display EBD during infancy. Early intervention is desirable for all children with EBD, prevention more so. The above research highlights the interaction of maleness with negative parental behaviour, adult response to EBD and support given to boys during stressful times; it is contended that it is the interplay between these variables which will determine whether an antisocial child becomes an antisocial adult.

Ethnicity

As mentioned above, Cooper et al (1991) drew attention to the fact that African-Caribbean males are over-represented in the crime studies and the population of children in Special Schools and facilities for children with EBD. The researchers suggested that teachers continued to stereotype black pupils, misunderstood their cultural attributes and perceived them as potentially deviant, points reiterated in a report for the Commission for Racial Equality (Osler, 1997). Osler, in comparing the exclusion rates among the, then, 450 schools in Birmingham found that exclusions had risen across all school sectors and that black pupils were disproportionately excluded, girls as well as boys. He drew attention to the lack of reference to the issue of race in DfE publications on exclusions, and suggested that many schools failed to recognise racial harassment as a precursor to the EBD which led to exclusions.

Wright, Weeks and McGloughlin (2000) cited that teacher expectations differ according to gender and race stereotyping and, like Osler (1997), found that there were different rates of exclusion between individual schools. Where schools were colour aware, knowledgeable about different cultures and who paid attention to the pastoral care and curriculum of African-

Caribbean pupils, exclusions were rare. A great omission was seen by Wright et al (2000) as the first ever national target for reducing exclusions was 'colour blind' despite the Social Exclusion Unit's report making reference to disproportionate exclusion rates of pupils from ethnic minorities.

In exploring issues of gender, race and Special Educational Needs (SEN) within an inclusive context, Gerschel (2003) notes that the ethnicity of pupils is rarely mentioned in the literature. Gerschel provides a list of findings from studies conducted between 1990 and 2001 which link the fields of ethnicity and race, gender, SEN and disability. She notes that some of the issues are longstanding: in the 1970's disproportionately large numbers of pupils of African-Caribbean origin were labelled educationally sub-normal (ESN) and sent to special schools, two decades later the pattern remained the same but the label changed: thus the ESN issue became the EBD issue and the exclusion issue as the majority of pupils excluded from school-l are still boys, many from ethnic minority groups or lower social classes (Gerschel, 2003).

The impact of social and cultural disadvantage on learning and on inclusion has been recognised in the document Social Inclusion: Pupil Support (DfEE, 1999) and the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry (Macpherson, 1999) has brought the issue of institutional racism onto the education agenda. An increasing body of literature rejects the within-child explanation of blackness or maleness as being responsible for EBD, disaffection or exclusion and challenges

schools to examine their responses to diversity at both the individual teacher and systemic levels. (Diniz, 1999; Mittler, 2000; Gillborn, 2001; Gerschel, 2003).

Neonatal Factors

Premature birth has long been considered a risk factor for development in children and links between prematurity and the development of behaviour problems is emerging. Rose, Feldman, Wallace and McCarton (1992) assessed the prevalence and stability of behaviour problems in children with low birth weight. Although they found a correlation between behaviour problems in premature children at 3 years and 6 years, compared to full term babies, they also noted the presence of low socio economic status and traumatic life events in the premature sample. These findings are echoed in the research by Bradley, Mundfrom, Casey and Casey (1994) and demonstrate the interplay in combinations of factors in the development of EBD. Conversely, premature children who develop the ability to overcome stress and develop healthy personalities are found to be from warm, stimulating home environments (Wilson, 1986) giving credence to the notion of protective factors, overcoming risk factors.

Temperament

Charlton and David (1993, p. 18) state that certain types of temperament may dispose children to later maladjustment; furthermore that adverse temperamental characteristics, for example: overactivity, poor sleep patterns, poor adaptability may cause children to be more vulnerable to environmental stress. This view is far from new, Herbert (1978) suggests that a significant factor in the development of behaviour problems is a child's temperament. He po-

sits the notion that temperament has a modifying effect on parents' interactions and rearing practices and reminds the reader that parent-child relations are a two-way process, some children being consistently more difficult to rear than others.

Even in cases of child abuse a child's temperament may contribute to the parents' tendencies to abuse. A review of the literature on parent-child interactions as a setting event for child abuse (Fairhurst, 1992) identified child temperament and state of health as pertinent variables which would make abuse more likely. Studies involving temperament reveal not only that an adverse temperament per se may predispose a child to developing behaviour problems, but, once more point to the combination of risk factors such as temperament, negative perceptions of the carer and negative parent-child interactions which are likely to result in EBD.

1.6. Cognitive Processing, Emotional Intelligence and Self Esteem

Amongst the variety of personal factors which have been associated with behaviour problems in the literature is that of 'low intellectual' and 'academic ability' (a review of papers is presented by Hinshaw, 1992). Research into effective schooling for pupils with EBD by Cole, Visser and Upton (1998) considered the pupils' cognitive functioning. In appraising their results they compared them to the findings of Dawson (1980), cited in Cole et al (1998, p. 34-35) and found great similarities:

- 18 per cent had significant 'learning difficulties' not caused by EBD
- 25 per cent had mild 'learning difficulties' not caused by EBD

- 47 per cent were 'average ability'

- 10 per cent were of 'above average ability'.

The terms 'low intellectual ability', 'learning difficulties' and 'average ability' as used above, refer to perceived within child deficits based on the traditional theories of intelligence. These theories posit that intelligence is just a single construct and measurable through standardised assessment in test conditions. This notion of intelligence promoted the view that there is a strong hereditary component, that I.Q. is fixed and that differences in performance in I.Q. tests was a suitable criteria for grouping pupils into a range of intelligence bands and predicting academic achievement.

Challenges to the traditional view of intelligence have been made by such researchers as Sternberg (1985) and Gardner (1993) leading to theories of multiple intelligences; these present a pluralistic perspective, a problem solving focus and the importance of contextualized learning. With the concept of multiple intelligences has grown the notion of competencies or domains of performance and a shift is occurring from judging pupils on the basis of test scores alone to ascertaining what they can and cannot do, how they think and learn.

Following the publication of 'From Thinking Skills to Thinking Classrooms' (McGuiness, 1999) thinking skills have become a recognised part of the National Curriculum and cover information processing, enquiry, creativity, reasoning and evaluation. Figg and Elliot (2003) in introducing a volume of papers on Cognitive Education, remark that despite a

plethora of published programmes for schools there is a dearth of evidence showing that such programmes work; they also draw attention to the fact that in academic psychology the term 'thinking skills' is falling into disuse, being replaced by 'self regulation' which focuses on cognitive and affective skills and the role of motivation and emotion.

Research on Emotional Intelligence has brought a wider view of intelligence to include personal and social issues, which complement academic intelligence. Emotional and social competence have been shown to be more influential than cognitive abilities for personal, career and scholastic success (Goleman, 1996; Goleman, 1998).

Weare and Gray (2003) present research findings which link the teaching of social, emotional and behavioural skills (SEBS) to a range of positive educational, social and personal outcomes for pupils, these include improvements in EBD and the successful inclusion of pupils with EBD. The DfES (2003) quote the findings of Weare and Gray and use them as the rationale for the SEBS training materials which are currently being piloted in 25 Local Education Authorities. The materials recognise that pupils who are anxious, angry or depressed not only present with EBD's but that they do not learn, a point noted by Ofsted (1999). They noted pupil characteristics such as: restlessness, short concentration span, high levels of

intelligence. At the time of writing this research the view of intelligence combines cognitive factors such as problem solving and communication skills, with personal and interpersonal emotional factors, such as self awareness and social skills; it is the combination of these which can contribute to the development and maintenance of EBD. It is a challenge for

any teacher to help such children make up ground and more so to help pupils with EBD to see themselves as learners.

Cole et al (1998) asked respondents to comment on the learning styles of their pupils, frequent responses alluded to low self-esteem, fear of failure and reluctance in putting pen to paper. Cullinan et al (1983) stated that self-concept is a powerful determinator of behaviour and suggested that a person tends to behave in ways that fit in with one's self-concept. Also, they point out that educators can reinforce these views by negative feedback and correction. Similarly if parents express negative attitudes towards school and have themselves had negative experiences, these too will influence their children's perceptions.

With regard to cognitive processing, research demonstrates a relationship between anti-social behaviours and cognitive features, such as impulsivity, inattention, overactivity, more cognitive distortions and fewer problem solving skills than pupils with prosocial skills (Coleman, 1992; Moffit, 1993). These findings are not surprising given that the development of all aspects of youngsters occurs against an unrelenting background of having to interact with a wide-range of people. For example, it has been established that the self-esteem of boys with EBD's is lower than their peers, however, Tajfel and Turner (1979) posited that the sense of identity obtained from the 'status' of having EBD may enhance boys' expressions of self-esteem; a point which practitioners in the author's experience have noted and indeed, on tests of self-esteem, invariably pupils with acting out EBD are classed as having defensively high self-esteem.

The concurrent development of social, cognitive and emotional awareness occurs between the ages of 5-12 years and contributes to the acquisition of a self-image through feedback from significant others. The continuous interaction with siblings, peers, parents and teachers, shapes a child's view of themselves; being part of a group is very important to the self-worth and self-esteem of an individual (Maras and Kutnick, 1996); however children with EBD have difficulty interacting with others thus it can be surmised that attachment to any group would be deemed by these children to be better than none and potentially deleterious to their emotional and social development if this was a group also exhibiting EBD.

1.6.1 Cognitive Style

Over a decade ago in the scientific study of psychology, researchers interested themselves in the way people represented information in thought; it was noted that there were 3 modes: verbal, visual and imaginal (Riding, 1997 pp. 29-30). Riding summarizes the work of various researchers between the 1940s and the 1980s who were looking at the notion of a person's style of encoding and processing information. He noted that the wide variety of style labels emanating from this research, were of the same style dimensions. Riding and Cheema (1991) reviewed 30 of these labels and from their findings emerged the notion of cognitive style. Riding and Rayner (1988 pp. 6-7) assert that cognitive style helps in the understanding of individual differences in the learner and the learning environment. They further state that the primary elements in an individual's personal psychology, namely: affect, behaviour and

cognition, are regulated by an individual's cognitive style, which is reflected in the way a person learns, forms attitudes, skills and understanding. In effect, they purport that an understanding of cognitive style could provide essential information as to why individuals learn and behave in the way they do.

Riding and Rayner (1997) developed the work of Riding and Cheema (1991) and suggested a 3 group model with labels which:

- related to cognitive organisation : wholist – analytic dimension

- related to mental representation : the verbal – imager style dimension

- reflected a deliberate attempt to integrate both dimensions of cognitive style.

Cognitive style is seen as an individual's preferred and habitual approach to organizing and representing information.

There are two basic dimensions:

Wholist – Analytic: whether an individual tends to organise information into wholes or parts.

Verbal – Imagery: whether an individual is inclined to represent information during thinking verbally or in mental pictures.

Figure 1.1   THE COGNITIVE STYLE DIMENSIONS
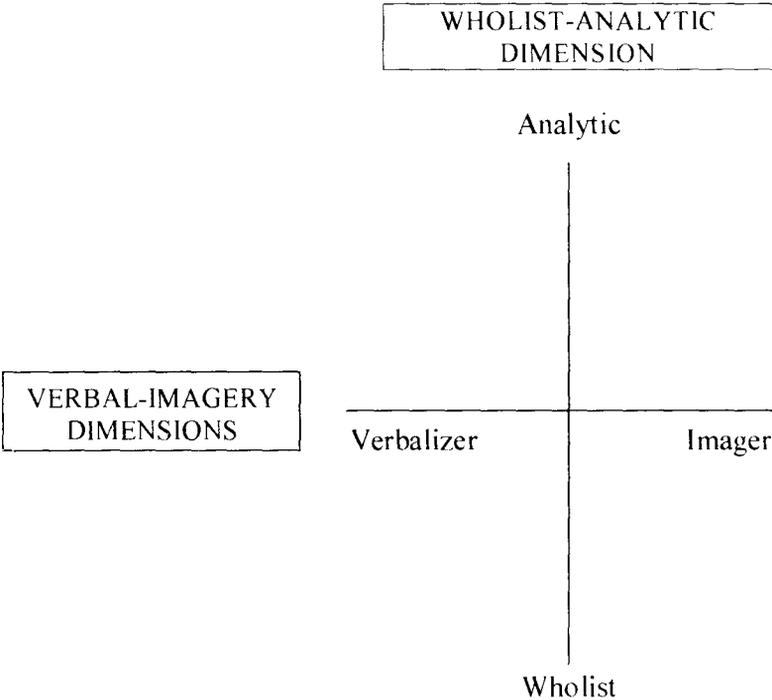
Riding and Rayner (1998)

Figure 1:2   STYLE MAP

Analytic verbaliser	Analytic bimodal	Analytic imager
Intermediate verbaliser	Intermediate bimodal	Intermediate imager
Wholist verbaliser	Wholist bimodal	Wholist Imager
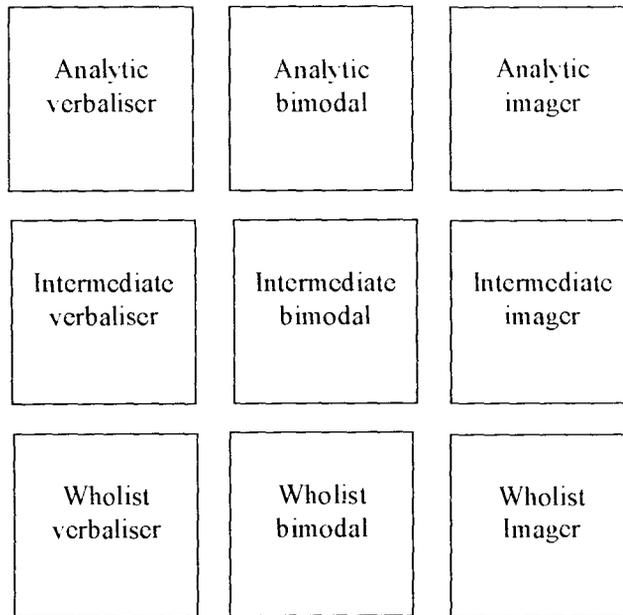
Riding (1991b)

In order to assess the construct of cognitive style, a simple computer presented assessment tool was developed : the Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) (Riding, 1991a). The CSA assesses the two dimensions of style : wholist - analytic and verbal – imagery, by presenting simple cognitive processing tasks which would reflect an individual's natural way of processing and representing information. The results are presented as ratios which indicate an individual's style from nine categories (see Style map, figure 1:2).

The information gleaned from the CSA provides a clear reflection of:

(1)   The Wholist – Analytic dimension of whether an individual tends to organise information in wholes or parts.

   Riding (1992 p. 4) suggested that Wholists tend to see the whole of a situation, have an overall perspective and appreciate the total context. In contrast, Analytics are viewed as seeing a situation in parts and focusing on one or two at the expense of the others. In layman's terms : a Wholist may see the wood not the trees, whereas an Analytic will see the trees but not the wood.

(2)   The Verbal – Imagery dimension of whether an individual is inclined to represent information during thinking verbally or in mental pictures.

Riding (1992) writes that the Verbal – Imagery dimension affects social attitudes and information processing. Verbalisers are seen as outgoing and extrovert, Imagers more restrained and inward. When dealing with information, Verbalisers prefer verbal materials whilst Imagers prefer pictorial ones.

Riding and Rayner (1994) purport that personal styles affect a person's approach to organising and representing information; it then follows that cognitive style is likely to affect the ways in which they perceive social situations, respond to others and learn in the educational setting. The implications of cognitive style are enormous both in terms of teaching, learning, interpersonal relationships and individual behaviour. The focus of this research will be primarily on the latter, although the former will be considered when looking at solutions to problem behaviour.

Riding (1997) argued that style has a physical basis as cognitive style has been found to be related to physiological measures as evidenced by EEG activity. However, these methods do not necessarily indicate activity within the brain thus more studies using more sophisticated brain scanning techniques are needed. Riding also speculates that style is a fixed characteristic which does not appear to change – longitudinal studies will be needed to ascertain if this is the case.

Riding and Taylor (1976) found that the verbal-imagery dimension of style was strongly in evidence in 7 year olds; however, the absence of a means of testing cognitive style in

younger children leaves the question of whether style is inbuilt, or develops with experience, unanswered.

For the construct of style to be useful Riding and Rayner (1998, p.10) state that it must be shown to be unrelated to gender, separate from intelligence, and different from personality. Numerous exploratory studies have been conducted since the late 1970's to the present to establish the validity of the construct of style.

Studies consistently suggest there are no gender differences with respect to style, they appear therefore to be unrelated (Riding, Burton, Rees and Sharrat, 1995).

Riding and Pearson (1994) found intelligence, as measured by the British Ability Scales, to be separate from cognitive style, similar findings are reported in a Canadian study by Riding and Agrell (1997). The subtests used in the above research measure what Riding and Rayner (1998) refer to as 'fluid' intelligence, for example speed of information processing, verbal reasoning; as theories of multiple intelligences develop it would be interesting to discover if style is related to any of the differing abilities described by, for example, Gardner traits, for example extrovert and introvert (Riding and Wicks, 1978; Riding and Dyer, 1980) it would appear that cognitive style is different from personality (Riding and Wigley, 1997). However, in the latter study significant interactions between the style dimensions and some personality measures were found. The authors speculated that style and personality may combine to influence behaviour. There has been relatively little work done on cognitive style

and personality and more research is needed for a clearer understanding of the role of each in a person's behaviour.

Studies of style and learning performance have shown that individuals of different styles respond differently to the way material is structured, presented and its type of content. Riding and Rayner (1995) developed the Learning Enhancement Package which is aimed at increasing school effectiveness; through the use of this programme, teachers are encouraged to use increased self-awareness to broaden their teaching style to suit the range of styles within the pupils they teach.

As Wholists are believed to have a global perspective of a situation, teachers need to be aware that they might miss a valid point by contrast, Analytics who are believed to focus on details may benefit from whole to parts teaching to assist them in gaining an overview of a topic. Similarly, Wholists being sociable and outward are likely to benefit from lively, stimulating teaching situations and be comfortable in group work; by contrast, Analytics being more separate and able to be focussed, will prefer methodical tasks and to work alone.

1.6.2   Cognitive Style and Behaviour

Riding and Rayner (1994) explain that style of pupil management will affect both the type of relationships they develop with the pupils and what expectations they have of a pupil's behaviour. It has been argued that Wholists tend to lack natural self control, thus teachers need

to provide tighter boundaries for Wholists and make efforts to help these pupils internalise control, consideration of providing structure for Wholists is also indicated for playtimes and lunchtimes when behaviour is likely to become uncontrolled. As cognitive style influences the individual's perception of his/her social world then style will influence social behaviour; awareness of a pupil's style will also help teachers to better understand social relationship difficulties; for example, Analytics are likely to find the boisterousness of other pupils at playtimes overwhelming and tempt them to withdraw even more into themselves leading at the extreme to social isolation; knowledge that some children may be prone to exclusion because of their Style will prepare teachers for who is likely to need support such as a 'buddy' or 'circle of friends'. Additionally, as Analytics are likely to have a deficient control system, seeing things only from their own point of view, they will need support to assist them to see things in a less rigid, egocentric manner to assist them in understanding the views of others.

Studies of cognitive style and behaviour have been confined to secondary and special schools, also a college of higher education. There is evidence to indicate that there is a relationship between cognitive style and classroom behaviour, also style and types of behaviour.

Riding and Burton (1998) asked the teachers of 14-15-year-old pupils in one Secondary School and of 15-16-year-old pupils in another to rate the conduct behaviour of their pupils on a five point scale from 'very poor' to 'very good'. The results from both schools

showed the girls to achieve higher ratings than the boys, with Wholist boys receiving the lowest behaviour rating, these results were statistically significant.

Rayner and Riding (1996) studied pupils attending a Truancy Unit who had previously failed to attend school. The percentage of pupils in the Wholist – Analytic dimension style groupings as defined by a comparison sample of 850 mainstream secondary school pupils, was Wholists forty-one per cent, Intermediates 53 per cent and Analytics 6 per cent. It was speculated that the greater proportion of Wholists and Intermediates with problem behaviour might represent an interaction between style and upbringing. Riding and Craig (1998) studied the style characteristics of boys aged 10-18 years referred to residential special schools because of behaviour problems. They found that compared to a sample of 413 male pupils in secondary schools the styles of the boys in residential schools was skewed to the Wholist end of the continuum. The percentages of each style grouping in the special schools was Wholist 46 per cent, Intermediate 34 per cent and Analytics 20 per cent. Similar results were found in a study of 131 male 11-16 year olds in eight special schools (Riding and Craig, 1999).

The authors suggested that part of the reason for this is that Wholists have less self control than do Analytics. Additionally almost all of the pupils had experienced adverse parenting which could result in even lower self-control due to insufficient or inappropriate parental control, leading to absence of internalised self-control. Riding and Craig (1999) speculated that home background and style interact in their effect on behaviour, the less positive aspects of style becoming exaggerated in response to negative home experiences.

In two separate studies of boys in residential special schools, Riding and Craig (1998 and 1999), conducted a file search to investigate behaviours associated with particular styles. Wholists were found to be sociable, outward, immature, disruptive and verbally aggressive. By contrast, Analytics were described as unsociable, detached, lacking in empathy, having temper tantrums and showing physical aggression; these findings were statistically significant. In an attempt to explore the relationship between style and personality measures, Riding and Wigley (1997) in a study of 17-18-year-old students in a College of Further Education, found that males were more psychotic than females, and of the males, Wholists were more psychotic than the Analytics. The authors used a range of questionnaire measures of personality for comparison with cognitive style. Various descriptors of personality were considered. The measure of psychoticism used, the EPQ-R Short Scale by Eysenck and Eysenck (1991), (Riding and Wigley, 1997, p.9), was deemed to indicate a tendency to social deviance and therefore inappropriate behaviour. The authors concluded that further work was needed to explore how personality and style might combine to affect behaviour.

The evidence to date with respect to style, gender and behaviour is that at the secondary level and beyond females will be better behaved than the males, and the Wholist males will produce the most problematic behaviour. The aim of Study 4 in this research was to investigate the relationship between cognitive style, home background, gender and behaviour in a sample of mainstream primary pupils to see if the pattern found in older pupils applies at this level.

1.7   Prevention and Alleviation of EBD

A review of the literature on the causes of EBD can help point the way as to how schools and parents, the most influential factors in children's lives, can work separately and together to prevent, alleviate or solve EBDs.

Ideally prevention would be the preferred choice and Rutter and Hersov (1997, p. 42) state:

> "The more successfully high risk subjects can
> be identified, the better the chances of ...
> developing ... measures to prevent or ameliorate
> it."

Many 20th century theorists for example: Freud, Watson, Bowlby, asserted that early experiences predetermined the individual's future; however, studies by Clarke and Clarke (1954) and Clarke, Clarke and Reiman (1958) showed that with minimal intervention adolescents and young adults who had suffered early severe adversity improved cognitively and socially. Clarke and Clarke conducted more studies throughout the 1960s to 1990s and confirmed the generality of their original findings and suggested that early social experience by itself does not predestine the future (Clarke and Clarke, 1992). They detail a number of personal and social factors related to an individual's vulnerability and resilience, supporting the views of Rutter (1989); a key point to emerge from these reviews and pertinent to this research is what Rutter (1989, p. 46) refers to as 'chain' effects during development and the importance of the influence of interacting factors during a person's developmental pathway throughout life.

Schaffer (1998) supports this point and refers to the maintenance of conditions which further or reverse a particular developmental pathway.

Compared to the rather fatalistic views espoused by the early researchers, more recent contributions are more optimistic, offering hope that intervention in various aspects of an individual's life, would prevent adverse development. The above makes having a knowledge of high risk subjects even more important so that resources can be effectively targeted.

That there is a relationship between biology and behaviour is now widely accepted and research alerts us to individuals who are at risk of developing EBD or more serious behaviour difficulties due to within – person characteristics:

- low ability or academic failure

- biochemical activity in the brain

- maleness

- temperament

- cognitive style.

Except in extreme cases of psychopathology it is unlikely that within child variables alone cause EBDs. Rutter (1985) highlights the accumulation of risk factors which increase an individual's probability of developing social maladaption; the quality of the relationship and

support provided by the members of a person's family and social network are emphasised as being either protective or risk factors.

Bowlby (1988) stressed the primary status of intimate emotional bonds between individuals and the powerful influence on a child's development of the way the child is treated, especially by a mother figure. He noted that the pattern of attachment an individual develops is profoundly influenced by the way an individual is treated by his/her parents.

Three principal patterns of attachment and family conditions which promote them were first identified by Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall (1978).

1.7.1 Secure attachment

An individual is confident his/her parent will be available, lovingly responsive and helpful should he/she encounter adverse situations. A child with a secure attachment is likely to explore his/her environment with confidence, be popular, cooperative and resilient. The importance of a secure attachment for the ability to make and keep friends is highlighted by Pistole (1989). Rutter and Hersov (1997) point out that a secure attachment helps a child cope with normal anxieties, separations, illness and fatigue. Furthermore, they state that as attachment is formed with those who give quality interaction and attention, therefore this could be a significant other, not necessarily the main caregiver.

1.7.2 Anxious resistant attachment

This is said by Bowlby (1988) to be promoted by a parent being available sometimes and not on others; also by separations or threats of abandonment as a means of control. In such circumstances, an individual is likely to become uncertain if their parent will be available, thus becoming prone to separation anxiety, clingy and anxious about exploring their world. Such children can become passive and helpless, or tense, impulsive and easily frustrated. Winkley (1996) states that school phobia is generally related to separation anxiety and unresolved problems of separating from the caregiver.

1.7.3 Anxious avoidant attachment

This was characterised by Ainsworth et al (1978) as individuals who expected to be rebuffed; if this expectation is maintained, an individual will try to live life without love, the support of others and tries to be emotionally self-sufficient. Such individuals are said by Bowlby (1988) to become hostile, antisocial and attention seeking.

Rutter and Hersov (1997) maintain that even secure, attached children react badly to such experiences as separation, loss and family disturbance but they can overcome these adversities as they are resilient. It would seem that insecure children from unhappy homes are most at risk and the longer the exposure to family discord, the higher the risk of antisocial problems developing.

According to Rutter (1985) an individual's capacity to face stressful events is not constant and that variation can be ascribed to a combination of multiple factors. These factors included the nature and number of adverse conditions with which an individual is faced, previous life experiences, personal characteristics and the quality of family and social relationships.

Bowlby (1988) relates that experiments have shown that attachment behaviour at 1 year are the same at 2½ years. Patterns tend to be self-perpetuating unless the parents treat the child differently – a key tenet in this research and in the development of *Better Behaviour* (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995a). Parental behaviour is guided in part by the way the parents were mothered, therefore attachment problems are likely to be transmitted. From birth to 3 years Bowlby (1988) stated that the pattern of attachment is a property of the relationship; as a child grows older, he suggested that the pattern becomes a property of the child and he is likely to impose it upon new relationships, for example, teacher, peers, significant others. This view has clear implications for the interactional processes which take place between the individual and other people throughout their development.

1.8   Family Factors

Kauffman (1977) supported the premise that families are a factor in the origins of EBD; he argued that through the dyadic relationship with the caregiver, social interactions developed

which were later replicated into the extended family, the larger social structure and culture. He asserted that broken homes, father absence, parental separation, divorce and chaotic / hostile family relationships increase a child's vulnerability to behaviour disorders.

Patterson (1982) found characteristics in the interaction of families with aggressive children. He noted the exchange of negative, hostile behaviours, children behaving in irritating ways and parents who relied on aversive methods such as hitting, shouting and threatening. He identified a vicious cycle of negative behaviour: childhood aggression → parental counter aggression → punitive parenting → childhood aggression. He identified specific problems related to difficulties in parenting, namely failure to:

- set rules
- monitor a child's behaviour
- set out non-aggressive punishments
- negotiate compromises
- cope with crises
- provide rewards.

Chazan et al (1994) noted familial factors as predisposing a child to EBD as being:

- rejection
- lack of warmth

- inadequate or distorted communication

- overprotection

- loss of a love relationship.

Winkley (1996) in discussing aggression, suggests that children want clear limits and an adult to cope with and understand their behaviour: Patterson (1982) stated that parents who are permissive or tolerant of aggressive outbursts will place their children at risk of developing antisocial behaviour; thus what children are deemed to need and desire for healthy psycho-social development may be compromised by parent-child interaction.

Herbert (1978) in writing about the origins in deficiencies in moral behaviour pointed to various parenting strategies:

- overly harsh and restrictive

- overly lax and uncaring.

He further stated that neglect, cruelty, hostility and disorganization within families provided reinforcement for moral transgression. For example, stealers were found in families that showed low rates of positive friendly and high rates of negative coercive behaviour. Holman and Coghill (1987) concluded that stealers were children that did not feel loved and that any intervention must demonstrate love for and acceptance of the child so that s/he will want to please.

Research into child rearing accepts parenting behaviour as a primary factor in the development of a deviant child (Kauffman, 1977). Maternal behaviour that is arbitrary, inconsistent, negative or uninvolved is associated with non-compliance, outright defiance and low internalisation of control (Patterson, 1980, Webster-Stratton, 1993).

In discussing 'Temperament' this review of the literature has raised the notion that parent-child relations are a two-way process and that some children are more difficult to raise than others (Herbert, 1987). Findings have been consistent in suggesting that mothers with hyperactive, aggressive, or non-compliant children are more impatient, power assertive and less consistent (Patterson, 1980); parental responses tend to give attention to and reward aversive behaviour, thus the 'rewarded' behaviour is likely to persist (Dumas and Wahler, 1985). Observation of parent-child interaction by educationalists would seem to be a prerequisite in assessing pupils at risk; however, in schools, beyond Nursery education this does not happen — yet teachers of all children regardless of age do report their views on parent-child relationships seemingly unaware of the importance of this information.

In addition to examining mother-child interaction as correlates of problem identification, numerous studies have highlighted the impact of family correlates on problem behaviour. Children identified as showing problems in the pre-school period more often than not come from families suffering from adversity (e.g. Richman et al, 1982; Campbell, Pierce, March and Ewing, 1991; McGee, Partridge, Williams and Silva, 1991; Webster-Stratton, 1993). In such circumstances a multi-agency response would seem to be indicated as EBD is

likely to persist in the context of ongoing and concurrent family adversity (Richman et al, 1982).

There is accumulating evidence that preschool children are more likely to show overactive non-compliant, aggressive and impulsive behaviours in the context of uninvolved, rejecting or harsh parenting; the situation is exacerbated if the caregiver is coping with day-to-day stress within their family or personally.

1.8.1 The Role of Parenting

There is some consensus that a secure attachment during infancy helps infants to trust others and give them a sense of environmental mastery and effectiveness. Such a child's feelings of security will in turn influence the quality and nature of the parent-child relationship and relationships in general; secure infants are likely to develop positive, pro-social relationships with peers, teachers and other adults. Additionally, parental warmth and responsiveness combined with effective and consistent limit setting have implications for the quality of the mother-child relationship and healthy psychosocial development of the child (Loeber and Dishion, 1983; Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Patterson, DeBaryshe and Ramsay, 1989).

The ideal parental style is that which is termed Authoritative. Baumrind (1967) posited that this style characterised by warmth, involvement, clear, consistent and reasonable limit

75

setting and control was the optimal pattern which would lead to child competence and prosocial behaviour. Cullinan et al (1983) present a simple model of parenting styles drawing on the work of developmental theorists and as above it highlights the importance of accepting children as they are, protecting, teaching and guiding them for desirable child outcomes. Various models exist but pertinent to this research are those which point to practical guidance and strategies for parents such as that by Baumrind (1967) who noted four patterns of parental control each reflecting different combinations of control and warmth:

Authoritarian – high in control but low in nurturance.

Authoritative – high in both control and nurturance.

Permissive – Indulgent : high in nurturance yet low in control.

Permissive – Indifferent : low in both nurturance and control.

As positive social relationships and feelings of self-worth are developed through nurturing parental behaviour, also as personal self-control is developed within firm boundaries and lovingly applied discipline, being able to recognise parental style is prerequisite to helping parents adjust their parenting strategies.

1.8.2 Confident Parents

This review of the literature has summarized the main needs of children and aspects of parental behaviour or contextual factors which would predispose children to not having their needs met and thus being at risk of developing EBD.

If an authoritative parenting style is the preferred option what would such parents be doing? What would such a family look like? The guidance in *Better Behaviour* (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995a) – which was devised for use in Study 1, 2 and 3 of this research – drew on information from researchers and authors studying both successful and unsuccessful parenting styles. For example, Skynner and Cleese (1983) suggested that successful families were close, self-sufficient, show appropriate authority and had direct, open communication. Gross (1989) and Pugh et al (1994) describe competent parents as those who:

- offer love, acceptance and are sensitive to their children's needs

- have confidence in their children's worth and abilities

- have appropriate expectations

- share experiences

- provide a stable and secure environment where rules are clear and boundaries set

- avoid harsh punishment and reinforce good behaviour.

Webster-Stratton and Herbert (1995, pp. 249-308) present a whole chapter on useful and necessary parenting strategies designed to help parents become authoritative.

For the purposes of this research, what children need from parents is summarised as Love, Recognition and Discipline (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995a, p. 3); how parents can respond in order to display an authoritative style is introduced on pp. 3-8 followed by particular responses to some common childhood behaviour difficulties.

Schaffer (1996) in discussing social development stressed the importance of parental belief systems about the parenting task. He noted that to understand parenting fully it is insufficient to merely observe parents but to ask them how they feel, what they hope for and what they believe about child development. Two factors which are known to influence the shaping of beliefs are cultural background and the personality structure which each parent brings to the task of childrearing. Sameroff and Feil (1985) suggest there are systematic differences among parents in the way in which they conceptualize the nature of child development; it would seem that a parent's explanation of, for example, school failure is related to the attributions they hold about the school, or it could reflect the individual's cognitive style and therefore the way they think about and process information in general. Although parental cognitive style is beyond the remit of the present research it is certainly a variable which is being considered in research on parental belief systems (Miller, 1988).

1.8.3 Parent Education and Support

Advice to parents on how to bring up their children has been offered since time immemorial; such advice may have been driven by social, cultural, religious or theoretical influences of any given time in history. Child care manuals and support for the mother during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, were geared to infant health and physical well-being. Greater understanding of the emotional and psychological needs of children, led to a realization that children's self-esteem and self-image need as much nurturing as their physical needs (for example : Bettelheim, 1987). During the 1960s and 1970s enrichment projects on parenting skills sprang up and knowledge of the importance of awareness of and responsiveness to infant states and signals was disseminated. Wolfendale (1983) reviewed intervention in the community with families, she concluded that the US Head Start, Follow-Through and Home-Start programmes are the most comprehensive and widely publicised of all worldwide attempts to:

- intervene in the lives of young children
- influence parents' behaviour, attitudes and childrearing methods.

Currently a similar venture is being undertaken in Britain : Sure Start but the project is in its infancy and evaluation is at an early stage, at the time of writing this Review.

Support for parents in the community is now widespread:

- antenatal classes

- health visitor support

- family and community welfare

- home support volunteers

- family groups

- parenting skills programmes

- child and family services.

A plethora of support for parents is outlined by Pugh et al (1994, pp. 151-182). In discussing the issue of parenting, Topping (1986) suggested that overall the findings supported the notion that parents who were supported could better support their children. He made several observations having reviewed a number of studies:

- problem-solving techniques helped parents to show children how to seek alternatives, also how to analyse their own responses and think of different ways of responding to their children

- parent counselling changed parents' attitudes and feelings towards their children and themselves, producing a more positive relationship

- relaxation training for parents and children has shown equivocal results as has research on training formats.

Topping noted that improvements in the children's behaviour at home transferred to community settings and that their siblings were likely to improve their behaviour. However, where there was marital discord or low socio-economic status, generalisations did not occur. Finally, Topping concluded that improvements in behaviour at home did not generalise to the school setting.

White, Taylor and Moss (1992) analysed the evidence from 172 studies on the benefits of involving parents in early intervention programmes. They concluded that on the evidence studied, there were no convincing results that parental involvement in early intervention is beneficial. They found that the ways in which parents are involved is crucial and suggest the preferred types of involvement. A key recommendation from this analysis was the necessity to enable parents to feel empowered rather than to train them to be interveners with their children.

Johnson and Katz (1973) collated evidence from numerous studies which indicated that parents can be used to change a child's disruptive behaviour; they stressed the benefits of educating parents as to the usefulness of rewards, sanctions, ignoring and use of contingencies. However they pointed out some flaws which could be overlooked, hence causing a programme to fail or results not to be generalized and maintained; these important variables are parent

readiness for involvement and the need for support in all aspects of a child's 'ecosystem' to aid generalization, a point made by Wolfendale (1983) and Cohn and Daro (1987).

Pugh et al (1994 pp. 70-95) describe a great variety of support for parents but state that many have only very limited, often subjective evaluation; they do however remark on the personal benefit reported by parents : more confidence, knowledge, skills and a change in attitude towards their parenting role. The views of the parents, whilst not meeting any statistical levels of significance, could be viewed as significant in themselves : as Bettelheim (1987) observes:

"... The security of the parent about being a parent
will eventually become the source of the child's
feeling secure about himself." (p. 13)

Kazdin (1995, pp. 76-77) in reviewing the effectiveness of programmes for conduct disorders, commented that the task of developing effective treatments is demanding. He notes the variety of benefits from parent management training and the positive impact of these on the families; his findings confirm those of Johnson and Katz (1973) above in the usefulness of teaching parents how to promote prosocial behaviour through the use of: praise, reward, mild punishment and negotiation. In his review, Kazdin noted improvements not only in the 'target' child but in siblings. Some contra-indications to a successful outcome were seen as: families at risk of dysfunction, unconfident, uncooperative parents, the age of the child – more beneficial effects being seen with younger children.

Sheridan and Kratochwill (1992) cite a plethora of American research which utilised home-based reinforcement programmes to improve classroom behaviour. These studies are said to have resulted in increased communication between parents and teachers, a saving of teacher's time, increased positive parental attention and increased generalisation of treatment effects. Sheridan and Kratochwill also found from their studies that parents required clear guidelines to follow and that they were encouraged by letters sent home from school. Methodological limitations of the studies highlighted the difficulties in monitoring the home intervention. The teachers involved were generally found to feel uncertain about how to involve parents, where to find the time to do so and how to develop the skills needed to involve parents, point reiterated by Bastiani (1993).

Webster, Stratton and Herbert(1995) state that one of the major strategies for reducing child conduct problems involved parent training with the aim of changing the parents' behaviour towards their children. Reviews of such programmes, are said to be highly promising, resulting in changed parental behaviour. Webster, Stratton and Herbert point out that not all studies show behaviour to improve in school. They hypothesize that this might be due to pressures upon the parents or that the intervention had been provided too late in a child's development, when negative behaviour patterns with peers and teachers have been established. More positive results were found with early school aged children when parents are still the primary socialisation influences on a child's development. Finally, Webster-Stratton and Herbert conclude that the best chances for generalisation across settings are achieved if teachers and parents are supported.

Sutton (1999) interested herself in the best methods to support families and conducted a substantial research programme with parents of pre-schoolers. She found that one factor central to success was the use of training manuals that the parents could refer to at home. Additionally Sutton found that in addition to the provision of a training manual for parents, telephone contact was equally as effective as group meetings or individual clinic appointments. She concluded that research into the optimal ways of supporting parents whose children have EBD is urgently needed.

The findings from the studies noted above seem clearly to indicate there are no prescriptions which are known to alleviate particular kinds of EBD through working with parents. What is also clear is that certain programmes work for some children under certain circumstances.

The research however does point to key variables which would need to be taken account of when professionals support parents in the management of their children:

- parents need to want to be involved

- parents need to be helped to develop personal confidence in their role

- families who are dysfunctional may need practical support first and foremost

- parents need to be empowered and feel so

- teaching parents the skills of authoritative parenting is efficacious

- parents need materials to refer to

- generalisation is more likely to occur with younger children

- support in the child's ecosystem facilitates generalisation of effects.

1.9   Partnership with Parents

During the past twenty years, educational legislation has reflected an evolving awareness of what parents need, to be able to be fully involved in interventions to support their children.

Schools and parents have been encouraged to work together in partnership since 1967 when Plowden argued that working in partnership would encourage support from home and bring greater understanding of pupils (DES, 1967). Legislation since then has promoted parental rights giving them involvement in the assessment of special educational needs and full access to reports on their child (1981 Education Act). The Education Act (1986) gave parents greater representation on governing bodies of schools and information about their child's achievements in relation to national norms and a greater choice of schools was ordered in the Education Act (1988).

Following the Education Act (1993) parents' charters have promoted the concept of parents as consumers, which has been reinforced by OFSTED's Framework For Inspection which requires inspectors to ascertain the parents' views on their child's school.

Appleton and Minchom (1991) identified four predominant approaches to partnerships between professionals and parents:

- Expert model – the professionals own the knowledge and skills necessary to identify the problems, prescribe and evaluate the solutions.

- Transplant model – parents carry out programmes under the instruction of the professional.

- Consumer model – highlighting individual choice and the principle that the parent knows best.

- Systems model – encouraging fluidity and facilitative rather than directive professional input.

These differing models reflect changes in the perception of what intervention should be and a shift in approach from therapy with a child, to working with the parent to effect therapeutic change in the child – this demonstrates the increasing awareness that changes in child behaviour are largely contingent upon changes within the family.

The consumer model embodies the concept of parents as consumers enshrined in recent Education Acts and the OFSTED Framework; whilst the systems model takes account of growing awareness of the ecosystemic view of EBD and the need for multidisciplinary action and communication.

The different models attribute different roles to both the professionals and the parents, swhilst the consumer and systems models reflect current thinking and legislation, in the author's experience there are times when all of the models are both useful and desired by the parents, the issue is therefore that professionals should be aware of the differences and the impact each will have on parent-professional relationships.

In relation to the impact of legislation, Wolfendale (1995 pp. 75-76) writes that whilst the intentions of the 1981 Education Act were admirable, in practice, they have not been fully realized. However she points out that parents do have access to booklets produced by the DFE on Special Educational Needs also that most LEA's have parent-partnership officers and named person provision. Whilst the author of this research acknowledges that progress has been made in making 'parent-partnership' with schools a reality, it is asserted that much still has to be done to make the phrase more than an appealing rhetoric; improvements are even more essential given the recommendations in Circulars 8/94 (DFE, 1994a) and Circular 9/94 (DFE, 1994b), the aspirations embodied in the document Excellence for all Children (DFEE, 1997) and the requirements placed on schools by the Revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001). As well as substantial implications for schools, the acceptance of the importance of good parenting and improving home / school links is underlined. It would seem pertinent to explore the obstacles to effective partnership.

1.9.1 Issues in Enabling Parents to be Partners

Herbert (1978) suggested that parents who have children with EBD need as much help as their children. He suggested as a minimum the opportunity to discuss their child's behaviour, their own anxieties, fears, hurt and feelings of guilt, followed by confidence building and encouragement to face the challenge of helping their children; a view shared by McConkey (1985) who championed the belief that all professionals should listen to parents, exchange feelings about the child and give them respect. He noted that parents may take time to accept that they could effect change in their child and that feelings of inadequacy or failure are likely if change does not occur. McConkey further asserted that professionals working with parents needed certain care skills:

- willingness to listen
- respect for parent's views
- willingness to answer questions
- sharing responsibilities for decision making.

He also stated that it was a teacher's responsibility to communicate with parents in a way that they understood and give them information of their child's EBD that they can put into some context. He concluded by suggesting that the key to encouraging teachers to accept the role of working with parents is by changing their view that this role is integral, not additional to their care role as educators of children. Points echoed by Roffey (2002)

However, in defence of schools' apparent slowness to involve parents, Bastiani (1993) points out that a plethora of legal requirements to involve parents deluged schools between 1980-1992 and that schools had to become more responsive to parental rights and expectations. The implication being that teachers may not themselves have been prepared for such innovations. Additionally, teachers trained to view parents as 'consumers' to be informed of their children's and school's achievements vis-à-vis other children and schools – may never view parents as partners. Bastiani argued a case for developing home-school programmes and a policy much the same as is done for the curriculum – his plan is as pertinent now as it was in 1993, and to the author's knowledge the precepts contained therein are not yet widely adopted. Amongst his suggestions and pertinent to this research are issues such as:

- do we stereotype parents and make assumptions about their knowledge and skills?

- do parents and teachers agree on the programme?

- do home and school understand things in the same way?

- do schools communicate clearly with parents?

- is there a 2-way agenda during parent-teacher interviews?

If these questions have to be asked. it would presuppose that there has not been a lot of progress since the early 1980s when Wolfendale (1983) suggested that home-school links traditionally treated parents as clients rather than partners; although there has been clear

progression since then it is felt that involvement remains at an institutional level and that the task of developing partnership in relation to pupils with EBD is far from completed.

Gascoigne (1995) offers some insights from a parent's point of view on the difficulties in working in partnership with parents whose children have EBD. She points to the 'invisible' boundaries caused by parents' feelings and experiences:

- feel intimidated

- feel inferior

- lack confidence

- may have had Special Needs themselves.

She further alerts the reader to the reaction a parent has when a recognition of EBD is made; they are the same reactions that anyone would experience when faced with bad news:

- distress

- despair

- anger

- rejection of and love for the child

- bitterness towards and respect for the professionals

- personal guilt.

Gascoigne observes that strong reactions can recur without warning and in situations where a child's difficulties have to be discussed. These reminders have implications for the impact information given to parents of children with EBD will have and how it may affect them and the conditions in which this occurs. The latter is particularly important to parents of ethnic minorities where language and translation issues, culture and custom differences can lead to such parents feeling isolated and lacking both understanding and support. (Gerschel, 1998).

Bastiani (1987) nearly a decade earlier pinpointed other factors which might mitigate against parents feeling able to attend a meeting in school, let alone be part of a joint programme:

- Practical difficulties: no car, shift work, exhaustion, no baby sitter, communication difficulties
- Deference to teachers: parents are happy to leave educational matters to teachers, parents are not educated enough
- Cynicism: the feeling that whatever you do can't change the policy of the school.

These observations are forerunners of the views of Farrell (1995) who asserts that parents of children who have behaviour problems feel disempowered and have difficulty working effectively with all professionals.

Miller (1996) studied teachers' and parents' identification of problem behaviour and concluded that parents may be viewed as unwilling to accept there's a problem, furthermore, that there genuinely may not be a problem at home; conversely, parents who mention home problems where there are none at school may be regarded as neurotic. He observed that legitimate boundaries in the parent / teacher role could cause antagonism between school and home and indeed turn into a barrier or a barricade. He advocated gaining experience of working with parents, lessened anxieties through reduction of boundary tension and establishing shared meanings.

The flaws of early attempts to involve parents as partners are now recognized and research points the way to improvements in practice. The type of relationship that develops between a school and a child's parents will in part be determined by the perceptions formed of each other. Where a positive relationship exists, teachers appear knowledgeable and sincere, and parents are likely to feel more comfortable in offering and sharing information. Attaining a positive relationship is not easy, especially where EBD is concerned as mentioned earlier such children arouse negative feelings in adults, whose emotions can 'run high'.

Teachers' attitudes to children who have EBD are frequently negative, blaming home factors for pupils' behaviour (Croll and Moses, 1985; DES, 1989; Farrell, 1995; Miller, 1996; Roffey, 2002). While familial influence on EBD has been established, within a climate of blame, parents do not feel comfortable in their relationships with the school, feel under the 'microscope' and behave defensively. Similarly, a teacher's sense of professional

responsibility to develop educational and social competence in a child, may be compromised if the child fails; they too then may feel defensive when meeting the parents (Solity and Raybould, 1988).

Bastiani (1987) argued that problems of relations between home and school can be attributed to a failure in communication. Munn (1993) presented research which showed that schools in which children do well, academically and socially, are characterized by good home-school relations which are achieved by going beyond the basic legal requirement to develop effective two-way communication and collaboration. It would seem that the very notion of schools and teachers being 'equal' may be a mistaken ideal, as how can they be 'equal' given the differing roles? The respective roles of parents and teachers are so different as to limit the notion of partnership to an analysis of the relationship between them : what one does in the interests of the child will affect one another, thus the interests of the child must be the focus of the relationship and the roles accepted as complementary, yet different. Misunderstandings can arise from a lack of understanding of the role and intentions of the other; the constraints under which each is working and an unawareness that behaviours may be situation specific (Jones and Lock, 1993). For example, a parent's role is more diverse than a teacher's; parents are more emotionally involved as a rule; parents are likely to be less objective about their children and ultimately responsible for their child.

Similarly, Partington and Wragg (1989) wrote in defence of teachers that society expects them to play many roles : experts in subject matter, social worker, nurse, counsellor.

They suggest that some of the problems which occur between parents and teachers arise because the teacher may be proficient in one area and not in another.

Bastiani (1993) states that teachers are likely to have received minimal training for working with parents, based on the assumption that teacher trainers have assumed that the ability to work with parents is learned naturally on the job. He refutes this and stated (over a decade ago) that home-school relationships are characterized by underlying tension and intractable dilemmas. He concluded by suggesting that differences in schools and families bring with them differences in needs, wishes and expectations. These observations beg the question of, 'what is the scope of teacher and professional obligation?' If they are to feel confident and competent in working in partnership with parents whose children have EBD then they need support and training in several aspects of parenting and 'helping skills', for example:

- increased knowledge of parental issues
- effective communication
- counselling skills
- knowledge of sources of help beyond school
- how to enable parents to be partners.

Bastiani and Wolfendale (1996) in discussing home-school work, concluded that legitimate boundaries between home and school exist and where they meet, often exposes 'raw

nerves'; they suggest that sensitivity, the development of special skills and experience in working with parents are prerequisite to success.

Roffey (2002) cites the views of Dowling (1990) who noted that there are three scenarios for action in relation to pupils who exhibit problem behaviour:

- the family attributes the problems to school and expects them to deal with it
- school considers it does all it can but does not expect any change due to family factors
- family and school agree a child needs help and sets about looking for an expert who will provide it.

Roffey states that the interface between home and school continues to be problematic and despite legislation, which makes the concept of partnership prominent, in relation to Special Educational Needs, the power base remains within schools. She asserts that examples of good practice begin with the establishment and maintenance of good relationships between home and school. Furthermore, Roffey suggested that to support parents whose children have EBD, teachers need to develop improved interpersonal and listening skills.

Insights gained from counselling theory and practice can help teachers to facilitate the development of partnerships. A NASEN survey during the early 1990s (NASEN, 1997) concluded that parents' described their needs as:

- clear, open, realistic information

- help and support from professionals

- sensitivity from professionals on parents' needs.

Professionals described their needs in relation to working in partnership as being:

- effective communication with parents

- communication and listening skills

- counselling and listening skills.

The respondents overall saw partnership as being dependent upon trust, honesty, openness and good communication skills.

Bovair (1994) realistically states that not all teachers are trained counsellors, but that counselling skills and strategies can augment the existing interpersonal skills of classroom teachers and be used to enhance relationships with parents and carers; Wolfendale (1986) in investigating a whole school approach to involving parents in behaviour management, itemised personal-social skills as an area for in-service training for teachers. Personal-social skills are especially important to a teacher when conveying information to a parent about a child's EBD. It is not enough for a teacher to tell a parent what their child has done, to whom and how often, potentially leaving the problem with the parent and thereby increasing their concern and

potentially exacerbating negative reactions; when a parent receives information about their child which may shock them, teachers need to be apprised of possible reactions:

Shock :   anxiety

threat

guilt

Reaction :   anger

denial

disbelief

Adaption :   what can be done?

how can we help?

Orientation : seek help

learn skills.

(Cunningham and Davies, 1985).

Cunningham and Davies (op. cit.) assert that professionals cannot help parents until they are in the Adaption phase.

It would seem then that the use of counselling skills is necessary to establish an effective relationship and create an atmosphere where partnership can exist. Cooper, Smith and Upton (1994), propose that ideas derived from dynamic psychotherapy have great value to teachers and schools when dealing with parents. They refer to the levels of psychotherapy cap-

tured by Braun and Peddar (1979), cited in Cooper et al (1994, pp. 62-64). They quote that psychotherapy "... is essentially a conversation which involves listening to and talking with those in trouble with the aim of helping them to understand and resolve their predicament" (p. 62).

Cooper et al (op. cit.) suggest that Braun and Peddar's conception of the outer level of psychotherapy (support and counselling) are ones which any teacher or member of child care staff should be capable of entering with good effect. Indeed, the professionals involved in Study 1 of the present research welcomed in-service training on the above (Appendices 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, pp. 359-363) and it was felt that the principles of 'effective communication' outlined by Solity and Raybould (1988, pp. 143-146) had been adhered to.

1.9.2   Parents as Partners : Summary

Whatever the political ideals and changes of legislature, it would seem that to **enable** parents to be partners, improved opportunities for parent education and teacher training is required. However *equal* legislation says parents and teachers should be, it is postulated that the differing roles each has to play and the constraints that each are under will mitigate against this ideal. A more productive avenue would seem to be that espoused by Jones and Lock (1993) who advocate enabling parents to be 'active' rather than 'equal' in the development of their children. There are times when a parent requires a teacher to be the 'expert', there are others when they need to be viewed as a 'consumer'; it seems realistic to accept that there are

legitimate 'boundaries' between home and school but that skills can be developed in parents and teachers to prevent them from becoming 'barricades'. The literature review in this section points to the ways in which this might be achieved:

- parents need as much help as their children

- parents need to be listened to and their feelings acknowledged

- professionals need to be trained in counselling skills

- teachers need training in skills of communication

- parents need information that they can relate to

- parents and teachers need to establish a common ground

- during interviews there needs to be a two-way agenda

- teachers need to be sympathetic to practical or personal factors which may prevent a parent from attending a meeting

- it needs to be accepted that the role of parent and teacher are different, yet the focus of concern – the child – is the same

- teachers need training and confidence building to extend their role from purely curriculum related to child development in its broadest sense

- teachers need to be aware of the impact information about a child's EBD may have on the parents and be trained to deal with any reactions by learning good listening skills.

1.10 Schools can make a difference

During the past thirty years key British studies on school effectiveness have emphasised the benefits of good schooling on pupils with EBD. Despite differences in approaches several studies found a statistically significant relationship between pupil achievement, attendance and behaviour, with the common conclusion that factors within the schools were responsible for variations in pupil outcome (Rutter et al, 1979; Mortimore, Davies, Varlaam and West, 1983; Reynolds, 1985; Smith and Tomlinson, 1989). It would seem that what schools offer, how they offer it and the atmosphere that the school creates helps determine whether pupils respond in desirable or undesirable ways. School effectiveness can also be attributed to the quality of teaching and learning (Reynolds, 1991), additionally the style of teaching may impact on a pupil's relationships and learning; contrasting styles of both teaching and learning depend very much on the cognitive style of those involved. A teaching method which incorporates style led differentiation is more likely to accommodate individual difference in the classroom and make learning an easier task for those who currently find it threatening. The staff development programme, evolved by Riding and Rayner (1994) aims to raise self-awareness, develop enabling strategies, improve interpersonal relationships and increase teaching effectiveness. From the perspective of an ecosystemic approach to changing behaviour, in classrooms where problem behaviour has become established over an extended period, the actions of all people within the group contribute to the maintenance of the behaviour. This would require the teacher to be aware of their style, the way they communicate with pupils and the way they deal with problem behaviour. In effective schools teachers consider the whole context of where the

behaviour is occurring, including their own role. (Molnar and Linquist, 1989; Cooper, 1993; Cooper et al, 1994; Jones, 1995). According to Cooper and Upton, (1991, p. 23) the ecosystemic approach combines the following:

- a management function – to control and change behaviour

- a developmental function – emphasis on building cooperative relationships

- a reflexive function – self-scrutiny by teachers.

Cooper et al (1994) in eschewing a problem solving approach to EBD point out the efficacy of this method especially as schools have been shown to influence behaviour patterns – and the fact that most problems are not due to deep-seated emotional problems in need of specialist help. The findings of the Elton Committee (DES, 1989) pointed out that it is the continuous chattering, fidgeting, roaming, snatching and restlessness which teachers find most wearing. The research found that 97 per cent of both primary and secondary teachers assented to the fact that they had to deal with these frequent, low level, interruptive behaviours.

A plethora of post Elton approaches were developed which are school targeted and more wide-ranging than the behaviour modification techniques of the 1970s; they embrace both micro and macro problem solving approaches and acknowledge the profound influence upon children's behaviour of the organization of which they are part (McGuiness, 1993; Cooper et al, 1994; Ayers et al, 1995).

There has also been a move towards positive approaches to discipline, teaching prosocial behaviour and creating whole school policies which will facilitate a 'behaviour curriculum' (Wheldall and Merrit, 1984; Cheeseman and Watts, 1985; Bate and Moss, 1997, respectively). Merrett (1993) relates numerous successful uses of positive teaching: the case studies range from helping an 11-year-old boy to control tantrum behaviour to controlling out-of-seat behaviour in a class of 7-year-olds. Although based on applied behavioural analysis which has been criticised by some as being mechanistic, Merrett records examples of how this model can be used innovatively. Despite the benefits of 'positive' approaches they are based on the principles of reinforcement and experience has shown that extrinsic rewards can cause a decline in motivation over time; whereas intrinsic motivation is raised by a positive, supportive learning environment – it is the teacher therefore that is the source of motivation and the quality of the relationship that they foster with their pupils.

Rogers (1994) sets out a skills programme at the classroom and school level to equip teachers and schools to enable pupils to meet their responsibilities as learners and prosocial beings. Whilst incorporating the useful aspects of ' positive' teaching by stressing consistency, it goes further by encouraging teachers to be assertive, giving leadership rather than control and treating pupils with dignity and justice, not as inferior subordinates. The importance of rules, rewards, sanctions, teacher behaviour and a school wide policy approach to discipline and pupil behaviour management are stressed. His advocacy goes a long way to embodying the key characteristics of effective schools identified by school effectiveness researchers.

Charlton and David (1990, 1993) provided a comprehensive summary of the key characteristics of effective schools but stress that whilst school policy, organization, ethos and con-tent / delivery are important, the impact of class management skills should not be underestimated. They support this view by arguing that although wider school characteristics and homes do affect behaviour in classrooms, the behaviour which occurs in specific situations, i.e. the classroom, is very much determined by influences within those very teaching situations. Evidence can be seen for this view in many schools where the same pupils behave disparately with different teachers. This points to the need for the 'reflexive function' espoused by Cooper and Upton (1991) that of self-scrutiny by teachers; however as Charlton and David (1993) note self-appraisal is more likely in an atmosphere where support from the school and colleagues is an intrinsic part of the school's functioning.

Daniels (2000) in reviewing approaches to supporting pupils with EBD, suggests that they have offered a technology of teaching which provide a partial view of the child's experience. He stresses the importance of trying to understand children and building relationships with them. Daniels also asserts that to educate children teachers must make contact with the child's perspective and respond to the complexity of their experiences. The views of Daniels highlight the need for teachers to take account of pupils' affect, a point stressed by Cooper (1993) and Daniels and Cole (2002).

Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore (1995) reviewed the results of school effectiveness research giving emphasis to the British results as evidence has accumulated to suggest

contextual factors, particularly national context, is important in transferability. They list eleven factors for effective schools and point out that primary school effects may be larger than those identified in the secondary sector; also that primary schools can have a significant long-term impact on later attainment. Despite choosing to select key findings, they do warn that the findings should not be applied mechanically without reference to a school's context; they also point out that there is no simple combination of factors which can provide a blueprint for success.

Whilst the author of the present research is aware of the danger of disembedding information, certain findings have particular relevance to this research and have thus been selected for further discussion: an effective head teacher is viewed as one who involves him/herself in what is going on in the classroom including teaching strategies. Consistent approaches to discipline, the enforcement of rules and policies regarding rewards and sanctions are all seen as paramount to establishing effectiveness. The quality of teaching is described as being "... at the heart of effective schooling ... teaching styles and strategies are important factors related to pupil progress" (p. 15). There is an indication that if teachers do not look to their styles and strategies (and arguably at their pupils') then even high quality teachers will not perform to their full potential. The learning style of pupils with EBD was ranked as 'very important' in the research of Cole et al (1998) which focussed on effective schooling for pupils with EBD; they commented that if the match of work and delivery was right, then the curriculum could be regarded as therapy.

Cooper et al (1994) stressed the importance of teacher style and approach in teaching children with EBD and Rushton (1995) highlights the necessity to take account of children's preferred learning styles when preparing them for the transition to formal schooling. Riding and Rayner (1998) add the need for teachers of young people with EBD to appreciate the learning styles of their pupils. Good teaching is regarded by Visser (1993) as an intervention when working with children with EBD, who states that good teachers are aware of the need to provide differentiated teaching that matched individual needs. In discussing 'purposeful teaching', Sammons et al (1995, p. 17) state that "Pupil progress is enhanced when teachers are sensitive to differences in the learning styles of pupils and, where feasible, identify and use appropriate strategies ... this requires flexibility on the part of the teachers in modifying and adapting their teaching styles". They indicated that it is the latter which makes the crucial difference with better outcomes for children.

Although the latter research was focussed on schools for all children and considered studies which considered mainly cognitive outcomes, the fact that Sammons et al emphatically stated that "Ultimately, the quality of teaching ... and expectations .. have the most significant role to play in fostering pupils' learning and progress ..." (p. 24), would seem to equally pertinent for children with EBD, especially in view of the observations made by Cole et al (1998). Sammons et al (1995) conclude their review by asserting that there is no one particular teaching style that is better than others and that flexibility is of greater relevance.

It would seem clear from the above that teaching-learning style is now being considered by many to be a key variable in education – whether mainstream or EBD; as cognitive style influences the way in which a person habitually approaches or responds to a learning task, general attainment and achievement in learning situations, it is posited that an understanding of style has implications for building an effective pedagogy and appropriate response to problem behaviour.

1.11 Fostering Home-School Links

The severity and persistence of behaviour problems leads many practitioners to think about the effectiveness of their professional practices. This literature review has highlighted both the risk factors and protective factors which are related to EBD's. It has been argued that it is combinations of or interactions between many factors that affects a child's social adaptation. Kazdin (1987, 1998) exhaustively reviewed behaviour problems in school aged children and demonstrated that, although a number of interventions programmes showed promise, for example, parent management training and cognitive problem-solving skills programmes, no intervention programmes have proven totally effective in reducing behaviour problems. Kazdin summarises various effective aspects of programmes and concludes that a combination of intervention techniques with the child, family and peers are promising, also that working with parents to develop appropriate skills to better manage and relate to their children has been shown to be superior in reducing delinquency and EBD and improving family functioning.

Research by Sheridan and Kratochwill (1992) found that generalisation of improved behaviour from home to school was more likely to occur, when using reinforcement programmes, if the parents had a clear guide to refer to. Webster-Stratton and Herbert (1993) also stressed the need for parental guidelines and found that improved behaviour in school was more likely to occur with younger children from families who were not in crisis. Sutton (1999) concurred with Webster-Stratton and Herbert, stating that guidelines for parents were central to the success of improving child behaviour problems and that for many parents only minimal additional support was required.

Whilst it may be unrealistic at this time to expect schools to provide a service not only for students but for the family too, it is realistic to expect schools to develop good home-school links, as consultation with parents should now be a standard feature in all schools. The importance of parent-teacher cooperation cannot be overestimated in helping children toward an understanding of acceptable behaviour in school, as indicated earlier. This view is supported by both research and official reports. The slow progress in schools working in collaboration with parents is evident, as it is over 30 years since the Plowden Report (DES, 1967) described the importance of the link between the education of the whole person and the family, yet the issue continues to be debated. Sammons et al (1995) stated that supportive relations and cooperation between home and school **do** have positive effects but that parental involvement could mean a multitude of things and that each school would have its own conception. They remark that the mechanisms by which parental involvement influences

school effectiveness are not clear but draw attention to the comments of Coleman et al (1994) "... it is the relationship between the individual teacher and the parent(s) that is critical in enlisting the home as ally, or rendering it the enemy of the educative (or not) activities of the classroom" (cited in Sammons et al, 1995, p. 22).

Despite some promising examples of home-school collaboration, especially reported in the Psychological Journals, questions have been raised about the ability of parents and teachers to collaborate (for example: Hancock, 1997; Woodhead, 1997). Hancock, coordinator of the Hackney Parent, Children and Teachers (PACT) group noted three common difficulties:

- a tendency for teachers to be over-defensive
- an inclination for teachers to dominate meetings
- a lack of skills and experience in interacting with parents.

Woodhead (1997) questioned whether further training in working with parents as partners was needed by teachers and indeed, this turned out to be an area for concern by professionals in Study 1 of this research.

A NASEN survey (Wolfendale, 1997) revealed the needs of parents, professionals and the conditions necessary for partnership to occur. The survey highlighted:

Parent's needs

Clear, open realistic information

Help and support from professionals

Sensitivity from professionals on parents' needs.

Professional's needs

Communicating effectively with parents

Communication and listening skills

Counselling and listening skills.

Partnership

Trust, honesty, openness

Good communication skills.

Although the small size of the sample was noted, it was felt that the survey raised pertinent issues to inform NASEN's policy statement on working with parents. The issues of the need for clear communication, acknowledgement of parents' feelings and further training for teachers, has been highlighted by several authors (Cunningham and Davies, 1985; Jones and Lock, 1993; Farrell, 1995; Cole et al, 1998; Herbert, 1998). Cole et al noted the emphasis of developing good relationships with parents and described it as ".. support won and sustained by the school staff" (p. 147).

Effective communication, constructive partnerships and productive relationships between home and school has been linked with school ethos (Cooper et al, 1994; Roffey, 2002)

ethos being that special something which characterises the atmosphere of a school and which correlates with effectiveness (Rutter et al, 1979) and has a powerful influence on the attitudes and behaviours of those within the school.

It would seem that a concern for human relationships and how they can be facilitated is at the very heart of what home-school links need as their foundation. Woodhead and McGrath (1988) said that initial teacher training and in-service courses are sadly lacking in the practical skills of teaching communication, listening and relationship building skills, yet the importance of relationships is stressed by many writing in the field of EBD (for example, Bovair, 1994; Cooper et al, 1994; Greenhalgh, 1994; Jones, 1995). Dowling and Osborne (1994) recommend their systems – based theories of advice as to how the family and the school systems overlap and interact with each other; they present a joint systems approach for dealing with EBD, however the skills required by teaching staff are 'advanced' forms of communicating and questioning, the importance of these skills once more being underlined.

For schools to be successful in fostering home-school links, research into this area suggests the following staff training needs:

- effective communication skills

- counselling and listening skills

- knowledge of the importance of relationships – promises and pitfalls

- sensitising teachers to the needs of parents and their feelings

- a recognition of the importance of individual differences and the influence that home and school can have on creating or alleviating EBD.

If teachers are equipped with these skills then the task of even just discussing sensitive matters will be easier and the prospect of supporting parent training or providing cognitive problem solving may be contemplated. Educational Psychologists are in a key position to work with parents and have an important role in linking home and school, with the more widespread adoption of consultation work it should now be possible for the dissemination of skills to occur.

1.12 Summary : Review of the Literature

Perceptions of pupils now termed EBD have been coloured by social context. Various Acts of Education have gradually done more to embrace such children into mainstream education. A plethora of research and different models of EBD shaped both the views of cause and practice in responding to EBD.

Beliefs about the aetiology of EBD have broadened in scope since 1945 in the days when children were viewed as physiologically defective and thus the cause of their maladaptive behaviour. During the 1980s the medical model of EBD gave way to a growing emphasis on the Special Educational Needs of pupils with EBD and provision improved accordingly. This period marked a growing acceptance that considering the environment was a key to

understanding EBD. School effectiveness and class management issues were the focus of study in the 1980s, along with the adoption of a market forces model in the provision of educational ser-vices, with a conception of parents as consumers.

With regard to parents, this conception never really materialized as some were less able than others to make informed choices and teachers continued to see their role in terms of the expert with circumscribed boundaries. There continued, however, a recognition, that the whole ecosystem which a pupil operated in needed to be understood and EBD was increasingly seen in interactional terms; this led to whole school policies, support for parents and class management skills of teachers with children suffering from EBD.

Unfortunately, ERA (1988) with its high ideals of inclusion led to negative consequences for many vulnerable pupils, for example, a rise in exclusions. By contrast, the Elton Report (DES, 1989) pointed to indiscipline of a mild but persistent nature and suggested that solutions would be found in improved school and teacher effectiveness.

Circulars 8/94 and 9/94 build on the recommendations of the Elton Report and highlight evidence of good practice from HMI, who see good behaviour and discipline as essential to effective teaching and learning. Factors associated with promoting good behaviour included:

- pupil success
- consultation with pupils and parents

- teaching prosocial behaviour

- effective teaching.

The 1994 'six pack' provided a view of the parameters of EBD – "... lying on a continuum ... social maladaptation to emotional stress" (p. 38). A view of the causes of EBD accepted that both within child and external forces unite to produce EBD, further strengthening the ecosystemic approach. It was agreed the causes of EBD are likely to be complex interactions of factors within the home, the school and the child and that intervention must be targeted to all three areas.

Research returned to the needs of children and the differing effects of parenting; the importance of a secure attachment to a carer or significant other was stressed as a protective factor militating against the development of EBD. Lack of parental love and recognition was found to be associated with feelings of insecurity, low self-worth and difficulties with interpersonal relationships; the need for a reasonable consistent and lovingly applied system of discipline and control was found to help the development of internal self-control in children. Absence of the above and permissive or coercive parenting has been shown to predispose children to develop EBD and research on its persistence suggests that patterns of behaviour problems are likely to worsen with age. In homes where there is marital discord, disharmony or other stresses, parents are seen to be emotionally unavailable to their children which puts children at risk of developing EBD. By contrast, good parent-child relationships create a supportive environment.

There is evidence to show that factors within the school can magnify or alleviate EBD, the effect being particularly large in primary schools. School effectiveness studies have raised key issues for schools to consider, relevant to this research are : whole school policies, good classroom management, relationships, teaching and learning styles and home-school relationships.

Research into home-school links show that cooperative endeavours do have beneficial effects for the pupils – the quality of the relationships between everyone at every level is deemed to be prerequisite for success. It is held for this to happen that teachers need further training to develop communication skills, listening and counselling skills and to be sensitised to the needs of parents. Individual differences have long been recognised as variables in a person's development and adaptability; there is evidence that within person characteristics may predispose a person to develop EBD : low ability, maleness, temperament and a wholist cognitive style – which is thought to regulate affect, behaviour and thinking.

It is proposed that if teachers had knowledge of the psychological needs of pupils and an awareness of the effects of different parenting styles, then given some additional skills and materials, such as *Better Behaviour*, more could be done to make parent partnership a reality. Furthermore, if teachers could be made aware of their own teaching styles and of their pupils' cognitive styles, as assessed on the CSA, then class management and teaching strategies could be changed to better suit the pupils and help reduce problem behaviour in primary schools.

1.13 Rationale

This literature review has covered the main factors which are known to be associated with the causes, maintenance and resolution of EBD in children. Research shows unequivocally that behaviour patterns which are set during the Primary school years are likely to persist into adolescence and even beyond, pointing to the need to act early.

The importance of the quality of family relationships and the necessity for parents to develop authoritative parenting styles, is considered by researchers to be crucial in producing well adjusted, well behaved children.

Legislation from as early as 1967 following the Plowden Report (DES, 1967) to the current Revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) has not only recommended that schools should develop partnership with parents but states that they should promote a culture of support for parental endeavours. Research shows that progress has been made but that teachers have been ill prepared to put political ideals into practice, thus the intentions of various pieces of legislation have not been fully realized.

Individual characteristics of EBD, for example, maleness have long been recognized, a relatively new variable: cognitive style, has been found to be associated with EBD in Secondary, Further and Special education samples. The results of the studies presented in this

review show that in Secondary and Further Education, the males are more badly behaved than the females, with Wholist males producing the most problematic behaviour. The relationship of cognitive style and maleness in EBD has been asserted. Furthermore, style led teaching has been highlighted by many as accommodating individual difference and being associated with school effectiveness; an aspect warranting more research.

The consensus of studies exploring home-school links and parent education, suggest it is not the programmes per se that are successful but the quality of the relationships between home and school, the communication and the school ethos which holds partnership as integral, not additional to its work, which makes parental involvement work well; thus these features need to be promoted. Research is presented which explains the obstacles to effective partnership and the subsequent needs of teacher training courses and continuing Professional Development issues.

All of the above confirms that EBD is a complex issue and that complex solutions to supporting children are the only option. There is much to find out ... much to be done in this area, thus the studies which follow go down several avenues.

They aim to find out how, in one County, schools currently liaise with parents on EBD issues and what barriers they identify in preventing partnership with parents; suggestions for how this task may be eased are elicited.

Studies consistently show that teachers blame the home for pupils' EBD thus, if a means of fostering partnership with parents could be developed this would provide a start in enabling teachers to communicate more effectively with parents, improve parenting skills and hopefully alleviate EBD in pupils. Furthermore, if schools' and teachers' efforts to work with parents could be studied then the training needs of professionals would be likely to emerge.

Cognitive Style has been found to be related to EBD at Secondary, Further and Special education levels; if it was to be found to be influential in Primary aged pupils it could point the way to earlier prediction or assessment of pupils; it could also provide a marker for improving teaching and learning through knowledge of style characteristics.

Furthermore, if the characteristics of pupils with EBD could be studied in detail and their relationship to parenting style ascertained, methods of helping parents could be devised and the effects of their efforts monitored.

Any findings from the foregoing studies may lead to a clearer conception of the complex relationship between parenting, schooling, child characteristics and behaviour also, to any practical steps that can be taken to make partnership with parents, a reality in relation to pupils with EBD.

CHAPTER TWO: METHODOLOGY

The twentieth century saw a conflict between two main paradigms used in researching educational problems and fuelled a debate between the use of quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative methods have traditionally been used within the paradigm of positivism which holds a view that there are casual relationships between events that can be studied and measured objectively (Keeves, 1997; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). In this tradition the emphasis is upon attempting to prove or disprove some hypothesis about theory and practice.

Inquiries within the perspective of positivism sought generalisations about the social and behavioural world but, according to Keeves (1997) few emerged that could be directly applied to benefit educational practice.

It is held that a positivist standpoint fails to recognise the world of subjective experiences, mental states and the unconscious states of mind of individuals and the role of human agents in society. Furthermore that the real world is unknowable without the views and perceptions held by human beings (Keeves, 1997). As a result of such views, alternative perspectives and methods of inquiry have emerged from a humanistic perspective with an emphasis upon qualitative methods of data collection.

Reason (1988) states that a post-positivist philosophy has been developing in many places for some time and outlines approaches to research which fall under the collective title of 'new

paradigm'. He describes collaborative approaches, researching with and for people, rather than on people, such activities were named cooperative, collaborative, participatory or experiential inquiries.

Woolgar in Richardson (1996) states that the debate is no longer about quantitative versus qualitative but, that advocates of qualitative methods disagree about the relative merits of each method and the extent to which a pluralistic stance is admissible. There is now a blurring of methodologies and a view that for example, qualitative research need not exclude quantitative research.

Richardson (1996) states that the researcher should make his/her own choice of research methods in each specific research context, properly informed by both philosophical and pragmatic considerations. Hammersley (1996) goes further to say that the differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches is not clear cut as regards the use of particular data. He points out that there are a range of methods which one should select from, according to the situation and purpose, as opposed to a judgement based on a commitment to one or another competing view of the world. Hammersley asserts that the paradigm view of the relationship between quantitative and qualitative is empirically inaccurate and that there is no fixed relationship between particular views and the use of particular methods. He suggests that methodological eclecticism has the advantage of recognising diversity of approach and the practical character of research. Similarly, more recently, Guba and Lincoln, cited in Christians

(2000, p149) argue that method is secondary to paradigm, which they view as the belief system that guides the investigator.

Robson (2002) suggests that post-positivist thinkers believe that theories, hypotheses, background knowledge and the values of the researcher <u>can</u> influence what is observed but also believe a reality exists. This reality can be known only imperfectly and probabilistically because of the limitations of the researcher. From this position reality can only be 'approximated' (Guba cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p9).

Robson (2002) talks of constructivism as one of many labels denoting current qualitative research, such as 'interpretive' or 'naturalistic'; from this stance reality is socially constructed and the researcher's task is to understand multiple constructions. Participants necessarily help to construct the reality and thus research questions cannot be fully established in advance of the process. The positivistic notion of a universal reality is abandoned in these approaches, instead they seek to elucidate 'local and specific constructed realities' (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). From a social constructionist perspective behaviour is always determined by context, especially by the interactions between people. Constructivist researchers consider their task to be to understand multiple social constructions and favour methods such as interviews and observations, protocol and discourse analyses, to acquire multiple perspectives on a topic.

Alternative methodologies commonly referred to as critical approaches (Robson, 2002) for example feminist studies, reflect upon the philosophy and methodology of the social

sciences. These approaches criticise both post-positivist and constructivist researchers as being relatively powerful experts, researching powerless people. They attempt to include the researcher and participants in research as joint and importantly, equal partners in an effort to challenge dominant aspects of the societies or organisations of which they are part. Inherent dangers in such approaches are pointed out by Gitlin, Siegel and Boru (1993) who suggest that unless care is taken in the choice of methods used, the participants may reproduce the type of relations they take exception to; a point highlighted by Robson (2002).

Robson (2002) describes a further tradition, that of realism and suggests that it can provide a model of scientific explanation which avoids both positivism and relativism, by allowing both subjectivist and objectivist approaches to co-exist. Realism recognises that research with people is conducted within open systems, aspects of which cannot be under the researcher's control. As a result the focus would be on tendencies and probabilities with the task of seeking causal explanations. Robson asserts that within an open system which is constantly changing, prediction is impossible but it is possible to explain some event after it has occurred.

Robson proposes a variant of realism termed critical realism, as a way between positivism and relativism which might also serve the emancipatory potential of social research; he views this as a solution to the 'paradigm wars'. He argues that it is essentially a pragmatic approach which permits the adoption of both quantitative and qualitative methods and which is based on

a respectable philosophical position achieved by Pierce. William James and Dewey (Robson, 2002, p43).

This research has two overarching goals; to evaluate methods of helping parents whose children have EBD and secondly, to establish if there is a relationship between cognitive style and behaviour at the primary school level.

The central assumption in the studies which involved parents, was that more effective parenting techniques could prevent or ameliorate EBD in children. The focus was not exclusively on the parents as the locus of change; teacher training on class management techniques, communicating with parents, teaching prosocial behaviours was occurring and it was felt that this would address the role played by the school and the child in the development of EBD. The latter is not reported in this research but was ongoing as a wider County initiative.

The design of the research with teachers and parents was developed through interaction with the participants, it is essentially a combined strategy design (Robson, 2002) using a multi method approach and considers both quantitative and qualitative data. The purposes of the studies were exploratory and explanatory in nature and could also be regarded as having an emancipatory role in that efforts were made at different phases of the research to give a voice to teachers, parents and pupils. The methodology is essentially within a qualitative paradigm, although two fixed design studies were undertaken; a social constructionist perspective of the

term EBD is adopted; a belief is held that to understand EBD the whole ecosystem within which a pupil is, has to be understood in terms of the interactions between those involved.

There is ambivalence inherent in the concept of EBD in the official definition (DfE, 1994b) therefore EBD could be any behaviour that gives cause for concern in school but is not linked to 'mental illness'. No guidelines are given as to how 'normal' and 'expected bounds' are to be decided or whose expertise should be drawn upon. Therefore the teachers and parents surveyed in the foregoing studies will, as a constructionist perspective suggests, have differing views of the phenomena being studied. However, asking teachers and parents to question their perceptions would have denied their realities. Teacher constructs regarding pupils with EBD will be based on their theoretical inclinations, thus, if teachers have a perspective of 'home' as causing a pupil's EBD their constructs may be challenged if asked to look at their own practice. The converse could be true of the parents.

All of the participants in this research (including the researcher) will subscribe to theories – albeit perhaps tacit theories – which will influence their constructions of EBD and their view of the solutions. To understand the myriad of perceptions, beliefs and understandings a Grounded Theory Approach could have been adopted as a method of data analysis; this approach has been used in studies of EBD, for example Miller (1996) and Roffey (2002). Grounded Theory specifies that new developments in both substantive and formal theorising can be facilitated by the close and detailed inspection of participants' accounts of a situation. The aim of the analysis of the data is to produce a meaningful account that knits together the

variations and complexities of the participants' worlds. It involves the researcher in engaging in interpretive work; according to Pidgeon (1996) this will involve the unravelling of multiple perspectives and commonsense realities of the research participants. It is essentially a method of constant comparisons: collecting and analysing data systematically. Pidgeon remarks that some aspects of this approach rest on a positivist empiricist epistemology and refers to the influential text, by Glaser and Strauss (1967) which introduced this approach. Robson (2002, p191) elaborates and quotes the work of Rennie (1998) who asserts that Strauss adopted an approach which did revert to the hypothetico-deductivism of traditional experimentalism, whereas Glaser remained consistent with the objectives of the method. Rennie developed a rationale which aimed to reconcile realism and relativism.

Despite the attractive features of grounded theory research, this approach was not adopted due to limitations of time by the researcher and the schools, it was felt that not enough detailed information could be collected in the time available.

Reason (1988) used the term cooperative enquiry as an overall term to describe the various approaches to research with people. All cooperative enquiry honours individual experience and strives to enhance it. It is a dynamic research process that is responsive to and may be constructed from the multiple perspectives of those involved. The research design aspect accommodates both positivist and interpretive approaches to research; Robson (2002) states that each of these orientations has its place in real world research where methods and

methodology are informed by the needs of the research 'sponsor' and the associated research questions.

The initial studies in this research began with a collaborative approach and the research focus was negotiated with the participants. However, the teachers were unconfident and reluctant to be co-researchers thus a cooperative enquiry group could not be established.

A quasi experimental design was used to evaluate whether intervention by the parents would result in a change of behaviour in class. Although this method is an example of a fixed design a constructionist view of EBD was not abandoned. A pre test, post test design was used to assess the utility of the intervention and the context of the schools and parental responses were taken into account; Robson (2002) states this is important as one can discover, not a veritable truth, but what happens in certain circumstances. The use of analysis of variance allowed the investigation of the relationships of all the variables and the results were considered as representing only an approximation of the complexity of the interrelationships among the measures. One drawback of this method is that the focus is on outcomes, thus the processes involved cannot be studied.

A relational design was used for the study on cognitive style, home background and behaviour, this was felt to be an appropriate method to gain information in this relatively new field. Decisions about the sample and aspects to be studied were informed by previous studies, for example, Riding and Burton (1998).

Methods of data collection used in this research include: questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, a rating scale, checklist, case studies and content analysis of pupil records. There are advantages and disadvantages to every method of data collection and the cautions for each method were considered (Bell, 1993; Richardson, 1996; Robson, 2002).

Important aspects of any research are the issues of objectivity, generalisability, validity and ethics. From a positivist position, the purpose of research is to find out a generally applicable law which governs the nature of the world and which can be used to predict future outcomes. The essential test of validity would be that an experiment had been directly replicated by an independent researcher with the same outcome. In this tradition the researcher is at a physical and emotional distance from the study, thereby guarding against having an effect on the findings.

Robson (2002) says this is not feasible when a flexible design is used and that it would be highly questionable in real world fixed designs involving people. Rather than 'objectivity', Robson suggests that what is needed are procedures to ensure that the work is trustworthy. Phillips (1993) recommends conducting an inquiry in such a way that the work is open to scrutiny, examination and challenge. Similarly, Salmon (2003) advocated that the researcher should try not to mislead, be rigorous in the chosen methods and analytical when interpreting the data. These are principals to which the author of this research has aimed to adhere.

With regard to the measuring instruments used, Robson (2002) states that unless a measure is reliable it cannot be valid. Unreliability may have various causes: participant error,

for example due to tiredness, participant bias, for example trying to please the researcher. Construct and internal validity are further factors to consider in fixed design methodology, these are pointed out in the study using the quasi experimental design.

The researcher's aim was to adopt a methodology that gave a voice to the participants in addition to collecting quantitative data; thus the overall interpretation would take account of multiple perspectives. Additionally some degree of methodological triangulation was used, a strategy for countering threats to validity. Smith (1996) writes that the essential rationale for triangulation is that by using a number of different methods, a richer, fuller story can be created which will give a fuller understanding of the situation. Denzin (1997) suggests that each method reveals a different slice of the social world and that a consistent picture will seldom be seen. What is important in an area so complex as EBD is that different pictures are allowed to emerge which will highlight the different constructions of reality.

Robson (2002) states that ethical dilemmas lurk in any research involving people and that problems start at the very beginning of a study. Ethics refers to rules of conduct, to conformity to a code or set of principles. In the case studies, all of the parents were fully aware of the nature and purposes of the research, all records of meetings were verified by them and they willingly took part. Confidentiality and anonymity of all participants, children and parents, was assured in all of the studies and parental permission was sought to use the case study information for a report. All of the findings were summarised and given to the schools

concerned for them to consider when reviewing their behaviour policies and preparing home school leaflets.

There were some aspects of the research process that created dilemmas for the researcher, in particular whether parents would feel offended at being sent a booklet on parenting, also whether measuring pupil behaviour before and after the parents had been sent a booklet of advice in some way implied a judgement of their efforts. Additionally consideration was given to how much detail parents needed to be given about the studies. These issues were discussed with the author's supervisor and the Heads of the schools in question. Parents were given the opportunity not to take part and were given a named person to contact if they wanted to know any further details about the endeavour.

The aim of the research was to find ways of preventing or ameliorating EBD, parents were aware this was a focus of the schools' efforts also that rating EBD was an established practice. The research timescale was 1995-1999, the dilemmas pertained to a study conducted in 1996; what was considered to be permissible at that time would be likely to be questionable now as both understandings of and laws about individuals' rights have changed, also about the kind of research questions that should be asked and the methods that are used to seek the answers.

CHAPTER THREE – STUDY ONE

3.0   Overview

Partnership With Parents and The Development of *Better Behaviour*

The aspirations embodied in the document Excellence for all Children (DFEE, 1997a) have substantial implications for schools in developing partnership with parents whose children have special Educational Needs. With regard to pupils with EBD the document acknowledges that the number of children in this category is increasing and recognizes that new ways of tackling these difficulties early are needed. Strengthening the skills of staff working with pupils with EBD and their parents is a stated aim of the Document and indeed Local Education Authorities are charged with this task and are obliged to produce Behavioural Support Plans setting out the training which is available.

Chapter 8 of Excellence for all Children echoes researchers in the field, by stating that defining EBD is not easy, that there is a wide spectrum of need and that its roots are complex. It stresses the role that poor parenting and family breakdown can have on children and recommends that emotional difficulties should be addressed as early as possible.

This study aims to explore the above key issues, namely: how schools work in partnership with parents whose children have EBD; what are the EBDs that are common in Primary

schools and what might be a useful resource to strengthen teachers' skills in working collaboratively with parents.

This study is in several distinct yet related fields. Firstly it focuses on partnership with parents in Primary schools in a large rural county. Secondly it considers the characteristics of 13 pupils referred to the author owing to their presenting behaviour problems. Thirdly and finally it focuses on one of the major influences of child behaviour, that of parenting. It describes the development of a booklet which aims to help all parents of children up to 12 years; particularly those who exhibit difficult behaviour.

3.1   Partnership With Parents: County Survey

3.1.1   Aims

- To ascertain current practice in relation to methods of liaison with parents with respect to pupils' work and behaviour.

- To establish any perceived difficulties by staff in collaborating with parents whose children have behaviour problems.

- To gather ideas on what staff might find helpful for working with parents of pupils with problems.

3.2   Method

All primary schools in the county were invited to comment on Partnerships with Parents through the distribution of a questionnaire (Appendix 6, page 364).

3.2.1   Sample

A total of 275 Primary schools were contacted, including 10 Nursery, 44 Infant, and 37 Junior Schools with a high proportion of small schools. Nursery and Infant schools were combined for this study as they often co-exist.

3.2.2   The Measuring Instrument

The Questionnaire Partnership with Parents was devised by the researcher. It comprises eight questions, the first three requiring biographical details and factual responses. Questions 4-8 were left open to encourage the respondents' views on the areas specified.

Youngman (1982) states that too many structured questions can generate repression and resentment owing to the respondent feeling unable to do justice to their opinions; open questions placed after structured ones are believed to act as a safety valve to put the respondent at ease. This advice influenced the choice of format for the questionnaire.

The questionnaires were posted with a covering letter to the Head Teacher of each Primary school in the County. They were timed to arrive during the last week of the summer holidays with the hope that schools would be able to find time to complete them.

3.2.3   Reliability and Validity

Youngman (1982) indicates that an instrument becomes more reliable and valid if an explicit theme is adhered to and if frequent reminders are given to the respondents in the question headings. This practice was adhered to in the construction of the questionnaire, however, there are no indices of reliability or validity. The results obtained must be treated with caution in these circumstances.

3.2.4   Analysis of Data

Quantitative data will be presented to reflect the frequency of response. Qualitative data will be provided in summarized points to represent the overall consensus of the comments made.

3.3   Statement of Results – Overview

A total of 275 Primary schools were sent the questionnaire, 83 replies were received, which represented a 30% response rate.

Table 3.1   Partnership with Parents – Questionnaire returns

	No. of schools	Replies	No. on Roll
Nursery / Infant	54	23	30-381
Junior	37	8	200-323
Primary	184	52	18-400

The analysis of the responses was carried out in the following manner:

Step 1 Verbatim comments were listed for every question.

Step 2 The comments were grouped into the same or similar replies.

Step 3 The responses were condensed using the same or similar replies.

Step 4 The frequency of the same or similar response is indicated by a number in brackets placed after the comment.

This method was also followed for the semi-structured interviews reported below.

3.3.1   **Responses from Questionnaire** (Number of returns = 83)

1. **What methods of liaison do you use with parents in relation to pupils' work? (see table 3.2)**

    a) formal   b) informal

2. **What methods of liaison do you use with parents in relation to pupils' behaviour? (see table 3.2)**

    a) formal   b) informal

Table 3.2   Methods of Liaison – County Survey

1. Formal methods of liaison

Work		Behaviour	
Parent Evenings	(50)	Meeting with class teacher	(30)
Annual Report	(42)	Letters from Head	(26)
Meetings at request of home / school	(24)	Parent evenings	(15)
Letters from school	(9)	Home to school diary	(10)
Contact through CoP	(12)	Meeting with :	
		- parent	
		- Head	
		- Governors	
		- outside agencies	(11)
		Policy circulated	(5)

2. Informal methods of liaison

Work		Behaviour	
Open access	(25)	Daily contact parent – teacher	(23)
Telephone calls / letters	(11)	Informal chats	(22)
Daily contact with class teacher	(36)	Telephone calls / letters	(14)

3. **Do you have a named member of staff with responsibility for developing partnership with parents?**

   Yes = 22   No = 61

4. **Do you think that partnership with parents is more difficult to achieve in relation to behaviour than to work issues?**

   Yes = 39   No = 44

5. **In relation to behaviour problems what difficulties do you see in working collaboratively with parents?**

Resistance of parents to face the truth	(38)
Mismatch between home-school expectations	(27)
Parents unable to be consistent	(15)
Insufficient trained staff	(1)
Overcoming barrier of unease	(2)

6. **How can these difficulties be alleviated?**

Education for parenting	(22)
Build good relationships	(11)
Improve communication	(24)

7a. **Would you find resources for working with parents whose children have behaviour problems useful?**

   Yes = 39   No = 44   No reply = 9

7b. **Suggested resources**

Staff training courses / resources	(7)

8. Miscellaneous Comments

Early Intervention needed	(6)
Resource Issues	(8)
Workload Issues	(8)
Training Issues	(10)

3.4   Interpretation and Discussion of Results

3.4.1   Criticisms of Survey

The questionnaire was very general and as there was no request that it be completed following staff discussions, it is likely that the replies reflected the perceptions and/or opinions of the head teachers alone. There were only 85 responses out of a possible 275, this represents a low return rate of 30%. It can only be speculated upon why there were so few returns:

- the timing may have been wrong
- there is a high proportion of very small schools in the County who generally do not call upon external agencies so it is possible these schools did not consider the survey relevant to them
- the schools who did not reply may have felt 'behaviour' was not an issue for them or filling in the form not a priority.

There are no indices of reliability or validity therefore the findings are relevant only to the schools who replied. This is felt to be defensible as when collating the data, whether a school had a low or high number of pupils on roll (see Table 3.1, p.133) the replies were similar and the nature of the responses fell into discrete groups. Those schools who did reply were concerned about the aspects they raised and had considered these matters carefully. The replies to questions 7b and 8 are issues which have always concerned educationalists and researchers. It was therefore thought to have been a useful exercise in terms of an initial enquiry and the basis for future work.

It was hoped that a county wide survey would have yielded rich data based on a large sample of responses, clearly this did not occur. In future work it would be desirable to select a few schools where EBD is considered to be an issue; they would be more likely to be a representative sample for the topic being studied.

Although the postal survey was chosen for its cost effectiveness and to encourage frankness about a potentially sensitive issue, the anonymity meant that no follow up work was possible. If only a few schools had been selected, face to face interviews using an interview schedule would have been likely to have yielded more information of good quality (Robson, 2002). Difficulties which individual schools may have had, in relation to liaising with parents whose children have EBD, are likely to have emerged and a way forward for each school indicated.

3.4.2 Methods of liaison with parents

Table 3.2 (p. 134) indicates that there are very few differences between the way teachers liaise with parents with regard to pupils' work and to their behaviour; the most noticeable difference is that the formal methods employed in relation to behaviour involve the Head and outside agencies. This is not unsurprising and is indicative of ongoing difficulties which the class teacher has had to seek additional support for and suggests that the EBD has not been resolved in the classroom or through discussions with the parents. It is of interest that nearly half of the Nursery / Infant schools in the County surveyed, indicated concern about EBD; in the light of the views of Chazan et al (1994) that EBD's arising between the ages of 7-11 have their origins in the early years, early intervention seems crucial.

Nearly two thirds of the schools do not have a named member of staff responsible for developing partnership with parents which indicates that this task is left with the class teachers and over half of the responses state that working with parents of pupils who have EBD is no more difficult than liaising with regard to work. This is surprising given the increasing support provided for these pupils; possibly the reasons for this could be found in the responses to question 5 – what difficulties do you see in working ... with parents? The preponderance of replies refers to deficits in the parents, as Farrell (1995) and Miller (1996) suggest this indicates an attribution of blaming the parents for pupils' problems also for any failure of interventions.

Only one school acknowledged staff training needs and only two recognized barriers of unease that can arise between teachers and parents when discussing EBD.

By contrast, the answers to question 6 – how can these difficulties be alleviated? – recognise the duty of the school to build good relationships and improve communication, points raised by many authors (for example : Cunningham and Davies, 1985; Jones and Lock, 1993; Wolfendale, 1997).

Less than half of the schools said they would welcome resources for working with the parents of children with EBD but no school could actually specify what kind of resource they would want. The miscellaneous comments reflect perceived pressures upon teachers and barriers to effectively supporting pupils with EBD and their parents. It would seem overall that teachers see part of their role as being responsible for communicating with parents on an ongoing basis yet they recognize the responsibility schools have to improve this.

The attribution of faults to parents and parenting, suggests the respondents view the home situation as maintaining if not causing EBD; that families are a powerful factor in childhood EBD is not in doubt and as Kauffman (1977) pointed out, social interactions and standards of behaviour at home are likely to be replicated outside of the home and in school. As Woodhead and McGrath (1988) and Bastiani (1993) suggest, it is likely that the personnel in this survey have had little if any training in working with or communicating with parents, but

they do recognize it as a training issue along with resources to help them work with parents whose children have EBD.

3.5   The Development of "Better Behaviour"

3.5.1   Preparation and Method

The results of the survey were disappointing due to the low number of replies, also that the suggestions for alleviating collaboration difficulties with parents focussed on parent education – which seemed beyond the remit of the professionals in the world of schooling. 35 suggestions pertained to building good relationships and improving communication with parents, aspects of training which were incorporated into the wider context of this research, outlined in the introduction.

Following the survey, 11 schools contacted the author of this research to request support for a number of pupils who had longstanding EBD and for whom family factors were believed to be contributing to the EBD.

On inspecting the referral details of these pupils the researcher was struck by the length of time these difficulties had persisted, also the amount of additional support which had been provided in school for the pupils and by external agencies for the parents. It was decided to examine the general description of the pupils' problems, family factors which may be significant and the type of support given by school and outside agencies to the parents. This

was done by face-to-face meetings with the teachers and parents, separately, using a semi-structured interview format for recording (Appendix 7, page 367).

3.5.2   Results of Case Studies and Interviews

Table 3.3: Information from Case Studies (g = girl; ; b = boy; y = years; m = months h = home; s = school)

Pupil Number and gender	Age at referral	Duration of problem	Exhibited Home School	Agency Support	Description of Problem	Family Factors
1 G	6 y	4 m	H	√	School Phobia Abdominal Pains Vomiting	Sibling in hospital Mother bereaved
2 G	5 y	4 m	H	√	Temper Tantrums	New baby Divorce Mother depressed
3 B	9 y 11 m	6 m	S	√	Tantrums Aggressive	Overprotective parents. Doesn't play out or visit
4 B	9 y 2 m	4 m	H & S	√	Aggressive Defiance	Single mother no control over son
5 B	9 y 3 m	16 m	H & S	√	Aggression Defiance Stealing	Birth of sibling Mixes with teenagers at night and returns late
6 B	9 y 9 m	5 m	H & S	√	Aggressive Defiance	Punitive parenting from Dad, permissive from mum. Sibling rivalry
7 B	9 y	18 m	H & S	√	Tantrums Attention seeking	Divorce Mother terminally ill
8 B	8 y	1 y	H & S	√	Tantrums Attention seeking	Maternal depression
9 B	9 y	5 y	H & S	√	Anxiety Withdrawn	High parental expectations. Dad in MENSA
10 B	9 y	18 m	H & S	√	Aggression	Succession of father surrogates. Mother depressed
11 B	4 y	1 y	H & S	√	Anxiety Withdrawn	Maternal mental health problems Punitive parenting by Dad
12 B	9 y	3 m	H & S	√	Attention seeking	Spoiled child Overprotective mother
13 B	6 y	1 y	H & S	√	Defiance	Family discord Inconsistent parenting

3.6 Interpretation and Discussion of Findings

It can be seen from Table 3.2 that the majority of pupils referred were boys, which is consistent with findings by Achenbach and Edelbrock (1981). Stressful family factors are associated with boys 7, 8, 10, 11 and 13, with the exception of pupil 11 who is anxious and withdrawn, the other boys are exhibiting externalising behaviours as predicted by Rutter (1985) and is also indicative of the view that boys are more vulnerable to family stresses (Hetherington, 1989).

Pupils 1, 2, 7, 8, 10 and 11 have mothers who have acute or chronic mental health problems and were preoccupied by these; this has been said by Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (1986) to be a primary influence on the development of behaviour problems.

Inconsistent, lax or punitive parenting is associated with pupils 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 11,12 and 13; with the exceptions of pupils 9 and 11 the other pupils are exhibiting one or more antisocial behaviours reflecting the views of McCord (1979), Wilson (1980) and Riley and Shaw (1985) that poor or inappropriate control by parents will lead to lack of an internalised self-control system in the children.

The two anxious boys, 9 and 11 had very strict fathers who expected high standards of behaviour and work, it is likely that these boys received little recognition for their efforts,

leading as Bowlby (1988) suggested to feelings of insecurity, low self-worth and difficulties in interpersonal relationships.

Pupil 1 suffered the classic signs of school phobia at age 6 years. Chazan et al (1994) suggest that one of the peaks for this condition is age 5-6 years and that separation anxiety in an immature child and loss of a loved relative could predispose a child to anxiety and school refusal.

The problems of pupils 1 and 2 were not apparent in school, being seen only at home, suggesting that difficulties were felt and encountered in the home situation only; as Winkley (1996) suggests schools have an important role to play in supporting children made less secure by events in the family. He further asserted that supportive schools function like supportive families, providing:

- structure
- thoughtfulness
- stable environment
- encouragement
- clear limits.

The mothers of pupils 1 and 2 were visibly upset which is likely to have caused anxiety in their children, also due to family pressures the home routine was disrupted, a factor likely to cause frustration and lack of appreciation of the girls' needs.

Despite the small sample of pupils studied, it would seem that there is a relationship between home factors / parenting style and the development and maintenance of EBD. Additionally although all pupils had some degree of outside agency intervention and 11 pupils had additional support in school, the duration of the EBD ranged from 3 months to 5 years giving further credence to the views of Graham and Rutter (1973) and Chazan et al (1994) that patterns of behaviour can be 'set' in the primary years and persist into adolescence.

Bennathan (1992) stressed the importance of early intervention and support, however, it would seem from the 1.1 interviews held with the teachers and parents of the pupils in this study, that hours of intervention had been provided through teacher-parent discussion, in school support and outside agency involvement; yet 9 of the 13 pupils had difficulties in excess of 4 months despite support. This suggests some key variable was being missed.

Table 3.4

Information from Semi-Structured Interviews (N = 13, 2 girls and 11 boys).

Teachers:

1. **What behaviour do you see?**   Number of Pupils

   Temper tantrums   (3)

   Aggression   (5)

   Defiance   (4)

   Attention seeking   (3)

   Anxiety   (2)

2. **What have you done to alleviate it?**

   Extra adult support in class   (10)

   Withdrawn for specialist support   (8)

   Sanctions   (7)

   Encouragement and praise   (4)

   Referred child to educational psychologist   (13)

3. **Have you involved the parents?**

   Yes = 11

   No = 2, pupils 1 and 2 following parental request

4. **How have you involved them?**   Numbers of teachers

   Home-school diary on behaviour   (6)

   Daily discussions about progress   (6)

   Weekly discussions about progress   (6)

   Available daily to listen to parents   (9)

   Code of Practice termly reviews   (11)

   Parents:

5. **What behaviour do you see?**   Number of children

   School phobia, abdominal pains, vomiting   (1)

   Temper Tantrums   (3)

   Aggression   (4)

   Defiance   (4)

   Stealing   (1)

   Attention seeking   (3)

   Anxiety   (2)

6. **What advice has the school given you?**   Number of parents

   Regular time to discuss behaviour   (9)

   Home-school diary   (6)

   To make a sticker chart for good behaviour   (6)

   To spend special time with my child   (5)

   To be firmer with my child   (6)

7. **What advice have outside agencies given you?**

   Special time to talk through my problems (9)

   Star charts for good behaviour leading to a weekly reward (6)

   Ignore bad behaviour and praise the good (6)

   To build my child's self-esteem by recognising his/her achievements (6)

Interpretation of information from semi-structured interviews

Q 1 and Q 5 : What behaviour do you see?

Where a pupil exhibited EBD at home and in school there was no disagreement about the nature of the problem behaviour. In the case of the two girls who were showing difficulties only at home the schools had responded to this by offering more support. In fact all of the schools had involved the parents, over half having been engaged in discussions for over a year and two for 5 years.

Q2 : Teachers had in the main used sanctions and rewards, with the addition of 1.1 adult support in a range of different situations.

Q4 : The methods of involving parents had been frequent availability, either formal or informal, and consisted mainly of exchanging information.

Q6 : 9 parents affirmed the generosity of time they had been afforded and 6 commented on the ongoing communication provided by a home-school diary. Practical suggestions designed to change behaviour were the use of a sticker chart, spending special time with their child and being firmer. These last three points revealed that at least some of the teachers in this study recognized that some of the pupils needed something else from the parent but, methods of helping the parent achieve this were not forthcoming.

Q7 : Outside agencies had, understandably gone further in supporting the parents and proffering advice; 9 parents welcomed support to discuss their own problems and nearly half had been helped to see the self-esteem needs of their children thus taking the focus off the behaviour and onto the deeper needs of the child.

For this sample of pupils and their parents clearly hours of time has been spent on discussing the EBD's and costly resources in terms of adult : child support have been provided – yet the EBD's were continuing. White et al (1992) having analysed 172 studies of parent support concluded that it is the way in which they are helped which is important, especially empowering them so that they are in a position to help their children. Topping (1986) stressed the efficacy of parents being helped to analyse the ways in which they naturally respond to their children's EBD's also that helping parents with their own dilemmas can result in a more positive parent-child relationship.

Webster-Stratton and Herbert (1995) considered the body of accumulated evidence which suggested parent education and training was successful but central to success was the use of a training manual which the parents could refer to at home; the aim of the training they asserted should focus on changing the parents' behaviour towards the child.

It was from this work that the author determined to prepare a resource that teachers and school support agencies could use to:

- make the time spent in discussions more productive

- use the additional adult time to better effect

- acknowledge the needs of parents and the difficulties of parenting in a general sense

- make explicit what children's basic psychological needs are

- provide examples of how parents can meet their child's needs by adopting an authoritative style of parenting.

3.7 The Development of the booklet *Better Behaviour*

3.7.1 Method

The following steps were taken in the writing, piloting and redrafting of the booklet:

- The problem behaviours outlined in Table 3.3 (page 141) were selected for inclusion into the booklet; in addition to being common problems in the author's experience, they are representative of difficulties that most children are likely to display at some time (Kauffman, 1977).

- For each problem identified, a scenario was written to illustrate how a problem might appear in the family context.

- An explanation of each problem behaviour was formulated, informed by the review of the literature.

- A list of strategies to try, or avoid, was drawn up for each scenario.

- The needs of children and what might happen if these are not met was considered.

- The difficulties of parenting and guidelines for being a successful parent are outlined.

- A draft booklet was produced and given to four colleagues for proofreading. Comments were received on layout and style and the booklet redrafted in the light of the above.

3.7.2   Pilot Study With Parents

12 parents known to the writer of this research, who had one or more children experiencing EBD at home and school were selected to read the booklet and consider its usefulness in relation to their situation at home. This was achieved through two face-to-face meetings each plus a letter. The initial visit was used to give parents the draft Booklet, explain how it might be used and outline the kind of feedback that would ultimately be required. A second visit was made to each parent after a fortnight to discuss any concerns or queries they might have. Finally, after a further week a letter and a brief questionnaire was sent to each parent (see Appendix 8, page 368).

The following table shows the parental comments, and a further redrafting was done in the light of these.

Table 3.5   Parental Comments on Pre-Publication Draft of *Better Behaviour*

N = 12

What you like about the booklet

Clear language.

Easily understood.

Examples uncomplicated and realistic.

Reasons given as to why children misbehave.

Advice on how to deal with difficult behaviour.

It's sympathetic to parents.

It gives you confidence that things can change for the better, or that you're doing things right already.

Anything which is unclear

If a strategy doesn't work what to do next.

Do the lists suggest order of importance?

Suggestions for improvement

Stress the importance of saying no.

It's best to get it right when children are young.

How to approach the school so it is not 'us' v. 'teachers'.

That it may not be easy to carry out the advice.

What to do if you're at flashpoint.

That one or two changes at first would make a big improvement.

Take the advice step by step.

3.8   Trialling of the Booklet

In the term following the publication of *Better Behaviour* copies of the booklet were circulated to a sample of schools in a rural town of 27,000 population. The town was in decline, unemployment rates high and reported EBD in schools and communities were felt to

be increasing. The booklets were also sent to a number of outside agencies who supported the schools in question, circulation was as follows:

- 1 Primary school.

- 2 Infant schools.

- 1 Junior school.

- Team of Specialist Teachers (STS, EBD).

- Team of Educational Welfare Officers (EWO).

- Team of Home Support Volunteers based at a local Family Centre (HVS).

- Colleagues in the area Psychological service.

Following the circulation of the booklets, appointments were made for the author to attend a staff meeting with each of the groups listed above; the purpose was to glean initial reactions, answer questions and explore any perceived difficulties in using the booklet as a resource with parents. Comments were noted during the meetings and read back to the group at the end.

3.8.1   Outcomes of meetings with schools and supporting agencies

Schools :

- overall the reactions revealed great apprehension at liaising in such a detailed way with parents over matters such as EBD

- they felt that they would need time to assimilate the booklet and support to use it as a resource

- issues about training and experience of working with parents in this sphere were raised

- time was highlighted as an obstacle to relating to parents, as was:

- lack of a suitable facility

- lack of designated member of staff

- lack of the true partnership with parents in the schools in question

- difficulties in approaching parents about home matters were highlighted.

Specialist teachers

- All of the teachers welcomed the booklet as a resource

- They concluded that they would find the resource useful to guide conversations

- They suggested a sample letter for schools to send to parents would be a good preparation for in-depth discussion

- They suggested that the booklet could be used as a preventative measure to EBD as in their experience, younger siblings often have difficulties too.

EWOs meeting

- The EWOs were primarily concerned about whether parents would feel threatened

- That parents might feel concerned about what familial information might have to be revealed to schools

- That the schools might change their focus from a problem pupil to a problem family

- They unanimously agreed the booklet could be used as a basis for discussing problem behaviour at home, but that school EBD should be dealt with by teachers

- They expressed the need for support in interviewing techniques and how to encourage parents to reflect on their parenting behaviour at home.

Home Volunteer Service

- Volunteers expressed no difficulties in raising personal issues with families as they had received training and had experience of this (training had been provided to each yearly cohort of volunteers by the researcher, yearly for 5 years prior to this study).

- They raised the issue of financial / practical support being needed by parents before they could have "… the strength to help their children".

- They reported unanimously that mothers particularly are stressed or depressed and need personal support to be able to help their children.

The County Psychological Service (EPs)

- The EPs consensually expressed confidence in being able to use the booklet as a resource; when asked what they felt made them confident they listed:

  - training in counselling and listening skills
  - communication skills
  - helping skills
  - familiarity in discussing sensitive issues.

- The only barrier the EPs noted was lack of time to support parents on an ongoing, open-ended basis.

3.8.2 Summary of meetings regarding the trialling of the booklet

Overall, teachers spent much time with parents but felt unskilled to raise potentially sensitive issues; Specialist teachers welcomed the booklet as a resource and suggested improvements to 'set the scene'.

EWOs were primarily concerned about the reactions of the parents to potentially sensitive information and their own needs with regard to enhancing their interviewing techniques.

The HVS drew attention to the personal, financial and practical needs of parents being paramount and that they needed to be addressed before parents could be helped to help their children. The CPS felt they possessed the skills necessary to work with parents on sensitive issues due to their previous experience and training but, questioned whether the way they worked lent itself to extended case work.

3.8.3   Development of : *A Professional's Guide To The Use of Better Behaviour*

It was felt that the cautious comments from EPs about time allocation had to be left to professional discretion and that this issue could not be addressed in the context of this research. The comments, fears and reservations of the schools and other agencies were considered and a *Professional's Guide to the Use of Better Behaviour* was produced (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995b); this guide addressed the concerns raised by the differing agencies and comprises:

- Rationale and underlying assumptions with regard to *Better Behaviour*

- Using *Better Behaviour*
    - as a preventative resource
    - as a remedial resource

- A Case Study with examples of school-parent letters and meeting planners.

3.9   Professional - Parent Liaison, using *Better Behaviour* and *The Professional's Guide*, with pupils with EBD

3.10   Method

Following the meetings outlined in 3.8.1 above, 20 professionals who were engaged in supporting pupils with EBD and liaising with their parents, volunteered to use *Better Behaviour* as the focus for meetings with parents.

The aim of the intervention was to raise the parents' awareness of the relationship between:

- The quality of love/care and amount of recognition they give and the development of security and self worth

- The degree and appropriateness of the discipline they provide and the development of self control

The nature of the intervention was to hold discussions with the parents using the guidelines in the *Better Behaviour* booklet, namely:

- What might be causing the behaviour or emotional problem

- Household rules

- Thinking about how the parents respond to misbehaviour or an upset child

- Logical consequences

- Strategies which can alleviate problem behaviour

- Things to avoid

- Use of the vignettes in the booklet for the most common EBDs.

The volunteers comprised:

2 Head Teachers

4 Learning Support Assistants (specialist EBD)

5 Educational Psychologists taking 2 cases each

5 Educational Welfare Officers

4 Home Support Volunteers.

Each person had 3 booklets, one for themselves, one for the class teacher and one for the parent, *a professional's guide* and a set of semi-structured interview schedules to record biographical data and pre- and post-intervention observations. The interview schedule can be found in Appendix 9 (page 369). It was agreed that the intervention period should be 3 months and that each professional would work with the parents for 6 x 1 hourly sessions once a fortnight.

3.11   Outcomes : Overview

Table 3.6   Trialling *Better Behaviour*

Semi-Structured Interview Schedules for School, Parent and Child : Overview

N = 25

Main Use of Booklet :

Remedial   = 25

Preventative with siblings   = 7

Overall Improvement of Behaviour :

At home   = 23

In School   = 2

Attribution of Booklet being of direct help :

At home   = 23

In School   = 25

Assessment of Parental Confidence Since Using Booklet :

Yes   = 23

No   =   2

Table 3.7   Nature of Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties occurring at home and school

Pupil Number	Attention Seeking		Tantrums		Defiance		Aggres-sion		Stealing		Anxious		School Phobia		Notes
	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	H	S	
1	√				√		√				√				Pre-School
2	√	√			√	√							√	√	Play Group
3	√				√										Pre-School
4	√										√				Pre-School
5									√	√					
6			√	√	√	√	√	√							No home intervention given
7		√									√		√		
8	√	√			√				√						
9	√						√				√	√	√	√	Selective Mute
10	√	√			√							√			
11	√	√			√										
12		√						√							No home problems reported
13		√			√			√	√		√				
14	√	√					√	√							
15	√	√			√	√		√			√	√			
16	√	√			√	√						√			
17		√	√		√							√			
18	√				√	√	√						√	√	
19					√	√		√							
20	√	√	√		√	√					√	√			
21	√	√									√	√	√	√	
22		√	√		√	√	√	√	√		√				
23			√		√		√				√		√	√	
24			√		√	√		√			√		√	√	
25			√		√		√	√		√					

160

Table 3.8   Summary of Outcomes

N = 25, G = 5, B = 20. Survey period = 3m.

Pupil Number	Sex	Age	Duration EBD	Key Worker	EBD Alleviated	EBD Resolved	EBD Same
1	F	3 y 11 m.	16 m.	VOL.	√		
2	F	3 y 6 m.	6 m.	VOL.	√ ⟶		
3	M	3 y 10 m.	12 m.	VOL.	√		
4	M	4 y.	6 m.	VOL.	√		
5	F	7 y 3 m.	3 m.	HEAD		√	
6	M	3 y 10 m.	12 m.	HEAD	√ slight		√ home
7	M	11 y 3 m.	6 y.	LSA (EBD)	√		
8	M	10 y 2 m.	2 y.	LSA (EBD)	√ ⟶		
9	M	7 y 1 m.	3 y.	LSA (EBD)	√ ⟶		
10	M	8 y 4 m.	6 m.	LSA (EBD)	√ ⟶		
11	M	10 y	5 y.	E.P.	√ ⟶		
12	M	10 y	4 y.	E.P.	√ ⟶		
13	M	5 y 6 m.	1 y.	E.P.		√	
14	M	7 y 2 m.	6 m.	E.P.	√		
15	M	7 y.	1 y.	E.P.	√		
16	M	9 y.	2 y.	E.P.		√	
17	M	10 y.	5 y.	E.P.	√ ⟶		
18	M	11 y 6 m.	1 m.	E.P.		√	
19	M	5 y 3 m.	1 y.	E.P.		√	
20	M	8 y 10 m.	6 m.	E.P.	√		
21	F	10 y 6 m.	8 m.	EWO	√		
22	F	10 y 4 m.	8 m.	EWO	√ ⟶		
23	M	11 y.	12 m.	EWO	√		very little improvement
24	M	12 y.	7 m.	EWO		√	
25	M	6 y 2 m.	2½	EWO	√ ⟶		

KEY : EBD = Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties.

VOL = home Support Volunteer.
LSA = Learning Support Assistant.
EP = Education Psychologist.
EWO = Education Welfare Officer.

Table 3.9   Summary of Evaluation : School and Parent

N = 25

Pupil No.	Comments on Original EBD.	New Parental Strategies.
1.	Some attention seeking and anxiety remains at home but defiance and aggression is extinct.	Recognition. Special time.
2.	Some anxiety about playgroup persists but attention seeking and defiance are extinct.	Being firm. United Front. Logical Consequences.
3.	Some attention seeking remains at home but defiance is extinct.	Rules, consistency.
4.	Small signs of anxiety remain at home but attention seeking has ceased.	Loving discipline.
5.	Stealing from home and school has totally ceased.	Recognition of small achievements. Praise.
6.	Tantrums, defiance and aggression are still evident at home and to a lesser degree in school too.	None.
7.	Some signs of anxiety persist at home but attention seeking and school phobia are no longer evident.	Recognition. Special time.
8.	Some attention seeking is occurring at home but stealing and defiance have ceased.	Special time. Sanctions. Praise. Understanding.
9.	A selective mute of 3 years will now mouth words, gesture and respond to instructions in school; also will speak to Grandparents and LSA in the home.	Recognition. Praise. Sharing feelings in the home.
10.	Attention seeking in school has lessened, and is extinct at home as is defiance. Signs of anxiety remain at home.	Responsibility. Praise. Honesty about Mother's ill health. Sharing feelings.
11.	Attention seeking has diminished to an acceptable level at home and school, defiance is no longer evident.	Consistency. Special time.
12.	Attention seeking and aggression have diminished in response to extra teacher attention.	None.
13.	All behaviour problems at home and school have disappeared.	Give warnings. Routines. Special time.
14.	Still seeks attention at home and school but is no longer aggressive.	Special time. Rules. Explanations.
15.	Some attention seeking still evident at home and school but defiance, aggression and overt anxiety gone.	Rules. Attention. Logical Consequences.
16.	All behaviour and emotional problems have disappeared.	Rules. Consistency. Logical Consequences.

Pupil No.	Comments on Original EBD.	New Parental Strategies.
17.	Lower level interruptions in school, no tantrums or defiance at home.	Rules. Consistency. Logical Consequences.
18.	Willingly attends school, no obvious EBD at home or school.	Attention. Logical consequences. Honesty about Father's health.
19.	No EBD at home or school.	Loving discipline. Consistency in whole family.
20.	No defiance or tantrums, attention seeking much reduced. Still signs of anxiety.	Loving discipline. Recognition. United front.
21.	School Phobia overcome, attention seeking and anxiety reduced.	Honesty about family issues. Special time.
22.	Defiance and aggression ceased. A range of problems still persist to a lesser degree.	Recognition. Rewards. Attention. Sanctions.
23.	Slight improvement in acting out behaviours and anxiety. School Phobia still exists.	Working on … rules, loving discipline, recognition.
24.	Full return to school with no acting out or internalizing behaviours evident at home or school.	Special time. Recognition. Consistency.
25.	All referred behaviours ceased at school but needy of more attention. Some acts of defiance remain at home.	Rules. Recognition. Consistency with immediate and extended family.

Table 3.10   Strategies School Has Already Employed

N = 25

School routine / rules	:	(2)
Small targets	:	(2)
Praise	:	(2)
Home – school liaison	:	(3)
Extra Attention	:	(3)
Calling In Outside Agencies	:	(5)
Talking to child	:	(7)

163

Sanctions (including sending home)   :   (18)

Rewards   :   (8)

Table 3.11   New Strategies Tried by School

Talking to / listening to the pupil   :   (2)

Praise   :   (2)

More responsibility   :   (2)

Build Self-Esteem   :   (3)

Home-School Liaison   :   (3)

Trying to understand behaviour   :   (12)

Table 3.12   Strategies Already Used by Parents :

Strategy	No Parents
N = 25	
Rules	: 1
Logical consequences	: 1
Rewards	: 2
Send to bed	: 2
Persuading / bribing	: 3
Threats	: 3
Withhold something	: 4
Giving in	: 5

Hoping child would grow out of it	:	5
Grounding	:	5
Special time	:	6
Sought outside help	:	8
Smacking	:	10
Shouting / telling off	:	14

Table 3.13   New Strategies Employed by Parents

N = 25

Logical consequences	:	3
Share feelings	:	3
Age appropriate responsibility	:	4
Consistency with immediate and extended family	:	6
Meaning what I say	:	6
Attention for good behaviour	:	7
Talking things through	:	10

Table 3.14   What Parents Do Less of Since Intervention

N = 25

Worrying	:	2
Ignoring	:	2
Threatening	:	3

Punishing	:	3
Let emotions take over	:	3
Give in	:	7
Smacking	:	9
Shouting	:	15

Table 3.15   What Parents Do More of Since Intervention

Think positively	:	2
Give recognition	:	3
Share feelings	:	4
Praise	:	5
Sanctions	:	6
Consistency / United front	:	7
Special Time	:	8
Talk about difficulties	:	15

Table 3.16   Ways In Which Parents Feel Different :

N = 25

More relaxed	:	9
More informed	:	6
More prepared	:	5
More thoughtful	:	3

Less aggressive to school	:	2
More positive	:	5
Happier as a family	:	5
More confident	:	23

Table 3.17   Summary of New Parental Strategies :

Recognized the smallest of achievements

special time for each individual child (even 10 minutes)

being firm

a united front within the whole family – immediate and extended

loving discipline

praise for good behaviour

consistency of approach

logical consequences

sanctions which are manageable

understanding (of why the behaviour occurs)

sharing feelings about any problems in the family

age appropriate responsibility

honesty about family troubles.

Table 3.18   Parents: What Has Helped

N = 25

Talking about the behaviour	:	15
Discussing the needs of children	:	14
Discussing rules and discipline	:	7
Being informed of what the behaviour means	:	16
Being given advice on Do's and Don'ts	:	17

Pupil Interviews

It was inappropriate to interview pupils 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 due to their young age; pupil 9 was unable to respond due to difficulties and 4 pupils were unable / unwilling to express their views. Thus the range of responses is from 14-16 pupils.

14 pupils completed the whole interview.

15 pupils answered the question : 'acknowledgement or otherwise of difficulties'

14 pupils answered the question : 'what do you think the reason is for your EBD?'

16 pupils answered the question : 'what are your views post-intervention?'

Table 3.19   Pupils' Recognition of Difficulty

N = 15

At home	=	14
In School	=	15

Table 3.20   Pupils' View of Reasons for EBD

N = 14

I can't do my work	:	9
Jealous of sibling	:	8
Peer pressure	:	6
No one likes me	:	6
No one understands me	:	6
No one listens to me	:	6
No one tells me anything	:	4
Little things build up	:	4
Worried my parents will leave me	:	3
I miss my Dad	:	2
My Mum's not fair	:	2
I don't know	:	2

Table 3.21   Pupils' View of Solutions to EBD

N = 14

School could:

Help me with my work	:	10
Understand me	:	5
Talk to / listen to me	:	4
I don't know	:	3

Home could:

Talk to / listen to me	:	9
Spend more time with me	:	3
Stop shouting	:	2

I could:

Try to be good	:	7
Work harder	:	6
Be kinder to my sister	:	1

Table 3.22   Pupils' Comments : Post Intervention

N = 16

I have improved and I feel better	:	16
My teachers have talked to me / helped me	:	13
I have tried hard	:	11
My parents have spent time with me	:	8
My Mam has explained things to me	:	6
School has given me Special Time	:	5
My parent(s) have stopped shouting	:	5
My parents are kinder to me	:	4
My new school will be much better	:	1

3.12 Discussion

Tables 3.7 and 3.8 (pages 160 – 161) give an overview of the nature and duration of the EBD's, where they occurred and an indication of the effect of the intervention. It can be seen that the age range of the pupils was between 3 years 10 months and 12 years; the duration of the behaviour was 1 month to 5 years. Of the 25 pupils in this sample only two showed no or minimal improvement; perhaps the reason for this may be that the parent of pupil 6 felt her son was too young to receive support and she tried none of the strategies proffered. Pupil 23 had experienced school phobia for one year, however a number of acting out behaviours were also present, which is uncharacteristic of this difficulty, suggesting, as Chazan et al (1994) state, that the school refusal may be part of a more widespread emotional disorder. Treatments for school phobia are acknowledged by many researchers as needing to be targeted at the multiple origins of the problem and recommendations focus on a combination of behavioural, cognitive and psychodynamic approaches (Kauffman, 1977; Dworkin, 1985; Coleman, 1992; Rutter and Hersov, 1997). It is therefore likely that multiple interventions were required for this pupil.

Six pupils' EBDs disappeared completely; there was no correlation with the duration or nature of the EBD, however, four of the parents had EPs as their key worker which may suggest that the EPs had the skills required to facilitate change as White, Taylor and Moss (1992) advocate, to enable the parents to feel empowered.

Although not directly involved with the sample parents, each pupil's class teacher was given a booklet to inform them of the approach being adopted and to ascertain if the advice in the booklet might inform their own practice. Table 3.11 (page 164) indicates a shift from focusing on the child's behaviour and calling in outside agencies, to consideration of the needs of the child and the need to improve communication with the pupils; despite the small size of the sample in question, it is encouraging that the provision of a booklet seems to have alerted the teachers to an alternative method of dealing with their EBD pupils, placing emphasis on communicating with their pupils and looking beyond the behaviour, as, the quality of the relationships between everyone is deemed to be a crucial factor in the alleviation of EBD (Cooper et al, 1994; Jones, 1995).

Table 3.12 (page 164) shows that the most frequently used strategies by parents were smacking and shouting / telling off; Table 3.13 (page 165) shows an increase of more positive strategies, consistent with an authoritative parenting style, the change is summarised in Table 3.17 (page 167).

These changes are encouraging as shouting, smacking and giving in are parental behaviours associated with problem behaviour in children (Riley and Shaw, 1985); by contrast, parents who provide love, recognition and lovingly applied discipline are likely to raise children who feel secure, worthy and to develop self-control (Bowlby, 1988).

Tables 3.16 – 3.18 (pages 166 - 168) demonstrate that since the intervention the vast majority of parents feel more confident and relaxed, also that their strategies are positive. Talking about their child's EBD, discussing the meaning of it and what their children need to help them were considered valuable by over half of the parents; the advice in the booklet on Do's and Don'ts was valued by seventeen of the twenty-five parents. Topping (1986) suggested that parents who were supported could better support their children; parents expressed confidence and feelings of being better prepared to cope with their children's EBDs, would suggest that the parents in this study did feel supported. Pugh et al (1994) remarked on the personal benefits reported by parents following support : more confident, knowledgeable and a changed attitude to their role – the parental comments in this study indicate that most of them did feel a personal benefit from the intervention.

Tables 3.19 – 3.22 (pages 168 - 170) reflect the perceptions of the pupils with regard to the existence, causes and solutions to their EBD; additionally their feelings following intervention are listed. All but one pupil admitted to having behaviour problems at home and all of the pupils who answered this question agreed they had EBD in school.

Over half of the pupils attributed their EBD to not being able to do their work in school, a similar number drew attention to sibling rivalry being a cause. Other reasons given related to family tensions and comments about how the pupils felt about themselves. There can be no comparison of the number of pupils who made each comment but, what is clear is that those pupils who responded recognised that they have problem behaviour and that something is

causing it; their behaviour, as O'Brien (1998) posits, could be regarded as pupil's solution to a problem and that the challenge to adults supporting the child is to look for the motivational constituents and functional messages of EBDs. Perhaps some of the pupils' views on the solutions to their EBD could provide some starting points : 10 pupils felt they needed help with their work and 9 pupils alluded to their need to be understood and listened to in school as well as home. Comments related to what they could do to help themselves all recognised some person-al effort would be required, which was encouraging for this group of pupils.

Kazdin (1995) in discussing modalities of assessing antisocial behaviour suggested that self-report is less heavily emphasized in the assessment of childhood disorders as, they rarely identify themselves as having a problem and they may not understand what is being asked of them. Although the children in this sample were not required to write anything down 4 pupils were unwilling / unable to express their views orally – a different method of assessment might therefore have proved more useful: as Kazdin (1995) went on to say: children can report on their antisocial behaviour but the type of measure and ways in which information is sought is crucial to the yield of information. Seeking pupils' views, however, has been advocated since the introduction of the Code of Practice (DFE, 1994d) and is advocated by many reporters as being of paramount importance in involving them as active participants in planning behaviour change (for example : Cooper et al, 1994; Cole et al 1998). The author of this research feels pupil involvement is generally beneficial, not least of all because of the shared success and rais-ing of self-esteem which could emanate from this.

As Table 3.22 (page 170) shows all of the pupils who responded reported that they had improved and felt better, also there was a recognition of better quality of relationships between pupil and teacher, parent and child.

3.13   Concluding Comments and Criticisms

In the development and trialling of *Better Behaviour*, there has been no attempt to conduct a methodologically sound, experimental study. Interpretation of any findings is both subjective and speculative and it is acknowledged that there were many variables which could have influenced the outcomes and these were not controlled. For instance:

- school data was not recorded in the same way in each school so the effect (if any) of this intervention could not be assessed

- there were too many questions in the semi-structured interview schedules, not all were filled in and it is likely that they were inaccessible to some pupils

- all pupils and parents were in receipt of support before the intervention and there was no assessment if this might have paved the way for some changes

- the skills of the key workers in listening, helping, communication and facilitating were variable

- any changes could have been due to expectation effects or the Hawthorne effect

- there was no agreed rating scales for grading the EBD, therefore judgements were subjective

- there was no long-term follow up.

However, despite the weaknesses outlined above it is felt that as an exploratory study into the value of using the resource *Better Behaviour* with parents, certain conclusions can be reached in relation to the sample studied:

- even longstanding EBD can be alleviated in response to different strategies being used at home and / or school

- the teaching staff changed their support from a focus on the child's behaviour and provision of another adult, to the needs of the child and the necessity for improved communication

- the parents showed they were able to reduce their habitual ways of responding to their children and adopt different, more positive methods designed to meet their child's needs

- the parents felt supported and reaped personal benefits from the intervention

- over half of the pupils were able to reflect on their behaviour via the semi-structured interview and they revealed insights into their perceptions of the causes of and solutions to, their EBD.

To return to the aims of this study, it has been found that the only difference in the ways in which the schools liaised with parents whose children have EBD, compared to liaising with regards to work, is that the contacts become more formal and from the Senior Management. Responses from the teachers clearly indicated they attributed the causes of EBD to the home situation, also that they recognized the need for the schools to build good relationships and improve communication with parents.

As a result of the above it was decided to inspect the case details of the most commonly referred EBDs to outside agencies and to develop guidance for a range of professionals who

might be supporting parents whose children had EBD; consequently the Booklets: *Better Behaviour* and *A Professional's Guide to the use of Better Behaviour* were developed.

Better Behaviour was trialled over a 3 month period with a range of professionals and volunteers supporting 25 pupils; qualitative data following the intervention showed that in the sample studied even longstanding EBDs were alleviated, parents and teachers were able to change the way in which they related to the children and responded to EBD and, finally, that the views of the pupils revealed insights into the causes of and solutions to their EBD.

The next step was to investigate whether *Better Behaviour* could be beneficial to parents as a resource sent from schools and whether classroom behaviour would improve as a result of this as was the case in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR – STUDY TWO

4.0   Introduction and Aims

Emotional and behavioural development is common to all human beings yet some children have greater difficulties in these areas than others. Lack of love and recognition by parents has been associated with feelings of insecurity, low self-worth and difficulties with relationships (Bowlby, 1988); also, poor or inappropriate parental control has been found to be related to problem behaviour (Riley and Shaw, 1985). It would seem therefore that if schools could advocate a parenting style that provided love, recognition and lovingly applied discipline, then, as stated by Bowlby (1988) their children are likely to feel worthy and to develop self-control. In addition to feeling happier and developing friendships, such children are likely to engage better in the learning process, making the teaching-learning environment more productive (Cole et al, 1998).

The outcomes of Study 1 indicate that by supporting parents whose children have EBD, habitual and non-productive parenting methods can be changed; more positive methods designed to meet their child's needs can alleviate even long-standing EBD at home. The parents reported feeling more confident, competent and enjoying their children more.

Additional outcomes suggest that teachers who are given resources to better understand the needs of children and possible meanings of EBD in the classroom, can change the nature of the support they give to pupils by improving communication and aiming to meet the pupils' basic needs of positive regard, recognition and firm, fair guidance.

It was acknowledged in this exploratory study that the readiness of parents to look at their parenting style is an important factor when proposing to work with them; additionally some EBD may be part of a widespread emotional disorder requiring multiple interventions; finally that the professional role and skill of any helper could account for changes.

One of the aims in Study 1 was to explore how to involve teachers in supporting parents whose children had EBD. The findings from the County survey revealed that over half of the respondents did not want resources for supporting parents. They did however, identify barriers to collaborating with them, attributed pupils' EBDs mainly to the home and suggested that the solution was parent education.

Similarly, the outcomes of the staff meetings in the four schools to which *Better Behaviour* was circulated revealed that EBD was a concern for them, that the main cause was attributed to the home and that the parents needed support. However, although they were enthusiastic about *Better Behaviour* they had neither the confidence nor the time to use the booklet to support parents themselves.

All four schools had developed the practice of sending leaflets to all parents at the beginning of each school year, on how parents could support the school's endeavours in teaching appropriate behaviour; these same schools suggested that the *Better Behaviour* booklets should also be sent to parents. Following discussions on the ethical and practical

issues in undertaking such a thing, it was decided to trial this approach in one of the four schools.

4.1 Pilot Study

4.1.1 Aims

The aims of the pilot study were to ascertain:

- which children and their parents should receive the booklet

- how to rate the pupils' classroom behaviours

- how to support the parents.

After discussion it was decided to focus on the 5-6 year old class as they were deemed by the class teacher to be particularly unsettled and disruptive.

The Behaviour Checklist for Primary School (McNamara, 1995) was chosen to rate the behaviour of the pupils; this checklist was selected as it was up to date, in a clear format and was designed by McNamara, to facilitate the objective and explicit identification of problem behaviours which teachers most frequently report. It appeared to have face validity for the task and appealed to the teacher concerned.

4.1.2 Method

4.1.3 Sample

26 year 1 (5-6 year-old) pupils in a Primary school in a fairly deprived urban area. The sample comprised 11 boys and 15 girls.

4.1.4 Materials

The Behaviour Checklist for Primary Schools was used to rate the classroom behaviour of all of the pupils in the sample. Seven classes of behaviour were assessed: academic behaviours, in-seat / out of seat, rules and routines, verbal / noisy behaviour, aggression (to pupils), aggression (to teachers), social / emotional behaviours. This resource is used to analyse individual pupil behaviour on a scale 1-3, where 1 = no cause for concern, 2 = mild cause for concern and 3 = serious cause for concern.

A series of letters were devised to send to parents to explain the process, encourage their participation and seek their views (see Appendix 10 pages 377-382).

4.1.5 Procedure

The class teacher of a Year 1 class was asked to rate the classroom behaviour of all of the pupils on the Behaviour Checklist. The checklists were passed to the researcher and a random sample assigned to the 'treatment' group, whose parents were to be sent a copy of *Better Behaviour*. A series of letters were devised with the Head Teacher and these were sent at intervals over an eight week period to the parents who had been sent the booklet. All administrative tasks were undertaken by the school secretary thus the class teachers were unaware of which parents had been sent the booklets.

The pilot study ran from October-December in the following manner:

1. The class teacher completed the behaviour checklist for each of the 26 Year 1 pupils.

2. A random sample of 13 children were selected and their parents were sent a complimentary copy of the booklet with an accompanying letter espousing the value of parental involvement in school life, including aspects of behaviour. The selected parents were invited to read the booklet as it might apply to their child.

3. After 2 weeks the parents were sent a second letter reminding them of the booklet and encouraging them to read it.

4. After 6 weeks a further letter was sent to the parents with a user-friendly questionnaire adapted from the parent interview schedule used in Study 1.

5. After 8 weeks the parents were sent a thank-you letter and a reminder to return the questionnaire, if applicable.

At this time the class teacher was asked to re-rate the behaviour of all 26 pupils in the Year 1 class in the pilot study.

4.1.6 Outcomes of Pilot Study

8 out of the 13 parents who received a booklet returned the questionnaire but although feedback indicated a liking for the layout and content, none of the parents reported EBDs as being of concern to them, they were however, reassured in their own parenting methods by reading the booklet.

On checking the teachers' rating of behaviour, it transpired that most children randomly assigned to the treatment group had been rated highly by their teachers, indicating that random sampling was unsuitable for trialling *Better Behaviour*. Further problems were identified in making use of the ratings as there was nowhere on the forms to record an overall score, which was needed for the study; finally, the teacher who completed the checklists expressed a preference for seeing the better behaved pupils receiving a higher score than those who were less well behaved and suggested the rating scale be reversed. The letters home were considered to be an appropriate set of examples to use. The timescale was deemed to be appropriate.

As the result of the pilot study the following alterations were determined:

1. The behaviour checklist was amended. (Appendix 11, page 383)

2. The set of examples of 'letters home' were accepted as useful. (Appendix 10, page 377)

3. A matched sample based on a rank ordering of the sum of all ratings, for each pupil, was deemed to be the most appropriate for a further study.

4.2   Trialling of *Better Behaviour* as a Resource for schools

4.2.1   Introduction and Aims

In reviewing the possible contributory factors to problem behaviour, a long list of researchers have consistently stressed the pivotal influence of the family as being a crucial determinant of childhood behaviour (Farrington, 1995; Smith, 1995; Winkley, 1996). Charlton and George (1993, pp. 32-36) suggested that a child's behaviour is likely to be greatly influenced by the quality of love, the stability of the home environment and the control received.

Apart from home, school is thought to be the second most influential variable on an individual's development; Rutter et al (1979) pointed to within school factors determining contrasting levels of EBD in schools from the same socio-economic area, whilst Reynolds and Cuttance (1992) emphasized the benefits of good schooling on pupils experiencing personal problems.

Partnership with parents has been espoused since 1967 and various pieces of legislation have made this phrase an increasing reality. With regard to developing home-school links in relation to EBD, various research has highlighted difficulties for teachers and parents at both a

practical and emotional level. Miller (1996) advocated that anxieties and tensions could be lessened by teachers gaining experience of communicating and working with parents whose children had EBD, points echoed by Roffey (2002). The results of the county survey carried out for Study 1 recognized the need to build good relationships with parents and to improve communication, nearly half of the respondents also indicated that they would welcome resources for working with the parents of pupils with EBD but could not specify what these might be. During the trialling of *Better Behaviour* with parents, the four schools consulted volunteered to send the booklets to parents as part of their overall strategy to support parents in encouraging appropriate behaviour with their children.

There is evidence to confirm that there is a relationship between parenting style and child behaviour; if parent-child interactions remain ineffective it has been shown that EBD develops and can be a pattern of functioning over the life span and be replicated in new situations.

Research has shown that one of the major strategies for reducing child conduct problems involves parent training; results of studies on the latter are promising, although generalisation of improved behaviour from home to school does not always occur.

There is concensus (Sheridan and Kratochwill, 1992; Webster-Stratton and Herbert, 1993; Sutton, 1999) that generalisation is more likely to occur with younger children, from families who do not have multiple pressures on them. Additionally it is agreed that parents

need written guidance to refer to, and in many instances, only minimal support to refer to the guidance.

Roffey (2002) gives many examples of casework where improvements in EBD followed positive home-school relationships; she highlights that it is the quality of the school ethos, or culture, that determines whether or not parents become actively involved in their children's social, emotional and behavioural development.

There is no single method that has been shown unequivocally to produce generalisation of improved behaviour from home to school; however, research has highlighted the factors which would make success more likely. If these factors are turned into criteria, then it is held that there is justification for conducting the present study based on the following criteria:

- The four schools selected had positive hone-school relationships and a culture of community involvement in the development of children.

- The sample chosen were the youngest year group of compulsory school age pupils

- EBD, whether transient or longstanding, was an issue of concern to the schools but the families of the selected year group were not 'in crisis'

- Guidance was available to the parents in the form of *Better Behaviour* which is based on research of authoritative parenting, which is deemed to be the ideal style for positive child behaviour

- Additional support was provided via a series of letters sent from school to home.

4.3   Method

4.3.1   Sample

The whole of Year 1 (5-6 year-old) pupils from 1 primary and 3 infant schools in an urban area in economic decline. The schools were chosen on the basis of their similarities:

- Positive school ethos and inclusive culture

- Positive home-school relationships

- Teachers who reflected on their own practice with regard to EBD

- Whole school approach to EBD

- Trained in teaching pro-social behaviour and writing targets shared between home and school, to foster learning and good behaviour.

The parents included in this study, were deemed by the class teachers, to be interested in their children's development, willing to engage in home-school endeavours and they could all read.

4.3.2   The variables

Table 4.1   INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

		Cases :
Schools	1.	22
	2.	54
	3.	42

	4.	62
	180 : Total.	
Sex	1. Boys	100
	2. Girls	80
Treatment	1. Treatment	91
	2. Control	89

Pre-Post

Table 4.2 DEPENDENT VARIABLES	Max Score
Academic Behaviour	30
Rules and Routines	18
Verbal / Noisy Behaviours	30
In Seat / Out of Seat Behaviours	30
Aggressive / Destructive Behaviour	60
Social / Emotional Adjustment	30

4.3.3   Materials and Procedure

The amended Behaviour Checklist was used to rate the classroom behaviour of the sample both pre- and post-intervention (Appendix 11, page 383). The booklet *Better Behaviour* was used as a resource for the selected pupils' parents and the selection of letters home were

used by the schools to liaise with the selected parents. The intervention spanned February to April and the following procedure was followed :

1. The teachers of Year 1 pupils in the 4 selected schools rated the classroom behaviour of their pupils on an adapted version of the Behaviour Checklist.

2. A total score was calculated for each pupil, 198 being the highest rating achievable. All pupils achieving 198 were deemed as being no cause for concern and removed from the sample. Thus the remaining pupils were considered by the teachers to have some degree of EBD.

   The remaining pupils in each school were placed in rank order, regardless of gender, then split equally into 2 matched groups based on the teacher rating score. One group was termed treatment, the other control.

3. The teachers were not informed which children were assigned to which group and all administrative duties were undertaken in confidence by the secretary of the school concerned.

   The parents of the treatment group were sent a copy of the booklet with an accompanying letter espousing the value of parental involvement in school life,

including aspects of behaviour. The selected parents were invited to read the booklet as it might apply to their child.

4. After 2 weeks the parents were sent a second letter reminding them of the booklet and encouraging them to read it.

5. After 6 weeks a further letter was sent to the parents with a user-friendly questionnaire, used in the pilot study.

6. After 8 weeks the parents were sent a thank-you letter and a reminder to return the questionnaire, if applicable.

At this time the class teachers were asked to re-rate the behaviours of their Year 1 pupils.

In the absence of sustained family support, 'letters home' were considered to be a practical substitute; home school contacts have been found to be appreciated by parents and help relationship building between the home and school (Cole et al, 1998; Daniels, Visser, Cole and de Reybekill, 1998; Roffey, 2002).

4.3.4 Hypotheses

These should test hypothesized relationships between the independent and dependent variables which may have been identified as probable from the literature and which merit study.

HO (1)   Null Hypothesis : Treatment

There will be no real difference between the mean scores of the six aspects of behaviour

for the treatment and control group based on the pre- and post- ratings of classroom behaviour.

H1 (1)   Alternative, Non-Directional Hypothesis : Treatment

There will be a real difference between the mean scores of the six aspects of behaviour

for the treatment and control group based on the pre- and post-ratings of classroom behaviour.

4.3.5   Analysis of Data

All of the behaviour measures were changed to percentages to ease the task of

comparison.

Descriptive statistics are used to provide a concise and explicit summary of the key

characteristics of the sample. Frequency, mean scores and standard deviations are presented.

Inferential statistics will be used to test the hypotheses by means of a series of 3-way

and multivariate completely crossed ANOVA. The ANOVA splits up the total variance of a set

of scores in great detail, taking into account all independent variables and their possible interac-

tions.

Descriptive statistics are used to report the responses of parents to the questionnaire on the booklet, *Better Behaviour*.

Qualitative data: responses to the question pertaining to parental comments on *Better Behaviour* were collated.

4.3.6 Significance Level

Whatever level of probability is chosen it is possible to make an error:

a type 1 error occurs when it is decided that the independent variable had an effect on the dependent variable when it did not have; a type 2 error occurs when it is concluded that the independent variable had no effect on the dependent variable when there is a genuine relationship. It is considered prudent to err on the side of caution and set a significance level at .01, which is commonly regarded as highly significant (Robson, 1983, p. 43). Any results at the .05 significance level are treated with caution.

4.3.7 Limits of Generalisation

As the sample used for this Study is representative only of the Year 1 pupils from the particular four schools chosen for the investigation, the results cannot be generalised to a wider population.

4.4   Results and Discussion

The aim of this study was to encourage a selection of parents to use the material *Better Behaviour* as it might apply to their own child(ren) and to see if there were any positive outcomes in terms of improved classroom behaviour. The behaviour of the whole sample was rated both PRE- and POST-intervention by the class teachers, using an amended version of the Behaviour Checklist for Primary Schools (Jolly and McNamara, 1992). As the Total Scores in each subsection of the checklist were unequal, the first step in analysing the results was to change all of the behaviour measures to percentages to ease the task of comparison.

Descriptive statistics were used to compute the frequencies of the PRE ratings on all six aspects of behaviour, additionally, Means and Standard Deviations were calculated for both the PRE and POST results. Finally, Inferential statistics involved a series of Analyses of Variance of: sex (2) by School (4) by Condition (2) with repeated measures on Aspects of behaviour. A further aspect of this study was to elicit the views of the parents who had received a copy of *Better Behaviour*.

4.4.1   Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.3   Summary of Pre-intervention mean scores for entire population in rank order

Aspect	Mean Score
Aggressive / Destructive	95.65

Social / Emotional	92.54
Verbal / Noisy	91.93
Rules and Routines	88.86
In Seat / Out of Seat	87.76
Academic	74.72

Table 4.3 summarises the Mean scores achieved on the Pre-Intervention rating. It can be seen that teachers are most concerned about the Academic Behaviours of the sample used in this study, working independently and following instructions similarly in Seat / Out of Seat Behaviours, Rules and Routines and Verbal / Noisy Behaviours were rated by the teachers as being a cause for concern for a fair proportion of pupils. Taken as a whole, concern in these areas suggests generally unsettled classes with low level behaviours occurring. Of less concern to teachers are Social / Emotional Adjustment and Aggressive / Destructive Behaviours.

However, inspection of Table 4.4 shows that the degree of concern for the latter is as high as for Academic Behaviours but that the concern is confined to fewer pupils. Table 4.4 also highlights the high proportion of pupils for whom Academic Behaviours are a problem.

Table 4.4   Cumulative Percentage of Pupils scoring 75 on the Pre-rating of the Behaviour Checklist

Aspect	Cumulative Percentage
Aggressive / Destructive	4.4

Social / Emotional	7.2
Verbal / Noisy	8.3
In Seat / Out of Seat	16.1
Rules and Routines	16.7
Academic	49.4

Table 4.5   **Summary of Mean Scores of the Pre- and Post-ratings, and the Mean difference in all four schools**

	PRE	POST	DIFFERENCE
School 1	93.37	98.28	4.91
School 2	81.66	84.57	2.91
School 3	91.79	94.84	3.05
School 4	90.72	93.92	3.20

The difference between the Pre- and Post-ratings of all aspects of behaviour was computed, Table 4.5 shows that the overall behaviour in each school improved during the period of the study. These results could have occurred as a result of maturation, teaching effect or a positive ethos being created owing to teacher expectations being raised just by being involved in a study.

The information in Table 4.5 is showed by histograms in Figures 4.1 and 4.2 overleaf for a clearer visual impression.

Figure 4.1   Mean Scores of the Pre and Post ratings in all Four Schools
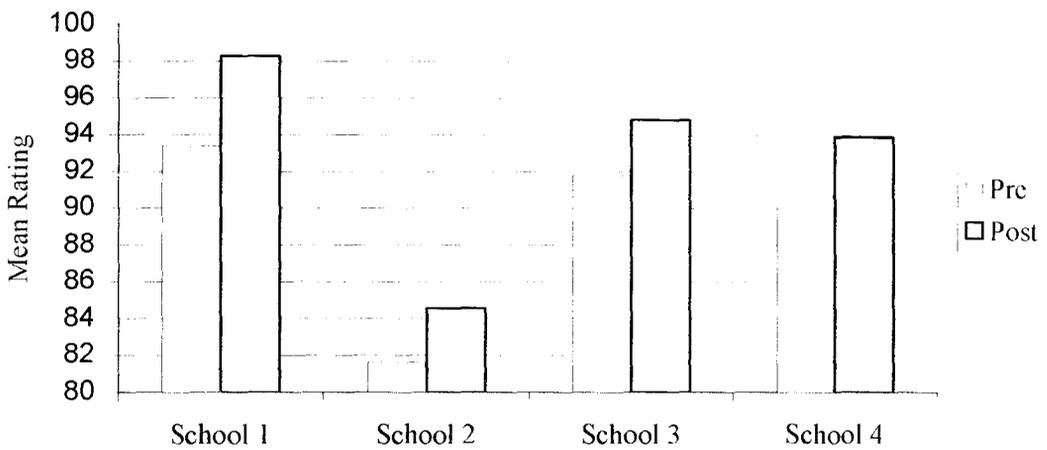
Figure 4.2 Mean difference of the Pre and Post Ratings in all four schools

Mean Rating (y-axis: 0–6)

School 1 · School 2 · School 3 · School 4

☐ Mean Rating
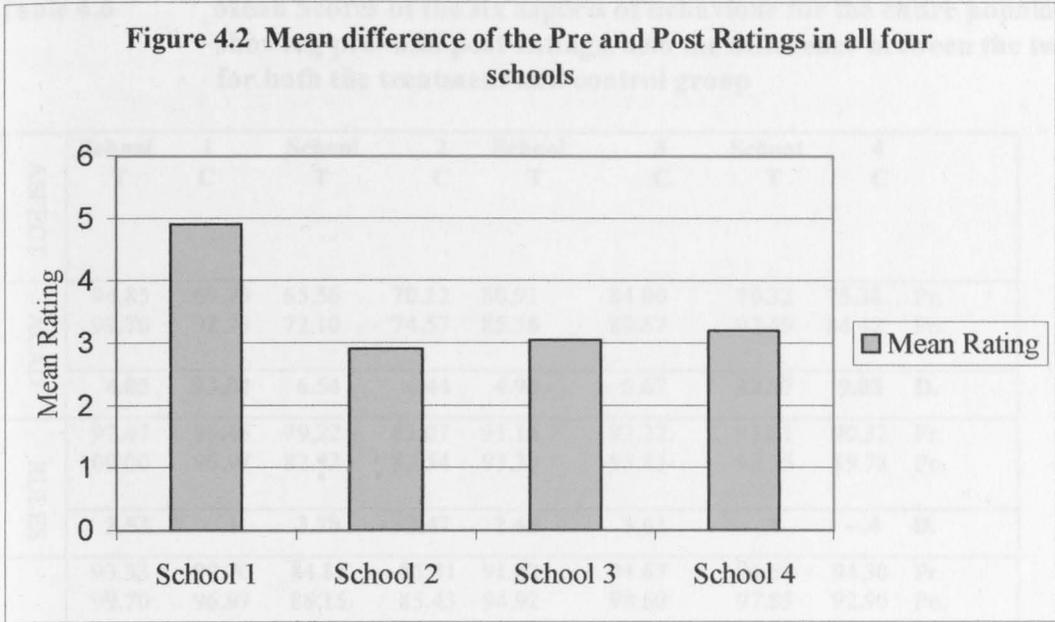
To examine the differences between the Pre- and Post-ratings more carefully, Table 4.6

sets out these Mean Scores not only by school but by levels of treatment.

Table 4.6   **Mean Scores of the six aspects of behaviour for the entire population, showing pre- and post-ratings, also the difference between the two for both the treatment and control group**

ASPECT	School 1 T	1 C	School 2 T	2 C	School 3 T	3 C	School 4 T	4 C	
ACAD	94.85	69.70	65.56	70.12	80.91	84.00	70.32	75.38	Pr.
	99.70	92.73	72.10	74.57	85.56	89.67	92.69	84.42	Po.
	4.85	23.03	6.54	4.44	4.92	5.67	22.37	9.03	D.
RULES	97.47	96.46	79.22	81.07	91.16	92.22	93.01	90.32	Pr.
	100.00	96.97	82.92	83.54	93.39	95.83	93.55	89.78	Po.
	2.53	.1	3.70	2.47	2.65	3.61	.4	--.4	D.
NOISE	93.33	99.70	84.81	85.31	91.82	94.67	96.56	94.30	Pr.
	99.70	96.97	88.15	85.43	94.92	98.50	97.85	92.90	Po.
	6.36	--2.73	3.33	.12	3.49	3.83	1.29	--1.40	D.
IN/OUT	91.52	95.15	77.78	79.14	87.88	94.00	92.04	91.61	Pr.
	99.39	99.09	81.36	84.07	92.38	98.00	97.42	93.23	Po.
	7.88	3.94	3.58	4.94	5.08	4.00	5.38	1.61	D.
AGE	99.09	95.30	92.78	91.67	97.65	99.42	97.53	94.78	Pr.
	100.00	99.09	93.71	90.75	98.25	98.08	98.87	94.41	Po.
	.91	3.79	.93	--.93	.71	--1.33	1.34	--.38	D.
SOCIAL	96.36	91.56	84.69	87.78	93.64	94.83	96.99	95.81	Pr.
	99.39	96.36	87.65	90.62	96.98	96.83	97.96	93.98	Po.
	3.03	4.85	2.96	2.84	3.02	2.00	.97	--1.83	D.

ACAD	= Academic Behaviour	RULES	= Rules and Routines
NOISE	= Verbal / Noisy Behaviours	IN / OUT	= In Seat / Out of Seat Behaviours
AGG	= Aggressive / Destructive Behaviour	SOCIAL	= Social / Emotional Adjustment
Pr.	= Pre-Rating	T	= Treatment group
Po.	= Post-Rating	C	= Control group
D	= Difference between Pre- and Post-Rating		

The following figures separate the information from table 4.6 for clarity

Figure 4.3 Mean score of the Pre and Post Ratings of six aspects of behavouir
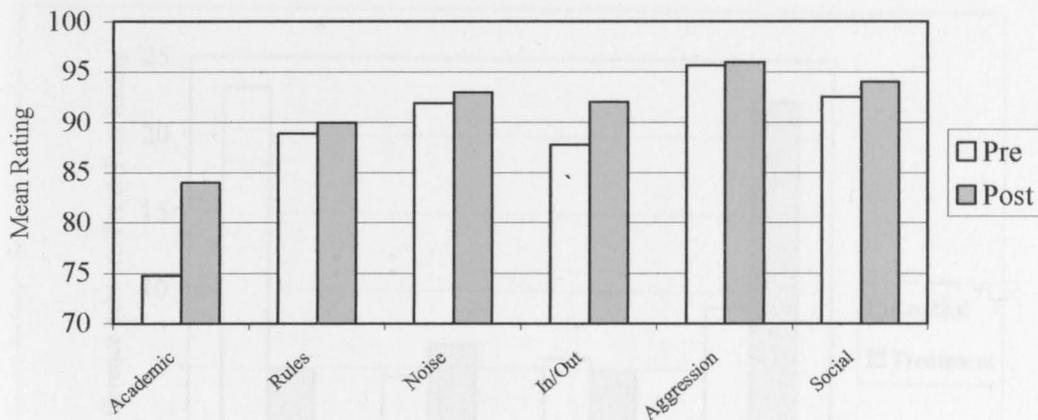
Figure 4.4 Mean Scores of Difference Between the Pre and Post Ratings on the Dependant Variables by Levels of Treatment
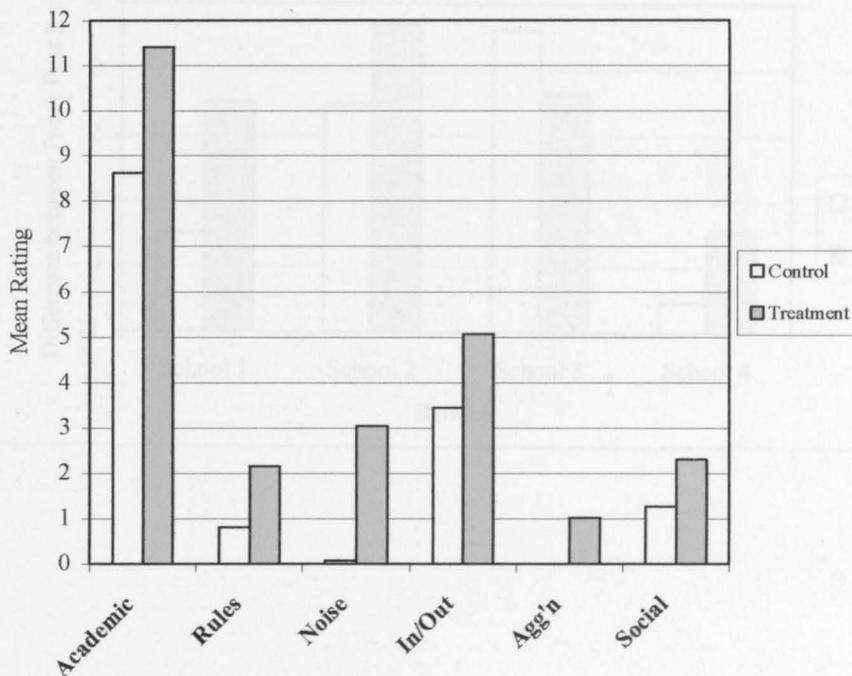
Figure 4.5

Mean Difference Scores of school, by treatment, by pre-post & by aspect of behaviour.
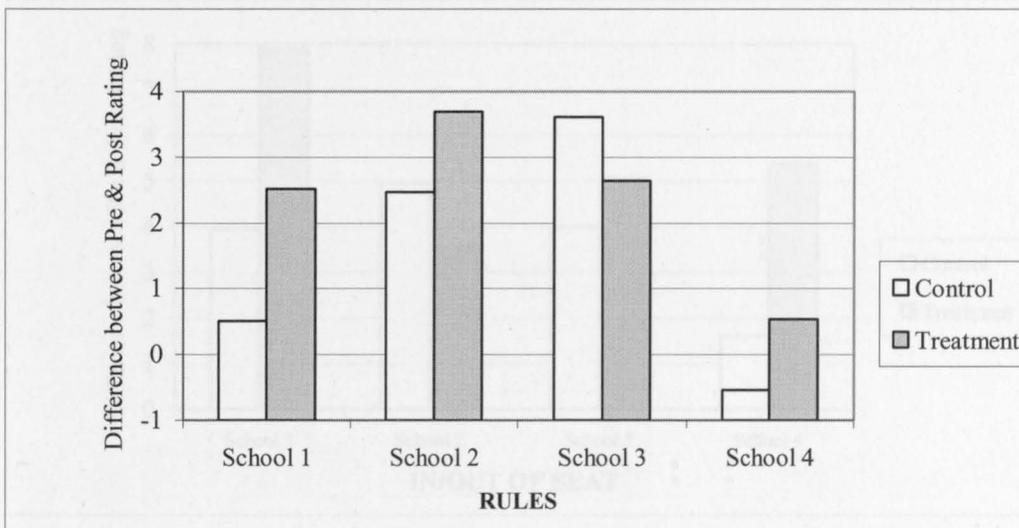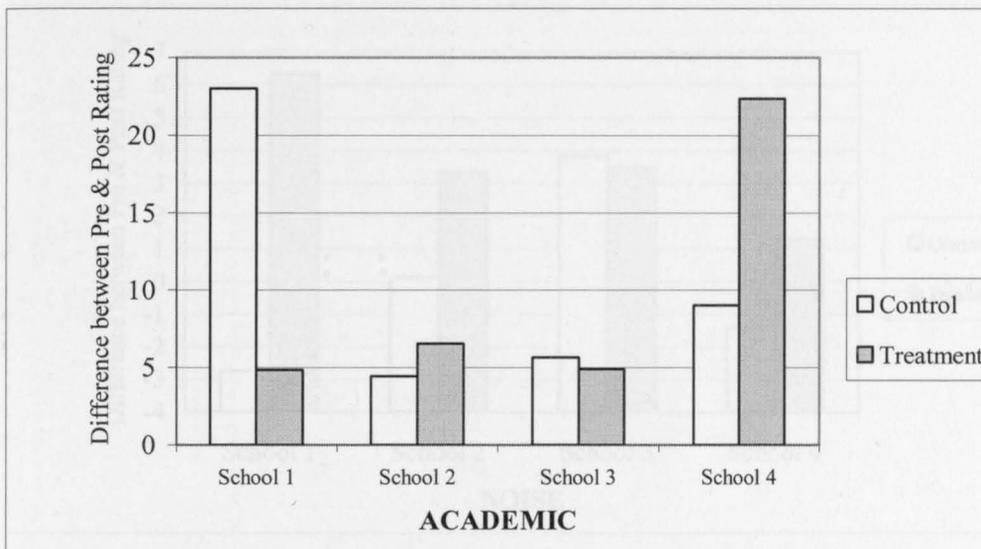
Figure 4.5

Mean Difference Scores of school, by pre-post & by aspect of behaviour

Figure 4.5

Mean Difference Scores of school, by pre-post & by aspect of behaviour

Difference between Pre & Post Rating

4
3
2
1
0
-1
-2

☐ Control
▨ Treatment

School 1   School 2   School 3   School 4
AGGRESSION

Difference between Pre & Post Rating

5
4
3
2
1
0
-1
-2
-3

☐ Control
▨ Treatment

School 1   School 2   School 3   School 4
SOCIAL
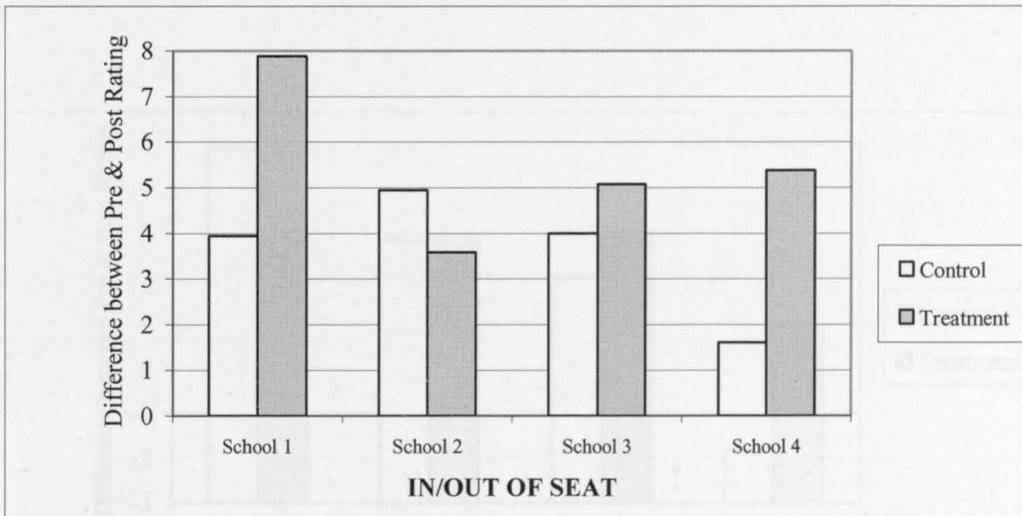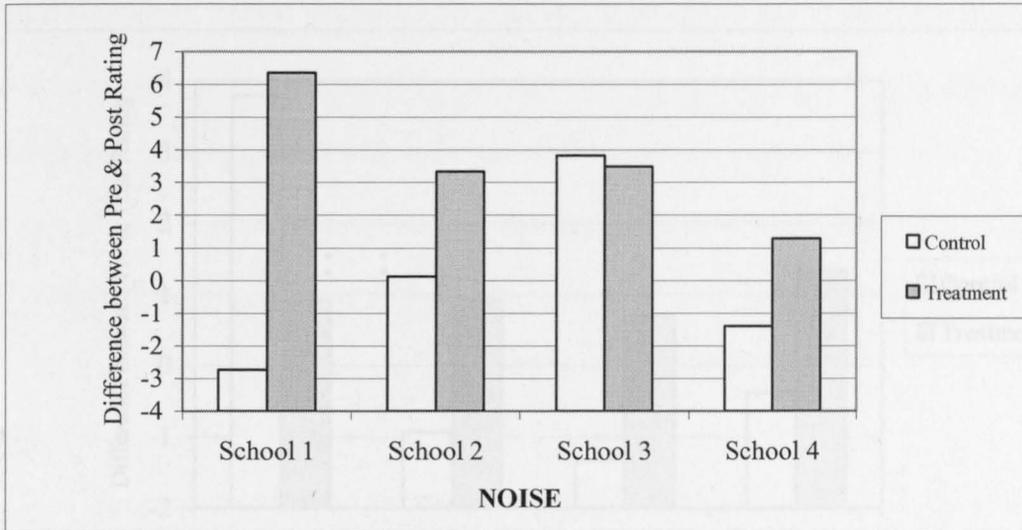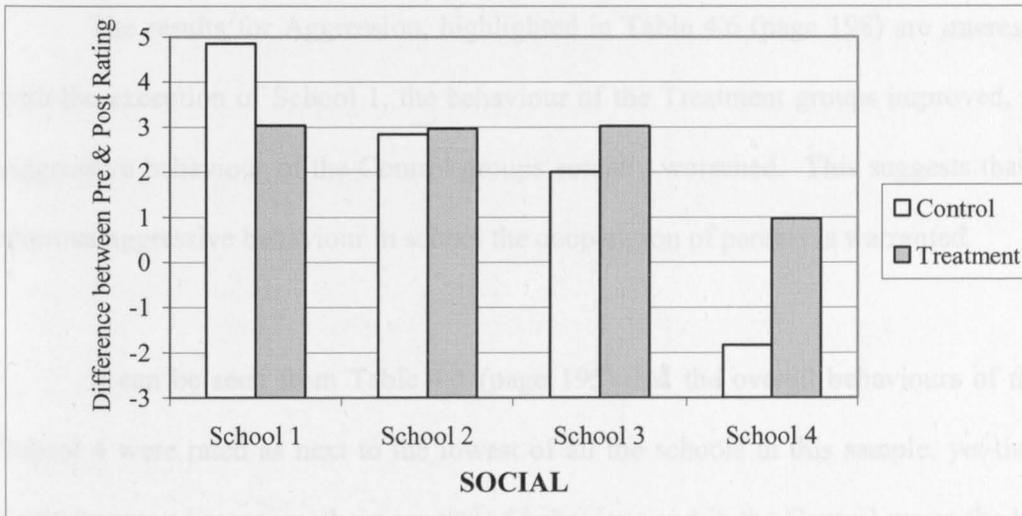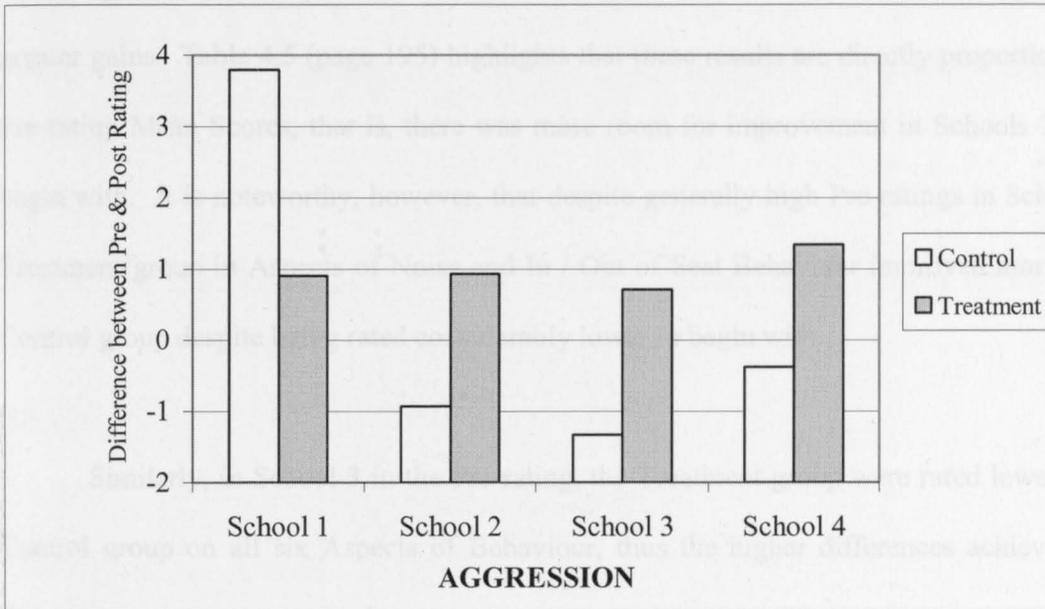
It can be seen that in Schools 1 and 3 the Treatment and Control groups improved in three Aspects of Behaviour, each. By contrast, in Schools 2 and 4 the Treatment groups made greater gains. Table 4.5 (page 195) highlights that these results are directly proportional to the Pre-rating Mean Scores, that is, there was more room for improvement in Schools 2 and 4 to begin with. It is noteworthy, however, that despite generally high Pre-ratings in School 1, the Treatment group in Aspects of Noise and In / Out of Seat Behaviour improved more than the Control group despite being rated considerably lower to begin with.

Similarly, in School 3 in the Pre-rating, the Treatment group were rated lower than the Control group on all six Aspects of Behaviour, thus the higher differences achieved by the Treatment group are encouraging.

The results for Aggression, highlighted in Table 4.6 (page 198) are interesting in that, with the exception of School 1, the behaviour of the Treatment groups improved, whereas the Aggressive behaviour of the Control groups actually worsened. This suggests that in order to improve aggressive behaviour in school the cooperation of parents is warranted.

It can be seen from Table 4.5 (page 195) that the overall behaviours of the pupils in School 4 were rated as next to the lowest of all the schools in this sample, yet the Treatment group improved more in all six aspects of behaviour and in the Control group the behaviour in

four dimensions worsened. These results could suggest that the involvement of parents can have beneficial effects on pupils' classroom behaviour, and that where no parental involvement is sought poor classroom behaviour can deteriorate even further. However, this assumption would be too simplistic given the results overall. It is likely that pupil and teacher characteristics have influenced the changes in pupil behaviour also variables in the pupil's home and community lives.

Table 4.7   **Percentage of pupils rated as having the maximum score on the Behaviour Checklist, Pre-Intervention**

School 1	15.38%
School 2	6.89%
School 3	16%
School 4	16.21%.

Table 4.7 shows the percentage of pupils rated, initially, as being no cause for concern – it is interesting that the number of pupils given maximum scores in School 2 are markedly less than in the other three schools.

Table 4.8   **Parental Views on Better Behaviour-Percentage returns**

School 1	54.55%
School 2	22.22%
School 3	55%

School 4   41.94%.

A similar anomaly can be seen in Table 4.8 which shows that the number of parents who returned the Parental Questionnaire from school 2, was also markedly lower than the other three schools. Returning to Table 4.5 (page 195) it can be seen that the Pre-rating of behaviours in School 2 was the lowest of all the Schools by a considerable margin. Also, the degree of improvement in School 2 was less than in other schools. However, with the exception of IN / OUT of SEAT behaviours (where the Control group was higher to start with) the Treatment group improved more than the control group in 5 out of 6 aspects of behaviour.

It could be that the teachers in school 2 used a different criteria on which to base their judgements about the children's behaviour, than the teachers in schools 1, 3 and 4. However, the low number of parental returns casts doubt on this view, suggesting rather, that home school relations are poor and that teachers in school 2 view their pupils as being poorly behaved. The fact that the Treatment group made more gains than the Control group could be indicative of the relationship between improved classroom behaviour and improved home-school communication.

Table 4.9   Lower and Higher mean scores of boys and girls, by levels of treatment, school and aspect

| | | School 1 | | | | School 2 | | | | School 3 | | | | School 4 | | | |
| | | T | | C | | T | | C | | T | | C | | T | | C | |
Aspect		B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
Acad	Pr	■			■	■			■	■			■	■		■	
	Po			■		■		■	■	■			■	■		■	
Rules	Pr	■			■	■		■		■			■	■		■	
	Po			■		■		■		■			■	■			■
Noise	Pr		■	■		■		■				■		■			
	Po	■					■			■		■	■		■	■	
In/Out	Pr		■		■	■		■		■						■	
	Po	■				■		■			■						■
Agg	Pr	■				■		■		■							■
	Po			■			■	■		■		■					
Social	Pr	■			■		■		■	■						■	
	Po	■			■		■		■		■		■	■		■	

■	lower mean score
☐	Higher mean score

As the sample in this study comprised both boys and girls the results were also analysed in terms of sex. Table 4.9 shows a visual representation of the Mean Scores in both the Pre- and Post-Ratings. The pattern indicates that boys were rated lower to begin with in the majority of aspects of behaviour but that the boys in the Treatment groups made slightly more improvement than the girls, the aspects referred to here though are small. It is unsurprising that the boys were rated lower than the girls as it is well researched that boys display higher rates of externalizing behaviours (Campbell, 1990). Additionally, research indicates there is an interaction of maleness with negative parental behaviour which produces antisocial behaviour; thus even small improvements are encouraging and suggestive of the beneficial effects of schools encouraging parents to support their children who have EBD, especially boys.

The multivariate analyses of variance were used to compare the mean scores to find the influential variables and any interaction effects; the variance across all four schools was examined as was the variance between the pupils within the group.

4.4.2 Inferential Statistics

Table 4.10 Summary of Anova

(i) Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Tests of Significance for T1 using UNIQUE sums of squares

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	211857.06	163	1299.74		
SCHOOL	48699.49	3	16233.16	12.49	.000
TREAT	467.86	1	467.86	.36	.549
SEX	2254.50	1	2254.50	1.73	.190
SCHOOL BY TREAT	2130.95	3	710.32	.55	.651
SCHOOL BY SEX	413.57	3	137.86	.11	.956
TREAT BY SEX	1178.45	1	1178.45	.91	.342
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY SEX	1803.10	3	601.03	.46	.709

Table 4.10 (i) shows there is a school factor causing differentiation with respect to T1 and this is very highly significant (F = 12.49; df 3, 163; p = < .001). None of the other single factors : treatment, sex, or interactions between them and school show any significant effects.

(ii)   Tests involving 'PREPOST' Within-Subject Effect

Tests of Significance for T2 using UNIQUE sums of squares

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	40668.01	163	249.50		
PREPOST	405.96	1	4805.96	19.26	.000
SCHOOL BY PREPOST	197.85	3	65.95	.26	.851
TREAT BY PREPOST	108.59	1	108.59	.44	.510
SEX BY PREPOST	176.52	1	176.52	.71	.402
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY PREPOST	691.09	3	230.36	.92	.431
SCHOOL BY SEX BY PREPOST	1598.06	3	532	2.14	.098
TREAT BY SEX BY PREPOST	49.21	1	49.21	.20	.658
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY SEX BY PREPOST	164.42	3	54.81	.22	.883

Table 4.10 (ii) shows the pre-post effect is very highly significant (F = 19.26; df 1, 163; p. < . 001). There was an overall improvement for the entire population when comparing the pre with the post mean scores.

There is some interaction between school by sex by Pre-post, but the difference is only at the .1 level and is not therefore approaching significance and, is highly likely to be due to chance factors.

(iii)   Tests Involving 'ASPECT' Within-Subject Effect

AVERAGED Tests of Significance for MEAS. 1 using UNIQUE sums of squares

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	96041.11	815	117.84		
ASPECT	35729.92	5	7145.98	60.64	.000
SCHOOL BY ASPECT	6412.61	15	427.51	3.63	.000
TREAT BY ASPECT	1009.84	5	201.97	1.71	.129
SEX BY ASPECT	935.35	5	187.07	1.59	.161
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY ASPECT	2323.42	15	154.89	1.31	.186
SCHOOL BY SEX BY ASPECT	2234.71	15	148.98	1.26	.219
TREAT BY SEX BY ASPECT	1377.53	5	275.51	2.34	.040
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY SEX BY ASPECT	1988.93	15	132.60	1.13	.329

Table 4.10 (iii) shows 2 very highly statistically significant results :

Aspect (F = 60.64; df 5; p < .001).   School by Aspect (F = 60.64; df 5, 815; p < .001).

Treatment by Sex by Aspect is statistically significant at the 5% level, but as mentioned above,

this result should be treated with caution (F = 2.34; df 5, 815; p < .05).

(iv)   Tests involving 'PREPOST' BY ASPECT' Within-Subject Effect

AVERAGED Tests of Significance for MEAS. 1 using sums of squares

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	38585.90	815	47.34		
PREPOST BY ASPECT	3890.55	5	778.11	16.44	.000
SCHOOL BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	2582.36	15	172.16	3.64	.000
TREAT BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	184.91	5	36.98	.78	.563
SEX BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	189.50	5	37.90	.80	.549
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	1910.57	15	127.37	2.69	.001
SCHOOL BY SEX BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	1310.31	15	87.35	1.85	.025
TREAT BY SEX BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	345.17	5	69.03	1.46	.201
SCHOOL BY TREAT BY SEX BY PREPOST BY ASPECT	737.77	15	49.18	1.04	.412

Table 4.10 (iv) reveals 2 very highly significant results :

Pre-post by Aspect (F = 16.44; df 5, 815; p < .001). School by Pre-post by Aspect (F = 3.64; df 15, 815; p < .001).

A highly significant effect is shown by School by Treatment by Pre-post by Aspect (F = 2.69; df 15, 815; p = .001). School by Sex by Pre-post by Aspect is significant at the 5% level (F = 1.85; df 15, 815; p = < .05).

Overall, the results of this study indicate that Treatment is identified as an interaction factor, with the major impact being School. The treatment effects were more evident in Schools 1 and 4.

On the basis of the results in Tables 4.10 (i) the null hypothesis is not rejected, there is no real difference between the mean scores of the six aspects of behaviour for the treatment and control group, based on the pre- and post-ratings of classroom behaviour. However, there was a significant interaction effect at the 5% level between treatment, sex and aspect; also, a highly significant interaction effect between school, treatment, pre-post and aspect. In order to avoid rejecting the alternative non-directional hypothesis outright, and thus being in danger of making a type 2 error, it is suggested that the variables which interacted with the treatment, to produce statistically significant results, should be investigated to increase understanding of their possible effects and to aid planning for any future work in this area.

What is encouraging is the overall improvement in behaviour in all of the four schools; the aspects of academic behaviour and adherence to rules were of the greatest concern to the teachers and these areas improved the most with in/out of seat and social behaviour also improving considerably. The importance of school as an interaction effect with treatment has been highlighted by these results, as academic behaviours and rules are behaviours which can be directly under the teacher's control it is a likely supposition that some of the teachers in this study enhanced their classroom management skills. This may have occurred because they knew EBD was a focus of study or, that their confidence grew as they believed at least some

parents would be trying to help their children at home, thereby feeling the task of managing

EBD in the classroom was not theirs alone; the expectancy effects of teachers' views has been

documented by many researchers for example : Croll and Moses (1985), Mongon (1987) and

Jones (1985).

4.4.3 Qualitative data

Table 4.11   Results of parental questionnaire

Views on *Better Behaviour*

School : 1   Number of Returns = 6/11   =   54.55%

1. What did you like about the book?

Layout	5
Style of writing	4
Usefulness of advice	4

2. If there was anything you didn't like, or think anything was missed out, tell us here :

Didn't like the short family stories	1
Examples could be used	1
More highlighted parts	1

3. Have you had to deal with any of these behaviours during the last couple of months?

Attention seeking	3	Aggression	2
Tantrums	2	Stealing	0
Defiance	4	Anxiety	0
School Phobia	0		

4. Did you actually use the book?

    Yes   6
    No   0

5. Have you changed any of the ways in which you deal with your child?

    Yes   5
    No   1

6. Since reading the book what do you now do?

    More of :
    talking to my child   3

    Less of :
    giving in   4

7. Would you recommend the book to other parents?

    Yes   5
    No   1

8. Do you feel a more confident parent since reading the book?

    Yes   2
    No   2

9. Have you any other comments you would like to make?

    It was easy to read   1

    The book should be available very early in parenthood   1

    Lots of help if you need it   1

I liked the way the section on smacking was written instead of saying you
must never smack your child it said if a smack is necessary ..., whilst still
getting you to think about why, and look at other ways of discipline, so its
neither a definite for or against

I feel the book could be condensed, the short family stories did not appeal to
me

The book did not catch my eye

I was really too busy to read it or forgot it was there

Could be used as a good reference book if given out either free of charge or
a small fee.

1

1

1

1

1

Table 4.12   Results of parental questionnaire

Views on Better Behaviour

School :   2   Number of returns = 6/27   22.22%

1. **What did you like about the book?**

Layout   2
Style of writing   2
Usefulness of advice   6

2. **If there was anything you didn't like, or think anything was missed out, tell us here:**

I thought all the advice was aimed at children as a whole behaving in the same way
instead of pointing out that each child is an individual and has different needs and
therefore will react in different ways to different problems, worries, etc.

3. **Have you had to deal with any of these behaviours during the last couple of months?**

Attention seeking   2
Tantrums   2
Defiance   5
Aggression   2
Stealing   0

Anxiety   0
School Phobia   0

4. Have you used any of the advice in the Book?

Yes   4
No   2

5. Have you changed any of the ways in which you deal with your child?

Yes   3
No   3

6. Since reading the book what do you now do?

More of :

Talking   2
Trying to understand   1
Reasoning   1
Listening   1

Less of :

Shouting   4

7. Would you recommend the book to other parents?

Yes   5
No   1

8. Do you feel a more confident parent since reading the book?

Yes   1
No   5

9. Have you any other comments you would like to make?

The book should be available very early in parenthood
1

A really informative book. Gives plenty to think about
1

I think you generalized children as behaving and reacting in the same way to the same situation – they don't! Each child has different needs and has to be treated in accordance with these needs
1

You looked upon 'bad behaviour' as negative. There are different ideas as to what is defined as 'bad behaviour'; children will be naughty as it is all part of growing up and learning what is acceptable social behaviour ... so, 'bad behaviour' can be treated as a positive learning experience (you learn by your mistakes).
1

Table 4.13   Results of parental questionnaire

Views on *Better Behaviour*

School : 3   Number of returns = 11/20   =   55%

1. What did you like about the book?

layout	5
style of writing	3
usefulness of advice	10

2. If there was anything you didn't like, or think anything was missed out, tell us here :

The book was ok, unfortunately as a tool on its own it could prove quite ineffective, some of the issues raised involve strong and emotive habits that have formed throughout a family's life – these are difficult to break without further help and analysis
2

The booklet's aim is to help with children's behaviour at home and at school. People who care about the children's upbringing will read it. Perhaps other people who should read it won't.
1

3. Have you had to deal with any of these behaviours during the last couple of months?

217

Attention seeking	5
Tantrums	4
Defiance	5
Aggression	2
Stealing	0
Anxiety	2
School Phobia	2

4. Have you used any of the advice in the Book?

Yes	8
No	3

5. Have you changed any of the ways in which you deal with your child?

Yes	7
No	4

6. Since reading the book what do you now do?

More of :

I praise my child more	2
Nothing has changed	2
Take time to think	2
How to handle children with different behaviour problems	1
Sit and listen more, help with learning to do a lot more things and understand more about my child	1
Trying to stay calm and being firm	1
Quality time away from toddler. Activities of own choosing during quality time	1
Some points do not always cross your mind at first	1

Less of :

Give more attention to my children when they regularly demand	1
Saying 'no'	1
I don't smack my child as much	1
Shouting and giving in to them	1

7. Would you recommend the book to other parents?

Yes   11
No   0

8. Do you feel a more confident parent since reading the book?

Yes   6
No   4

9. Have you any other comments you would like to make?

The booklet could be used for reference when you have a particular problem	4
I think there are a lot of parents who would benefit from reading this book	2
The use of practical situations was very true to life and many parents could relate to this	2
Children's behavioural and emotional problems often arise from their parents' own problems. The book could help – but what do parents do to solve their own problems – this book could raise difficult questions to the parents, the way they were brought up etc. and without reconciling these, few will overcome them	1
General information very good	1
It may be of use if contact telephone numbers are made available so as par-	1

ents can discuss one to one with the "experts" their situation or difficulties

My own concern is – the book would be placed in a drawer and forgotten about   1

I must say that it all looks much easier on paper and every child is different, but that's no excuse for not taking a look at your own parenting skills   1

Table 4.14   Results of parental questionnaire

Views on *Better Behaviour*

School : 4   Number of returns = 13/31   =   41.94%

1. What did you like about the book?

layout	5
style of writing	4
usefulness of advice	12

2. If there was anything you didn't like, or think anything was missed out, tell us here :

I thought it was a good read. It made a lot of sense. I don't think there was anything missing   2

How to deal with two or more children misbehaving at the same time   1

A section headed "Sibling Rivalry" (or similar). It is covered to varying degrees under other headings but I think it warrants separate treatment. It is a behaviour problem that affects most families.   1

I agree with you on the issues of smacking children … although if a child does need a smack giving them a hug straight away will make them think they can get away with whatever they have done as you didn't really mean it   1

I didn't like the stealing story   1

I have been a mother for the past 6 years and have my own view on child behaviour. I deal with my children to the best of my abilities and the   1

comments you have made are psychological nonsense. They didn't help at all

3. **Have you had to deal with any of these behaviours during the last couple of months?**

Attention seeking	5
Tantrums	3
Defiance	5
Aggression	3
Stealing	0
Anxiety	1
School Phobia	3

4. **Have you used any of the advice in the Book?**

Yes 12
No 1

5. **Have you changed any of the ways in which you deal with your child?**

Yes 9
No 4

6. **Since reading the book what do you now do?**

More of :

Listening	6
Talking	3
Trying to understand	3
Helping with their problems	2
Explaining	2
Reasoning	1
Being patient	1
Being there as much as I can	1

Less of :

Shouting	7
Giving in to demands	2
Smacking	2
Have now given it to my husband to read	1

7. Would you recommend the book to other parents?

| Yes | 12 |
| No | 1 |

8. Do you feel a more confident parent since reading the book?

| Yes | 11 |
| No | 1 |

9. Have you any other comments you would like to make?

Section on the birth of a New Baby was interesting as I am expecting a baby very soon. I think this will prove helpful within the next few weeks	2
A really informative book. Gives plenty to think about	1
Have referred to some of the guidelines over the past few weeks	1
Reassuring to know that the things I am doing with my children are along the right lines	1
Useful to refer parents to in my role as a teacher	1
I have found, especially in my older children, that after giving them the appropriate punishment that when they calm down, they will come and apologise for being naughty and that to me is really something	1
I deal with my children appropriately. I give them all the love I have inside me. They return my love by behaving to the best of their intentions.	1

Table 4.15   Overall results of parental questionnaire

Views on *Better Behaviour*

Overall total :   Number of returns = 36/89   =   40-45%

1. What did you like about the book?

layout	17
style of writing	13
usefulness of advice	32

2. If there was anything you didn't like, or think anything was missed out, tell us here :

It made a lot of sense. I don't think there was anything missing	2
I thought all the advice was aimed at children as a whole behaving in the same way instead of pointing out that each child is an individual and has different needs and therefore will react in different ways to different problems, worries, etc.	1
Didn't like the short family stories	1
Examples could be used	1
More highlighted parts	1
Difficulties could be hard to solve without further help	1
Perhaps people who should read the booklet won't	1
How to deal with two or more children misbehaving at the same time	1
A section headed "Sibling Rivalry"	1
Giving a child a hug straight after smacking will make them think they can get away with whatever they have done as you didn't really mean it	1
I didn't like the stealing story	1
I deal with my Children to the best of my ability and the comments you have made are psychological nonsense.	1

3. Have you had to deal with any of these behaviours during the last couple of months?

Attention seeking   15
Tantrums   11
Defiance   19
Aggression   9
Stealing   0
Anxiety   3
School Phobia   5

4. Have you used any of the advice in the Book?

Yes   30
No   13

5. Have you changed any of the ways in which you deal with your child?

Yes   24
No   12

6. Since reading the book what do you now do?

More of :

Listening	11
Talking	5
Trying to understand	5
Reasoning	4
Patience	3
Helping children with their problems	2
Praise	1
Staying calm and being firm	1
Recognizing the different behaviour problems	1
Quality time away from toddler	1
Help with learning to do a lot more things	1
Being there as much as I can	1

Less of :

Shouting	16
Giving in to demands	3
Smacking	3
Saying 'no'	1
Giving more attention to my children when they regularly demand	1

7. Would you recommend the book to other parents?

Yes 33
No   3

9. Have you any other comments you would like to make?

| A really informative book. Gives plenty to think about | 7 |

| The booklet could be used for reference when you have a particular problem | 4 |

| The book should be available very early in parenthood | 2 |

| I think there are a lot of parents who would benefit from reading this book | 2 |

| The use of practical situations was very true to life and many parents could relate to this | 2 |

Section on the birth of a New Baby was interesting as I am expecting a baby very soon. I think this will prove helpful within the next few weeks   2

I think you generalized children as behaving and reacting in the same way to the same situation – they don't! Each child has different needs and has to be treated in accordance with these needs   1

You looked upon "Bad Behaviour" as negative. There are different ideas as to what is defined as "Bad Behaviour", and children will be "naughty" as it is all part of growing up and learning about what is acceptable social behaviour, so "Bad Behaviour" can be treated as a positive learning experience. (You learn by your mistakes)   1

It was easy to read   1

I liked the way the section on smacking was written, instead of saying you must never smack your child it said if a smack is necessary ..., whilst still getting you to think about why, and look at other ways of discipline, so it's   1

neither a definite for or against

I feel the book could be condensed, the short family stories did not appeal to me | 1

The book did not catch my eye | 1
I was really too busy to read it or forgot it was there | 1

Could be used as a good reference book if given out either free of charge or a small fee | 1

Children's behavioural and emotional problems often arise from their parents' own problems. This book could help – but what do parents do to solve their own problems – this book could raise difficult questions to the parents, the way they were brought up etc. and without reconciling these, few will overcome them | 1

It may be of use of contact telephone numbers are made available so as parents can discuss one to one with the "experts" their situation or difficulties | 1

My only concern is – the book would be placed in a drawer and forgotten about | 1

I must say that it all looks much easier on paper and every child is different, but that's no excuse for not taking a look at your own parenting skills | 1

Have referred to some of the guidelines over the past few weeks | 1

Reassuring to know that the things I am doing with my children are along the right lines | 1

Useful to refer parents to in my role as a teacher | 1

I have found, especially in my older children, that after giving them the appropriate punishment that when they calm down, they will come and apologise for being naughty and that to me is really something | 1

I deal with my children appropriately. I give them all the love I have inside me | 1

Some points do not always cross your mind at first | 1

General information very good. | 1

4.4.4　Discussion of Parental Questionnaires

The overall percentage of parents returning the questionnaires was substantially lowered by the very low return from school 2, which was only 22.22%; this school had the worst rated behaviour in the study and the smallest measure of improvement at the end of the intervention. Table 4.12 (page 215) shows that of the 6 parents who returned the questionnaire, they all found the advice in the booklet useful, suggesting they needed some support. Of interest are the answers to question 8 : do you feel a more confident parent since reading the book? – 5 of the 6 parents did not, suggesting their confidence is low and more support is needed to help them to help their children, emphasizing the view of Bettleheim (1987) and Pugh et al (1994) that parents have to feel confident and secure to enable their children.

Question 4 of the Parental Questionnaire asked had the parent(s) used any advice in the booklet. The replies to this question revealed that all of the parents in school 1 had used the advice, and 12 out of 13 parents in school 4 had used it with their child. As stated earlier, the Treatment effects were greatest in schools 1 and 4, suggesting that some factors in these two schools, and perhaps the intervention of the parents, had contributed to this improvement.

Table 4.15 (page 222) summarises all of the returns and it can be seen that the majority of parents found the advice useful. The opportunity given for comments on the booklet provided some useful views on omissions and things which may be better clarified in a future revision of the booklet.

The behaviours that the parents reported they have had to deal with most, in recent months were attention seeking, tantrums and defiance, which are said by Kauffman (1997) to occur in most children at some time. Less parents had to deal with aggression which might be expected from the literature (DES, 1989) and which is in accord with the teacher ratings in this study (Table 4.3, p. 193). Anxiety and School Phobia were not picked out by many parents as a cause for concern, which again is not unsurprising as the latter occurs in only about 1% of the population (Winkley, 1996).

It is encouraging that the majority of the parents found the advice useful and that two thirds of the parents had changed the ways in which they dealt with their children. The variety of changes all related to listening, helping and trying to understand their children more, which, if continued should lead to a better quality of parent-child interaction and subsequently better behaviour (Tattum and Tattum, 1992); this is likely to be further facilitated by the parental behaviours which have reduced, namely shouting, giving in, smacking and responding to negative demands; it would seem that at least some of the parents in this study replaced undesirable parental strategies by positive ones described by Baumrind (1967) as being characteristics of an authoritative style of parenting, which is associated with parenting competence and pro-social behaviour in children (Gross, 1989). These findings mirror those of the parents in Study 1 thereby adding weight to the belief that *Better Behaviour* is a useful and effective resource, however, lack of significant results for the effect of treatment in this study indicates that providing parents with the booklet alone, is insufficient to effect change, making

the issue of developing partnership with parents in relation to EBD even more important, if schools are to support parents in the development of their children.

4.5 Criticisms of the Study

The most striking outcome of this study is the major influence of school in both the main and interaction effects. Although initially in planning the intervention, all four schools were deemed to be similar, the outcomes suggest that there were also differences which are likely to have influenced the changes in behaviour.

The treatment group in School 4 improved in every aspect, having been rated second to the lowest in the pre-rating. School 4 also had the highest number of parents who said they had used the advice in the booklet. Similarly, the treatment group in School 1 improved more overall than in any other school and of the respondents, all indicated they had used the booklet to intervene with their children.

It is tempting to think that the correlation between treatment effects and parental report of using the booklet are directly related; however, the low overall parental replies and the lack of significant effects across all of the schools casts doubt on this. What these results highlight is that even when criteria are used to select schools and to estimate what factors need to be considered in using a home based intervention to change classroom behaviour, there are too many variables to control and to study in a design of this kind.

The rating scale used for the assessment of EBD is doubtless a useful tool for studying an individual's behaviour and subsequently planning an intervention programme; for this study it would seem that such a detailed instrument was unnecessary, as, although the teacher ratings of the different aspects of behaviour were both interesting and consistent with the literature and the findings of the Elton Report (DES, 1989), the range of scores was relatively small, suggesting a simpler rating scale would have been adequate.

The time span of the intervention was short and there was no follow-up to see if the treatment group maintained their gains thus the likelihood of errors in the interpretation of the results is present.

With regard to the involvement of parents, parent readiness for such a project was not assessed and this is considered important (Johnson and Katz, 1973; Wolfendale, 1983; Cohn and Daro, 1987). The low return of parental questionnaires from School 2 coupled with the poorly rated classroom behaviour and compared to the other three schools, would indicate that more work needs to be done in this school before a booklet sent home could be accepted let alone be a successful intervention.

School is regarded as the second most influential variable in determining EBD in children. The relationship between school effectiveness and level of EBD is described by Rutter et al (1979) and Cuttance (1992) who pointed to the benefits good schooling can have on pupils with EBD. Dowling and Osborne (1994) gave advice as to how the family and the school

system could work together to better support pupils with EBD and although the aims of this study did not seek to replicate their advice, what did transpire from the analysis of variance results, is that Treatment and School can interact with beneficial effects.

By contrast, there appears to be a correlation in this study between one school and : the number of children who have EBD, the small proportion of pupils behaving very well, the smallest rate of improvement and a low percentage of parental responses, suggesting a cycle of negative influences. Even in this school however, the numbers of pupils behaving badly were relatively small, the behaviours being interruptive, in/out of seat and off task as identified as being of concern to teachers by the Elton Committee (DES, 1989).

The variability of results in this study reinforce research findings that the causes and alleviation of EBD are complex. The multiplicity of variables operating in the school and home are too many to be controlled and measured in an experimental design of the type used for this study.

The differences between the results in the 4 schools and between the replies of the parents, point to the need to focus on the interconnections between the different factors in one school. Clearly each school's context is subtly different despite similarities being apparent. Additionally although there is a value in parents and pupils remaining anonymous, if the success of a home based intervention is to be judged on classroom behaviour, the parents and their children have to be identified and informed consent would have to be gained for this.

As teachers generally are reluctant to work directly with parents whose children have EBD, it would seem that outside agencies need to study the relationship between parenting and pupil behaviour, also the promises and pitfalls of home-school support, in order to gain more insight into these phenomena.

The sample of pupils involved in this study were all rated by their teachers as having some degree of EBD in some aspects of classroom behaviour. However, the ratings revealed that it was only a small number of pupils whose overall behaviour gave cause for concern. It is known that in addition to school and home influences, individual characteristics are known to be associated with EBD.

A plethora of research has focussed upon many individual differences and EBD, for example: genetics, gender, ethnicity, neonatal factors, temperament and cognitive factors. A relatively recently researched variable is cognitive style, which has been found to be related to EBD at Secondary, Further and Special Educational levels; the evidence base is as yet small compared to that on other individual characteristics and, no research has been conducted at the Primary level.

Given the difficulties encountered in this research of involving teachers in supporting parents in home-based interventions and, the complications in establishing whether improvements in behaviour generalised to the classroom, the research focus was shifted to the

individual pupils. It was felt that if more could be learned about those few pupils who behaviour gave cause for concern and potentially unsettling the whole class, it would be useful for the teachers. Additionally, variables within individual learners are things that teachers are comfortable in considering and addressing.

CHAPTER FIVE – STUDY THREE

5.0   Cognitive Style, Home Background and Conduct Behaviour in Primary School Pupils

5.1   Introduction and Aims

The results of Studies 2 and 3 indicate that even in classes which are described by the teachers as difficult to manage, it is only a few pupils whose behaviour gives great cause for concern.   Effective learning in school is dependent to a significant extent on pupils behaving reasonably and responding appropriately to their teachers and to other pupils;   thus in a class group, poor behaviour by just a few pupils can have a very disruptive effect on the learning performance of the whole class.   While problem behaviour is often the result of many interacting factors, understanding which may underlie misbehaviour is important.   There is the need for more information on the variables which may be related to behaviour and the ways in which they operate.

The Literature Review presents a range of research on within child factors which are known to contribute to EBD, such as academic failure, low self esteem, ethnicity and maleness. It no longer has to be debated whether these factors can place a child at risk of developing EBD, if combined with other adverse circumstances (Rutter, 1989).   Additionally, teachers should be knowledgeable about how to support pupils when the above factors may be an issue.

A recently researched variable, which teachers in general may not be aware of, is cognitive style. This is seen as an individual's preferred and habitual approach to both organising and representing information (Riding and Rayner, 1998, p.8)

The background to cognitive style has been extensively reviewed by Riding and Cheema (1991) and Riding and Rayner (1998, chapter 2), who concluded that the various style labels could be accommodated within two fundamental style dimensions, the Wholist-Analytic and the Verbal-Imagery. The dimensions may be summarised as:

1. The Wholist-Analytic dimension of whether an individual tends to organise information in wholes or parts.
2. The Verbal-Imagery dimension of whether an individual is inclined to represent information during thinking verbally or in mental pictures.

The evidence linking cognitive style to behaviour is accumulating; to date studies have shown that at Secondary level and beyond, females will be better behaved than males and, Wholist males will produce the most problematic behaviour (Rayner and Riding, 1996; Riding and Burton, 1998; Riding and Wigley, 1997). Studies by Riding and Craig (1998;1999) found that the style of Secondary age boys in EBD Residential schools was skewed to the Wholist end of the cognitive style dimension. There have been no studies exploring if the same pattern applies at the Primary level and, as it would seem necessary to study the characteristics of the minority of pupils who disrupt the learning environment, it was decided to explore this

unresearched avenue. The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between cognitive style, home background, gender and behaviour in a sample of mainstream primary school pupils.

5.2   Method

5.2.1   Sample

The sample comprised 109 pupils (65 boys and 44 girls) from a two-class entry primary school, in a fairly deprived working class urban area. There were 53 9-10 year-old children (Year 5) and 56 10-11 year-olds (Year 6). The sample comprised all of the pupils of those ages in the school.

5.2.2   Materials and Procedure

5.2.3   Assessment of Cognitive Style

The computer-presented Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) (Riding, 1991a) was used to determine a pupil's position on the Wholist-Analytic cognitive style dimension and was indicated by a ratio. Only the Wholist-Analytic dimension was assessed since the Verbal-Imagery dimension requires fluent reading and was considered to be beyond the attainment of many of the children in the sample. The use of only one style dimension is considered to be

valid, as studies have shown that the two dimensions are distinct from one another (Riding and Douglas, 1993; Riding and Wigley, 1997). The two dimensions act separately with the Verbal-Imagery dimension influencing thoughts, attitudes and whether a person is outgoing or withdrawn (Riding, 1991b); by contrast it is the Wholist-Analytic dimension which has been shown to be related to self control, sociability, decision making and action (Riding and Wright, 1995; Riding and Wigley, 1997).

Studies to date, on the relationship between the two style dimensions and behaviour, have consistently shown the Wholist-Analytic dimension to be the significant variable on the main effect (Rayner and Riding, 1996; Riding and Burton, 1998; Riding and Craig, 1998). In two separate studies, Riding and Craig (1998, 1999) found it was the Wholist-Analytic dimension which was related to types of behaviour and sociability.

The CSA is only available in disc form but the following description gives an overview and examples of the items contained in the test (Riding and Rayner, 1998, p 45). The CSA directly assesses both ends of the wholist-analytic and verbal-imagery dimensions, and comprises three sub-tests. The first assesses the verbal-imagery dimension by presenting statements one at a time to be judged true or false. Half of the statements contain information about conceptual categories, while the rest describe the appearance of items. Half of the statements of each type are true. It was assumed that imagers would respond more quickly to the appearance statements, because the objects could be readily represented as mental pictures

and the information for the comparison could be obtained directly and rapidly from these images.

In the case of the conceptual category items, it was assumed that verbalisers would have a shorter response time because the semantic conceptual category membership is verbally abstract in nature and cannot be represented in visual form. The computer records the response time to each statement and calculates the verbal-imagery ratio. A low ratio corresponds to a verbaliser and a high ratio to an imager with the intermediate position being described as bimodal. It may be noted that in this approach individuals have to read both the verbal and the imagery items so that reading ability and reading speed are controlled for.

The second two sub-tests assess the wholist-analytic dimension. The first of these presents items containing pairs of complex geometrical figures which the individual is required to judge either the same or different. Since this test involves judgements about the overall similarity of the two figures, it was assumed that a relatively fast response to this task would be possible by wholists. The second presents items each comprising a simple geometrical shape (e.g. a square or a triangle) and a complex geometrical figure, and the individual is asked to indicate whether or not the simple shape is contained in the complex one by pressing one of two marked response keys.

This task requires a degree of disembedding of the simple shape within the complex geometrical figure in order to establish that is is the same as the stimulus simple shape

displayed, and it was assumed that analytics would be relatively quicker at this. Again the computer records the response times, and calculates the wholist-analytic ratio. A low ratio corresponds to a wholist and a high ratio to an analytic. Ratios between these positions are labelled 'Intermediate'.

In doing the sub-tests the testees are not made aware that the assessment uses response time, because the intention is that they undertake the tasks in a relaxed way that reflects their usual manner of processing information. Since ratios are used overall response speed does not influence the style result. The background to the development of the CSA is given in Riding and Cheema (1991).

The CSA provides a simple, quick and convenient means of assessing an individual's style in a format that children find appealing. It is an objective test, as defined by Cattell and Warburton (1967), as it is objectively scored and its method of assessment is not obvious to those being assessed. It was administered by the researcher to each child individually during the course of one week; the way it was introduced, the vocabulary used and explanations were the same for each pupil.

5.2.4 The Validity of Cognitive Style

Riding and Rayner (1998, chapter 9) present an impressive range of evidence for validity of the construct style, that style is fundamental in nature and it has an influence on a wide

239

spectrum of feelings, behaviour and cognition. Using the CSA approach, cognitive style was found to have several important characteristics; studies indicate the style dimensions are independent of one another and separate from intelligence, common personality measures and gender. This is important as low intelligence and certain temperaments could be causes of EBD, thus if there was a relationship between style and behaviour it is likely that style is a fundamental source. There is also an indication of a relationship between both style dimensions and physiological measures, as assessed by EEG brain activity.

Riding and Rayner (1998) argue that the range of evidence available supports the view that the construct of cognitive style validly exists.

5.2.5   Determination of Pupil Behaviour and Home Background

The class teachers of the pupils were asked to rate separately the classroom behaviour and home background of each child on a five-point scale from 1 to 5, where 1 represented the worst and 5 the best. The ratings were described as 1, very poor; 2, poor; 3, fair; 4 good; 5, very good. The rating schedule can be found in Appendix 12 (page 386).

With **conduct behaviour** the intention was to obtain an overall global impression of conduct behaviour. Teachers were likely to be influenced in their rating by outward active manifestations of misbehaviour such as verbal interruption, distracting other pupils, inappropriate moving about and physical aggression to other pupils or the teacher. Passive misbehaviour

such as inattention and daydreaming, is less likely to be seen as conduct disorder because it is not disruptive. The Elton Report (DES and Welsh Office, 1989) suggested that teachers generally identify misbehaviour in these terms. For **home background** the instruction was that teachers should take into account their knowledge of the degree of parental support and the loving quality of the home environment.

To check the factors which influenced the teachers' ratings a semi-structured interview (Appendix 13, page 387) was held with each teacher who had completed the Teacher Rating Schedule; the responses will be summarized in the Results section below.

Burroughs (1975) states that semi-structured interviews are appropriate in instances where interpersonal relationships need to be maintained. Furthermore, he suggests that what to look for, recording and the construction of a schedule should be thought through in advance but how best to secure this information is left to the researcher. These guidelines were adhered to during the teacher interviews.

The ratings of behaviour and home background were done for all pupils by the class teachers during the summer term (the last of the School year) and again by the new teachers of the classes during the following Autumn term (the first of the following School year). The mean of each pair of ratings was then taken as the indication of each measure. The teachers had no knowledge of the style results of the pupils.

5.3   Results

For the analysis of the data, the independent variables were the Wholist-Analytic style, the home background and gender. The latter was included since females tend to be reported as less disruptive than males (e.g. Schwartzman et al, 1995).

School year was not included as a variable because the ratings were done relative to children of the age of the class. Furthermore, a one-way analysis of variance of school year as the independent variable and teacher-rated behaviour as the dependent variable did not show any significant effect of school year ($P > 0.60$).

5.3.1   Inferential Statistics

Table 5.1   1 way Analysis of Variance. School Year x Teacher Rated Behaviour

	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
Within Cells	276.60	106	2.61		
Year	.40	1	.40	.15	.695

Style has not been found to be related to gender, but to check this with the present data, a one-way analysis of variance was performed with Gender as the independent variable and the Wholist-Analytic ratio as the dependent variable; this showed, as expected, no significant gender difference ($P > 0.80$).

Table 5.2   1 way Analysis of Variance. Gender x Wholist-Analytic Style

	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
Within Cells	11.20	107	.11		
Gender	.01	1	.01	.05	.817

The overall mean Wholist-Analytic ratio was 1.05 (SD 0.32). The Wholist-Analytic style dimension was divided on the basis of the style ratio into three divisions so that there were similar numbers of pupils in each. The resulting divisions were:

Wholist,   0.50 – 0.88 (n = 36)

Intermediate, 0.89 – 1.12 (n = 36)

Analytic,   1.13 – 3.06 (n = 37).

The mean Home Background rating was 4.20 (SD 1.01). The Home Background ratings were positively skewed with 63% of the homes being rated as 'good' or 'very good'. The correlation between Home Background and Wholist-Analytic ratio was low (r = -0.09, P > 0.05). Home Background was grouped into three divisions as follows:

low,   1.0 – 3.5 (n = 27)

moderate 3.6 – 4.5 (n = 38)

high   4.6 – 5.0 (n = 43).

Conduct Behaviour

The distribution of rated behaviour for the boys and girls is shown in Figure 5.1 ~~les in a~~ ~~single analysis. ... ... analyses of variance were performed on the data to include all~~ ~~combinations of ... independent variables of Gender [2], Wholist-Analytic style [3] and Home~~ ~~Background [3] with Behaviour Rating as the dependent variable. These showed a significant~~ ~~effect on behaviour of Wholist-Analytic style (F = 3.93; df = 103; P = 0.023), and this is~~ ~~shown in Figure 5.2.~~
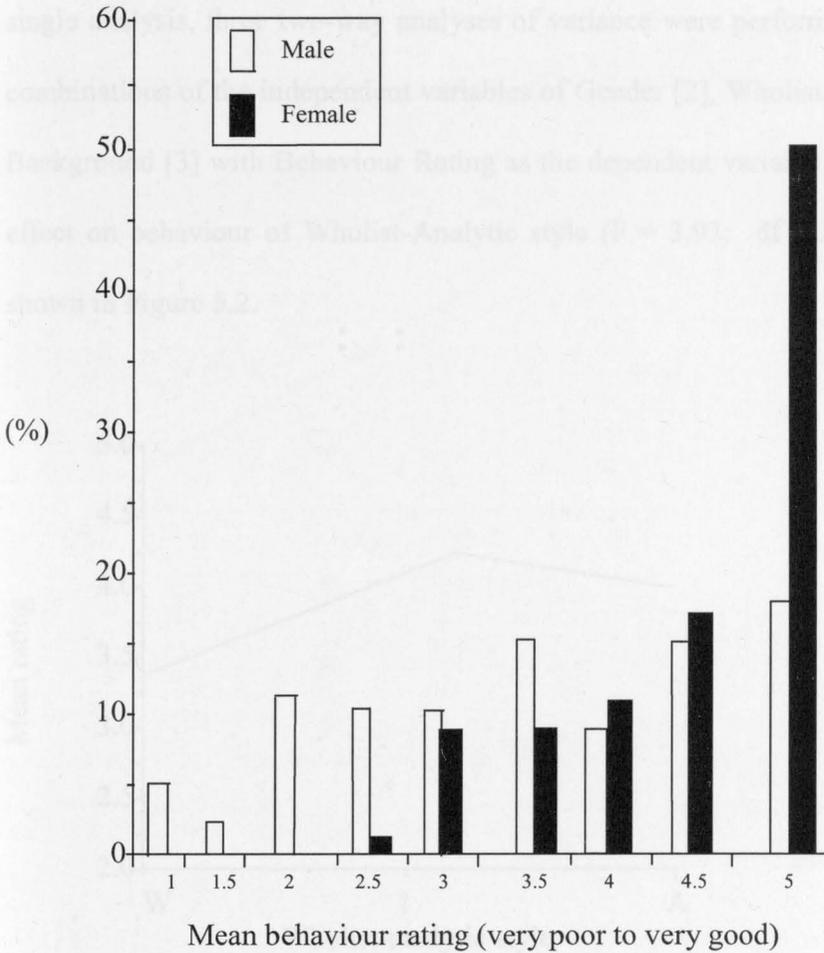
FIG. 5.1

Overall, the distribution of behaviour is skewed towards the good behaviour with most pupils behaving well, particularly in the case of the girls. Relatively few children exhibit poor or very poor behaviour (a mean rating of 2.0 or less) and those who do are likely to be boys (20% of the boys and 0% of the girls).

Since the sample was insufficiently large, to permit the inclusion of all variables in a single analysis, three two-way analyses of variance were performed on the data to include all combinations of the independent variables of Gender [2], Wholist-Analytic style [3] and Home Background [3] with Behaviour Rating as the dependent variable. These showed a significant effect on behaviour of Wholist-Analytic style ($F = 3.93$; df 2,103; $P = 0.023$), and this is shown in Figure 5.2.
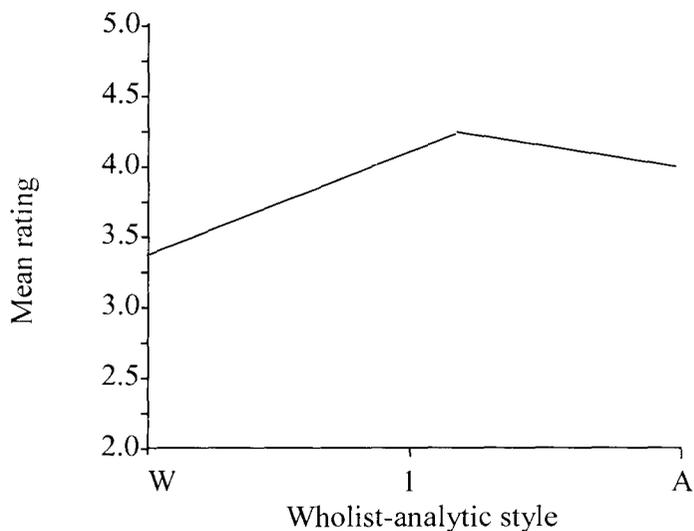
FIG. 5.2

Inspection of Figure 5.2 indicates that the Wholists were rated as worse than the Inter-mediates and Analytics in behaviour. There was also a significant effect of Gender ($F = 35.94$; df 1,103; $p < 0.001$) with the girls being rated higher for behaviour than the boys. There was also a

245

significant effect of Home Background (F = 47.50; df 2, 103; p < 0.001), and an interaction of

Gender and Home Background (F = 3.41; df 2,103; p = 0.037), this is shown in Figure 5.3.
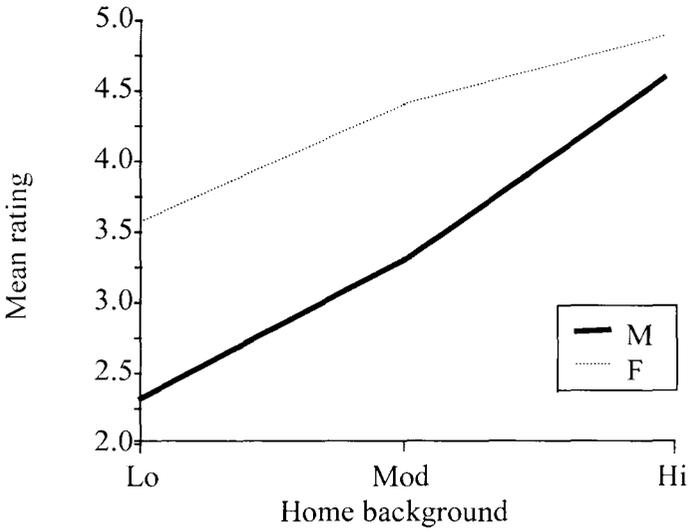
FIG. 5.3

Consideration of Figure 5.3 shows that females behave better than the males, and this is most

pronounced when the Home Background is rated as poor.

5.3.2 Qualitative data

Semi-Structured Interview re Teacher Rating

What factors influenced your rating of behaviour?

N = 4

Violence	:	4
Distracting others	:	3
Defiance	:	3
Peer problems	:	4
Calling out/swearing/name calling	:	4

What factors influenced your rating of home background?

N = 4

Interest in children	:	4
General care and punctuality	:	4
Stability of home	:	3

5.4   Discussion

In terms of style, the Wholists showed the worst behaviour. The result was in agreement with the findings of Riding and Burton (1998) with secondary school pupils. Furthermore, Riding and Craig (1998) found that the distribution of male pupils referred to special schools for misbehaviour, was skewed to the Wholist end of the Wholist-Analytic dimensions. They suggested that part of the reason for this is that Wholists have a weaker internal structural view of things than have Analytics and that means that they are likely to have lower self-control.

In considering Gender and behaviour, the superior reported behaviour of the girls was as expected. Girls generally display misbehaviour more passively in a manner which does not cause disruption, see for instance, Schwartzman et al (1995, pp. 362-365). As noted above, teachers were likely to be influenced in their rating by outward active manifestations of misbehaviour, while passive misbehaviour was not likely to be counted since it was not disruptive, this was confirmed in the interview with teachers. The boys were the major source of reported misbehaviour.

As found in other studies (e.g. Charlton and George, 1993, pp. 32-36), Home background was clearly related to behaviour. Furthermore, poor home background had a greater effect on boys than girls. If it is accepted that boys are naturally more boisterous than girls,

then the common features of inadequate parenting magnify this. The lack of love leads to insecurity, and the lack of control to an inability by the child to recognise acceptable behaviour limits.

It is of interest to compare the present findings of the 'normal' situation with those of the special school situation reported by Riding and Craig (1998). With the special school sample there was considerable evidence that the parenting had been deficient. It was speculated that, when the parenting is unsatisfactory in terms of lacking in love and concern for the child, with insufficient interest in its progress, coupled with the absence of a lovingly applied and appropriate system of control, then this will increase misbehaviour. Examination of the case notes of the pupils indicated that the Wholists tended to manifest their misbehaviour through disruption, while Analytics were more withdrawn and physically aggressive. In the 'normal' situation where pupils may have received unsatisfactory parenting a similar pattern may apply. A further study of the 'normal' situation to include an assessment of the types of misbehaviour observed in the children and its comparison with style would be useful.

In considering the control of pupils, since the styles show particular behaviour, it follows that different schemes will be effective with children of different styles, and that the scheme needs to be designed to suit the individual pupil's style. It has been argued that Wholists tend to lack self control and so may be without an internalised control unless it is externally imposed. Therefore, they are likely to benefit from an approach that provides a clear structure for behaviour and a means of internalising it. By contrast, Analytics are more likely

to be more restrained and will be less troublesome whatever the regime. Further work is needed to design regimes to suit pupils of particular styles.

A related topic is the relationship between style and academic attainment, particularly since poor attainment could lead to frustration and reduced motivation, and hence poor behaviour. Inspection of the data from the study of 11-year-olds by Riding and Mathias (1991) showed that, while the effect was not statistically significant in terms of mechanical reading aloud, Wholists were superior to Analytics in both males and females. Unpublished data from a small-scale study of 42 junior school pupils on a variety of reading measures also showed Wholists to be superior to Analytics, for both males and females, although not to a significant extent. With the present sample, the Young Group Reading Test Form A (Young, 1992) scores were available, having been routinely assessed during the Summer term. An analysis of variance of Gender by Wholist-Analytic style with reading quotient as the dependent variable showed significant effects of both style and gender, but this time with the Analytics superior to the Wholists, ($F = 6.79$; df 2,103; $p < 0.002$). Further work is necessary to consider the relationship between Wholist-Analytic style and academic performance, and also with reading instruction, since it could be that reading attainment may reflect the type of reading scheme used and some schemes may suit Wholists, while others suit Analytics, and vice versa.

In conclusion, the distribution of behaviour is skewed towards good behaviour with most pupils rated as behaving well. It is just a minority of pupils whose behaviour is rated as poor or very poor. However, it only needs a few pupils in a class who are outwardly disruptive

to seriously interfere with the learning of the whole class. The identification of the characteristics of these misbehaving pupils is therefore of practical importance as a step towards improving school learning performance. The importance of early identification and intervention in dealing with problem behaviour was highlighted in A Programme of Action (DfEE, 1998), also, the Revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) requires schools to become actively involved with parents and give them practical and emotional support.

It is well documented, for example Sutton (1999) that once EBD becomes established it is likely to persist, possibly across the life span. Early identification of pupils most at risk of developing EBD, the Wholists, would assist teachers in supporting these children. Wholist's behaviour has been found to be disruptive and verbally interruptive, also to increase with age (Riding and Craig, 1998, 1999), thus the Wholists are likely to present the biggest challenge to teachers. As Wholists are known to lack self control and exhibit disruptive behaviour, it is likely that they will require firm boundaries, clear class rules and logical consequences to provide them with the control they lack.

The findings of this research study confirm the link between poor classroom behaviour and other adverse factors, in this study, poor home background. It is known that helping parents to manage their children better shows benefits in improved child behaviour (Kazdin, 1995); additionally evidence is accumulating to identify the factors that are central to the use of a parent training manual being effective. Sutton (1999) studied research from all over the

world and found that parents require support from a skilled adult to enable them to effectively improve their child's behaviour.

Roffey (2002) sent questionnaires to all families in one LEA where the Educational Psychology Service had been consulted about a child's EBD. The replies suggested that the power base, with regard to home-school liaison remains with the school; where schools empowered the parents in their parental role and where schools responded to EBD by focussing on the child's needs, the outcomes were optimistic.

Working in collaboration with parents and carers is being seen increasingly as the best chance of success for addressing EBD in school and *Better Behaviour* could be a basis upon which to focus problem solving conversations about EBD.

CHAPTER SIX – STUDY FOUR

6.1   Case Studies : Pupil Behaviour and Parenting Strategies

6.2   Introduction and Aims

Studies on the causes of EBD consistently point to the influence of home background for example, Charlton and George (1993);   furthermore there is evidence to show that teachers, when considering pupils with EBD, attribute them to family factors (Farrell, 1995;   Miller, 1996;   Rolfey, 2002).   Excellence for All Children (DfEE, 1997a) stresses the role that poor parenting can have on children and recommends that EBD's should be addressed early and the Revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) requires schools to support parents.   It would seem important to know more about the characteristics of the minority of pupils who disrupt the learning process, also to find out more about the relationship between parental strategies and pupil behaviour, this is crucial if the conditions which are believed to further a child's development are to be changed.

The results of Study 3 revealed a significant effect of Wholist-Analytic style on behaviour with the Wholists being the worst behaved.   There was also an interaction between Gender and Home Background with the females behaving better than the males, this being most pronounced when the home background was rated as poor.   The implications of these results are related to teaching and parenting, thus it was decided to look at a sample of pupils whose behaviour was of particular concern to teachers and were known to be out of parental control, also to work with the parents to investigate

their parenting strategies, and to discover if improved behaviour did occur at home what conditions would facilitate generalisation to the classroom.

The aims were to study the characteristics of this small group of pupils also the parenting strategies being utilized; additionally it was planned to help the parents to adopt a regime incorporating the precepts from *Better Behaviour*, love, recognition and discipline to help them deal with their child's EBD.

There is accumulating evidence to show that children are likely to display EBD in the context of uninvolved, rejecting or harsh parenting. Bowlby (1988) stressed the need for love, recognition and lovingly applied discipline to instill security, self worth and self control, which will lead to prosocial behaviour.

Gross (1989) cited in Pugh et al (1994) summarised research on parenting styles and outcomes and advocated an authoritative parenting style. Maccoby and Martin (1983) showed that certain styles tend to lead to different patterns of responses in children, and devised a diagram to illustrate these relationships. There is concensus that the quality of love, amount of recognition and the degree and appropriateness of control given by parents, will have an effect on their child which will contribute to protecting, or predisposing a child to EBDs.

Research into cognitive style and EBD has shown a relationship between classroom behaviour, gender and style, with male Wholists being the worst behaved; the poor behaviour of the

male Wholists was most prominent when the home background was poor (Riding and Burton, 1998; Riding and Craig, 1998).

Furthermore, in two studies by Riding and Craig, reported in Riding (2002) the Wholist-analytic dimension of style was found to be related to types of behaviour problems and sociability. The Wholists were found to be sociable and outgoing, disruptive and verbally interruptive; by contrast, they analytics were more unsociable, detached and likely to have outbursts of anger or physical aggression.

It is acknowledged that problem behaviours, their origins and solutions are highly complex however, it is suggested that a tentative model of problem behaviour, having their origins within the family could be represented by Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 *A MODEL OF PROBLEM BEHAVIOUR*

ASPECT OF PARENTING	EFFECT ON CHILD	COGNITIVE CONTROL	MANIFESTATION OF BEHAVIOUR
QUALITY OF LOVE →	FEELING OF SECURITY →		
AMOUNT OF RECOGNITION →	LEVEL OF SELF-WORTH →	COGNITIVE STYLE	→ TYPE AND DEGREE OF PROBLEM BEHAVIOUR
DEGREE AND APPROPRIATENESS OF CONTROL →	LEVEL OF INTRENALISED SELF-CONTROL VALUE →		
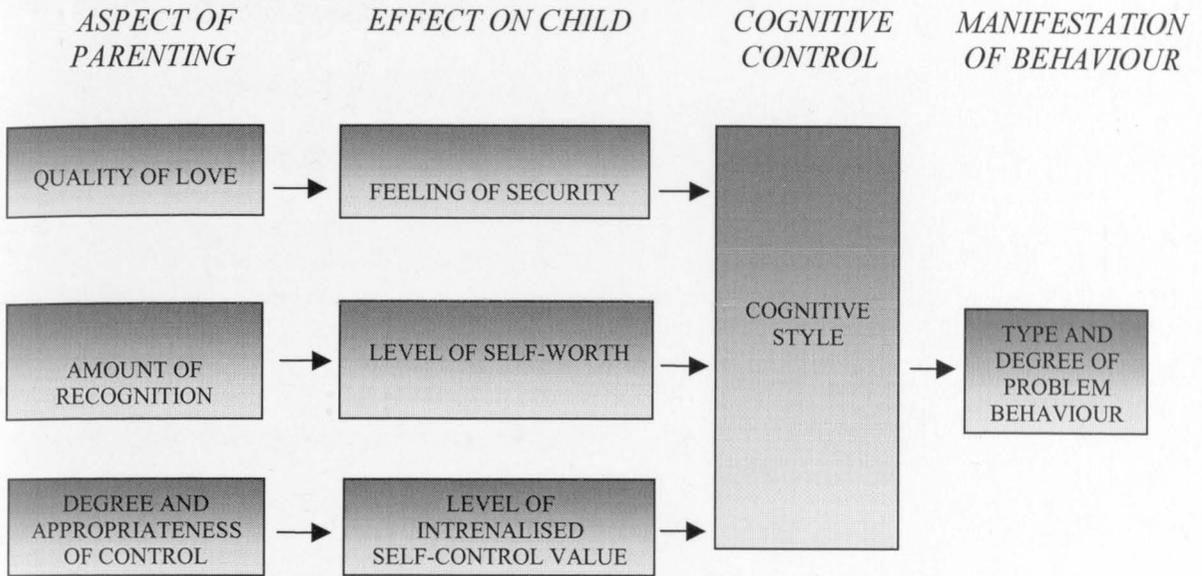
Furthermore, it could be hypothesized that an example of the relationship between parenting and style could be represented by Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 *PARENTING DEFICIENCY AND WHOLIST-ANALYTIC STYLE*

ASPECT OF PARENTING THAT IS DEFICIENT	POSSIBLE EFFECT ON PUPILS OF PARTICULAR STYLE	
	WHOLIST	ANALYTIC
LOVE	WANTING TO BE LOVED, AND TO BE EVERYBODY'S FRIEND	INTERNAL HURT AND AGGRESSION

RECOGNITION	ATTENTION SEEKING	RESENTMENT AND WITHDRAWAL
CONTROL	LACK OF SELF-CONTROL	INAPPROPRIATE CONTROL

Different styles manifest different reactions thus it would follow that a parenting regime needs to be suited to the individual's style, for example, Wholists lack self control and so will be likely to benefit from clear guidelines for behaviour and logical consequences designed to help internalise self-control. By contrast, Analytics who are likely to be more restrained but then have angry outbursts, will need support to assist them to see things in a less rigid, egocentric manner.

It is suggested that the matrix below provides a transparent guide to parental behaviours, which in turn may be related to their children's behaviours, for example:

- Loving concern, appropriate recognition, lovingly and sensitively applied control.

- Coldness towards the child but a reasonable discipline system.

- Love but little control which results in spoiling.

- Lack of love and harsh abusive discipline.

Figure 6.3 *Getting The Balance Right*

	LOVE	RECOGNITION	DISCIPLINE
TOO MUCH	SPOILT	IDOLISED	TOO STRICT
JUST RIGHT	LOVED	RECOGNIZED	DISCIPLINED
TOO LITTLE	NEGLECTED	IGNORED	UNCONTROLLED

257

Figure 6.3 represents what can happen if parents do not get the balance of parenting aspects right; it is suggested that if the balance is wrong it is likely to be a main cause of childhood misbehaviour or a major influence in maintaining it. It has been shown that EBD will be manifested in different ways depending on the cognitive style of the individual (Riding and Rayner, 1998, pp. 174-176; Riding, 2002, pp.57-59), the less positive aspects of the style tending to be exaggerated by the experiences which have contributed to the problem. Thus, a Wholist whose natural inclination would be to lack self-control, would be greatly affected by too little discipline and be likely to exhibit uncontrolled behaviour; by contrast, an Analytic, naturally inclined to be more solitary, and moody is likely to display exaggerated manifestations if the home environment fails to provide the right balance of love and discipline.

6.3   Method

For Study 3 the class teachers of 109 9-10 year-old and 10-11 year-old primary school pupils were asked to rate the classroom conduct behaviour and home backgrounds of their pupils on a five point scale from very poor to very good; this was done in the summer term and repeated by the new teachers during the autumn term. For this present study, at the end of the autumn term the teachers were asked to nominate those pupils whose behaviour had been of concern for a protracted amount of time and who were also known to have a poor home background.

11 pupils were nominated, 5 from year 5 and 6 from year 6. The head teacher arranged to meet with the parents of the nominated pupils separately, to explain the teachers' concerns

and to invite them to work with the author of this report in the following term to help support their child. Five parents expressed a willingness to avail themselves of the support sessions which took place in a private room, in school during the following spring – summer term. Information on the teacher's perceptions and observations of each pupil was collected at the start of the term by means of a standard school checklist (Appendix 14 page 388). This was used as the basis for a discussion at the end of the school year with the same teachers and the beginning of the second term of the following school year with the pupil's new teachers. This can be shown in the following time line:

January	**June**	**January**
School checklist completed by class teacher	Discussion with same teacher	Discussion with new teacher/SENCO.

◄─────── Intervention ──────►
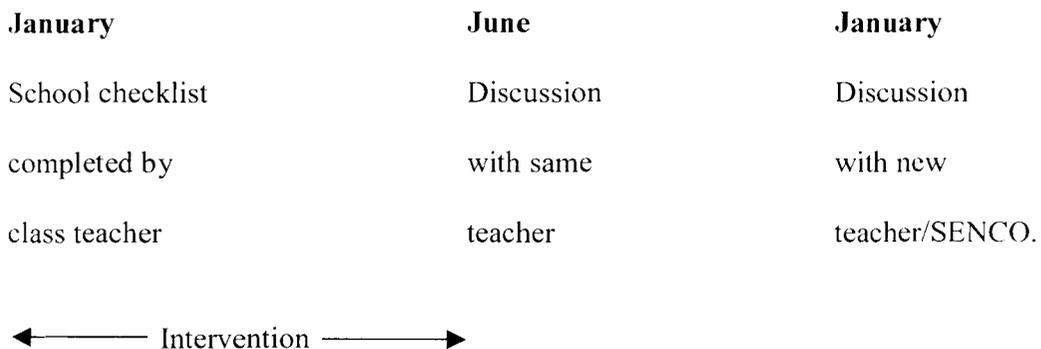
6.3.1 Format of Meetings, Materials and Record Keeping

The school checklist comprised 4 sections:

- Approach to learning

- Behaviour in class

- Emotional Development

- Social Adaptation.

Each section contained a number of behavioural descriptors and the teacher was required to place a tick against any descriptor which applied to the pupil being rated, indicating whether the behaviour occurred *often* or *sometimes*.

This assessment instrument has no indices of reliability or validity as it had been designed for the school's use several years ago, informed by inspecting a range of checklists. The drawbacks of such an instrument are acknowledged and, as Burroughs (1995) points out : where there is scope only for a two point response, the respondent has a 50-50 chance of being accurate and this style permits no indication of intensity; also the schedule identifies a prescribed range of EBD. Despite these caveats it was considered that the instrument had a certain amount of validity due to several factors:

- it was devised by the school to suit their purposes and is based on an internal baseline of EBD

- the descriptors appear to be transparent and not prone to misinterpretation

- for the pupils in question, EBDs had existed for some time and the teachers were aware of these the teachers in question were familiar with rating behaviour on this instrument there was room on the checklist for supporting comments and, as Youngman (1986) indicates, if a list of items is offered and the opportunity is given to the respondents to qualify their responses, structured measures are easier to interpret.

Additionally, as the responses were not going to be subject to comparison or statistical analysis it was felt that this checklist was suitable for this study, both for the initial observation of pupil behaviour and for an introduction to the follow up interviews, as suggested by Youngman (1986).

The booklet *Better Behaviour* (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995a) was given to each pupil's parent at the first meeting with the researcher; the information contained in the booklet informed the advice and strategies given to each parent as it applied to their own child.

Following the initial meeting, further appointments were made as appropriate to each parent thus the total number of sessions were largely determined by what the parent felt they needed:

a) to encourage them to take responsibility for and ownership of the intervention, and

b) to minimize the risk of the parents becoming dependent upon the researcher.

As the sessions progressed and more was known about what the individual children needed, strategies were also given to the teachers and some pupils were given individual discussion time with the researcher.

During the meetings with each parent, notes were made contemporaneously and read back to the parent at the end of each session. The first meeting with each parent followed the

same format, subsequent meetings took the form of solution focussed conversations facilitated by specific listening skills:

1. **warmth and support** – to help the parent feel at ease

2. **clarification** – to elicit complete information and to assist the parent to explore the whole issue

3. **restatement** – to check the researcher's meaning is the same as the parent's and to show understanding

4. **encouragement** – to encourage the parent

5. **reflecting** – to act as a mirror for the parent to see what is being communicated, to help the parents evaluate their feelings and to show the researcher understands the feeling behind the words

6. **summarizing** – to bring together the areas discussed and to provide a starting point for the next meeting (after Mallon, 1987).

At the initial meeting the following information was sought from the parents:

- child's behaviour at home

- description of child's personal characteristics

- family composition and pertinent information regarding home background

- parenting style.

The rationale for the intervention was based on research which shows that providing the right balance of love, recognition and lovingly applied discipline will lead to feelings of security, self worth and improved behaviour in the children. With regard to cognitive style, the intention was to see if the types of EBD in Primary age children were the same as at Secondary aged pupils. Additionally, this work looked at what interventions with the pupils and the teachers might suit each style and encourage generalisation of improved pupil behaviour from home to the classroom.

6.4   Case Study A

Subject A   :   boy, 11 years, Year 6

Cognitive Style   :   Analytic

Family Composition   :   Only child, lives with Mother

Family History   :   5 years of unsettling experiences

Number of sessions with mother   :   5

Number of sessions with pupil   :   3.

Behaviour at School : Head and Teacher Rating

January School Checklist	June Discussion	January Verbal Report
Approach to Learning • 'reacts' to new work • disregards instructions • poor concentration • erratic approach • untidy • lazy	• gets on with work • quality of work better	• Adapted to High School no reported difficulties.
Behaviour In Class • restless • calls out • distracts others • acts the fool • incites others • rude to teacher • answers back • makes asides • throws things about	• more cooperative • does not disturb others	• Still restless but doesn't disturb others. Is compliant with teachers.
Emotional Development • outbursts of temper • fantasises • seems insecure • plays as a younger child • cannot describe feelings • mood swings • odd behaviour • lacks empathy.	• average of 1-2 weekly outbursts which is over more quickly	• No outbursts of temper, odd behaviour or moodiness.
Social Adaptation • aggressive and spiteful to others • seeks the company of younger children • gets others into trouble.	• only the occasional derogatory comment	• Keeps separate with two friends, no incidents of spiteful or aggressive behaviour.

Family Composition and Background Information

Mother and **A** at home. Mother and Father divorced 4 years ago when **A** was 7, due to continual disagreements, there was no violence involved. When Mother left home she and **A** lived at a friend's house for 1 month then a refuge for 3 months before being housed by the council. Maternal Grandmother looks after **A** at home 3 nights a week whilst Mother works, **A** visits his Father 1 day and night per week.

A's Behaviour at home :

- Doesn't like being told what to do.

- Gives cheek.

- Refuses to do things.

- Temper tantrums.

- Attention seeking – escalating.

- Reactions worsening : lashing out.

Personality as described by Mother :

Positive :   Negative :

- Kind.   - Keeps things bottled up.

- Caring Good sense of humour.   - Can't take praise.

- Good sense of humour.   - Easily embarrassed.

- Clever.   - Moody.

- Handy.   - Blames others.

Parenting methods and related issues:

Mother has standards but gives in to **A**'s demands very easily. She shouts a lot but gives empty threats thereby having to give in more often. She has an 'open house' and neighbours just walk in whenever they want to; adults and children alike take over the decision making and she feels she is not in charge of **A**. She has developed the habit of getting ready for bed at 7 pm. and is usually in bed by 8.30 pm. the same as **A**, in order to have some time to herself.

Although Mother is the main carer, Father and Grandmother have weekly responsibility for **A** and the strategies are all lax, Grandmother criticises Mother in front of **A** for her efforts making her even more indecisive. Grandmother is a reforming alcoholic and is often in an emotional state.

Recommendations and Outcomes

Session 1: Mrs. D. made a list of the type of situations she found hard to deal with, also a range of sanctions varying in severity. Logical consequences were discussed and a problem situation was role-played.

Session 2: Mrs. D. has stopped habitually shouting at **A** which she believes has taken him by surprise. If he has thrown items she has made him accountable. **A** has been more helpful to

his Mother. Mrs. D. realises she has been "going along" with things and not actually doing anything positive in the hope that things would improve. She has 'grounded' A and for the first time ever kept to her word despite other children calling for him and trying to dissuade her. Mrs D. had encountered a problem in the manageability of sanctions when trying to get A to tidy his room – the sanction system was very complicated! The immediacy and manageability of sanctions and Logical Consequences was discussed. The question of keeping the house doors closed and encouraging visitors to knock was discussed, as was discussing consistency of style with her Mother and A's Father. The issue of hitting A was raised as his Father advocates this, although he doesn't hit A himself. Mrs. D. practised how she could state her own views on how A could be dealt with, to his Father. Mrs. D. stated the desire to discuss the 'family' bedtime routine at some future date.

Session 3:   A's behaviour has been much improved at home and Mrs. D. has had some compliments from school. Mrs. D. has successfully used immediate sanctions after giving Logical Consequences and since has had no trouble getting A to do his share of tidying up. Mrs. D. has made use of 'ignoring' which is helping to reduce A's attention seeking behaviours and rarely shouts now but when she does it works as she no longer uses empty threats. Mrs. D. feels that A now expects his Mother to carry out what she says she will do. She has had the confidence to tell both A's Father and her Mother what the expectations of A should be and to share what is working for her. Mrs. D. now keeps her house doors closed so that visitors have to knock and she feels more able to decide whether she and A are available or not. The issue of bedtime was raised again and it was agreed that this would be a difficult aspect to tackle. It

was suggested that Mrs. D. made a note of the difficulties she could anticipate which would be discussed at the next appointment.

Session 4:   A is generally so well behaved now that Mrs. D. can't believe it. His report card at school is full of good marks and comments but A reacts badly to being praised for this. One major incident occurred when A refused to go into the house when it was time for bed. He humiliated his Mother in front of his friends and she lost her temper and smacked him.   Later Mrs. D. apologised and she and A discussed what it felt like to be shown up in front of people, which is what had triggered A into his defiance in front of his peers. Mrs. D. and A agreed that coming in time would be negotiated before he went out so as to avoid being called in. How to praise A without embarrassing him was discussed and it was agreed that Mrs. D. would say: "That is very good you must be proud of yourself" … and leave it at that.   The   anticipated difficulties of altering the bedtime routine were discussed and tentative hypotheses about ways of changing the present arrangement were explored.

Session 5:   In the final session Mrs. D. was pleased to say that A was much better and seemed happier both at home and school, where he was no longer 'on report'. Mrs. D. feels confident to expect and encourage the standards she holds and is firm in her attempts to gain consistency from all who care for A. She is able to look back on the origins of A's difficulties which she attributed to A's stepmother's son taking his old bedroom. She also believes that A feels let down and betrayed by his Dad and her parting comments were: " I'm going to encourage his Dad to tell A he's sorry and he loves him … we've come a long way …"

A's Perceptions

He doesn't find work hard, nor does he dislike it. He has friends and is happy in school. He could identify his undesirable behaviour in school as:

- being silly

- making funny noises

- saying / doing rude things

- losing his temper and throwing things.

These correlate well with his teacher's assessment.

He identified his targets as:

- working harder

- helping others

- being polite.

His support was:

- feelings worksheets

- praise the good with low arousal delivery

- break down and allocate time to his assignments

- responsibility in the form of peer tutoring a poor reader.

Self-report in June:

- recognized what was expected

- tried to work hard and be polite

- some tantrums but short lived

- looking forward to High School.

Discussion

Pupil **A** shares some of the characteristics of the Analytics highlighted in the work of Riding and Craig as described by Riding and Rayner (1998). He is described as indulging in fantasies, subject to mood swings, tendency to blame others and lacking in empathy; his behaviours are also typical of the Analytics sampled by Riding and Craig (1998): cruel, a bully, exhibits frustration, displays anger and temper, and is physically aggressive.

At home **A** received too little and inconsistent discipline resulting in uncontrolled behaviour, little recognition for his efforts as his Mum was too busy shouting at him in an effort to control him and little time for love and security due to the shared care arrangements, this is likely to have made **A** feel neglected and ignored, perhaps combining with the Analytic's compartmentalized view of the world to contribute to his rapid mood swings and displays of frustration.

By supporting **A**'s Mum she was able to redress the balance of love, recognition and discipline, also she gained the confidence to expect the same standards from **A**'s father and grandmother. At the final meeting in June Mrs. D. was a much more confident and happy parent, enjoying her relationship with her son and not feeling undermined by **A**'s relations or friends. In school, **A** was more controlled, working harder and gaining recognition for peer tutoring. In the following school year, after 1 term **A** had settled into his High School who reported no behaviour difficulties.

6.5   Case Study B

Subject B	:	boy, 11 years, Year 6
Cognitive Style	:	Analytic
Family Composition	:	2nd youngest of 5 boys, the younger 3 living at home with Mother
Family History	:	Mother has never been married and all five boys have different fathers. The house is often full of strangers, drinking and/or drug taking.
Number of sessions with mother	:	2
Number of sessions with pupil	:	2.

Behaviour at School : Head and Teacher Rating

January School Checklist	June Discussion	January Verbal Report
Approach to Learning • reacts unfavourably to changes in routine and new work • needs constant re-assurance • wants to do things his own way • poor concentration • erratic approach • impatient • untidy • lazy	• received special time and success, concentration still poor but will try discrete pieces of familiar work	• In Residential School following Child Protection Procedures – reported to have responded to the 24-hour curriculum. B is keen to learn.
Behaviour In Class • restless • fidgets • climbs on furniture • throws things • damages things • leaves class • distracts, interferes with others • leads others into trouble • mocks and criticizes others • cannot cooperate with peers • openly abusive and rude to teachers • disobeys instructions • seeks teacher's attention • calls out to teacher.	• still restless and fidgety, can't work with others but usually refrains from interruptive behaviours and mocking; given extra attention so doesn't have to seek it	• Settled in class, still keeps himself separate but gets on with his work

Emotional Development		
• seems miserable and unhappy • immature • poor self-image • cannot describe his problems or feelings • unpredictable in moods • lacks empathy.	• seems less unhappy but still not positive about self; less instances of unhappy but still not positive about self; less instances of unpredictable behaviour	• Appears happier, more even tempered and is enjoying extra curricular experiences. Still can't express feelings is learning to accept praise.
Social Adaptation		
• is aggressive, spiteful and bullies others • prefers own company • is rejected by others and positively avoided.	• doesn't approach others now and keeps his distance	• No aggression or bullying behaviour; plays in football team but otherwise quietly separate.

Family Composition and Background Information

Ms. C. is a single parent with 3 boys living at home, **B** being second youngest. She has 5 boys in all, each one having a different Father, all of which have lived in the family home for short periods but none have taken a parenting role other than to control and chastise the boys. All of the children have (had) Statements of Special Needs for EBD.

Ms. C. regularly drinks to excess either in or out of the house and often leaves the boys to look after themselves. Mother has learning difficulties. **B** at the time of the intervention was At Risk of Permanent Exclusion and was receiving support from:

- Education Welfare Officer

- EBD support in school (1 session weekly)

- EBD support in PRU (9 sessions weekly).

B's behaviour at home:

- argumentative with siblings

- rages followed by sulking

- goes out a lot and comes in when he wants

- physically aggressive

Personality as Described by Mother

Positive :   Negative :

- loving   - bad tempered

- funny   - selfish

- helpful   - unreasonable

- loving   - bad tempered

- funny   - selfish

- helpful   - unreasonable.

Parenting methods and related issues

Ms. C. expects the boys to behave because they are brothers and often they can be a big happy family. She tells them off when they misbehave and shouts or smacks if things get out of hand. If **B** is good she will give him loves and cuddles. She expects **B**'s older brother to set **B** a good example in behaving and in turn for **B** to guide his younger brother; she confirmed this as a family pattern. Ms. C's mother and father sometimes look after **B** and his siblings but often get mixed up with the boys' names.

Recommendations and Outcomes

Session 1: Ms. C. described the kind of situations she found had to deal with which all involved another person, either a sibling or a neighbour's child. Ms. C. found it hard to think beyond the minute details of the situations she was describing and always became preoccupied with who was to blame. It was explained that to be able to relate successfully with others children had to learn the skills of:

- sharing
- taking turns
- waiting
- compromising
- negotiating.

Various ways of practising these skills were discussed in terms of simple household activities such as:

- using the bathroom
- choosing menus
- selecting TV programmes
- playing a game together.

It was suggested that Ms. C. chose the 3 main areas of contention and drew up a rota giving each of her boys a first choice on different days – a method of doing this was supplied.

Ms. C's task of bringing up 3 boys alone was acknowledged, also that the family pattern of an older child bringing up the younger, was often the case in large families; however, it was pointed out that Ms. C's expectations need to be known and made explicit to the boys so that everyone showed a united front. *Getting the Balance Right* (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995, p. 4) and *Working Together* (p. 8) were discussed. Ms. C. identified that **B**'s behaviour was unpredictable, rebellious and out of control and that she realized something had to change but did not know where to begin.

It was agreed that Ms. C's task would not be an easy one but by the next meeting she would:

1. implement the rota as above

2. encourage 'waiting' and 'sharing' by intervening, pointing out what was needed and asking the **B** to 'action replay'.

3. consider her parenting style in terms of love, recognition and discipline.

Session 2:   Ms. C. reported that she had implemented a rota as discussed and that using the bathroom, choosing menus and selecting TV programmes were all less stressful activities. Playing with his siblings was still seen as problematic for **B** and Ms. C. had noticed that **B** 'played up' when she cuddled and cosseted **B**'s younger brother who was aged 7. The issue of sibling rivalry was discussed and advice given with regard to age appropriate responsibility and recognition for **B** also the need to find 5 minutes special time with him each day. With regard to her parenting style, Ms. C. acknowledged that she did not control any of her children, that she loved and spoiled them all, deriving herself much comfort from this, also that she idolized them all and looked to others to take the blame for their misdemeanours.   Focussing back on **B**, Ms. C. recognized that he was spoilt, idolised and uncontrolled and acknowledged that her parenting strategies were reinforcing these things.   She recognized that to redress this balance and provide **B** with what he needed meant a change for the whole family and although she articulated the necessity to provide boundaries, individual recognition and love within bounds, she admitted to the fact that this would be very difficult to achieve.

It was agreed she should begin with lovingly applied discipline and she contracted to:

1. tell her children what she expected in terms of manners, politeness, respect for others and adhering to her requests

2. what the sanctions of not doing the above would be : conveying disapproval ——►time out

3. what the rewards or benefits of doing the above would be : praise and cuddles ——► special treat.

Session 3: Ms. C. did not turn up for this appointment but did send her apologies, she was having to attend another meeting elsewhere with regard to her youngest son, who was displaying severe EBD in school. She was once again ' at loggerheads' with the school and community and apportioning blame for her son's misbehaviour.

B's Perceptions: He sees himself as 'thick' and recognizes that he shuns new work for fear of failure. He is embarrassed that he can't read very well and acknowledged he only likes to do work he knows he can do. He is aware of his tendency to 'explode' but it happens when he feels 'unhappy' at school. He could identify his undesirable behaviour in school as:

z

- lacking self-control and lashing out or being interruptive to others

278

- he also admitted to feeling low self-esteem, having lack of self-worth and feeling unhappy.

These correlate well with his teacher's assessment.

He identified his targets as:

- needing to respond to the help given
- believing what good things the teachers said about him.

His support was:

- daily special time with his teacher
- praising his successes daily, in private.

Self-report in June:

- didn't feel quite so 'thick'
- liked special time with teacher
- quietly enjoyed his successes
- afraid of going to High School.

Discussion

Pupil **B** shares many of the characteristics of an Analytic. **B** is described as being subject to mood swings, solitary, unsociable and lacking in empathy. Reports from home and school suggest he is out of parental control, cruel, a bully to others and one who exhibits frustration, displays extreme sibling rivalry and temper tantrums.

At home, **B** received copious amounts of love, virtually no discipline and total adoration from his Mother. It would seem that the complete lack of boundaries and structure in the home would predispose **B** to rapid mood swings in response to the ever changing standards. Additionally, to receive love and recognition without earning it is likely to make **B** feel loved by his Mother but without the opportunity to gain praise for achievements, as he was not expected to gain any – certainly **B**'s self-esteem was very low and he presented as an unhappy child.

Although Ms. C. made the effort to try to become a stronger influence on her family it is apparent that she just had far too much to cope with and that all of the boys' EBD's were too entrenched to be changed by her alone. Ms. C's learning difficulties and tendency to attribute blame to someone else has meant that **B** has never had to consider if he had made the right choice or reflect upon the effects of his EBD.

With so many risk factors going against **B** it was not surprising that the parenting task was taken away from Ms. C. and **B** was placed in a Residential school. Although missing his Mother he is beginning to respond to the surrogate parenting which is provided, the fair but firm discipline system and the opportunities provided to gain recognition. What is heartening about **B** is the indication that his previous unmet psychological needs can be compensated for in his present environment.

6.6   Case Study C

Subject C	:	boy, 9 years, Year 5.
Cognitive Style	:	Wholist
Family Composition	:	C and his older sister (17 years) live with their parents
Family History	:	C was born after three miscarriages, who were all boys, he was therefore a much awaited baby
Number of sessions with Mother	:	4
Number of sessions with pupil	:	4.

Behaviour at school : Head and Teacher Rating

January School Checklist	June Discussion	January Verbal Report
Approach to Learning • reacts unfavourably to changes in routine • needs constant reassurance • daydreams • wants to do things his way • poor concentration • messy work • lacks motivation • easily distracted	• trying to work harder and is asking sensible questions	• settled into his new class well
Behaviour In Class • restless • fidgets • wanders about • calls out • throws things • distracts others • seeks attention • rude to teacher • answers back • makes asides • disobeys instructions	• still restless but generally does not disrupt the lesson	• still an 'irritant' but biddable and not a major problem
Emotional Development • displays outbursts of temper • has sudden mood swings	• incidents reduced from daily to 1 every 2-3 weeks	• no tantrums
Social Adaptation • is aggressive to others	• no physical aggression, taken an onlooker's role	• tentatively plays with others and doesn't try to control them.

Family Composition and Background Information

C lives with his parents and 17-year-old sister. C was born after his Mother had three miscarriages – all boys. Mr. & Mrs. M. have been married for 18 years and have a happy, financially stable home. C's sister is jealous of him and gives her Mother a "hard time". Mr. M's own upbringing was impoverished so it is important to him to give his children what he never had; he works hard on permanent night shifts and measures the family's success on material things.

C's behaviour at home:

- short attention span
- low tolerance level
- if restrained lashes out
- when in a temper, swears and throws things
- not a good sleeper or eater
- prefers helping at a friend's farm to being at home.

Personality as described by mother:

Positive: Negative:

- affectionate   - changes friends often

- loving   - aggressive

- immature   - violent.

Parenting methods and related issues

Mrs. M. has the majority of the parenting tasks to perform as Mr. M. works long, unsociable hours. They always go out for Sunday lunch as a family but other than that Mr. M. does not have much contact with his wife or children. Mr. M. buys both children whatever they want including a very expensive quad bike for **C** which he rarely made time to take him out on. Mr. M. spoils **C** partially because of his own childhood deprivation and partially because he was a long awaited son. He can see no wrong in anything **C** does and doesn't chastise him.

Mrs. M. feels let down by her husband's lack of support to her and when **C** misbehaves she finds herself shouting, telling **C** off, drags incidents up from the past and "goes on" about them. Her behaviour has no effect on **C** whose behaviour worsens. **C** and his parents had previously been to 2 sessions at the Child and Family Clinic, who determined that 'C's behaviour was due to frustration resulting in verbal and physical aggression; **C** was prescribed antidepressants for 1 month, which calmed him at the time but the effect ceased when the tablets

were withdrawn. Mrs. M. did not want C to have any further medication and sought support from these sessions.

Recommendations and Outcomes

It was agreed that Mrs. M. needed to let her husband know that she needed to feel supported, so she contracted to ask him to read pages 3-8 of the booklet which introduces the needs of children, managing behaviour and working together.

Secondly it was recognised that a daily routine for bedtime, breakfast and social time needed to be established. The use of logical consequences was discussed also giving warnings when a change was to occur, to better prepare C for his mother's requests.

Session 2: Mrs. M. was pleased to report that her husband had looked at the recommended sections of the booklet with her and said he hadn't realized C's behaviour was so bad and could be made worse by being spoiled and idolized. Mrs. M. feels more supported and has had the strength not to get dragged into long-winded arguments. She has tried to give C some responsibilities : getting his pyjamas, going to bed on time and eating breakfast. She has talked to C about his behaviours which he acknowledges are undesirable, he also recognizes that his aggression is counterproductive to keeping friends. Mrs. M. believes that C's tantrums are a way of jettisoning his underlying problems.

It was agreed that if he had an outburst she did not talk to him until it was over and he had recovered enough composure to stop, look at Mum and listen. She agreed to go over the behaviour and discuss what **C** could have done instead – alternatives were practised.

Session 3: Unsettling family events had upset the family of late : Grandfather very ill and the family pet dog had died at age 13 years. **C** had only 1 outburst in 6 weeks and was generally more passive, perhaps induced by his sadness at losing his pet which had been with him all his life. Mrs. M. discussed more about logical consequences and was helped to think of a range of rewards and sanctions. Age appropriate responsibility was discussed and Mrs. M. agreed to teach **C** how to make a sandwich and cheese on toast.

Session 4: Mrs. M. noted that **C** is much more biddable and as a result of the calmer mood she has been able to spend more time talking to him. Now that tantrums were no longer an issue she had noticed that **C** was emotionally flat and didn't smile much; also his visits to the farm were becoming more frequent and **C**'s attachment to the farmer was intensifying.

The researcher had held some 1:1 sessions with **C** in between sessions 3 and 4 and it transpired that **C** said he hated his Dad as he was never there. This view was shared with Mrs. M. who stated that emotionally Mr. M. did neglect **C**, although he thought he was doing well for the family. Mrs. M. agreed to discuss **C**'s need for special time with his Dad and for him to take on a more active role in interesting himself in **C**'s achievements and misdemeanours. Several weeks after this meeting Mrs. M. telephoned to say she wouldn't need any further

sessions and that she and Mr. M. were now working together to give their children what they had unwittingly neglected to give.

C's Perceptions

Through some Personal Construct Techniques **C** revealed that he felt his father didn't like him and his sister bullied him; he saw himself as a grieving person except for a Sunday when he sees his Dad.

He could identify his undesirable behaviour in school as:

- getting angry
- losing his temper
- hitting out
- disrupting lessons.

These correlate well with his teacher's assessment.

He identified his targets as:

- telling a teacher if someone was 'bugging' him
- not to shout out in class

- have confidence that the teacher would give him work he could attempt.

His support was:

- self-control monitoring and discussion with a mentor
- feelings work
- special time with his teacher.

Self-report in June:

- felt happier
- saw more of his Dad which he liked
- not in as much trouble
- looking forward to a new start with a new teacher who was strict so he would have to be good.

Discussion

Pupil **C** shares many of the characteristics associated with a Wholist : sociable, likeable yet immature. His behaviours are in accord with those described in Riding and Rayner (1998, p. 175) disruptive, verbally and physically aggressive, exhibiting frustration. It is likely that too little control at home interacted with **C**'s natural inclination to lack self-control with the

resultant out of control behaviours. Once some structure was put in place at home and father took on a more active role C's tantrums lessened. Lack of recognition from Mr. M. is likely to have led to C feeling ignored and even disliked by him; with a Wholist's global view of the world it is speculated that C's feelings were overwhelmed with grief and he was unable to see others' behaviour towards him; as his father spent more time with him so this veil lifted leading to a happier child.

Mrs. M. had never been happy that C had been prescribed antidepressants but it is easy to see why from a medical perspective treating the symptoms was the preferred option. By changing the balance of recognition and discipline a more long-term solution to C's problems has hopefully been found.

In the January following this work C had settled into his new class with "the strict" teacher, and although still restless and an "irritant" C was managing well.

6.7   Case Study D

Subject D   :   boy, 9 years, Year 5

Cognitive Style   :   Analytic

Family Composition   :   Mother, Mother's boyfriend, sister aged 11.

Family History   :   Mrs. P. was unmarried when she had her daughter but briefly married when she had **D**. She remarried when **D** was 18 months old and the stepfather

brought **D** up as his own. 15 months ago family violence was a frequent occurrence. Mr. And

Mrs. P. separated, got back together, then divorced. **C** has a new surrogate father in Mrs. P's

boyfriend.

Number of sessions with mother   :   3

Number of sessions with pupil   :   3.

Behaviour at School : Head and Teacher Rating

January School Checklist	June Discussion	January Verbal Report
Approach to Learning • afraid to begin new tasks • fussy about unimportant things • wants to do things his own way • poor concentration • erratic approach • impatient • disorganized • distractible	• work has been differentiated and he will try discrete tasks	• partial timetable has been given at a Pupil Referral Unit to give **D** special time and self-esteem work
Behaviour in Class • restless • fidgets • wanders about • leaves class • throws things • calls out • acts the fool • distracts others	• still fidgets and moves about but will take turns and work with peers	• earning treats in the PRU for agreed behaviour in school

• leads others into trouble • mocks and criticises • can't cooperate with peers • disobeys instructions • answers back • makes asides • calls out		
Emotional Development • displays outbursts of temper • seems miserable and unhappy • seems insecure and fearful • cannot describe problems or feelings • has sudden mood swings	• still having tantrums but recovers more quickly	• more positive about school and PRU • reduction in outbursts • cannot describe problems or feelings
Social Adaptation • aggressive and spiteful bullies others • quarrelsome • cannot keep a friend. • poor self-image	• no aggression to boys but has taunted girls.	• aggression is now verbal not physical.

Family Composition and Background Information

D lives with his elder sister, mother and her boyfriend of only 2 months. Mr. P. is **D**'s

stepfather but **D** has never met his natural father therefore refers to Mr. P. as Dad. Marital

discord had been present for several years which coincided with **D**'s EBD. Mr. P. was violent

to his wife and **D** has witnessed many serious incidents often with his mother being taken away

in an ambulance or his Dad being taken away by the Police. **D** has no regular arrangements to see his Dad and is always concerned about when and where the next visit will take place. Also, when Mr. P. does see **D** he openly criticises Mrs. P. and tries to turn **D** away from her.

D's behaviour at home:

- swears at Mum if he doesn't want to do something
- throws / bangs things
- runs off and hides (where he can be found)
- hits his sister
- sulks and walks away.

Personality as described by mother

Positive :   Negative :

- lovable
  - no feelings for anyone
  - short fuse
  - distractible
  - easily bored
  - dwells on small things and gets them out of proportion
  - moody.

Parenting methods and related issues

Mrs. P. reported that she and Mr. P. always disagreed on rules, routines and rewards and that she felt as though she was fighting a lone battle in bringing up her children. She felt totally unsupported when she was married and worn down by the continual fights and arguments. Responses to **D**'s misbehaviours were mainly shouting at him or ignoring him; house rules were unclear and Mum had given up trying "to do anything with him". Mrs. P's boyfriend felt sorry for **D** but being new to the home took no part in the discipline, he spoiled **D** with lots of sweets and videos which **D** spent most of his free time watching alone in his room.

Recommendations and Outcomes

Session 1: It was decided that as Mrs. P. felt worn down she should begin simply with not joining **D**'s outbursts by shouting, instead waiting for him to calm down before dealing with the misbehaviour. It was also agreed that basic rules and routines would help **D** to find life more predictable. Methods of introducing these were discussed, also ways of bringing **D** more into the family instead of him spending so much time alone.

Session 2: One month later, **D** was enjoying a better relationship at home and visits to his Dad were planned in advance. Although Mrs. P's boyfriend did not lead the discipline in the house he backed up what **D**'s Mum was saying. Mrs. P. spent special time with **D** each day and he

had begun to express his fears, which are related to the acts of violence he has witnessed; he is now becoming preoccupied with violent events in the world.

Individual work with **D** revealed he was trying to be tough in the world as he sees it, so it was discussed with Mrs. P. that she would actively have to draw to his attention more pleasant memories and experiences. It was agreed that the school would not discuss any misbehaviours at the end of the day in front of **D** and Mrs. P. so they could begin the evening happily, that Mrs. P. would give early warnings for tea, bedtime etc., that she would celebrate small improvements and try logical consequences which had been practised.

Session 3: Mrs. P. reported that life at home with **D** was much improved although he still reacts by protesting; the use of logical consequences was generally working well. **D** felt supported by his Mum's boyfriend's kindness and the fact that they present a united front. **D** still had fears and worries regarding acts of violence and had been referred to the Child and Family Unit for counselling sessions. It was agreed that it would be best to cease these sessions in case too much advice became confusing; Mrs. P. agreed that the insights gained from these meetings could be passed onto **D**'s new worker.

D's Perceptions

D confessed that he often feels uneasy but found it difficult to reflect on or discuss his feelings with anyone. He is confused about his family and hates attention being drawn to him

in class even though he attention seeks. He is unable to accept responsibility for his behaviour and always blames someone or something else.

He could identify his undesirable behaviour in school as:

- being loud

- disruptive

- attention seeking, but he could not agree with his teachers' views that he was hurtful and un-kind to his peers

He identified his targets as:

- walking away from peer quarrels

- putting his hand up to ask questions

- to try to complete discrete work tasks.

His support was:

- rewards and sanctions

- low arousal praise

- special time with a teaching assistant.

Self report in June:

- still felt worried but less so

- enjoying family life more

- he had taken control of when and where he should meet his Dad

- talked more positively about school experiences especially trips out.

Discussion

D's behaviour traits correlate well with the outcomes of the study presented by Riding and Rayner (1998, pp. 174-175). He presents with behaviours associated with an Analytic : being immature, moody, solitary, tending to blame others and lacking in empathy; similarly his behaviour problems are those similar to other Analytics: displays of anger, physical and verbal aggression, cruelty and bullying. It is likely that the lack of external structure in the family home interacted with **D**'s style to produce his solitary, controlling manner with outbursts of some intensity; also being virtually ignored at home may have increased his resentment and withdrawing behaviour. Being subjected to family violence and then unsureness about when he might see his Dad are conditions likely to induce EBD and as it is known that boys react less favourably to loss, this will have further compounded **D**'s problems.

Once Mrs. P. provided some certainties, paid **D** more attention and secured the support of her partner, **D**'s behaviour at home and school lessened in frequency, intensity and duration.

As an Analytic is prone to focus on details and get things out of proportion it is no surprise that **D** generalized his real fears to a morbid preoccupation with violent acts in the world; fortunately the latter was to be addressed by a worker experienced in this area.

6.8   Case Study E

Subject E   :   boy, 11 years, Year 6

Cognitive Style   :   Wholist

Family Composition :   Mum, Dad, Brother 14 years, Sister 15 years.

Family History   :   Mr. and Mrs. W. have been married for 17 years, are financially stable and have a family holiday each year. Mrs. W. described them as a happy family with close attachments to maternal grandparents. Mrs. W. suffers from a chronic condition and has to spend a week in hospital every six months or so – this has endured for 7 years. When Mum is away **E**'s grandparents look after the family E being a particular favourite of theirs.

Number of sessions with mother   :   4

Number of sessions with pupil   :   4.

Behaviour at School : Head and Teacher Rating

January School Checklist	June Discussion	January Verbal Report
Approach to Learning • wants to go about things his own way • concentration poor • slapdash work • impulsive • untidy • distractible	• still erratic and impulsive but listens to teacher and is working better	• responded to new school and differentiated curriculum
Behaviour in Class • restless • fidgets • gets out of seat • wanders about • leaves class • throws things • calls out • damages property • distracts others • interferes with others • plays the fool • encourages others to misbehave • mocks others efforts • can't get on with peers • disobeys instructions • seeks attention • answers back • makes asides • calls out	• less restless and less frequent impulsive behaviour • still calls out, makes funny noises • occasional outbursts of climbing on furniture and throwing things • still acts the fool • trying hard to be a friend generally compliant with teacher but if he has an outburst all behaviours occur	• some impulsive behaviours – calling out, acting the fool • no acting out
Emotional Development • poor self-image • unpredictable outbursts	• self-image improving	• 1:1 self-esteem work is being provided

Social Adaptation		
• verbally aggressive to peers • avoided in play or class activities • seeks the company of younger pupils • is unduly bossy • cannot keep a friend • gets others into trouble	• can still be verbally and physically aggressive but less often • trying hard to be accepted by his peers	• moves from one group of peers to another but no peer quarrels; finding his ground.

Family Composition and Background Information

Mrs. W. described the family as close, happy and caring. There was no marital discord nor adverse family circumstance. The wider family were frequent visitors to the home and all were said to have a close and loving relationship. Time was made for family meals, outings, get togethers and holidays.

E's behaviour at home:

- slams and bangs things

- shouts angrily

- violent

- difficulty making friends – 1 close friend who is 2 years younger

- delays going to school.

These behaviours have been evident since the Infant class but have escalated during the last 2 years.

Personality as described by mother :

Positive :   Negative :

- loving to Mother, Dad and Nanna   - reacts explosively to any event.

- kind

- sensitive to Mum's needs

- clingy to Mum.

Parenting methods and related issues

Mrs. W. asserted that the family had standards of behaviour, that she and her husband were on the same wavelength and that discipline was important. She explained that as she expected E to behave appropriately she just shouted at him if he misbehaved, until he stopped, or until she sanctioned him; sanctions included sending to bed, stopping treats, pocket money or grounding him. Mrs. W. also added that she and her husband sometimes negotiated with E and that once a problem was over or sanctioned, it was never referred to again.

Recommendations and Outcomes

Session 1: During the initial meeting Mrs. W. came to realize that **E** was in fact very attention needing and could not bear to share attention being clingy to her and his Nanna. She re-called that his first day at school was supported by the whole family and that during the Infants he could not mix or share. He would react to not having the Teacher's exclusive attention by pushing the other children away and attention seeking from the Teacher, going into an impulsive reaction if he couldn't have his own way. It was agreed that Mum should 'catch him being good' praise the good and where possible ignore the misbehaviour; if this was not possible the behaviour should be discussed with **E** after the event and why it was inappropriate discussed.

Session 2: Mrs. W. had been able to carry out the new strategies and had stopped habitually shouting. She explained what **E** might have done instead of reacting the way he had and she had given some thought to logical consequences, which were discussed further. Owing to E's close relationship with his Mum it was decided that if he was rude and verbally aggressive, Mrs. W. should give him "I" messages to let him know how his behaviour made her feel.

Session 3: Mrs. W. was pleased to report demonstrably better behaviour at home and school. She continued to practise "I" messages and logical consequences.

Session 4: E is described as a lot calmer at home, not "flying off the handle" as much. He had gained an Easter Egg in school and she had received 2 good 'phone calls about his behaviour. Mrs. W. said she felt less apprehensive about going into school now E was gaining some successes. "I" messages had been a great help and Mr. and Mrs. W. believed that making E discuss his misbehaviours was helping him to be more controlled.

E's Perceptions

E recognized that his behaviour had to change and that he had adopted a mantra : "I'm going to try to work hard and do what I am told"; he indicated he didn't like being bad and in trouble but that it just happened before he could think. He identified his undesirable behaviour in school as:

- making rude signs
- shouting out
- kicking tables
- not doing as he was asked
- fighting;

he could not view his work habits in the same way as his teachers and felt he was quite good at sitting still, working hard, listening and trying hard to get a star.

He identified his targets as:

- putting his hand up if he couldn't do his work

- walking away from peer quarrels

- doing as his teacher asked to be the same as the others.

His support was:

- 1:1 self-esteem work with a teaching assistant

- catch him being good in class

- self-control monitoring sheets to be discussed with a mentor.

Self-report in June:

- pleased with his improved report card

- surprised that he can win prizes and points

- happy to come to school.

Discussion

E's ebullient but immature behaviour is typical of that described for a Wholist by Riding and Rayner (1998). Also thought typical for this Style is his continually disruptive,

frustrated outbursts and his unpredictable bouts of verbal and physical aggression without malice. As Wholists are prone to lack self-control the parenting practice of external control and sanctions but no discussion after of **E**'s responsibility, is likely to have contributed to a deepening lack of self-control. By introducing logical consequences and "I" messages Mr. and Mrs. W. began to see a calmer, less impulsive son. The closeness of a loving family plus the extra attention from his grandparents when Mrs. W. had to go into hospital, is likely to have made **E** feel over recognized and overdependent on being loved; this in turn may have been responsible for his attention seeking, clingy behaviour. By rewarding him for being good for just ordinary things **E**'s attention seeking behaviour diminished at home and in school.

6.9   Summary of Case Studies

Although these individual studies represent only a pioneering investigation into the relationship between cognitive style, behaviour characteristics and parenting methods the enquiry has been both interesting and cautiously revealing. The behaviours of the Wholists in both school and at home differed in kind from that of the Analytics.

The Wholists were seen to be:

- sociable

- likeable

- immature

whereas the Analytics were seen to be:

- lacking in empathy

- unsociable

- solitary

- tending to blame others.

The EBD of the Wholists also manifested itself in different ways from the Analytics:
Wholists generally being:

- disruptive

- verbally aggressive

- physically aggressive

- prone to displays of frustration.,

By contrast the behaviours of the Analytics tended to be:

- displays of anger / tantrums

- bullying / physically aggressive

- cruel

- frustrated rages.

Although such a small sample, this was chosen quite arbitrarily by the teachers who had no
knowledge of the pupils' cognitive style or any deep understanding of the parenting style; yet

these studies lend some verification to the model of deficient parenting shown in Figure 6.2 (page 256). Figure 6.3 (page 257) shows what might happen if the balance of parental love, recognition and discipline was wrong. Whilst it could be argued that some of the pupils' EBD in school could be related to school factors, adjustment to the balance of love, recognition and discipline by the parents resulted in improved behaviour in all cases, also to happier people. Indicating that parenting style and cognitive style characteristic can interact – in the case of EBD the effect is likely to magnify the individual's characteristics.

Although the intervention in these studies was focussed primarily on supporting the parents, intervention with the teachers was minimal; suggested changes in teacher behaviour were threefold depending on the cognitive style of the child : for the Wholists public praise and "I" messages were increased, tasks were shortened and feedback frequent. For the Analytics, praise and "I" messages were discrete and personal responsibility for work done was given with an agreed reward privately bestowed.

It is acknowledged that the skills of the researcher and the very fact that all individuals directly concerned with the children studied received support, may be responsible for any observed changes; however, it is proposed that these skills are basic counselling and listening skills which can be conveyed to teachers via in service training; also that the guidelines in *Better Behaviour* are clear enough to follow as a model for conducting interviews. Practical experience has shown that teachers are not trained in listening and communication skills nor do they feel confident to work with parents; however, there seems such hope in the insights

gained from Cognitive Style studies and knowledge accrued on the effects of parenting that it seems inconceivable that future teacher training should not include these things so that the two most important influences in a child's life : home and school, can better use their time spent together and make partnership with parents a reality.

The complexity of causes of EBD are also acknowledged and the fact that some families have more to contend with than others clearly affects progress made when accepting support. *The Professional's Guide to the Use of Better Behaviour* (Fairhurst and Riding, 1995b) acknowledges this and gives advice on how to support parents who are facing adverse circumstances.

Factors such as parents' values, attributions and insight are acknowledged as important variables in determining parenting style, but it is contested by the use of *Better Behaviour* these things can be discussed and if necessary challenged; it is suggested that the earlier in a pupils' school career this occurs, the more beneficial such a task would become.

CHAPTER SEVEN – CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

7.1   Limitations of the Studies

Study 1 began with a survey of one County's primary schools to ascertain their practices in relation to liaising with parents with respect to pupils' work and behaviour. Further information was requested on perceived difficulties in collaborating with parents whose children have EBD and suggestions for alleviating any such difficulties. The response rate was low at 30% and it can only be speculated upon why this was the case.

On reflection reply paid envelopes would have been likely to have generated a much higher return; additionally, a direct question with a yes/no answer, asking if EBD was a key issue in the schools surveyed would have given an indication of the size of the problem. Although some schools identified themselves on their return form, there was no requirement to do so as it was felt this may have been threatening; however this information would have been valuable for future planning.

One of the aims of conducting a large scale survey was to elicit good practice, in addition to difficulties, in schools liaising with parents whose children have EBD. The replies however showed that there was little difference in how schools communicate with parents about either work or behaviour; there was also little difference between the replies from the schools, suggesting practices are standard.

The information gleaned therefore was not illuminating. Given the complexity of establishing and maintaining good relationships between home and school the results of the survey only serve to highlight that detailed information is needed from individual schools. For future work it would be more fruitful to choose a few schools where EBD was known to be an issue and to use semi structured interviews to elicit information. It would also be useful to find out the views of parents whose children have needed support due to EBD, as has been done by Roffey (2002) and of the child as advocated by Travell (1999).

A second aspect to Study 1 considered the characteristics of 13 pupils referred to the author owing to their presenting behaviour problems; on the basis of these problem behaviours and drawing on the literature on childhood behaviour problems, the booklet : *Better Behaviour* was drafted and trialled with parents.

Over a 3 month period, 25 pupils with long standing EBD and their parents, were supported by a professional who used *Better Behaviour* as the basis for their meetings with the parent. There were many positive outcomes from this latter aspect of Study 1: improved behaviour, more confident parents, improved relationships between pupil and teacher, parent and child. However, there were several variables which could have influenced the outcomes and they were not controlled, also data collection was not uniform and the semi-structured interview schedules were too long. To have improved upon this the following amendments would have proved useful:

- The semi-structured interview Schedules asked for too much biographical data, some of which was not used.

- The interview and evaluation sheets for the pupils needed to take account of their developmental stage and be more pupil friendly.

- The questions for the school and the parents on their views of causes and solutions to EBD yielded little data; similarly, the questions on the evaluation forms pertaining to why change has/has not occurred and what needs to be done were not answered; in retrospect too many questions asked the respondents to speculate, which was probably too big a task and should not have been included.

- A form for teachers to record whether access to *Better Behaviour* had added to their understanding of the pupils' EBD and how this may have influenced their interaction with them would have been useful.

- A form for the professionals to record the focus of each meeting would have provided information on what particular advice was useful.

- Further analysis of the data by 'profession' and 'outcome', would have given an indication of the abilities of each professional group in this study to act as a facilitator for parents.

- Identification of the key workers' training in listening, helping and communication skills would have been useful, to establish if these are key influences; also it would have been desirable to have asked for feedback on any perceived barriers to liaising with the parents.

- Grading the pupils' EBD pre- and post-intervention and after a period of time would have made this study more substantive.

In Study 2, following a pilot study, 189, 5-6 year old pupils from 4 schools were rated under 6 aspects of behaviour and 2 matched groups formed. The parents of one group were sent a copy of *Better Behaviour* and prompted to refer to it via a series of letters home. After 2 months the pupils' behaviour was re-rated. The data was analysed in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics also qualitative data was presented in respect of parental comments.

The Behaviour Checklist used in Study 2 was very detailed thus giving a range of Dependent Variables; as the subjects under scrutiny were matched and the sample relatively small, it was considered prudent to use the difference between the PRE and POST scores and test these together with the Independent Variables, using ANOVA. However, Regression Analysis is likely to have been a more sensitive test by using the pre-test data to check the comparison of the groups to allow comparison of the post-test data; a further advantage of regression analysis is that the results are presented in graphic format. Although School was not considered in this Study to be a Dependent Variable, the results clearly show that it was a major influence. The use of Regression Analysis would have allowed comparison of Treatment in the different schools.

The range of scores highlighted by the Behaviour Checklist was however small, therefore an alternative simpler rating scale may have been adequate for the purposes of this Study and in fact this was the preferred option for Study 3.

In addition to School being highlighted by the ANOVAs as a main effect, the percentage of parental questionnaires received was markedly lower in one of the four schools studied, thus although criteria were used to match schools on their similarities, there are differences which can influence outcomes. Given what has been learned by the Author about the importance of schools in relation to EBD, home-school relationships and parental readiness to accept support, a future study on partnership would have to identify the Dependent Variables within the school.

Where there were significant effects of the Treatment on the pupils' EBD, a follow up rating would have been desirable to establish whether the improvements were maintained or not; a follow up letter to the parents of the Treatment group would have provided information on whether or not parents were consulting *Better Behaviour* and using the advice with their children where appropriate.

It was an ambitious project to try to evaluate whether a home based intervention would positively influence EBD in the classroom. The schools were deemed to be similar in many respects but subtle differences which influenced outcomes were not controlled for. Despite extrapolating findings from clinical practice (for example,

Kazdin, 1995 and Sutton, 1999) which could be transposed into criteria that would offer the best chance of success, outcomes of this study show the extreme difficulty in detecting the effects of the treatment, given the size of the effects which other variables had on this.

There were inherent difficulties in the rating of EBD by the teachers, as "maladjustment" is in the eye of the beholder (Jones, 2003). In School 2 of this study, the pre-rating of behaviour was markedly lower than the other three schools, the degree of improvement was less and the parental responses were lower in this school.

The range of interpretations of the data is wide and on reflection it would seem that the questions which arose from the data can only be addressed in more in-depth studies, given the multiplicity of factors which determine behaviour change. The use of a quasi-experimental design may have been useful in studying outcomes but, it is clear that a methodology which could have studied processes would have been more appropriate.

Sharp and Davids (2003) come to similar conclusions having tried to evaluate the effectiveness of an early intervention programme to change behaviour in the classroom.

Study 3 aimed to investigate the relationship between cognitive style, home background, gender and behaviour in a sample of mainstream primary school pupils. A simple rating schedule was used, influenced by the outcomes of Study 2. 'Reading' was included in the latter out of interest, as other studies on cognitive style have found a relationship between style and reading attainment; although not a focus of this research, it is known that academic success is related to good behaviour, conversely, that failure leads to poor motivation which is related to EBD and disaffection. The results of the relationship between reading and cognitive style in the sample of pupils for Study 3 proved to be at variance with those from Riding and Mathias (1991) studying 11 year olds and, unpublished data from 42 junior school pupils tested on a variety of reading measures. Clearly, if further work is undertaken, the type of reading test and what it measures needs to be considered, also hypotheses tested about what kind of reading is likely to be related to the cognitive style of individuals; for example Wholists may be better at reading for meaning, whereas Analytics may be adept at word reading.

Study 4 focussed on 5 pupils' EBD and the strategies their parents used to manage their children. *Better Behaviour* was used as the basis to structure meetings between the Author and the pupils' parents with the aim of helping the parents to adopt an authoritative parenting style thereby reducing their child's' EBD at home and in school. The type of teacher intervention for supporting pupils of the Wholist, or Analytic style was also considered.

Possible weaknesses of this study are that different teachers rated the pupils'
behaviour over the 12 month period of monitoring the pupils' EBD; however, the semi-
structured interviews revealed that teachers are fairly consistent about what they base
their judgements upon. The school checklist was prescribed and a 2 point rating scale
raised the possibility of a judgement being wrong if it was borderline; however, the
teachers were used to this instrument thus its use can be justified. The major caution of
the findings of Study 4 is that the sample was so small, thus the outcomes should serve
only to prompt further study, not to make wide-ranging assertions.

7.2   Summary of Findings

This research set out to consider the major variables which contribute to the causes of
and solutions to Emotional and Behavioural problems in mainstream primary school pupils;
the review of these variables was set in the context of historical and theoretical perspectives of
EBD, whilst taking account of the recently researched variable of cognitive style. Past and pre-
sent educational legislation promotes the notion of partnership with parents, whilst research has
highlighted the flaws of early efforts to make this a reality, the development of *Better
Behaviour* is felt to be a positive step to overcoming the barriers that may prevent effective
home-school working in relation to pupils with EBD.

Much is now known about the origins of EBD and it is commonly held that its genesis is multifactorial, likely to be complex interactions of factors within the home, the school and the child (Charlton and George 1993; Farrington, 1995; Smith, 1995).

This research has looked into the three main aspects noted above and its findings support the view that the causes of EBD are complex; this can be represented in the tentative model in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1   *A MULTIFACTORIAL MODEL OF PROBLEM BEHAVIOUR*
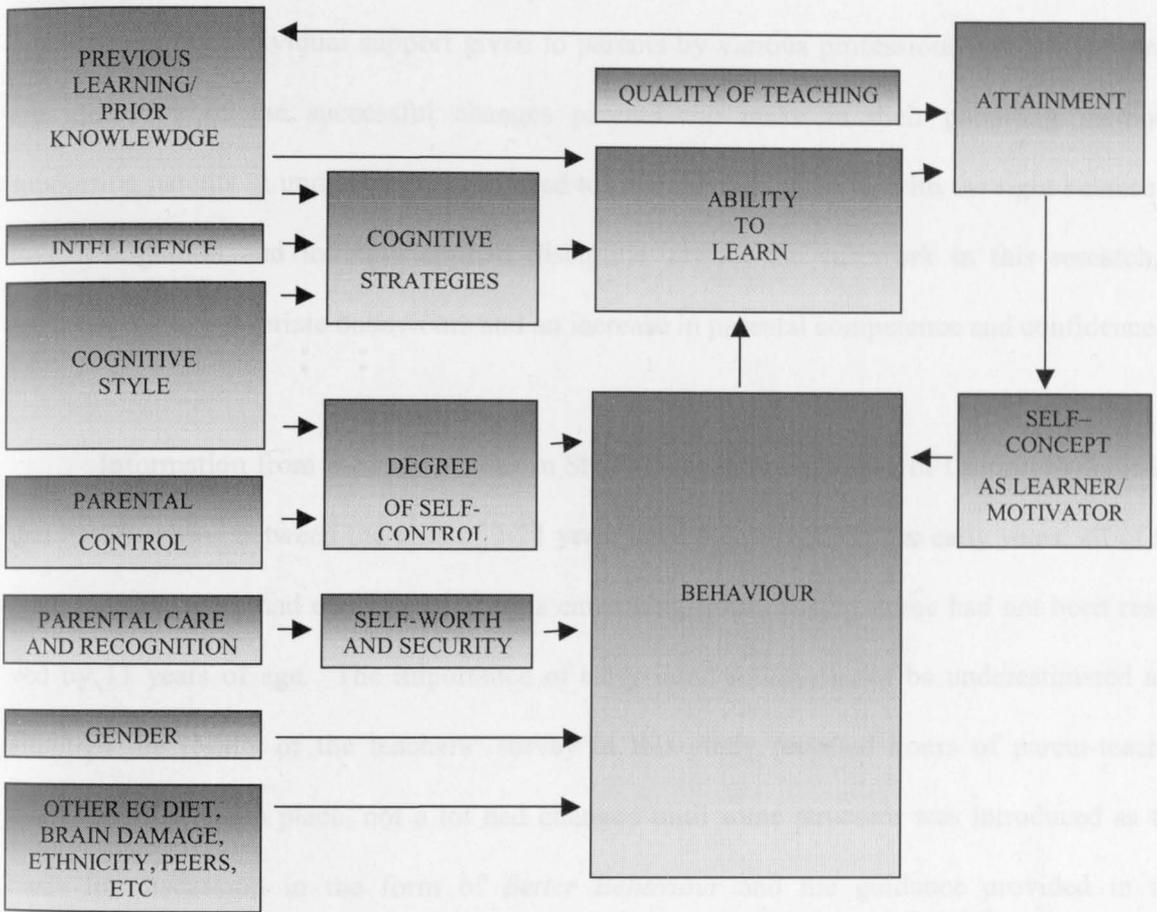
For such a complex problem, complex solutions can be the only way forward; similarly, the complexity of operationalising any hypothesised solutions is not underestimated; as Davie (1986) remarked, understanding a multifactorial view to EBD and responding to it, will have substantial implications for professional training and cooperation between parents and professionals. Aspects of this research have elicited various concerns of teachers, parents and

pupils and has gone some way to suggesting how they may be alleviated. Jones and Lock (1993) advocated ways of enabling parents to be active in the development of their children, the outcomes of the individual support given to parents by various professionals in this research, are indicative of the successful changes parents can make in their parenting methods; supporting parents in understanding the need to provide their children with the right balance of love, recognition and lovingly applied discipline saw in the casework in this research, a reduction in inappropriate behaviours and an increase in parental competence and confidence.

Information from the case studies in Study 1 supports the views of Chazan et al (1994) that EBDs arising between the ages of 7-11 years have their origins in the early years, all of the pupils in this study had enduring problems emanating from infancy, some had not been resolved by 11 years of age. The importance of early intervention cannot be underestimated and although the results of the teachers' survey in this study revealed hours of parent-teacher discussion had taken place, not a lot had changed until some structure was introduced as the basis for discussion in the form of *Better Behaviour* and the guidance provided in the *Professionals' Guide*. Although it is acknowledged that further training will be necessary to better equip teachers in the areas of listening and communication, it is asserted that it would be well worth the time and resources to make those hours spent in discussions productive, and guard against patterns of behaviour being set in the primary years and persisting to adolescence (Graham and Rutter, 1993; Chazan et al, 1994).

The relationship between family factors, parenting strategies and problem behaviour was clearly shown in Study 1 which is in accord with the views of Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (1986) and it is likely that the interactional patterns of the parent-child behaviour was both destructive to the child's social emotional development (Rutter and Giller, 1983) and that the learned interactional styles were being replicated in the classroom (Caspi et al, 1990); by empowering the parents to change their habitual ways of responding the pupils were able to behave in more appropriate ways in school.

The teachers who volunteered to take part in this study increased their knowledge of child development and took heed of the child's needs thereby changing their own intervention which included improving communication and their relationship with the child. This is considered crucial to the success of any intervention (Cole et al, 1998) and highlights the importance of the quality of the relationships between parent-child, teacher-pupil.

In study 2 it was encouraging to note that there was a highly significant improvement in the treatment group in academic and social behaviour, with the intervention being particularly beneficial to boys who were rated lower than the girls prior to the intervention. Boys are potentially a very vulnerable group with regard to EBD, for example, they are known to be more vulnerable to family stress, they are more reactive, boys who show antisocial behaviour in infancy are likely to develop more serious EBD in the primary school which in turn may lead to delinquency and eventual crime (Richman et al, 1982; Loeber and Dishion, 1983; Campbell,

1990); the indications are that the use of *Better Behaviour* can contribute towards preventing this downward spiral – however, the support to parents in using it is crucial (Topping, 1986).

It is known that teachers' training provides minimal skill development needed for working with parents (Bastiani, 1993; Bovair, 1994); teachers in this research were indeed reluctant to work in a 1:1 situation with the parents whose children had EBD expressing lack of confidence and skills. Munn (1993) however, stressed that schools in which children do well academically and socially are characterized by home-school relations which go beyond the legal requirements. In considering the lack of overall significant findings in Study 2, although the use of *Better Behaviour* as a resource appears beneficial, merely sending the booklets to parents without any personal support would seem to be insufficient for sustained change to occur. Two of the four schools in the study contributed to producing a very highly significant main effect of school, whilst comparing schools was not an aim of the study, this result reinforces as Rutter et al (1979) have shown, that schools can make a difference and where good home-school relationships exist helping parents to help their children can have beneficial effects on classroom behaviour.

As expected, the teachers in Study 2 found aggressive behaviours to be confined to only a few pupils and their concern focussed on a range of frequent, low level misbehaviours which interrupted the teaching/learning situation, points highlighted in the Elton Report (DES, 1989).

It only takes a few pupils misbehaving to have a disruptive effect on the learning performance of the whole class; whilst the model presented in Figure 7.1 highlights the range of factors which can interact and contribute to problem behaviour, further insight into within child factors is important. The variable of Cognitive Style was considered in Study 3. Several previous studies have found that the behaviour of Wholists in school is worse than that of Analytics: Riding and Burton (1998) studied two cohorts of 14-16 year-old pupils in secondary schools; Rayner and Riding (1996) studied pupils attending a Truancy Unit; Riding and Craig (1998) studied the style characteristics of boys aged 10-18 years of age in Residential Special Schools. All of the above produced significant results to support the view that Wholists are less well behaved than Analytics and that Wholist boys are the most problematic.

The results of Study 3 add to previous knowledge and show that the pattern found in older pupils also applies in mainstream primary school pupils. Furthermore, a relationship was found between gender and home background and a highly significant relationship between home background and classroom behaviour, as found in other studies (e.g. Charlton and George, 1993, pp. 32-36).

As stated above, boys are known to be a particularly vulnerable group of pupils, what this study adds to that knowledge is that boys from home backgrounds where parenting is inadequate and who are wholists, are likely to be most at risk of developing lack of self-control and an inability to recognize acceptable behaviour limits. These findings support the speculation that Home Background and Cognitive Style interact in their effect on behaviour.

A further finding in the studies of residential Special School pupils by Riding and Craig (1998 and 1999) was that the Wholists tended to manifest their misbehaviour through disruption while Analytics were more withdrawn and physically aggressive; although the number of case studies in Study 4 of this research was small (5 cases) the indications are that behaviour varies with style in the 'normal' setting. The behaviours of the Wholists was seen to be disruptive, verbally aggressive, physically aggressive and prone to displays of frustration; by contrast, the behaviours of the Analytics tended to be displays of anger, bullying, cruelty, frustrated rages; these findings mirror those found by Riding and Craig (1998) lending more support to the existence of a relationship between cognitive style, behaviour and parenting methods. All of the mothers in Study 4 of this research admitted to their children being out of their control and as with the parents in Study 1, dealt with misbehaviour negatively ; smacking, shouting, empty threats or giving in. During the period of intervention, four of the five mothers demonstrated the ability to change the way they habitually responded to their children and developed positive strategies based on the advice in *Better Behaviour* and provided the right balance of love, recognition and discipline, thereby developing an authoritative style of parenting as recommended by Gross (1989). One parent was so overwhelmed by difficulties in her life that her son was given a residential school placement; with the provision of a firm structure, positive regard and recognition for his efforts this pupils' EBD reduced in the new setting. Similarly, the other four boys studied, developed prosocial behaviours and more self-control, what is encouraging was that their behaviour was reported in a follow-up enquiry 6 months after the intervention ended, to be behaving reasonably, suggesting that this small

322

number of parents had been able to maintain their new parenting strategies, which in turn led to improved classroom behaviour.

The different studies in this research have attempted to discover that little bit more about those factors which are known to influence behaviour: schools, parents and the individual. Furthermore, this research has considered the barriers which exist in making partnership with parents, in relation to pupils with EBD, a reality; a resource for parents has been developed and guidelines for its implementation produced, the intention being that the resource *Better Behaviour* can help teachers and other professionals to support parents with their parenting role.

The work undertaken with the parents has shown the importance of encouraging them to implement a lovingly applied system of discipline. In total, 43 parents were directly supported in the various studies and only 2 failed to change their parenting methods; of the 41 who did develop more positive methods all of their children's EBD was lessened or alleviated and this showed in the school setting. Although the teachers consulted admitted to not feeling confident or competent in working so closely with parents on tasks which seem so personal and emotive, it is contended that especially in the context of the Revised Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) teachers will be required to offer such support. Teachers are the second most influential adults in children's lives and certainly in the Infant school, parents and teachers have daily contact with each other thus, not to use that time constructively when EBD is an issue, would seem to be a missed opportunity to make a difference. Additional training needs are acknowledged, this

research has highlighted the need for teachers to acquire basic listening and communication skills, also as McConkey (1985) has suggested, the key to encouraging teachers to accept the role of working with parents is for teacher training courses to promote this as integral not additional to their role.

The finding that cognitive style is related to behaviour not only in Secondary and Special Educational settings but in the mainstream primary school too, has implications for teaching, learning and classroom management of behaviour. It is suggested that teachers should be aware of children's cognitive style from the Infant school and be apprised of the use of the cognitive styles Analysis to ascertain this. The value of knowing and understanding a pupil's cognitive style cannot be overstated if the teachers' daily efforts are to be put to the best effect, as teachers are likely to better understand why individuals learn and behave in the way they do. Similarly, if teachers have an awareness of their own cognitive style, they are likely to gain an insight not just into how they teach but the ways this is likely to interact with their pupils' styles.

Riding and Rayner (1995) developed the Learning Enhancement Package which is aimed at increasing school effectiveness; through the use of this programme, teachers are encouraged to use increased self-awareness to broaden their teaching style to suit the range of style within the pupils they teach.

As Wholists are believed to have a global perspective of a situation, teachers need to be aware that they might miss a valid point by contrast, Analytics who are believed to focus on details may benefit from whole to parts teaching to assist them in gaining an overview of a topic. Similarly, Wholists being sociable and outward are likely to benefit from lively, stimulating teaching situations and be comfortable in group work; by contrast, Analytics being more separate and able to be focussed, will prefer methodical tasks and to work alone.

Riding and Rayner (1994) explain that style of pupil management will affect both the type of relationships they develop with the pupils and what expectations they have of a pupil's behaviour. It has been argued that Wholists tend to lack a natural internal structure and so may be without an internalised control unless it is externally imposed; thus teachers need to provide tighter boundaries for Wholists and make efforts to help these pupils internalise control, consideration of providing structure for Wholists is also indicated for playtimes and lunchtimes when behaviour is likely to become uncontrolled. As cognitive style influences the individual's perception of his/her social world then style will influence social behaviour; awareness of a pupil's style will also help teachers to better understand social relationship difficulties; for example, Analytics are likely to find the boisterousness of other pupils at playtimes over-whelming and tempt them to withdraw even more into themselves leading at the extreme to social isolation; knowledge that some children may be prone to exclusion because of their style will prepare teachers for who is likely to need support such as a 'buddy' or 'circle of friends'. Additionally, as Analytics are likely to have a deficient control system, seeing things only from

their own point of view, they will need support to assist them to see things in a less rigid, egocentric manner to assist them in understanding the views of others.

Interventions used by the teachers in the Case Studies in Study 4 indicated that pupils of differing style are likely to respond to different methods of praise, time on task and reminders of what was expected of them. For the Analytics, praise and 'I' messages were discrete and personal responsibility for work done was given with an agreed reward privately bestowed; these strategies match the controlled, private personality of an Analytic. By contrast, the Wholists responded to public praise and 'I' messages, shortened tasks and frequent feedback; these strategies match the more ebullient, uncontrolled nature of the Wholist. Whilst the number of case studies was small, these findings would seem to suggest further investigation into the relationship between teacher feedback and pupil style would be a useful area for future study.

The Elton Report (DES, 1989) highlighted the negative effects of indiscipline in schools and suggested that solutions would be found in improved school and teacher effectiveness. Numerous educational directives have built on the recommendations of Elton with a growing awareness that solutions need to consider not just the school but the home and the child. Research into the effects of different types of parenting shows that lack of parental love and recognition causes children to be insecure, have low self-worth and difficulties with interpersonal relationships, furthermore, permissive or coercive parenting has been shown to predispose children to develop EBD. Patterns of EBD are known to be persistent, worsen with

age and be replicated across contexts; thus a child who has behaviour problems at home is likely to present with challenging behaviour in school. School effectiveness studies have highlighted the need for good classroom management, attention to teaching-learning styles, good pupil –teacher relationships and home-school relationships. Research into home-school links shows that beneficial effects are predicated upon the quality of the relationships between everyone at every level; whilst not easy to achieve, it is now expected that schools will work together with parents whose children have EBD as a special need.

It is known that individual differences are variables in a person's development and adaptability and that certain variables may predispose a person to develop EBD: educational failure, temperament, maleness and a Wholist cognitive style.

The complexity of the causes of EBD are represented in Figure 7.1 and in accord with the body of research suggesting solutions, it is felt that a complex problem such as EBD requires interventions to be targeted to each contributing aspect of the problem. The findings of this research proffer some insight into and resources for finding the solutions a more manageable task.

7.3 Implications and Recommendations

Teachers who are aware of their own and their pupils' cognitive style are likely to improve the quality of their teaching and thus the learning of the pupils by matching their strategies, types of interaction and methods of presentation to the pupil style.

Awareness of the behavioural characteristics of Wholists and Analytics will influence the type of structure the teachers provide for the pupils of each style.

Knowledge that Wholists are likely to be the most troublesome in class, and Wholist boys more so, indicates that teachers need this information to give this vulnerable group more support and potentially prevent EBD.

The resource *Better Behaviour* has proved to be useful in helping parents to develop a more authoritative style of parenting which has resulted in improved child behaviour at home and school; without personal support to use the booklet improvements were not so marked. Teachers, especially in the Infant school are in an ideal position to support parents in developing appropriate parental control, care and recognition which is likely to help children develop self-control, self-worth and security, leading to better behaviour; with some additional training, teachers can use *Better Behaviour* and the Guidelines to improve partnership with parents.

Teachers will benefit themselves from using *Better Behaviour* with parents, as it will remind them of the basic psychological needs of children and contribute to their understanding of some of the reasons for problem behaviour in school, which may prompt a change in their approach.

The CSA promises to be a useful tool to use for preventative work with those pupils at risk of developing EBD, or as a diagnostic instrument where EBD has arisen.

7.4   Future Directions

Government guidance in the early 1990's affirmed the definition of EBD as a special educational need; subsequent statements of policy convey the intention to enable schools to manage discipline and pupil behaviour more effectively. An important requirement of the Education Act, 1997 (DfEE, 1997b) was for local education authorities to set out their arrangements for the education of and support for children with EBD. The Programme of Action (DfEE, 1998) stressed the importance of prevention and early intervention in meeting the needs of pupils with special educational needs. Key features of the programme are partnership with parents, support for parents and increased knowledge and skills of staff working within the area of special needs.

The Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) provides a framework to help schools to raise the achievement of all children and recommends steps which can be taken in developing partnerships with parents and professionals and removing barriers to participation.

It no longer has to be debated what the *main* factors are in causing EBD, as it is generally held that they are located within the individual, the family and community, or the school. Over the last three decades there has been a systematic shift in where to lay the blame for EBD: the child, the home or the school; it is now recognized by researchers that a multiplicity of factors are associated with behaviour difficulties and that it is the interactions between factors which can sustain or resolve EBD.

It is known that schools can make a difference to pupil outcomes, also that where teachers accept that working with parents is integral to their role, schools can be more effective in supporting pupils with learning and behavioural difficulties. An authoritative style of parenting is associated with the development of self control, self worth and security, thereby leading to better behaviour by children, that schools should develop a culture of support for parental endeavours is now accepted (DfES, 2001).

It would seem productive to direct future work into examining the effect of approaches designed to facilitate the Government's ideals noted above, at the same time as trying to discover more information on the variables known to be related to behaviour and the ways in which they operate; findings from this research raise issues for : initial teacher training;

continued professional and personal development of teachers; school behaviour policies and supporting parents; further research into the variable cognitive style and how it relates to teaching, learning, behaviour and parenting.

Initial Teacher Training

In Primary schools all teachers are obliged to liaise with the parents of pupils who have an Individual Education Plan; for pupils whose special needs arise as a result of EBD, relating to their parents is known to be potentially problematic. It is suggested that initial teacher training courses should include modules on the family, children's needs and the effect of different parenting strategies on children's development. The importance of home-school relationships in terms of positive pupil outcomes should be stressed and skills for building these relationships taught; the latter should focus on basic listening and communication skills and an awareness of the factors that can create barriers to the quality of the relationships.

Continued Professional and Personal Development of Teachers

To build on the basic skills of listening and communication, in service training courses for teachers, designed to support pupils with EBD and their parents, could focus on the outer levels of psychotherapy, which will enable teachers to give more informed support without venturing into the field of therapy. Such courses could include: support and counselling,

listening techniques, using counselling skills, learning about parent readiness to work with schools and the principles involved when a change of role is undertaken.

School Behaviour Policies and Supporting Parents

Although Parent Partnership Officers are now appointed by Local Education Authorities, it is suggested that all schools should have a named member of staff responsible for developing partnership with parents, which may ensure that policies and practices in relation to parents is integral to, not additional to the work of the school.   In relation to EBD it is felt that all schools should consider and plan for:

- how to involve parents in formulating and reviewing the behaviour policy
- how to give information to parents on pupils' EBD and how to facilitate parents in conveying their views
- how to prepare for and run a meeting with parents
- how to highlight good behaviour and to encourage parents to teach this
- how to respond when things go wrong.

The resource *Better Behaviour* and the *Professional's Guide* provides a sound basis for teachers to: help parents to gain an insight into their child's EBD and to help them employ

strategies to alleviate the EBD. It could be used to structure discussions. More studies are needed in evaluating this resource.

Application of and research into Cognitive Style

A range of research exists for the validity of the construct of style based on the CSA and studies are clarifying its nature and the ways it interacts with other variables in affecting behaviour.

Teachers can become more aware of themselves through knowledge of their cognitive style. By being self aware they will notice changes in their view of themselves and others, more able to recognize their personal strengths and to rectify weaknesses. Teachers are likely to present lessons in such a way as to reflect their style, research is necessary to ascertain whether this is the case; additionally more studies are needed on the outcomes of style led teaching where the teacher accommodates the individual style differences of pupils and adopts their presentation accordingly.

Cognitive style is linked to how a person perceives the world through processing and interpreting information; this has implications for how teacher feedback is received by pupils – they may grasp the messages conveyed better if they were differentiated in delivery, that is by speech, text, pictures or diagrams. Therefore, studies on teacher feedback and its relationship to style are required.

Wholists are believed to need to internalize self control suggesting the need for teachers to set firm boundaries, rules and logical consequences; by contrast Analytics are felt to require support to communicate their feelings to prevent outbursts; what is required therefore are studies of classroom management strategies and their relationship to pupil style.

Style has been found to be related to behavioural manifestations and personal characteristics in teenagers and young adults; studies are required at the Primary level to see if there is a relationship between types of misbehaviour and style at this age. Additionally studies on the cognitive style and personal attributes of primary aged pupils may shed light on how style affects social behaviour and relationships.

Given that Wholists are believed to lack control and Analytics to be overcontrolled and prone to outbursts, it would be useful to study style characteristics in relation to coping strategies, which may supplement information from research on style and types of misbehaviour. Following on from the foregoing studies on the teaching and efficacy of new coping strategies would be useful for interventions with pupils who have EBD.

Cognitive style is thought to have an inborn physical basis and adult studies suggest that style influences personality and thus potential parenting strategies. More information is needed on the style characteristics of parents and their relationship to parenting strategies; similarly more needs to be known about the relationship between parenting strategies and the

cognitive style of children as it is believed that these can interact to create positive or negative outcomes. With regard to advice for parenting, the Booklet *Better Behaviour* should be revised to include information on style characteristics and its influence on behavioural manifestations and implications for parenting strategies.

Taking cognizance of the directives aimed at prevention and early intervention it is suggested that anti natal classes should focus on the psychological needs of babies in addition to physical care and well being; also that prospective parents who are considered to be at risk would benefit from knowing their cognitive style in order that their strengths and weaknesses can be assessed and planned for. The booklet *Better Behaviour* has been identified by most parents in this research as being a useful guide, it could therefore be of benefit to Health Visitors who are perhaps the first professionals to notice if parenting strategies are preventing or exacerbating EBD in young children.

Professionals working for initiatives such as Sure Start are dealing with families who are deemed needy, thus they would benefit from being trained in the use of the CSA and its applications. The CSA is considered to be a useful addition for any professional as an assessment tool and its applications can inform individuals' self knowledge and practice, to make its use even more universal a method of assessing the cognitive style of young children is required; if the findings from studies of older pupils and adults are confirmed in the young, then early intervention, prevention and the management of EBD may be better addressed.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Achenbach, T. M. and Edelbrock, C. S. (1981) Behavioural problems and competencies reported by parents of normal and disturbed children aged four through sixteen. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 46,* (1), 1-82.

Ainsworth, M.D., Bell, S. and Stayton, D. (1974) Infant-mother attachment and social development: socialisation as a product of reciprocal responsiveness to signals. In: Richards, M. (Ed.) The *Integration of a Child into a Social World.* Cambridge: University Press.

Ainsworth, M.D., Blehar, M.C., Waters, E., and Wall, S. (1978) *Patterns of Attachment.* Hillsdale: Erlbaum.

Akers, R. L. (1997) Criminological *Theories. Introduction and Evaluation.* Second Edition. Los Angeles: Roxbury.

Appleton, P. and Minchom, P. (1991) Models of Parent Partnership and Child Development Centres. *Child Care, Health and Development, 17,* 1, 27-38.

Apter, S. J. (1982) Troubled *Children / Troubled Systems.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Ashford, P. (1994) Who is excluded from school? Does Family Status have an Influence? *Pastoral Care,* December, 1994, 10-11.

Ayers, H., Clarke, D. and Murray, A. (1995) *Perspectives on Behaviour. A Practical Guide to Effective Interventions for Teachers.* London: Fulton.

Barnes, P. (Ed.) (1995) *Personal, Social and Emotional Development of Children.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Bastiani, J. (Ed.) (1987) *Parents and Teachers 1. Perspectives on Home - School Relations.* Worcester: NFER, Nelson.

Bastiani, J. (1993) *Your Home - School Links.* London: New Education Press Ltd.

Bastiani, J. and Wolfendale, S. (Eds.) (1996) *Home - School Work in Britain Review, Reflection and Development.* London: Fulton.

Bate, C. and Moss, J. (1997) Towards a Behaviour Curriculum. *Educational Psychology in Practice. 13*, 3, 176-180.

Baumrind, D. (1967) Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behaviour. *Genetic Psychology Monographs. 75*, 43-88.

Baumrind, D. (1993) The Average Expectable Environment Is Not Good Enough: A Response To Scarr. *Child Development, 64*, 1299-1317.

Bee, H. (1989) *The Developing Child.* (5th Ed.) London: Harper and Row.

Bell, J. (1993) *Doing Your Research Project* (2nd edition). Buckingham : Open University Press.

Bennathan M. (1992) The Care and Education of Troubled Children, *Therapeutic Care and Education. 10* (1), 1-7.

Bettelheim, B. (1987) A *Good Enough Parent.* Thames and Hudson.

Bigner, J. J. (1989) *Parent - Child Relations. An Introduction to Parenting.* New York: Macmillan.

Bovair, K. (1994) Factors Affecting Guidance and Counselling. *Distance Learning Course Emotional and Behaviour Difficulties, Module 3, Unit 2, Part 1*, The University of Birmingham.

Bovair, K. and McLaughlin, C. (Eds.) (1993) *Counselling in Schools. A Reader.* London: Fulton.

Bowlby, J. (1973) *Separation, Anxiety and Anger.* London: Hogarth Press.

Bowlby, J. (1988) *A Secure Base.* London: Routledege.

Bradley, R. H., Mundfrom, D. J., Whiteside, L., Casey, P. H. and A. L. (1994) A factor analytic study of the Infant-Toddler and Early Childhood versions of the Home Inventory administered to White, Black and Hispanic American parents of children born pre-term. *Child Development*, 65, (3), 880-888.

Brown, D. and Pedder, J. (1979) *Introduction to Psychotherapy.* London: Tavistock.

Bullock, L. M. and Brown, R. K. (1972) Behavioural dimensions of emotionally disturbed children. *Exceptional Children, 38*, 740-742.

Burns, R. B. (1979) *The Self-Concept. Theory, measurement, development and behaviour.* London: Longman.

Burroughs, G.E.R. (1975) *Design and Analysis in Educational Research (2nd Ed.) Educational Monograph, No. 8.* University of Birmingham: Educational Review

Campbell, S. B. (1990) *Behaviour Problems in Preschool Children. Clinical and Developmental Issues.* London: The Guilford Press.

Campbell, S. B., Pierce, E., March, C. and Ewing, L. J. (1991) Noncompliant behaviour, overactivity and family stress as predictors of negative maternal control in preschool children. *Development and Psychopathology,* 3, 175-190.

Caspi, A., Elder, Jr., G. H. and Herbener, E. S. (1990) Childhood personality and the prediction of life-course patterns. In: Robins, L. H. and Rutter, M. (Eds.), *Straight and Devious Pathways from Childhood to Adulthood.* Cambridge: University Press.

Cattell, R. B. and Warburton, F. W. (1967) *Objective personality motivation tests.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Charlton, T. and David, K. (1990) Towards a whole school approach, helping to ensure schools are fit for the future, *Links,* 15, 3, 20-24.

Charlton, T. and David, K. (Eds) (1989) *Managing Misbehaviour: Strategies for Effective Management of Behaviour in Schools.* Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Charlton, T. and George, J. (1993) The development of behaviour problems. In: Charlton T. and David, K. (Eds). *Managing Misbehaviour in Schools.* London: Routledge.

Chazan, M., Laing, A. F. and Davies, D. (1994) *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties in Middle Childhood: Identification, Assessment and Intervention in School.* London: The Falmer Press.

Cheeseman, P. and Watts, P. (1985) *Positive Behaviour Management: A Manual for Teachers.* Beckenham: Croom Helm.

Christians, C.G. (2000) Ethics and Politics in Qualitative Research. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S (Eds) *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd Edition). London :Sage.

Clarke, A.D.B. and Clarke, A. M. (1954) Cognitive and social changes in the feeble minded. *British Journal of Psychology,* 45, 173-179.

Clarke, A. M. and Clarke, A.D.B. (Eds.). (1976) *Early Experience: Myths and Evidence.* London: Open Books.

Clarke, A. M. and Clarke, A.D.B. (1992) How modifiable is the human life path? *International Review of Research in Mental Retardation, 18*, 137-157.

Clarke, A.D.B., Clark, A. M. and Reiman, S. (1958) Cognitive and social changes in the feeble minded – three further studies. *British Journal of Psychology, 49*, 144-157.

Cohn, A. H. and Daro, D. (1987) Is treatment too late? What ten years of evaluative research tells us. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 11*, 433-442.

Cohen, P., Brook, J. S., Cohen, J., Velez, C. N. and Garcia, M. (1990) Common and uncommon pathways to adolescent psychopathology and problem behaviour. In: Robins, L. N. and Rutter, M. (Eds.), *Straight and Devious Pathways from Childhood to Adulthood.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Coldron, J. and Boulton, P. (1996) What do parents mean when they talk about discipline in relation to their children's schools? *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 17*, 1, 53-64.

Cole, T. (1989) *Apart or A Part? Integration and the Growth of British Special Education.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Cole, T., Daniels, H., and Visser, J (2003) Patterns of Provision for Pupils with Behavioural Difficulties in England: A study of government statistics and behaviour support plan data. *Oxford Review of Education, 29*, 2, 187-205.

Cole, T., Visser, J. and Upton, G. (1998) *Effective Schooling for Pupils with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties.* London: Fulton.

Coleman, M. C. (1992) *Behaviour Disorders. Theory and Practice 2nd Edn.* London: Allyn and Bacon.

Collins, W. A. (1984) *Development During Middle Childhood: The Years From Six to Twelve.* Washington: National Academy Press.

Collins, N. L. and Read, S. J. (1990) Adult attachment: working models and relationship quality in dating couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58*, 644-663.

Cooper, P. (1993) *Effective Schools for Disaffected Students.* London: Routledge.

Cooper, P., Smith, C. and Upton, G. (1991) Ethnic minority and gender distribution in schools for children with EBD in England and Wales. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 12*, 1, 77-94.

Cooper, P., Smith, C. J. and Upton, G. (1994) *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties. Theory to Practice.* London: Routledge.

Cooper, P. and Upton, G. (1990) An Ecosystemic Approach to Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties in Schools. *Educational Psychology, 10,* 4, 301-321.

Cooper, P. and Upton, G. (1991) Controlling the urge to control: an ecosystemic approach to problem behaviour in schools. *Support for Learning, 6,* 1, 22-26.

Coopersmith, (1967) *The Antecedents of Self-Esteem.* San Francisco: Freeman.

Croll, P. and Moses, D. (1985) *One in Five: the Assessment and Incidence of Special Educational Needs.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Cullinan, D., Epstein, M. H., and Lloyd, J. W. (1983) *Behaviour Disorders of Children and Adolescents.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Cunningham, C. and Davis, H. (1985) *Working with Parents: Frameworks for Collaboration.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Daniels, H. (2000) Re-Thinking Causation: Biology, Psychology and EBD. *AWC EBD, 5,* 2, 10-17.

Daniels, H. and Cole, T. (2002) The Development of Provision for Young People with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties: an activity theory analysis. *Oxford Review of Education, 28,* 243, 311-329.

Daniels, H., Visser, J., Cole, T. and de Reybekill, N. (1998) Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties in Mainstream Schools. *Research Report RR90.* London: DfEE.

Davie, R. (1986) Understanding Behaviour Problems. *Maladjustment and Therapeutic Education, 4* (1).

Denzin, N.K. (1997) Triangulation in Educational Research in: Keeves, J.P. (Ed.) *Educational Research, Methodology and Measurement: An International Handbook (2nd edition).* Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2000) Introduction : The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research in Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research (2nd edition)* London : Sage.

Department for Education and Science (1967) *Plowden Committee: Children and their Primary Schools. (The Plowden Report),* London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Science (1987) *Good Behaviour and Discipline in Schools.* Report by HMI. London: DES.

Department for Education (1994a) Pupil *Behaviour and Discipline.* Circular 8/94. London: DFE.

Department for Education (1994b) The *Education of Children with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties* (Circular 9/94) London: DFE.

Department for Education (1994c) The *Education of Children being Looked After by Local Authorities,* Circular 13/94. London: DFE.

Department for Education (1994d) Code *of Practice on the Identification and Assessment of Special Educational Needs.* London: DFE.

Department for Education and Employment (1997a) *Excellence for all Children.* London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Employment (1997b) *The Education Act, 1997.* London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Employment (1998) *Meeting Special Educational Needs : A Programme of Action.* London: DfEE.

Department for Education and Employment (1999) *Social Inclusion: Pupil Support* (Circular 10/99). London: DfEE.

Department for Education and Science / Department of Health and Social Security / Welsh Office (1974) *Child Guidance* (Circular 3/74) London: HMSO

Department for Education and Science (1968) *Psychologists in Education Services. (The Summerfield Report).* London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Science (1989) *Discipline in Schools: Report of the Committee of Enquiry chaired by Lord Elton (The Elton Report).* London:HMSO.

Department for Education and Science (1990) *Special needs issues: A survey by HMI.* London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Skills (2001) *SEN Code of Practice on the Identification and Assessment of Pupils with Special Educational Needs.* London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Skills (2003) *Developing children's social, emotional and behavioural skills: training materials*. London: HMSO.

Department of Education and Science (2001) *Special Educational Needs. Code of Practice.* Annesley: DfES Publications.

De Shazer, S. (1982) *Patterns of Brief Family Therapy: An Ecosystemic Approach.* New York: Guilford.

Diniz, F.A. (1999) 'Race and special educational needs in the 1990's' *British Journal of Special Education*, 26, 4, 213-17.

Dowling, E. and Osborne, E. (Eds.) (1985) *The Family and the School.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Dowling, E. and Osborne, E. (Eds.) (1994, 2nd Edn.) *The Family and The School. A Joint Systems Approach to Problems with Children.* London: Routledge.

Doyle, W. (1986) Classroom organization and management. In Wittrock M. (Ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching (3rd Ed.).* New York: McMillan.

Dumas, J. and Wahler, R. G. (1985) Indiscriminate mothering as a contextual factor in aggressive oppositional child behaviour: "Damned if you do and damned if you don't." *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 13,* 1-18.

Dworkin, P. H. (1985) *Learning and Behaviour Problems of Schoolchildren.* London: Saunders.

Dyson, L. (1992) *Partnership. An Innovative Curriculum.* London: David Fulton.

Education Act 1981, London: HMSO.

Education Act 1986, London: HMSO.

Education Reform Act 1988, London: HMSO.

Education Act 1993 London: HMSO.

Eisenberg, N. and Mussen, P. H. (1989) *The Roots of Prosocial Behaviour in Children.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fairhurst, P. (1992) *The Assessment of Parent - Child Interaction During Play Within the Context of a Multi-disciplinary Child Protection Project.* (Unpublished Master's dissertation) Birmingham University, Faculty of Education Library.

Fairhurst, P. (Ed.) 2000 *Planning for Positive Behaviour. Behaviour Support Plan Materials.* Carlisle: Cumbria County Council.

Fairhurst, P. (Ed.) 2004 *Planning for Positive Behaviour. Behaviour Support Plan Materials.* Carlisle: Cumbria County Council. (2nd Edition)

Fairhurst, P. and Pumfrey, P. D. (1992) Secondary school organisation and the self-concepts of pupils with relative reading difficulties. *Research in Education, 47,* 17-28.

Fairhurst, P. and Riding, R. J. (1995a) *Better Behaviour a Parent's Guide to Behavioural and Emotional Problems.* Birmingham: Learning and Training Technology.

Fairhurst, P. and Riding, R. J. (1995b) *A Professional's Guide to Better Behaviour a Parent's Guide to Behavioural and Emotional Problems.* Birmingham: Learning and Training Technology.

Farrell, P. (Ed.) (1995) *Children With Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties. Strategies for Assessment and Intervention.* London: The Falmer Press.

Farrington, D. P. (1995) The challenge of teenage antisocial behaviour. In: Rutter, M. (Ed.) *Psychosocial disturbances in young people: challenges for prevention.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Figg, J. and Elliot, J. (Eds.) (2003) Cognitive Education. *Educational and Child Psychology, 20,* 2, 4-5.

Fogel, A. (1977) A temporal organization in mother-infant face to face interaction. In Schaff, H. R. (Ed.) *Studies in mother-infant interaction.* London: Academic Press.

Fortin, L. and Bigras, M. (1997) Risk Factors Exposing Young Children to Behaviour Problems, *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties 2* (1), Spring, 3-14.

Gabarino, J. and Gilliam, G. (1980) *Understanding Abusive Families.* Lexington: Heath.

Galloway, D. (1987) Disruptive behaviour in school: Implications for teachers and other professionals. *Educational and Child Psychology, 4,* 1, 29-34.

Gardner, H. (1993) *Multiple Intelligences. The Theory in Practice.* New York: Basic Books.

Gascoigne, E. (1995) *Working with Parents as Partners in SEN.* London: David Fulton.

Gerschel, L. (2003) Connecting the disconnected. In C. Tilstone and R. Rose (Eds.) *Strategies to Promote Inclusive Practice.* London: Routledge Falmer.

Gillborn, D. (2001) 'Raising standards or rationalizing education? Racism and Social Justice in Policy and Practice.' *Support for Learning, 16,* 3, 105-11.

Gitlin, A., Siegel, M. and Boru, K. (1993). The Politics of Method: from leftist ethnography to educative research, in Hammersley, M. (Ed.) *Educational Research: Current Issues.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Goleman, D. (1996) *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than I.Q.* London: Bloomsbury.

Goleman, D. (1998) *Working With Emotional Intelligence.* London; Bloomsbury.

Graham, P. and Rutter, M. (1973) Psychiatric disorder in the young adolescent: A follow-up study. *Proceedings of Royal Society of Medicine, 66,* 1, 58-61.

Gray, J. (1993) *Coping with Unhappy Children Who Exhibit Emotional and Behaviour Problems in the Classroom.* In Varma, V. (Ed.) *Coping with Unhappy Children.* London: Cassell.

Gray, J. and Richer, J. (1988) *Classroom Responses to Disruptive Behaviour.* London: Macmillan.

Gray, S. and Wandersman, I. (1980) The methodology of home-based intervention studies: problems and promising strategies. *Child Development, 51,* 993-1009.

Greenhalgh, P. (1994) *Emotional Growth and Learning.* London: Routledge.

Gupta, P. D. (1995) Growing Up In Families. In: Barnes, P. (Ed.) *Personal, Social and Emotional Development of Children.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Hammersley, M. (1996) The relationship between qualitative research and quantative research in: Richardson, J.T.E. (Ed.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods.* Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

Hancock, R. (1997) We need to support a fragile movement. *Parenting Forum Newsletter.*

Hargreaves; D. (1984) *Improving secondary schools.* London: ILEA.

Herbert, M. (1978) *Conduct Disorders of Childhood and Adolescence. A Behavioural Approach to Assessment and Treatment.* Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.

Herbert, M. (1987) *Conduct Disorders of Childhood and Adolescence.* London: John Wiley.

Herbert, M. (1988) *Working With Children and Their Families* Leicester: British Psychological Society and London Routledge.

Hetherington, E. M. (1989) Coping with Family Transitions: Winners, Losers, and Survivors. *Child Development, 60,* 1-15.

Hinshaw, S. P. (1992) Externalizing behaviour problems and academic underachievement in childhood and adolescence: Causal relationships and underlying mechanism. *Psychological Bulletin, 111,* 127-155.

H.M. Treasury (2003) Every Child Matters. (CM5860). TSO.

Holman, P. G. and Coghill, N. F. (1987) *Disruptive Behaviour in Schools. Causes, Treatment and Prevention.* Bromley: Chartwell-Bratt Ltd.

Honig, A. S. (Ed.) (1990) *Early Parenting and Later Child Achievement.* London: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers.

Houting, P. T., Wodarski, J. S., Kurtz, P. D. and Gaudin, Jr., J. M. (1993) *Maltreatment and the School-Age Child. Developmental Outcomes and System Issues.* London: The Haworth Press.

Hughes, M. J. (1994) *What is an Excludable Offence: The Family Perspective.* Barnardos, Unpublished.

Inner London Education Authority (1984) *Educational Opportunities for All? A Report of the Committee Reviewing Provision to Meet Special Educational Needs.* London: ILEA.

Johnson, C. A. and Katz, R. C. (1973) Using Parents As Change Agents for Their Children: A Review. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 14,* 181-200.

Jonassen, D. H. and Grabowski, B. L. (1993) *Handbook of Individual differences, Learning and Instruction.* Hillsdale, N. J.: Laurence Erlbaum.

Jones, K. and Lock, M., (1993) Working with Parents. In: Charlton, T. and David K. (Eds.) *Managing Misbehaviour in Schools.* (2nd Edition) London: Routledge.

Jones, R. A. (1995) *The Child – School Interface. Environment and Behaviour.* London: Cassell.

Jones, R. A. (2003) The Construction of Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties. *Educational Pyschology in Practice, 19,* 2, 147-157.

Kauffman, J. M. (1977) *Characteristics of Children's Behaviour Disorders.* Columbus: Merrill.

Kauffman, J. M. (2001) *Characteristics of Children's Behaviour Disorders.* 7th Edition. Columbus: Merrill.

Kazdin, A. E. (1987) Treatment of antisocial behaviour in children: Current status and future directions. *Psychological Bulletin, 102,* (2), 187-203.

Kazdin, A. E. (1995) *Conduct Disorders in Childhood and Adolescence* (2nd edition) London: Sage.

Kazdin, A. E. (1998) Psychosocial Treatments for Conduct Disorder in children. In Nathan, P. E. and Gorman, J. M. (Eds.), *A Guide to Treatments That Work:* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Keeves, J.P. (Ed) (1997) *Educational Research, Methodology and Measurement: An International Handbook* (2nd edition). Oxford: Elseiver Science Ltd.

Kellmer Pringle, M. (1975) The *Needs of Children.* London: Hutchinson.

Kelly, G. (1995) *The Psychology of Personal Constructs.* New York: Norton.

Keys, W. and Fernandes, C. (1993) *What Do Students Think About School: A report for the National Commission on Education.* Berkshire: NFER.

Levy, M. B. and Davis, K. E. (1988) Love styles and attachment styles compared: their relationships to each other and to various relationship characteristics. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 5,* 439-471.

Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E.G. (2000) Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions, and Emergency Confluences in: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd edition). London: Sage.

Loeber, R. (1982) The stability of antisocial and delinquent child behaviours: A review. *Child Development, 53,* 6, 1431-46.

Loeber, R. and Dishion, T. (1983) Early predictors of male delinquency: a review. *Psychological Bulletin, 94,* 68-99.

Loeber, R. and Stouthamer-Loeber, M. (1986) Family factors as correlates and predictors of juvenile conduct problems and delinquency. In M. Tonry and N. Morris (Eds.) *Crime and Justice. 7,* 29-149. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Lunenburg, S. and Schmidt, L. J. (1989) Pupil control ideology, pupil control behaviour and quality of school life. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 22*, 36-44.

Macpherson of Cluny, Sir William (1999) *The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry* (The Macpherson Report. CM4262-1) London: The Stationery Office.

Mallon, B. (1987). *An Introduction to Counselling Skills for Special Educational Needs.* Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Maras, P. (1996) "I'd rather have dyslexia." Perceptions of EBD's. *DECP. Educational and Child Psychology. 13*, 1, 32-42.

Maras, P. (1998) Psychological Perspectives and EBD's. In: Laslett, R., Cooper, P., Maras, P., Rimmer, A. and Law, B. *Changing Perceptions. Emotional and behavioural difficulties since 1945.* AWC EBD.

Maras, P. and Kutnick, P. (1996) Children with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties: A Social Psychological Perspective. *British Psychological Society, Social Psychology Section Annual Conference; Strathclyde*, September 1996.

McCall, L. and Farrell, P. (1993) Methods used by educational psychologists to assess children with emotional and behavioural problems. *Educational Psychology in Practice, 9*, 3, 164-170.

Maccoby, E. and Martin, J. (1983) Socialization in the context of the family: parent-child interaction. In: Hetherington E. M. (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Socialization, personality and social development,4* 1-101. New York: Plenum Press.

McConkey, R. (1985) *Working with Parents. A Practical Guide for Teachers and Therapists.* London: Croom Helm.

McCord, J. (1979) Some child-rearing antecedents of criminal behaviour in adult men. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 1477-1486.

McCord, J. (1990) Long-term perspectives on parental absence. In Robins, L. N. and Rutter, M. (Eds.) *Straight and Devious Pathways from Childhood to Adulthood.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McGee, R., Partridge, F., Williams, S. and Silva, P. A. (1991) A twelve-year follow-up of preschool hyperactive children. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 30*, 224-232.

McGuiness, C. (1999) *From thinking skills to thinking classrooms: A review and evaluation of approaches for developing pupils' thinking.* DfEE Research Report RR115. Norwich: HMSO.

McGuiness, J. (1993) *Teachers, Pupils and Behaviour: A Managerial Approach.* London: Cassell.

McNamara, E. (1995) *The Behaviour Checklist For Primary Schools.* Merseyside: PBM.

Miller, S. A. (1988) Parents' beliefs about children's cognitive development. *Child Development, 59,* 259-285.

Miller, A. (1996) *Pupil Behaviour and Teacher Culture.* London: Cassell.

Ministry of Education (1945) *Handicapped Pupils and School Health Service Regulations.* London: HMSO.

Ministry of Education (1953) *School Health Service and Handicapped Pupils' Regulations, SI 1156, pt III g.* London: HMSO.

Ministry of Education (1955) *Report of the Committee on Maladjusted Children (The Underwood Report).* London: HMSO.

Mittler, P. (2000) *Working Towards Inclusive Education: Social Contexts.* London: David Fulton.

Moffit, T. E. (1993) The neuropsychology of conduct disorder. *Developmental Psychopathology, 5,* 135-151.

Molnar, A. and Lindquist, B. (1989) *Changing Problem Behaviour in Schools.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mongdon, D. (1987) Going against the grain: Alternatives to exclusion. In: Booth, T. and Coulby, D. (Eds.) *Producing and Reducing Disaffection.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Montgomery, D. (1989) *Managing Behaviour Problems.* London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Mortimore, P., Davies, J., Varlaam, A. and West, A. (1983) *Behaviour Problems in Schools: An Evaluation of Support Centres.* London: Croom Helm.

Munn, P. (Ed.) (1993) *Parents and Schools. Customers, Managers or Partners?* London: Routledge.

Munn, P., Johnstone, M. and Chalmers, V. (1992) *Effective Discipline In Primary Schools And Classrooms.* London: Chapman.

National Curriculum Council (1989) *Curriculum Guidance 2 – Curriculum for All: Special Educational Needs in the National Curriculum.* York: NCC.

Newham LEA (2001) *Girls' Voices: Are they on the Agenda?* London: London Borough of Newham.

Newson, J. and Newson, E. (1976) *Seven Years Old in the Home Environment.* London: Allen and Unwin.

O'Brien, T. (1998) *Promoting Positive Behaviour.* London: Fulton.

Ofsted (1999) *Principles into Practice: Effective Education for Pupils with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties.* London: HMSO.

Osler, A. (1997) *Exclusion from School and Racial Equality: Research Report.* London: Commission for Racial Equality.

Partington, J. and Wragg, T. (1989) *Schools and Parents.* London: Cassell.

Patterson, G. (1982) *A Social Learning Approach vol 3, Coercive Family Processes.* Eugene Oregon: Castalia.

Patterson, G. R., DeBaryshe, B. D. and Ramsey, E. (1989) A developmental perspective on antisocial behaviour. *American Psychologist, 44,* 329-335.

Phillips, D.C. (1993) Subjectivity and Objectivity: an objective inquiry, in Hammersley, M. (Ed.) *Educational Research: Current Issues.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Pidgeon, N. (1996) Grounded Theory: theoretical background, in Richardson, J.T.E. (Ed.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods.* Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

Pistole, M. C. (1989) Attachment in adult romantic relationships: Style of conflict resolution and relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 6,* 505-510.

Plomin, R. (1994) *Genetics and Experience: The interplay between nature and nurture.* London: Sage.

Provis, M. (1992) *Dealing With Difficulty. A Systems Approach To Problem Behaviour.* London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Pugh, G., De'Ath, E. (1984) *The Needs of Parents. Practice and Policy in Parent Education.* London: Macmillan.

Pugh, G. and De'Ath, E. and Smith, C. (1984) *Confident Parent, Confident Children. Policy and practice in parent education and support.* London: National Children's Bureau.

Pumfrey, P. D. and Reason, R. (1991) *Specific Learning Difficulties.* NfER: Routledge.

Quinton, D. and Rutter, M. (1988) *Parenting Breakdown. The Making and Breaking of Inter-generational Links. Studies in Deprivation and Disadvantage 14.* Aldershot: Avebury.

Rayner, S. and Riding, R. J. (1996) Cognitive style and school refusal. *Educational Psychology, 16,* 445-451.

Reason, P. (Ed.) (1998) *Human Inquiry in Action.* London: Sage.

Reinhart, H. R. and Huang, A. (1987) *Children in Conflict. Educational Strategies for the Emotionally Disturbed and Behaviourally Disordered.* Oxford: Maxwell Macmillan.

Reynolds, D. (1984) The school for vandals, a sociological portrait of the disaffection prone school. In Frude, N. and Gault H. (Eds.) (1984) *Disruptive Behaviour in Schools.* Chichester: Wiley.

Reynolds, D. (1991) Changing Ineffective Schools. In: Ainscow, M. (Ed.) *Effective Schools for All.* London: Fulton.

Reynolds, D. (Ed.) (1985) *Studying School Effectiveness.* London: Falmer.

Reynolds, D. and Cuttance, P. (Eds.) (1992) *School Effectiveness: Research, Policy and Practice.* London: Cassell.

Richardson, J.T.E. (Ed/) (1996) *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods.* Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

Richman, N., Stevenson, J. and Graham, P. J. (1982) *Pre-School to School: A Behaviour Study.* London: Academic Press.

Riding, R. J. (1991a) *Cognitive Styles Analysis.* Birmingham: Learning and Training Technology.

Riding, R. J. (1991b) *Cognitive Styles Analysis User Manual.* Birmingham: Learning and Training Technology.

Riding, R. J. (1992) *Personal Style and Performance: Applications of the Cognitive Styles Analysis.* Birmingham University: Assessment and Research Unit.

Riding, R.J. (1997) 'On The Nature of Cognitive Style'. *Educational Psychology, 17,* 29-50.

Riding, R. (2002) *School Learning and Cognitive Style.* London: David Fulton.

Riding, R.J. and Agrell, C. (1997) The effect of cognitive style and cognitive skills on school subject performance. *Educational Studies, 23,* 311-23.

Riding, R. J. and Burton, D. (1998) Cognitive Style, gender and conduct behaviour in secondary school pupils. *Research in Education. 59.* 38-49.

Riding, R.J., Burton, D., Rees, G. and Sharratt, M. (1995) Cognitive style and personality in 12-year-old children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 65.* 113-24.

Riding, R.J. and Cheema, I. (1991) Cognitive Styles – an Overview and Integration. *Educational Psychology, 11,* 193-215.

Riding, R. J. and Craig, O. (1998) Cognitive style and problem behaviour in boys referred to residential special schools. *Educational Studies,* 24, 205-22.

Riding, R. J. and Craig, O. (1999) Cognitive style and types of problem behaviour in boys in special schools. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 69,* 307-22.

Riding, R.J. and Douglas, G. (1993)The effect of cognitive style and mode of presentation on learning performance. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 63,* 297-307.

Riding, R.J. and Dyer, V.A. (1980) The relationship between extraversion and verbal-imagery learning styles in 12-year-old children. *Personality and Individual Differences, 1,* 273-279.

Riding, R.J., Glass, A., Butler, S.R. and Pleydell-Pearce, C.W. (1997) Cognitive style and individual differences in EEG alpha during information processing. *Educational Psychology, 17,* 219-34.

Riding, R.J. and Mathias, D. (1991) Cognitive styles and preferred learning mode, reading attainment and cognitive ability in 11-year-old children. *Educational Psychology, 11,* 383-393.

Riding, R.J. and Pearson, F. (1994) The relationship between cognitive style and intelligence. *Educational Psychology, 14,* 413-25.

Riding, R. J. and Rayner, S. (1994) *Personal Style and Teacher Effectiveness: a staff development programme.* Birmingham: Learning and Training Technology.

Riding, R. and Rayner, S. (1995) *Learning Enhancement Action Programme. Personal Style and Effective Teaching.* Birmingham: Learning and Training Technology.

Riding, R. J and Rayner, S. (1998) *Cognitive Styles and Learning Strategies.* London: Fulton.

Riding, R.J. and Taylor, E.M. (1976) Imagery performance and prose comprehension in seven-year-old children. *Educational Studies. 2.* 21-7.

Riding, R.J. and Wicks, B.J. (1978) The effect of extraversion and presentation order in learning from picture-commentary sequences in children. *Educational Review. 5.* 15-22.

Riding, R. J. and Wigley, S. (1997) The relationship between cognitive style and personality in further education students. *Personality and Individual Differences, 23,* 379-389.

Riding, R.J. and Wright, M. (1995) Cognitive style, personal characteristics and harmony in student flats. *Educational Psychology, 15,* 337-49.

Riley, D. and Shaw, M. (1985*) Parental supervision and juvenile delinquency.* London: HMSO.

Robins, L. N. (1986) Changes in conduct disorder over time. In: Farran, D. C. and McKinney, J. D. (Eds.) *Risks in Intellectual and Psychosocial Development.* New York: Academic Press.

Robins, L. N. (1991) Conduct Disorder. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 32,* 1, 193-212.

Robson, C. (1983) *Experiment, Design and Statistics in Psychology.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Robson, C. (2002) *Real World Research.* 2nd Edition. Oxford: Blackwell.

Roffey, S. (2002) *School Behaviour & Families.* London: Fulton.

Rogers, C. (1980) *A Way of Being.* Boston: Haughton-Mifflin.

Rogers, B. (1994) *The Language of Discipline. A practical approach to effective classroom management.* Plymouth: Northcote House.

Rollinson, R. (2002) It's Hardly Rocket Science. *AWC EBD Newsletter,* Summer, 1-3.

Rose, S. A., Feldman, J. F., Rose, S. L., Wallace, I. F. and McCarton, C. (1992) Behaviour problems at 3 and 6 years: Prevalence and continuity in full-terms and pre-terms. *Development and Psychopathology. 4.* 361-374.

Rushton, A. (1995) Get Them Young: The Impact of Early Intervention on Social and Emotional Development. In Farrell, P. (Ed.) *Children with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties.* London: Falmer Press.

Rutherford, R. B., Nelson, C. M., Furness, S. R. (Eds.) (1987) *Severe Behaviour Disorders of Children and Youths.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Rutter, M. (1985) Resilience in the face of adversity: Protective factors and resistance to psychiatric disorders. *British Journal of Psychiatry. 147.* 598-611.

Rutter, M. (1989) Pathways from childhood to adult life. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 30,* 25-51.

Rutter, M. (1991) Services for Children with Emotional Disorders. Needs, accomplishments and future developments, *Young Minds Newsletter. 9,* 1-5.

Rutter, M. and Giller, H. (1983) *Juvenile Delinquency. Trends and Perspectives.* Harmandsworth: Penguin.

Rutter, M. and Hersov, L. (Eds.) (1997) *Child Psychiatry. Modern Approaches.* London: Blackwell.

Rutter, M., Maughan, M., Mortimore, P. and Ouston, J. (1979) *Fifteen Thousand Hours.* London: Open Books.

Rutter, M., Tizard, J. and Whitmore, K. (1970) *Education, Health and Behaviour.* London: Longman.

Ryan, B. A. and Adams, G. R. (1995) The Family-Schools Relationships Model. In Ryan, B. A., Adams, G. R., Glottal, T. P., Weissberg, R. P. and Hampton, R. L. (Eds.) *The Family School Connection.* London: Sage.

Salmon, P. (2003) 'How do we recognise good research?' *The Psychologist 16,* 1, 24-27.

Sammons, P., Hillman, J. and Mortimore, P. (1995) Key *Characteristics of Effective Schools. A review of school effectiveness research.* London: Institute of Education.

Schaefer, E. S. (1959) A Circumflex model of Maternal Behaviour, *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 59,* 232.

Schaffer, H. R. (1996) *Social Development.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Schaffer, H. R. (1998) *Making Decisions About Children. Psychological Questions and Answers.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Sharp, S. and Davids, E. (2003) Early intervention in behaviour . A study of the FAST-Track programme. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties, 8, 3,* 173-188.

Schwartzman, A. E., Varlaan, P., Peters, P., and Serbin, L. A. (1995) Sex roles in coercion. In McCord, J. (Ed.) *Coercion and punishment in long-term perspectives* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shaffer, D. (1996) (Fourth Edition). *Developmental Psychology: Childhood and Adolescence.* Pacific Grove: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Sheridan, S. and Kratochwill (1992) Behavioural Parent-Teacher Consultation: Conceptual and Research Considerations. *Journal of School Psychology, 30,* 117-139.

Skinner, B. F. (1953) *Science and Human Behaviour.* New York: Macmillan.

Skynner, R. and Cleese, J. (1983) *Families and How to Survive Them.* London: Methuen.

Smith, D. and Tomlinson, S. (1989) *The School Effect, a Study of Multi-Racial Comprehensives.* London: Policy Studies Institute.

Smith, J.A. (1996) Evolving Issues for Qualitative Psychology in Richardson, J.T.E. (Ed) *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods.* Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

Solity, J. and Raybould, E. (1988) *A Teacher's Guide to Special Needs.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Soodak, L. and Podell, D. (1994) "Teachers Thinking about Difficult-to-Teach Students". *Journal of Educational Research. 88,* 1, 44-51.

Smith, D. J. (1995) Towards explaining patterns and trends in youth crime. In Rutter, M. (Ed.) *Psychosocial disturbances in young people: challenges for prevention.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sternberg, R.J. (1985) *Beyond IQ: A triarchic theory of human intelligence.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Straughton, R. (1988) *Can We Teach Children To Be Good? Basic Issues In Moral, Personal and Social Education.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Sutton, C. (1999) *Helping Families With Troubled Children. A Preventive Approach.* Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.

Tajfel, H. and Turner, J. (1979) An integrative theory of intercrop conflict. In Worchel, S. and Austin, W. G. (Eds.) *Psychology of Intergroup Relations.* Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Travell, C. (1999) Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties: Perspectives on perspectives. In Visser, J. and Rayner, S. (Eds.) *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties.* Lichfield: Q.Ed. Publications.

Tattum, D. and Tattum E. (1992) *Social Education and Personal Development. Studies in Primary Education.* London: Fulton.

Taylor Committee (1977) *A New Partnership for our Schools.* HMSO.

The Plowden Committee (1967) *Children and their primary schools.* HMSO.

Topping, K. J. (1986) *Parents as educators. Training parents to teach their children.* London: Croom Helm.

Tyler, K. (1992) The Development of the Ecosystemic Approach as a Humanistic Educational Psychology. *Educational Psychology, 12,* 1, 15-24.

Upton, G. (1992) Emotional and behavioural difficulties. In Gulliford, R. and Upton, G. (Eds.) *Special Educational Needs.* London: Routledge.

Varma, V. P. (Ed.), (1993) *Management of Behaviour in Schools.* London: Longman.

Visser, J. (1993) *Differentiation: Making It Work.* Tamworth: NASEN.

Visser, J. and Stokes, S. (2003) Is Education Ready for the Inclusion of Pupils With Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties: A right perspective? *Educational Review, 55,* 1, 65-75.

Warnock, M. (Chair) (1978) *Special Educational Needs.* Norwich: DES/HMSO.

Webster Stratton, C. (1993) Strategies for helping early school aged children with oppositional defiant and conduct disorders: the importance of home-school partnerships. *School Psychology Review, xxii, 3,* 437-457.

Weare, K. and Gray, G. (2003) *What works in developing children's emotional and social competence and wellbeing?* DfES Research report 456. Health Education Unit: University of Southampton.

Webster-Stratton, C. and Herbert, M. (1995) *Troubled Families – Problem Children.* Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.

West, D. J. and Farrington, D. P. (1973) *Who Becomes Delinquent?* London: Heinemann.

West, O. J. and Farrington, D. P. (1977) *The Delinquent way of Life.* London: Heinemann.

Westmacott, E.V.S. and Cameron, R. J. (1981) *Behaviour can change.* Basingstoke: Globe Education.

Wheldall, K. (Ed.). (1987) *The Behaviourist in the Classroom.* London: Allen and Unwin.

Wheldall, K. and Glynn, T. (1989) *Effective Classroom Learning.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Wheldall, K. and Merrett, F. (1984) *Batpack, Positive Products.* Birmingham: University of Birmingham Press.

Wheldall, K. and Merrett, F. (1988) which classroom behaviours do primary school teachers say they find most troublesome? *Educational Review, 40,* 1, 13-25.

Wheldall, K., Wheldall D. and Winter, S. (1983) *Seven Super tactics for Super parents.* Windsor: NFER/Nelson.

White, K. R., Taylor, M. J. and Moss, V. D. (1992) Does Research Support Claims About the Benefits of Involving Parents in Early Intervention Programs? *Review of Educational Research,* Spring 1992, *62,* 91-125.

Wilson, C. C. (1986) Family assessment in preschool evaluation. *School Psychology Review, 15,* (2), 166-179.

Wilson, H. (1980) Parental Supervision: a neglected aspect of delinquency, *British Journal of Criminology, 20,* 203-235.

Winkley, L. (1996) *Emotional problems in children and young people.* London: Cassell.

Winnicott, D. W. (1965). *The maturational processes and the facilitative environment.* New York: International Universities Press.

Wolfendale, S. (1983) *Parental Participation in Children's Development and Education.* London: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers.

Wolfendale, S. (1986) Involving parents in behaviour management: a whole school approach. *Support for Learning. 1,* 4, 33-38.

Wolfendale, S. (1992) *Empowering Parents and Teachers: Working for children.* London: Cassell.

Wolfendale, S. and Bryans, T. (1994) *Managing Behaviour. A Practical Framework For Schools* (2nd Edition). Stafford: NASEN.

Wolfendale, S. (1995) The Code of Practice and parents: a stimulus for re-appraisal of EP's work with parents. *Division of Educational and Child Psychology. 12,* 3, 73-79.

Wolfendale, S. (1996) Accounting a network of services for EBD: a description of the DECP Working Party and Beyond. *Educational and Child Psychology, 13,* 1, 5-12.

Wolfendale, S. (Ed.) (1997) *Partnership with Parents in Action.* NASEN.

Wolff, S. (1985) Non-Delinquent disturbances of conduct. In Rutter, M. and Hersov, L. (Eds.) *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry: Modern Approaches.* London: Blackwell.

Woodhead, C. (1997) *Annual Report of HMCI.* London: OFSTED.

Woodhead, M. (1981) Cooperation in early education – what does it mean? Why does it matter? *Early Child Development and Care, 7,* 2 and 3.

Woodhead, M. and McGrath, A. (Eds.) (1988) *Family, School and Society.* London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Woody, R. H. (1969) *Behavioural Problem Children in the Schools: Recognition, Diagnosis and Behavioural Modification.* New York: Appleton – Century – Crofts.
Woolgar, S. (1996) Psychology, qualitative methods and the ideas of science. In Richardson, J.T.E. (Ed.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research.* Leicester: The British Psychological Society.

Wright, C., Weekes, D. and McGlaughlin, A. (2000) *Race, Gender and Exclusion from School.* London: Falmer Press.

Youngman, M. B. (Ed.) (1982) *Designing and analysing questionnaires.* Nottingham: University of Nottingham, School of Education.

Youngman, M.B. (1986) *Analysing Questionnaires.* University of Nottingham: School of Education.

3RD PARTY COPYRIGHT MATERIAL EXCLUDED FROM DIGITISED THESIS

PLEASE REFER TO THE ORIGINAL TEXT TO SEE THIS MATERIAL