

HOW CAN ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF A PLANNING
INTERVENTION TOOL BE USED TO SUPPORT CHILDREN'S
EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING IN SCHOOLS?

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ABSTRACT

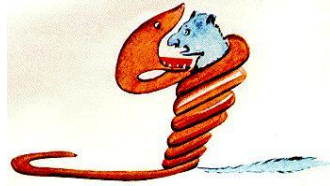
The questions of how best to support children's behaviour and their emotional well-being in schools are pervasive ones, but are rarely treated simultaneously within the United Kingdom. The efficacy of two forms of a planning intervention tool to support these in a way which could address internalizing as well and externalizing emotional needs, which could promote early intervention and which was sustainable in schools was explored in the present Case Study. The planning intervention tool was based on principles of Multi-Element Plans (MEPS) and Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME); an alternative form also included an explicit section on exploring the reasons underlying behaviour (ERB) in line with principles of Functional Analysis (FA). The efficacy of the alternative forms of the planning intervention tool was explored for twelve children across two primary schools, within the framework of a multiple-embedded case study. Data from scaling (TME), the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, the School Children's Happiness Inventory, and interviews with school staff and the children themselves were analysed using a combination of descriptive, statistical and thematic analyses. Findings suggested that the planning intervention tool supported positive outcomes overall for the children, as well as the adults involved in the study, and indicated particular facilitatory as well as limiting features. There was not a clear additional benefit of incorporating ERB into the planning intervention tool in terms of

outcomes for the children, although this may reflect a limitation in the training and the implementation of this feature. School staff generally reported that the use of either form of the planning intervention tool was sustainable and identified practical considerations, including some areas of support from Educational Psychologists.

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This thesis and the study reported within would not have been possible without the support, commitment and patience of a number of people. Heartfelt thanks and ultimate respect must go first to the school staff who were able to find time and give dedication to the study within a job which is already highly pressured and short on spare time. The commitment of such individuals is the only way in which best-laid plans are able to come to life. Thanks also to all of the children who took part in the study; they are truly what this is all about. I would like to extend particular gratitude and acknowledgement to Lorraine Campbell for her unwavering support, insight, patience and wisdom throughout. Thanks also to other members of the tutor team at Sheffield for their advice and guidance at various junctures in this process. To my course colleagues I offer warmest thanks for all of the solidarity, support, honks and laughs, especially in those moments where the journey felt like it would never end. Similarly, I would like to thank my service colleagues for their support throughout; my supervisor, Paul Morel in particular for his insights and unstoppable ability to raise the most unexpected points for consideration, but also to the whole team for their support especially towards the more intense period of thesis-completion. Special thanks to my brother, Ben, for his generous offer of proof-reading (again!); to Callum who has shared the journey with me; to Dan for his unwavering love, support, and patience but most of all,

infectious laughter when I needed it most; and most of all to my parents for their unconditional love and positive regard, for being the grown-ups who did understand, and for always believing in me.



In the book it said: "Boa constrictors swallow their prey whole, without chewing it. After that they are not able to move, and they sleep through the six months that they need for digestion."

I pondered deeply, then, over the adventures of the jungle. And after some work with a coloured pencil I succeeded in making my first drawing. My Drawing Number One. It looked something like this:



I showed my masterpiece to the grown-ups, and asked them whether the drawing frightened them.

But they answered: "Frighten? Why should anyone be frightened by a hat?"

My drawing was not a picture of a hat. It was a picture of a boa constrictor digesting an elephant. But since the grown-ups were not able to understand it, I made another drawing: I drew the inside of a boa constrictor, so that the grown-ups could see it clearly. They always need to have things explained.

My Drawing Number Two loc



The grown-ups' response, this time, was to advise me to lay aside my drawings of boa constrictors, whether from the inside or the outside, and devote myself instead to geography, history, arithmetic, and grammar. That is why, at the age of six, I gave up what might have been a magnificent career as a painter. I had been disheartened by the failure of my Drawing Number One and my Drawing Number Two. Grown-ups never understand anything by themselves, and it is tiresome for children to be always and forever explaining things to them.

- *From Le Petit Prince [The Little Prince] – Antoine de Saint-Exupéry.*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Grown Ups.....	v
Table of Contents.....	vii
List of Figures.....	xiv
List of Tables.....	xvi
Chapter 1 Introduction.....	1
1.1. Core Values.....	3
1.1.1 Children’s Emotional Well-Being.....	3
1.1.2. Early Intervention.....	5
1.1.3. Sustainability.....	7
1.2. National and Local Relevance.....	8
1.2.1. National Relevance.....	8
1.2.2. Local Relevance.....	10
1.3. Evidence-Based Practice.....	11
1.4. Psychological Underpinnings.....	14

1.5. Overview of Thesis.....	16
Chapter 2. Literature Review.....	18
2.1. Overview of Chapter.....	18
2.2. Context.....	19
2.2.1. Systems Surrounding Emotional Well-Being, Mental Health and Behaviour.....	19
2.2.2. The Issue of Behaviour Difficulties in Schools.....	24
2.2.2.1. Behaviour as Discipline.....	25
2.2.2.2. The Impact of Behaviour in Schools.....	26
2.2.2.3. Addressing Behaviour in Schools.....	29
2.2.3. Behaviour, Mental Health and Emotional Well-Being.....	37
2.3. Schools’ Roles in Supporting Emotional Well-Being and Mental Health.....	42
2.3.1. Schools’ Roles in Supporting Emotional Well-Being and Mental Health Within the CAMHS Tiered Model.....	43
2.3.2. School-Based Initiatives for Supporting Emotional Well-Being and Mental Health.....	45
2.4. Multiple Elements.....	48
2.5. Functions of Behaviour.....	52

2.6. Target Monitoring and Evaluation.....	59
2.7. Perspectives.....	63
2.8. Summary and Research Questions.....	65
Chapter 3. Methodology.....	69
3.1. Approach.....	69
3.1.1. Philosophical Underpinnings.....	69
3.1.2. Case Study – Rationale and Context.....	76
3.1.3. Specific Approach to Case Study.....	78
3.2. Design.....	80
3.2.1. Specification of Design and Procedure.....	82
3.3. Planning Intervention Tool.....	92
3.4. Participants.....	98
3.4.1. Schools.....	98
3.4.2. Lead Behaviour Coordinators.....	99
3.4.3. Children.....	100
3.4.4. Other School Staff.....	101
3.5. Principles of Analysis.....	101
3.5.1. Rationale for Analytic Approaches Adopted.....	102

3.5.2. Analysis of Numerical Data.....	102
3.5.3. Analysis of Interview Data.....	103
3.5.3.1. Thematic Analysis.....	103
3.6. Key Constructs.....	104
3.6.1. Reliability.....	105
3.6.2. Validity.....	106
3.6.3. Generalisation.....	109
3.7. Ethical Considerations.....	111
Chapter 4. Data, Analysis and Interpretation.....	113
4.1. Overview of Chapter.....	114
4.2. Data Specification.....	116
4.3. Overview of Data and Analysis.....	119
4.3.1. Numerical Data.....	119
4.3.2 Interview Data.....	122
4.3.2.1. Process.....	122
4.3.2.2. Themes.....	128
4.4. Integrated Analysis and Discussion Using a Logic Model.....	133
4.4.1. What is the Impact of the Planning Intervention Tool?.....	134

4.4.1.2. Intermediary Hypothesis #1.....	147
4.4.2. How Might the Planning Intervention Support Change?.....	148
4.4.2.1. Intermediary Hypothesis #2.....	166
4.4.3. How Might Exploring Reasons Underlying Behaviour Support and Impact on Outcomes?.....	169
4.4.3.1. Intermediary Hypothesis #3.....	177
4.4.4. Who Might the Planning Intervention Impact On?.....	179
4.4.4.1. Intermediary Hypothesis #4.....	183
4.4.5. How Might the Planning Intervention Tool be Sustainable in Schools.....	185
4.4.5.1. Intermediary Hypothesis #5.....	190
4.4.6. How Might Educational Psychologists Support the Implementation of the Planning Intervention in Schools?.....	191
4.4.6.1. Intermediary Hypothesis #6.....	196
Chapter 5. Synthesis and Final Conclusions.....	198
5.1. How Can Alternative Forms of a Planning Intervention Tool Be Used to Support Children’s Emotional Well-Being in Schools?.....	198
5.2. Key Features of the Planning Intervention Tool.....	200
5.2.1. Multi-Element Plans.....	200

5.2.2. Functional Analysis.....	201
5.2.3. Target Monitoring and Evaluation.....	203
5.3. Core Values.....	204
5.4. Triangulated Use of the SDQ and SCHI.....	204
5.5. Future Directions.....	205
References.....	209
Appendix 1a. Parent Information Sheet and Consent Form.....	231
Appendix 1b. School Information Sheet and Consent Form.....	233
Appendix 1c. Children’s Information Sheet and Consent Form.....	236
Appendix 2. Training Materials.....	238
Appendix 3a. Teacher SDQ.....	253
Appendix 3b. Child SDQ.....	256
Appendix 4a. Teacher SCHI.....	259
Appendix 4b. Child SCHI.....	262
Appendix 5. Principles of Thematic Analysis.....	265
Appendix 6. Principles of Numerical Analysis.....	272
Appendix 7. Principles of Thematic Analysis.....	275
Appendix 8. Ethics Application.....	284

Appendix 9. Example Transcript – Annotated.....289

Appendix 10. Example Collation of Codes by Sub-Theme and
Theme.....296

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Systemic approach to understanding children’s emotional well-being in schools.....	23
Figure 2.2. Summary of Research Questions.....	68
Figure 3.1. Design of Case Study.....	81
Figure 3.2. Procedure of Case Study.....	83
Figure 3.3a Planning Intervention Tool Page 1.....	93
Figure 3.3b Planning Intervention Tool Page 2.....	94
Figure 3.3c Planning Intervention Tool Page 3.....	96
Figure 3.3d Planning Intervention Tool Page 4.....	97
Figure 3.3e Planning Intervention Tool Page 5.....	98
Figure 4.1. Summary of Research Questions.....	113
Figure 4.2a Specification of Numerical Data Sources.....	117
Figure 4.2b. Specification of Interview Data Sources.....	118
Figure 4.3. Skeletal Map of Thematic Analysis.....	126
Figure 4.4. Final Thematic Map.....	127
Figure 4.5. Mean and Median Scaling Scores.....	135
Figure 4.6. Theme: Impact.....	139

Figure 4.7. Theme: Contributory Factors.....	149
Figure 4.8. Mean Scaling Scores Comparing TME and TME & ER.....	170
Figure 4.9. Teachers' and Children's Self Ratings on the SDQ Comparing TME and TME & ERB.....	171
Figure 4.10. Teachers' and Children's Self-Ratings on the SCHI Comparing TME and TME & ERB.....	171
Figure 4.11. Theme: Practice.....	186

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. Summary of Participants' Allocation to ERB & TME and TME Only Groups by School and Age.....	100
Table 4.1. Summary of Children's Numerical Data.....	121
Table 4.2. Summary of the Procedure of Thematic Analysis.....	124
Table 4.3. Descriptive Analysis of Children's Self-Ratings on the SDQ and SCHI.....	137
Table 4.4. Descriptive Analysis of Teachers' Ratings on the SDQ and SCHI.....	141
Table 5.1. Summary of Research Questions to Clarify Issues Not Addressed Within the Present Study and Possible Appropriate Research Designs.....	206

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

In January 2009, Deborah Page (Senior Educational Psychologist in Derbyshire) delivered a session to the first year cohort of the Doctorate in Educational and Child Psychology course at the University of Sheffield. The session focussed on a planning tool to support children's behaviour in schools, which incorporated a number of key features, of which four caught my interest immediately: specificity regarding what the behaviour(s) causing concern were, a planning format which encouraged exploration of environmental interventions as well as opportunities for child-centred approaches; explicit opportunities to explore what the function of the behaviour(s) causing concern may be; and tools to support children in exploring and expressing their views and understanding of their own behaviours. I had been teaching up until the previous July and while engaging in this session, was struck by the following recurring mental grumble: why hadn't I known about this sort of thing when I was teaching? Could having known about this sort of approach have made all of the difference with Aiden, Rakeem and Mariam? Perhaps even Mohammed and Ashleigh? I found a great affinity with this planning tool and, encouraged by Deborah Page to have a go, I proceeded to use it during my first year placements. Perhaps, I wondered, most teachers were aware of this sort of tool and I just happened not to be? Sure enough, not only was it received very well by

all of the children, families and school staff who I used it with, but the school staff stated consistently that they found it extremely helpful and hadn't come across anything like it before. I took it back to my old school in the inner-city and shared it there; the SENCO and members of teaching and TA staff were impressed with it and told me that it looked like a manageable way to really use psychology to try to meet children's emotional and behavioural needs in schools.

"For many teachers, the challenge of meeting children's diverse needs in the classroom setting can be a daunting one," (Morris, 1999, p.25). There is increased national emphasis on the role of schools in promoting children's emotional well-being (e.g. Allen, 2011), and indeed evidence that children themselves refer to school as a key source of well-being (e.g. McLaughlin & Clarke, 2010). Supporting school staff in effective and manageable ways to do this therefore seems to be a clear and key need (e.g. Beard, Pell, Shurrocks-Tyler & Swinnerton, 2004; Swain, Whitley, McHugo & Drake, 2009).

The present thesis presents a Case Study exploring the effectiveness¹ of a planning intervention tool based on the above-mentioned features, impacting on children's behaviour and emotional well-being in two schools. It aims further to explore more precisely how it may be effective; which features of the planning intervention tool might

¹ The term, 'effectiveness' is used throughout the present thesis to refer to the extent to which a measure taken can be associated with the realisation of its intended outcomes. See Section 1.3. for further elaboration on this point.

contribute to any effectiveness; if it is effective, who it is effective for; how its implementation may be sustainable in schools; and how Educational Psychologists may be able to support its future implementation and effectiveness.

1.1. Core Values

There are a number of core values inherent in the approaches that underpin the present study.

1.1.1. CHILDREN'S EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

One key aim of the planning intervention tool was that it may be used to address the needs of children's emotional well-being in relation to both internalising and externalising behaviours. Definitions of emotional well-being from mental health² literature refer to internalised elements, including *'the opposite of depression'*, resilience, attentiveness and involvement, as well as externalised elements such as, *'the opposite of conduct disorder, delinquency, interpersonalised violence and bullying'* (Shucksmith, Summerbell, Jones & Whittaker, 2007; see also McLaughlin & Clark, 2010). Studies investigating the impact of internalised and externalised emotional difficulties as predictors of risk factors for children and young people have indicated that both internalised and

² It may be worth stating from the outset that the terms 'emotional well-being' and 'mental health' are used largely interchangeably throughout the present thesis. The difference between the two constructs appears to be more of a semantic one reinforced by professional cultures (i.e. medicalised and definitive language in Clinical Psychology compared to more fluid and more friendly-sounding language in Educational Psychology) than a difference in the underlying nature of the concerns or conceptualisation of the difficulties.

externalised emotional difficulties, if unaddressed, are reliable predictors of academic failure (e.g. Hecht, Inderbitzen & Bukowski, 1998; Laukkanen, Shemmeika, Notkala, Kaivumaa-Honkanen & Nissinen, 2002; Shucksmith et al., 2007). Externalised behaviour difficulties have also been found to provide reliable predictors for health-damaging and anti-social behaviours in later life (e.g. Guttmanova, Szanyi & Cali, 2008). Internalising emotional difficulties have been found to be reliable predictors for anxiety, depression, peer isolation and physical inactivity (e.g. Hecht et al., 1998; Guttmanova et al., 2008; Laukkanen et al., 2002; Kraatz-Kelly, Bates, Dodge & Petit, 2000).

There is some debate surrounding the terminology of 'internalising' and 'externalising' emotional difficulties, partly on account of *"the dichotomy used [being]...too simplistic"* (Laukkanen et al., 2002, p. 146). However, the terms 'internalising' and 'externalising' difficulties are used here because *"these two groups of syndromes are the ones most often used in other studies"* (Laukkanen et al., 2002, p. 146). Furthermore, studies exploring the constructs of internalising and externalising emotional difficulties have tended to conclude that they represent two distinct structures, albeit reflecting a *"more general manifestation of a more general tendency"* (Reitz, Deković & Meijer, 2005, p.585).

In order to ensure that the needs of children who were not exhibiting outwardly 'difficult' behaviours but who may nonetheless be struggling emotionally, were not overlooked in the present study, it was therefore

important that both internalising and externalising emotional difficulties were able to be addressed through the planning intervention tool. Furthermore, the distinction between internalising and externalising emotional difficulties appears to be roughly synonymous with gender differences, with more girls appearing to struggle with the former, and boys with the latter (e.g. Laukkanen et al., 2002; Margalit, Mioduser, Al-Yagon & Neuberger, 1997; Reitz et al., 2005). By explicitly providing an opportunity to evaluate the effectiveness of a tool which may address internalising and externalising emotional difficulties, and therefore of girls as well as boys, the present study aimed to promote equality in targeting support for emotional well-being in schools.

1.1.2. EARLY INTERVENTION

A second key value relating to the design and implementation of the present study was that the planning intervention tool should be applicable for children who may otherwise not be likely to reach the threshold criteria for support from an external agency (i.e. school action plus). Shucksmith et al. (2007) distinguish between 'targeted' intervention and 'indicated' intervention, where the former refers to interventions aimed to support children 'who may be vulnerable and 'at risk' of more serious difficulties, and where the latter refers to children already experiencing significant difficulties. The present study aimed to provide support for children 'at risk' but who may not otherwise have access to external support. A necessary consequence of limited

resources in local authorities is that services become specifically targeted at particular populations; in the majority of local authorities in the UK, this means individuals with the highest level of current need. However, although it may feel intuitive to target a large proportion of resources at individuals at the highest levels of current need some research from epidemiology suggests that the most effective way to instigate positive change is to target a population closer to the mean in terms of risk factors (e.g. Rose, 2001). The suggestion is not that children with high levels of current need should not receive support, rather attention is simply drawn to the parallel suggestion that targeting those with the highest levels of needs (i.e. indicated intervention) may not be as successful in terms of outcomes as targeting those 'at risk' (i.e. targeted intervention).

The aim was to therefore to introduce and evaluate an approach that may be used in schools, by school staff, so that children 'at risk' may also have access to potentially helpful interventions, and ideally, avoid more significant problems arising at a later date. Indeed, a key implication highlighted as a result of a recent government evaluation of the Targeting Mental Health in Schools (TaMHS) initiative was that, *"It may make sense to prioritise mental health work with primary school pupils in relation to behavioural problems to have maximum impact before problems become too entrenched"* (Allen 2011, p. 13).

In the present study children were identified by school staff where there may have been concerns relating to emotional well-being for at least one academic term, but not necessarily those who would meet criteria for support at the level of School Action Plus.

1.1.3. SUSTAINABILITY

Consistent with the above discussion relating to limited resources and consequent targeting of interventions for children with the highest levels of need, a further core aim of the present study was to explore a tool for targeting children's emotional well-being in schools that is implementable without intense support from external agencies (such as Educational Psychology Services). Many research studies evaluating interventions relating to behaviour and emotional well-being rely heavily on implementation from specifically trained external agencies (see Dartnow & Stringfield, 2000; Swain et al., 2009; Wilson & Lipsey, 2007). There is relatively little literature surrounding the long-term sustainability of effective educational interventions over time. Bond, Cole, Fletcher and Noble (2011) found that a lack of funding and mandate, changes of priority and a reduced degree of external support presented threats to the long-term sustainability of interventions in school settings. The present study therefore aimed to provide a planning intervention tool which did not depend on immediate direct support from Educational Psychologists (although indirect support was not withheld at any time).

1.2. NATIONAL AND LOCAL RELEVANCE

Evaluation of a planning intervention tool designed to promote children's emotional well-being in schools is consistent with both national and local initiatives.

1.2.1. NATIONAL RELEVANCE

National data on exclusion rates in schools indicate that a clear majority of permanent and fixed period exclusions in primary schools in England was related to externalising behavioural difficulties. National rates of permanent and fixed period exclusion appear to be dropping over time (0.08% of the school population in 2009/10 compared to 0.09% in 2008/9, and 4.46% of the school population in 2009/10 compared to 4.89 % in 2008/9, respectively). However, of these in 2009/10, 29% of all permanent exclusions were related to persistent disruptive behaviour, these were closely followed by physical abuse (against staff and other pupils) and verbal abuse or threatening behaviour towards an adult (DfE, 2012). Consistent with evidence indicating gender differences in externalising behaviour (e.g. Margalit et al., 1997; Reitz et al., 2005), rates of exclusion were markedly higher for boys (77.7 %) than girls (23.3 %). Also consistent with rates of externalising and internalising behaviour difficulties being higher for children from backgrounds with lower social-economic status (e.g. Kraatz-Kelly et al., 2000), rates of permanent exclusion were four times higher for children eligible for free school meals than for those who were not (DfE, 2012). Finally, and

perhaps of particular significance for Educational Psychologists, in the year 2009/2010, children with statements of special educational needs were seven times more likely to be permanently excluded and nine times more likely to receive a fixed period exclusion. Aside from the personal implications for the individual children and young people, the question of permanent exclusion is of particular concern for government as it presents a clear correlation with criminal offending behaviours (e.g. Berridge, Brodie, Pitts, Porteus & Tarling, 2001).

The National TaMHS initiative aimed to *“help schools deliver timely interventions and approaches in response to local need that could help those with mental health problems and those at increased risk of developing them (including looked after children)”* (Allen, 2011, p.7). Following the completion of the initial TaMHS initiatives, the present government has introduced an Early Intervention Grant (EIG), worth £2.2 billion in the years 2011-2012, targeted at early intervention and preventative services for children, young people and families at risk of developing mental health difficulties (DfE, 2012). The planning intervention tool evaluated within the present thesis aims to provide a means of developing an approach to supporting schools in promoting children's emotional well-being, with an emphasis on early intervention in line with these national aims.

1.2.2. LOCAL RELEVANCE

The Local Authority in which the present study was undertaken was heavily involved in the national TaMHS project discussed above, and children's emotional well-being in schools is currently therefore a key area of development locally. In addition to this, the local strategy for Children's and Young People's Services for 2011-2015 states a commitment to working, *"closely at a local level with schools, colleges and settings to identify the needs of vulnerable children and young people so that appropriate intervention enables them to progress in learning, employment and/or training, and attendance and behaviour in learning is improved"* (Loades, 2011, p.10). More specifically, the demographic area in which the research was undertaken is recognised in within the Strategy to have *"some of the greatest levels of multiple deprivation and suffers the greatest inequalities with corresponding lower outcomes in terms of health and education"* (Loades, 2011, p. 6). Given the documented correlation between lower social economic status and risk for internalising and externalising emotional difficulties (e.g. Kraatz-Kelly et al., 2000), and consequent risk for academic failure (e.g. Laukkanen et al., 2005) and permanent exclusion (e.g. Allen, 2011), it seems reasonable that this area of the county may provide an appropriate target for promoting children's emotional well-being in schools, through evaluation of the planning intervention tool under investigation here. This Local Authority's Strategy also makes reference

to its commitment to evidence and effective research into service delivery. The present study thus aims to address this aspiration by evaluating the effectiveness of a planning intervention tool designed to support the emotional well-being of children in schools, thereby contributing to the Local Authority's evidence base.

1.3. EVIDENCE-BASED PRACTICE

The Local Authority's emphasis on developing evidence bases is consistent with a wider move towards evidence-based practice across professions, including educational psychology. The relative status of different types of evidence is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3. However, of key relevance here is the aspiration to usefully evaluate the potential direct and indirect impacts of the planning intervention tool under investigation. As stated from the outset, the features of the planning intervention tool presented at the beginning of my training in Educational Psychology were intuitively helpful. However, although intuitions are powerful and of particular use in generating hypotheses, Lilienfeld, Ammirati and David (2012) state that as practitioner-researchers, we should, *"continually strive to put [our] powerful intuitions to systematic tests in both clinical and research settings. In some cases these intuitions will turn out to be accurate; in others they will turn out to be erroneous"* (p.14). Chambless and Ollendick (2001) are among many researchers to highlight the supremacy of Randomised Control Trials (RCTs) in providing the optimal basis on which to draw

conclusions about subjects of research. Fox (2011) makes the astute point that RCTs are extremely difficult to execute in practice, particularly with the limited funding for research that practitioner-researchers often contend with. However, he also argues that not being able to carry out an RCT is not an excuse for not carrying out research within educational psychology, and advocates for practitioner-research to be undertaken as an inherent element of practice. Anastasiou and Kauffman (2011) sum up this position following a discussion of the relative merits of anecdotal sources of evidence from individuals' personal experiences and more general 'public studies':

"As special educators we are committed to seeking public truths about disabilities and using the methods of science to promote the best education we can for learners with disabilities. By seeking public truths, as well as excellence in the services offered, ultimately serves the cause of social justice" (Anastasiou & Kauffman, 2011, p. 369-370).

There is, however, a key issue which must be recognised if such an aspiration for evidence gained from research providing optimal support for meeting the needs of children within educational and community settings is to be achieved. That is the extent to which evidence gained from tightly controlled experimental conditions can be usefully applied to real-world settings, in which there are inevitably (and usually by definition) a high number of factors which have been 'factored out' or 'controlled for'. Schoenwald and Hoagwood (2001) thus distinguish

between studies which explore the ‘efficacy’ of a given intervention or treatment, and studies which explore ‘effectiveness’, where the former are carried out with a high level of scientific rigour and can provide insight into whether or not a given intervention can work under those particular conditions. The latter *“increasingly include populations, clinicians and clinical situations that are reflective of usual-care circumstances”* (Schoenwald & Hoagwood, 2001, p.1190). The present study is carried out with a clear aim to explore the extent to which the planning intervention tool may support children’s emotional well-being within a real-life setting (i.e. school) with acknowledgement that a necessary condition for such an aim is that certain factors which would be required in order to meet rigorous scientific research standards (e.g. controlling for a high number of extraneous factors) are not met. To this extent the emphasis here is on ‘effectiveness’ rather than ‘efficacy’.

The present study thus aims to evaluate the effectiveness of the planning intervention tool under investigation in a way which moves beyond intuition and in which rival explanations for any impacts indicated will be openly considered. It does not pretend to provide any more insight than can be provided by a case study, but it is hoped that it may provide some useful insights nonetheless.

1.4. PSYCHOLOGICAL UNDERPINNINGS

The approaches indicated in the planning intervention tool under investigation here are underpinned by a number of different psychological perspectives, or paradigms (consistent with a 'multiple-paradigm' stance, e.g. Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010)³.

Systemic psychological perspectives provide a helpful integrating conceptual paradigm within which to consider the present thesis and are implicitly built into the process of the planning intervention. For example Bronfenbrenner's (e.g. ,1989, 2005) bioecological approaches to considering a child's behaviour within the context of the many levels of his or her environment, as well as individual 'person' factors (e.g. Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998) relates to the 'multi-element' approach adopted (e.g. Eccles & Pitchford, 1997), which emphasises both environmental and skills-based interventions Systems psychology is also considered during the discussion in relation to the contributory systemic factors and implications arising from implementation of an intervention in an educational organisation (e.g. Garcia & Cohen, 2011).

³ While the present section provides an overview of some of the psychological paradigms within which the planning intervention tool and the associated research may be considered, it does not provide an exhaustive list of all possible paradigms but rather only those which are most relevant here. For example, psychodynamic perspectives are not discussed here as the subject under discussion does not lend itself easily to interpretation within such a paradigm. Furthermore, the planning intervention tool as used here is not designed to, and is not appropriate to addressing children's needs through psychodynamic approaches, or indeed to measuring the potential impacts of these through observable means. Similarly, a medical paradigm is not considered here as the planning intervention tool would not have the capacity to address children's needs through associated means. This does not therefore suggest that elements of the present study could not be considered within alternative paradigms, but simply that the paradigms outlined below are considered to be more relevant.

The planning intervention tool as a whole package is perhaps most appropriately aligned with Positive Psychology (e.g. Seligman, 2002). Positive Psychology concerns itself with a move away from emphasis on making the most serious concerns better, and towards building on the most positive aspects of a situation, focussing on human strength and nurturing talent (e.g. Compton, 2005). The solution-focussed element of the planning intervention has its roots in this approach (e.g. Stobie, Boyle & Wolfson, 2007), and is perhaps most apparent in the planning intervention with its immediate emphasis on identifying a child's strengths and what they like so that any intervention can build on what works well.

The elements of the planning intervention relating to behaviour specification, and contexts in which a behaviour may occur have a behaviourist origin, particularly in the assumption that behaviours are reinforced by particular contexts and events (Cooper, Heron & Heward, 2007; Skinner, 1953). The aspiration to avoid the reinforcement of behaviour through adaptation of environmental or social stimuli also relates to this paradigm.

Perspectives from social psychology are implicit in the analysis of the data collected and presented here. Bandura's (e.g. 1997) theories of self-efficacy are drawn upon in the responses of school staff to children's behaviour (for example, in terms of coping skills and finding functionally equivalent behaviours), but also in the school staffs' own responses to

carrying out the planning interventions. Cognitive perspectives were adopted at times as a function of the planning intervention to support understanding of more specific learning needs.

The underlying aspiration of the planning intervention is to promote a humanistic approach to understanding the needs and communicative functions of behaviour of children in schools (e.g. Rogers, 1951; Steege, and Watson, 2009). This approach applies explicitly also to all of the members of school staff who participated in the present research. A humanist approach is also aspired to for the reader. It is hoped the task of reading this thesis will not be overly arduous, nor cause the reader to lose hope at any stage that the thesis will never end; eventually it will.

1.5. OVERVIEW OF THESIS

The present thesis aims to evaluate the potential impacts of a planning intervention tool on children's behaviour and emotional well-being in primary schools. A multiple embedded Case Study approach is used whereby the Case is the planning intervention tool. The multiple element refers to the evaluation taking place in two different settings, and the embedded aspect reflects the comparison of two alternative forms of the planning intervention tool; one which explicitly incorporates the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour and one which does not. Factors are also explored relating to how different elements of the planning intervention may support an impact, who the planning intervention may impact upon, how sustainable the planning

intervention tool may be in schools in the longer-term and how Educational Psychologists may support this effectively.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the extant literature relating to the question of children's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools, as well as related interventions. Research literature relating to the nature of the planning intervention tool evaluated here is also examined.

Chapter 3 presents the methodological considerations and design implemented in the present research. More specifically, the Case Study approach is discussed and the design and procedure of the study are specified. Chapter 3 also provides a discussion relating to the principles relating to the analyses undertaken.

Chapter 4 comprises an integrated presentation of the data, analysis and interpretation with reference to extant literature and theory. This is carried out within a framework based upon a Logic Model.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents a final synthesis of the findings and final conclusions, as well as further discussion of additional possible implications arising from the case study.

Cameron (2011) notes that a key concern in disseminating mixed-methods research is that it can prove to be quite cumbersome in its presentation. She therefore calls for methods of presentation which are not necessarily traditional where necessary. The present thesis therefore incorporates a number of graphical representations to support linguistically economical explanations of complex ideas.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER

The present chapter presents a review of literature including research and government publications which are relevant to, and which also direct, the concepts and frameworks inherent in considering children's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools, and therefore, the planning intervention tool explored in this thesis.

A discussion of the context of behaviour and emotional well-being in schools is considered to be an appropriate starting point for two reasons. Firstly, it is important to explore why behaviour (and latterly emotional well-being) in school, continue to receive such a great deal of attention from teachers, parents, advisors, policy makers and so on. Secondly, consideration of the context of behaviour and emotional well-being and the systems surrounding them are important in understanding what factors may maintain them, and where in the system any interventions to promote change are likely to be able to impact.

Having set the scene and established the context, this Chapter continues with discussions of the key elements embedded in the planning intervention to be explored. These include Multi-element Planning (Section 2.4.), Functions of Behaviour (Section 2.5) and Target Monitoring and Evaluation (Section 2.6). Following a brief discussion of

differential perspectives of different stakeholders on behaviour and emotional well-being (in terms of identification of difficulties as well as progress following interventions), the Chapter concludes with a summary and specification of the research questions to be addressed in the remainder of the thesis.

2.2. CONTEXT

2.2.1. SYSTEMS SURROUNDING EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING, MENTAL HEALTH AND BEHAVIOUR.

*"No man is an island entire of itself; every man
is a piece of the continent, a part of the main..."*

- John Donne (1624/1936) from Meditations XVII, p.538.

Much as 'no man is an island', a child's behaviour and performance within school cannot be usefully explored without due consideration of the systems which surround and contribute to them either directly or indirectly. Systemic-interactionist approaches to behavioural (and emotional) difficulties provide a helpful tool by which this may be achieved. Such systemic approaches are increasingly supported within practitioner-research surrounding difficulties with behaviour and emotional well-being for children in schools (e.g. Bennett, 2005; Cooper & Upton, 1990; Miller & Leydn, 1999).

Vygotsky's sociocultural accounts of children's cognitive development proposed that it could only be meaningfully understood with reference to children's social, cultural and historical context. Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model of children's development (e.g. Bronfenbrenner 1989, 2005; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998) allows extension of such tenets beyond cognitive development, to wider related aspects (e.g. Rogoff, 2003). Indeed, Bronfenbrenner's bioecological theory in its 'mature' form emphasises the consideration of human development in terms of interrelations among *Process* (proximal processes of interactions between a biopsychological human and that which it encounters in its environment), *Person* (the biological, genetic and other personal characteristics which a person brings with them to any situation), *Context* (the nature of the immediate and removed environments which may an individual may experience) and *Time* (reflecting what is happening immediately during an experience, the degree of consistency with which activities and interactions occur within the individual's experience and specific historical events occurring at a wider community, national or international level)(e.g. Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Bennett (2005) proposed a systemic structure for considering the bidirectional impacts of children and young people's behavioural difficulties on themselves (as individuals), their families, their educational communities and society. It is worth noting that Bennett's proposed structure had less emphasis on the Process, Time and Person features of Bronfenbrenner's mature bioecological model

than on the Context element (see Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield & Karnik, 2009). To this extent, Bennett's proposed model is more consistent with earlier versions of Bronfenbrenner's earlier ecosystemic model (e.g. Bronfenbrenner, 1979) than with his later, 'mature' bioecological theory (e.g. Bronfenbrenner 1989, 2005; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Nonetheless, what Bennett's model does provide is a systemic structure which is helpfully designed to consider those features of Context specific to children in school. However, although Bennett discusses the impact of politics on such systems, these are not explicitly built in to the proposed model. The wider 'macro-systemic' influences of media and the national economic situation as well as cultural zeitgeists are also absent from his model. The systemic model presented in Figure 2.1 thus incorporates these factors into Bennett's structure but using a framework more explicitly based on Bronfenbrenner's multiple systemic levels including the micro-system, meso-system, exo-system and macro-system, and with an emphasis on factors of Process, Person and Context, although less on Time (Tudge et al., 2009)

In brief, what the systemic model in Figure 2.1 aims to show is the influence of factors far removed from children's direct experience at the macro-system level (e.g. political – for example, introduction of policy and prioritization of academic targets; economic – for example, impacts of recession on parental working hours and financial stability; zeitgeist – for example, emphasis on mainstream education for all children, i.e.

inclusion). These factors interact with factors at the level of the exo-system, which in turn interact with factors in the micro-system surrounding a child (see 2.1.), which in turn affect the child (including their emotional well-being and behaviour).

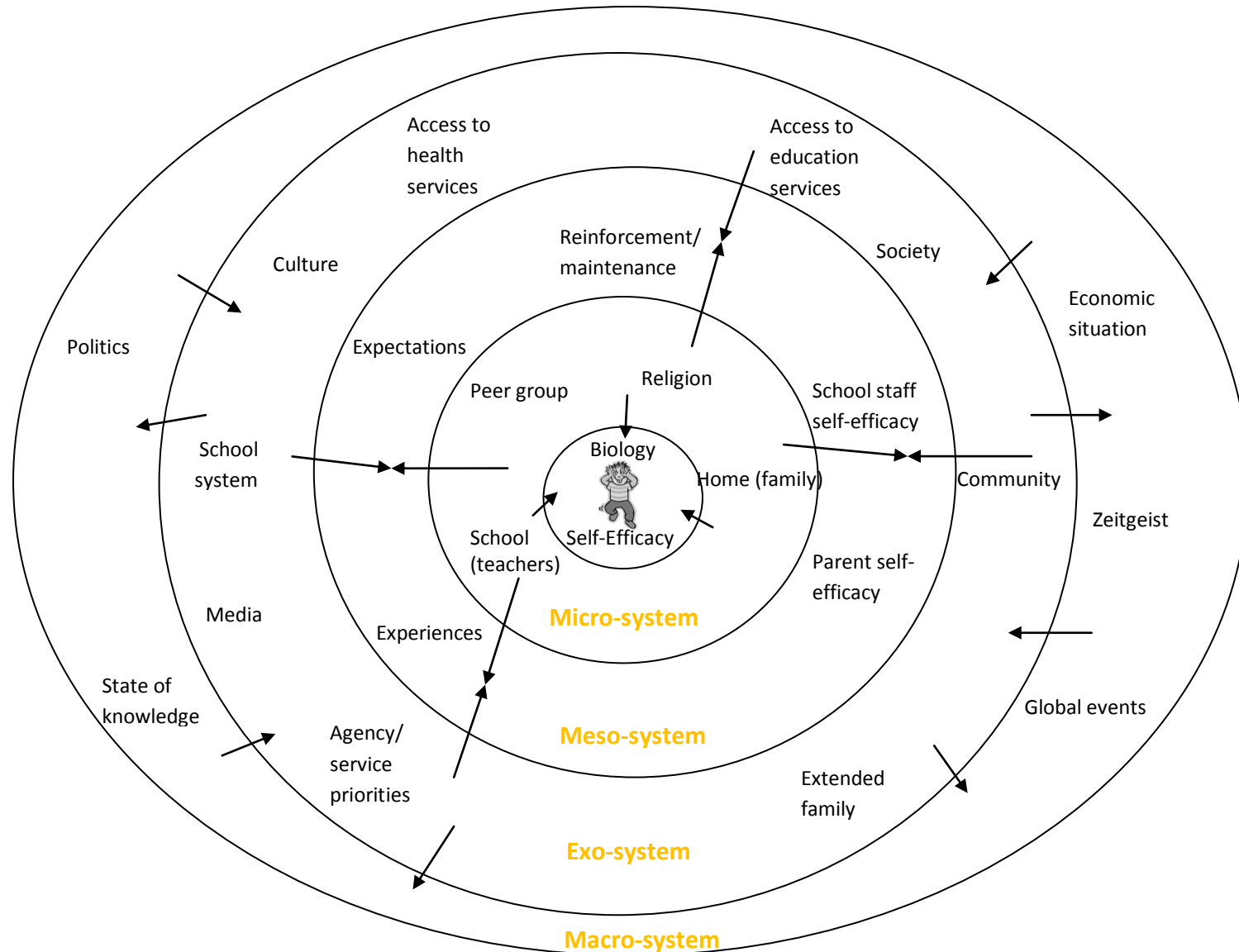


Figure 2.1. Systemic model of factors relating directly and indirectly to children's emotional well-being in schools. Consistent with Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model, influences upon children's emotional well-being can be considered at a number of levels but with the child firmly at the centre. The model allows for individual child-features, including biological predispositions and fluid factors like self-efficacy. In the micro-system are the influences with which a child may come into direct contact, and in the exo-system, factors which the child may encounter but more remotely. The meso-system sits between the micro- and exo-systems and reflects the outcomes of interactions between the two. The macro-system comprises influences which the child is unlikely to have direct contact with, but which directly influence factors within the exo-system, thus indirectly affecting the child at the centre.

There is not capacity within the present thesis for a detailed discussion of the multitude of factors that impact on children's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools at their different levels of removal (i.e. direct or indirect). However, these are considered to be crucial in understanding and addressing children's behaviour and emotional needs. Furthermore, Miller (2003) suggests that systemic-interactionist approaches to understanding children's difficulties may circumvent unhelpful and simplistic blaming regarding whose fault or responsibility such difficulties may be. The planning intervention tool explored within the present thesis refers to interactions predominantly between the child and the micro-system, but aims also to have some direct links with children's exo-systems inasmuch as it avoids reliance on access to education services and aims to build capacity for addressing children's emotional and behavioural needs within the school system.

2.2.2. THE ISSUE OF BEHAVIOUR DIFFICULTIES IN SCHOOLS.

The question of pupil behaviour in schools is a great initiator of conversation and debate among teachers, parents, staff rooms, newspaper columns and the House of Commons. Steer (2009) noted that the public perception of behaviour in schools as portrayed in the media tends to be largely negative. Indeed this concern is not unique to the United Kingdom, being raised also

throughout Europe, the United States and Australia (Elton, 1989). The aim of the current literature review is to explore the current context of behaviour in schools and to examine the some of the reasons why investigation of the reasons underlying severe behaviours causing concern may be crucial in effectively supporting children and young people in addressing them.

2.2.2.1 BEHAVIOUR AS DISCIPLINE

There have been periodic episodes of public concern relating to behavioural standards in school throughout the history of formal education in the United Kingdom (e.g. Board of Education, 1927; Elton, 1989) and Gray, Miller and Noakes (1994) warn against pining for, *“a golden age of teaching with no behaviour problems... [where]...teachers were able to respond without distraction, to pupils’ enthusiastic search for knowledge”* (Gray, Miller & Noakes, 1994, p.1). Following a more recent period of public disquiet about the perceived status of behaviour and discipline in UK schools, in 2005 a ‘Practitioner’s Group’ was set up with a view to investigating this more thoroughly. This was set up by Alan Steer and was made up of a group of fifteen ‘teacher practitioners’ (including head teachers, principles, deputy head teachers, classroom teachers and government education advisors). The resulting report, ‘Learning Behaviour’ (DfES, 2005) stated that, *“the behaviour of children in schools is good, as it has always*

been” (p.18) and that schools are managing well. While the Steer Report does not draw explicitly on data regarding behaviour (focusing rather on the views of the fifteen members of the Practitioner’s Group shared at their five meetings), the conclusions arising from the report appear to be consistent with the findings of more comprehensive wide-spread reviews of behaviour in schools. For example, Apter, Arnold and Swinson (2010) reported a study in which observations of pupil off- and on-task behaviour⁴ were carried out in 171 primary schools classrooms across the UK. Their results indicated a number of interesting findings, but of most pertinent relevance here was that pupils were found to be engaging in ‘on-task’ behaviour for over 85 percent of the time. This is consistent with Steer’s (2009) claims that behaviour in school is good overall (in primary schools at least)⁵.

2.2.2.2. THE IMPACT OF BEHAVIOUR IN SCHOOLS.

Surveys of teacher views on behaviour carried out by the National Union of Teachers (NUT) in 2008 and by the National Association of Schoolmasters and Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT) also in 2008, found that the majority of teachers involved agreed that

⁴ The aim of Apter et al’s (2010) study was to investigate the relationships between teacher-verbal behaviour and children’s on- and off-task learning behaviours. There may be some methodological concerns around the extent to which pupils appearing to be on-task actually reflect learning. However, for the purposes of the present discussion, Apter et al’s study provides a helpful source of data around the proportions of pupil behaviour in primary classrooms.

⁵ Data collection is currently in progress for the secondary stage of the Mass Observation study carried out by Apter et al. (2010).

overall the behaviour of children in schools was improving over time. However, and perhaps of crucial importance here, a majority of the teachers involved in the surveys felt that the behaviour problems displayed by a small minority of pupils was more acute and problematic. Two thirds of teachers were reported to believe that teachers were leaving the profession as a direct result of the stress arising from this minority but severe behaviour problems. Indeed, Gray, Miller and Noakes (1994) acknowledged this position, saying, *“Ask any teacher what makes their job so difficult and they will point to the problems presented by pupils with challenging behaviour”* (Gray, Miller & Noakes, 1994, p.1).

It is not clear why it should be the case that the extent and severity of a minority of children’s behaviour may have increased in recent years. However, it may be worth considering that the emphasis on inclusion in mainstream schools and the consequent reluctance to provide access to specialised and targeted provision for students with significant behavioural difficulties, may have resulted in a larger number of children and young people with severe and acute behavioural difficulties being present in mainstream schools than previously would have been the case. While the remit of inclusion may place great emphasis on the value of children and young people being educated among their peers, it would be short-sighted not to acknowledge or accept the

impact of severe and acute behavioural difficulties on peer groups and teaching staff.

“One child behaving badly can undermine learning by the whole class...Disruptive or bullying behaviour by even a small minority of pupils can create a school environment in which pupils feel unsafe, undermining effective teaching and learning.”

- Steer (2009, p.2)

This point is made here not in order to vilify that small minority of children and young people who have severe and acute difficulties with behaviour. Rather it is made with a view to maintaining a sensible and reflective perspective about the situations in which these pupils, their teachers, senior management teams, peers and families find themselves (See Figure 2.1).

Indeed, consistent with a systemic-interactionist approach to developing an understanding of behaviour (and emotional well-being) in schools, it is important that multiple-contributory perspectives are recognised and acknowledged. Sir Alan Steer himself warns against the dangers of ‘demonising children’. Similarly, Bennett (2005) notes the potential impacts of different personalities of different staff, in different moods, with different experiences resulting in inconsistencies in what is perceived as ‘challenging behaviour’. He notes that a child who may be perceived by one teacher to be a noisy extrovert may be

considered by another to be a noisy disrupter, and that behaviour which may be considered 'mildly annoying' on a Tuesday morning, may by Friday afternoon be the last straw and escalate. Bennett suggests elegantly that, "*Deviance, like beauty, is in the eye of the beholder*" (Bennett, 2005, p.11). The latter difficulty relates directly to what is widely acknowledged to present one of the key ingredients in promoting positive behaviour in schools: consistency (e.g. Head, Kane & Cogan, 2003; Taylor, 2011).

2.2.2.3 ADDRESSING BEHAVIOUR IN SCHOOLS

In 2011, the government's newly appointed Expert Advisor on Behaviour, Charlie Taylor, published a guideline in the form of a checklist to support managing behaviour in schools⁶. Charlie Taylor, a head teacher of a special school for children with emotional, behavioural and social difficulties in West London, developed a checklist as a result of inspiration from the medical world. Taylor (2011) exalts the value and effectiveness of simple approaches to managing behaviour, stating, "*Often it is doing the simple things that can make a difference with behaviour*" (Taylor, 2011, p.1). Upon speaking with a group of head teachers from outstanding schools working with what he describes as some of the most deprived pupils in the United Kingdom about 'what works' for improving behaviour, Taylor found two key recurring

⁶ Note that Taylor (2011) refers to his checklist initiative as a 'grass roots' project run by head teachers and teachers, and not as a government-initiated endeavour.

themes: simplicity and consistency. He proposed that children and young people who know that teachers will stick to a school's behaviour policy and classroom routines tend to feel safer and happier, and that as a consequence, behaviour improves. However, as noted by Bennett (2005), different school staffs' perspectives, experiences and interpersonal approaches can make such consistency which sounds straightforward in theory, difficult to realise in practice.

Taylor draws upon an approach from medicine popularised by Atul Gawande (2010), who noted humans' necessary fallibility in many tasks they set out to achieve. Gawande distinguishes between 'errors of ignorance' and 'errors of ineptitude', and suggests that where ignorance cannot account for human errors in carrying out procedures, the sheer volume and complexity of what we know exceeds human capacity to reliably, correctly or consistently deliver its benefits. Gawande's solution: *"there is such a strategy— though it will seem almost ridiculous in its simplicity, maybe even crazy to those of us who have spent years carefully developing ever more advanced skills and technologies. It is a checklist"*. (Gawande, 2010, p.13). Gawande, a surgeon, thus set to creating a checklist for simple steps that medical staff should do before, during and after carrying out surgery (e.g. washing hands; checking that all swabs used are removed and accounted for). As a result of this, there was a marked reduction in the number of

patients who became seriously or even fatally ill after surgery. Taylor (2011) suggests that a similar approach used to ensure that simple but crucial steps may be undertaken by all staff working within a school to ensure consistency and maintenance of clear boundaries. He suggests that head teachers and staff decide on the priorities for improving behaviour within their settings and create a bespoke checklist of between five and ten essential actions to promote desirable behaviour. By all staff running through the checklist in the morning and after lunch they will be reminded to ensure that key actions are in place and thus promote consistency. Taylor's (2011) proposal for a checklist provides an intuitive and straightforward whole school approach to the promotion of children and young peoples' sense of safety, well-being and happiness. However, for children and young people whose behaviour causing concern is more persistent, frequent or intense, Taylor concedes that an additional contingency plan and additional support may be necessary. It is thus important that the implementation of effective whole-school behaviour policies is not conflated with the specific needs of individuals being addressed through targeted support.

Key messages about consistency and positive relationships between students and adults in school, in promoting positive behaviour suggested by Taylor (2011) are consistent with the findings of a large scale study carried out by Head, Kane and

Cogan (2003). Head et al. (2003) carried out an evaluation of behaviour initiatives aimed to reduce rates of exclusions in twenty one Scottish secondary schools. Each school was asked to identify six students receiving additional support from behaviour services in the school; two students at each of the intensive, moderate, and minimal levels of support. These students were tracked for three years by school staff completing information on their 'case study form', which included targeted questions (on a standard document) focussing on key areas of interest, including reasons for exclusion, current levels of attainment and involvement in behaviour support. Each school also reported on the nature of their behaviour support and their perceptions surrounding its effectiveness (also on a standard document). Head et al. found a 22% reduction in exclusions across all the schools involved in the study. Analysis of the schools' reports indicated that the most common approaches for supporting behaviour involved teaching outside of the classroom (small group and 1:1), despite the risks presented by a lack of curriculum continuity for the student and the limited skills of behaviour support staff in delivering high-level specialist aspects of the curriculum. Counselling and therapeutic approaches were also used frequently, and school staff raised a desire to develop their skills in this arena. Of the three approaches described in which children remained within the classroom, Head et al. (2003) found that 'cooperative teaching' was employed most

frequently. 'Cooperative teaching' reflects a shift in thinking about learning difficulties, placing the emphasis of causality on the curriculum rather than on the individual child. Rather than extract the child from the classroom, cooperative teaching emphasised close collaboration and cooperation between support staff and class teachers. Indeed, teachers' reports on perceived effectiveness of the different approaches rated 'cooperative teaching' as effective or very effective in reducing exclusions by 93% of respondents, whereas group work and 1:1 teaching were rated as effective by only 60% of respondents. Head et al. (2003) conclude that these findings indicate the crucial role of school ethos, curriculum and teaching approaches in providing for diversity and reducing exclusions. This, they argue, relates to promoting teachers' understanding of and empathy towards students' lives. As with Taylor, this approach may be helpful in general, but it relies fully on the perceptions of school staff, all of which may have been influenced by the additional staffing afforded to schools as a result of their involvement in the project. While staff perceptions on the effectiveness of an approach are useful and valuable, without triangulation with student views or more objective data reflecting outcomes (i.e. rates of exclusion with reference to type of approach) it is difficult to establish tangible effectiveness of outcomes for children. However, as with Taylor (2011), although children's emotional well-being was not

referred to directly, with the emphasis firmly on behaviour as discipline, many aspects of the approach directly supported children's emotional well-being in terms of their relationships with adults and their sense of identity as a learner within a school setting.

The Practitioner's Group headed up by Steer (DES, 2005) outlined a series of 'Ten Principles of what works' for behaviour in schools. These included largely systemic approaches on a more individual level (perhaps aimed at addressing more severe and acute behaviour difficulties). They suggested simply that schools should, *"identify those pupils who have learning and behavioural difficulties, or come from homes that are in crisis and agree with staff common ways of managing and meeting their particular needs"* (DES, 2005). This sample of advice does not appear to be especially helpful for schools in identifying how this may be done to support vulnerable pupils. It may be worth noting that the Steer Report (2009) makes explicit mention of a need for a review to be carried out of behaviour support for children and young people with emotional and behavioural difficulties which constitute or arise from a Special Educational Need (SEN).

There appear to be relatively few large-scale studies of the effectiveness of specific psychosocial prevention programmes for addressing more persistent, frequent and intense aggressive or

disruptive behaviours in schools within the UK. Wilson and Lipsey's (2007) meta-analysis of 249 experiment and quasi-experimental studies into school based intervention programmes addressing aggressive and disruptive behaviours in schools included only two studies (1% of the total studies) carried out in the United Kingdom, compared to twenty (8%) from Canada and 225 (90%) from the United States. The aim of Wilson and Lipsey's meta-analysis was not only to investigate what had been found to be effective in reducing aggressive or disruptive behaviour in schools, but also to explore the characteristics of students who were most likely to benefit from such interventions. The studies in the meta-analysis were characterised by format (universal/whole class, selected pupil/pull out of class/ or multi-modal), intervention form (group, intervention or mixed), the source of the intervention programme (part of a research programme or demonstration programme), and the source of the outcome measures (teacher report, self-report, peer-report, records, observations or parent report). The interventions were further grouped into 'treatment modalities', including: behavioural strategies, cognitive strategies, social skills training, counselling, peer mediation and peer training. Wilson and Lipsey (2007) found that for whole-class interventions, there was no significant effect of treatment modality, that effect sizes were significantly larger for younger than older children and were significantly larger for

children from less privileged social-economic backgrounds than for their more affluent peers. Interestingly there was a significant correlation between outcome measures and the source of the measure in that effect sizes were significantly smaller when measured as a function of student self-report than when ascertained by other sources. This may have some important implications for consideration of multiple perspectives when evaluating the effectiveness of interventions.

Individual interventions, Wilson and Lipsey (2007) found, predominantly entailed withdrawal from classes (in contrast to implications from Head et al., 2003). Effect sizes were significant for cognitively-oriented and behavioural interventions, but were significantly larger for the latter than for any other modality. Effect sizes for individual interventions were found to be significantly larger for intervention programmes which were considered to have been faithfully implemented than those which were not. Although this may appear to constitute an obvious point, it highlights the importance of ongoing training and support for school staff implementing such interventions.

A major potential drawback of such interventions, in particular those outlined in Wilson and Lipsey's (2007) meta-analysis, is that they are implemented on the basis of presenting behaviour, and not adapted to the specific individual needs of the child (or indeed

on the grounds of the possible functions of the child's behaviour; see Section 2.4). Furthermore, the interventions and strategies discussed thus far have been based on the premise of behavioural difficulties as a lack of discipline, and although they have alluded to elements of emotional well-being in contributing to manifest behaviours causing concern, they do not refer to them directly.

2.2.3. BEHAVIOUR, MENTAL HEALTH AND EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING.

As discussed above, the question of challenging behaviour in schools is a pervasive and hotly debated topic. Children's emotional well-being in schools is also an increasingly widespread subject of concern and developing interventions across the United Kingdom (e.g. Allen, 2011; DES, 2005; Shucksmith et al., 2011; see also Zullig, Coopman & Huebner, 2009). However, despite the clear and entangled relationship between the two (e.g. Reitz et al., 2005), rarely are challenging behaviour and emotional well-being discussed jointly within UK-based research or policy documents. Nonetheless, there is increasing acknowledgement within UK Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services (CAMHS) that, where defined as Behavioural, Social and Emotional Difficulties, mental health difficulties can impact on educational progress (CAMHS, 2008). Together We Stand, a review of CAHMS services (House of Commons Health Committee, 1997), carried out in order to clarify the role, structure, organisation and remit of CAMHS, indicated a need for the profile of children's mental health needs in schools to be raised and the

ways in which CAMHS could support them, to be clarified and improved (Appleton, 2000). As a result of this, a tiered system was introduced which provided, *“an integrated approach in which CAMHS professionals work across tiers”* (Richardson, Partridge & Barrett, 2010, p.1). This proposed system emphasised joint responsibility for Universal Services at Tier 1 who, *“play a pivotal role in promotion, prevention and early intervention”* (CAMHS, 2008). Schools were thus indicated as one, among a number of key front line services, who had a crucial role in supporting children’s emotional well-being and mental health needs at Tier 1, and indirectly but just as crucially, at Tier 2 (see Section 2.3). However, the CAMHS review notes that there is still considerable variation in the extent to which schools are engaging in preventative and early intervention work to support children’s emotional well-being and mental health needs, and there remains a tension in schools between an emphasis on raising educational attainment and the need for a broader focus on improving children’s mental health and emotional well-being (CAMHS, 2008). This is evident in the absence of a high profile for children’s mental health and emotional well-being needs in government-, often local authority-, and often school-policy in relation to behaviour. Thus, although there has been great progress in recognising the impact of emotional well-being and mental health needs on behaviour and educational engagement and attainment from a psychological perspective in the UK, this does not appear to be consistently translated into policy and practice by education services. This is in contrast, for

example, to policy documentation for schools in South Australia about behaviour, which refer to directly to challenging behaviour as reflecting internalising and externalising emotional needs (DECS, 2004).

There is a wealth of evidence indicating a link between emotional well-being, mental health and externalising behaviours such as aggression, violent crime, antisocial outcomes, substance abuse and difficulties with peer relationships (e.g. Cicchetti & Toth, 1991; Laukannen et al., 2002; Kraatz-Keily et al., 2000). Many of these form the basis of what schools may report on as undesirable or challenging behaviour. In the academic year 2009-10, *“the most common reason recorded for exclusions in all state funded schools....was persistent disruptive behaviour. This was the reason given for 29.0% of all permanent exclusions”* (DfE, 2012, p.12 and Figure 2.1). School exclusions are also heavily linked to imminent or latent criminal offending behaviours (e.g. Berridge, Brodie, Pitts, Porteus & Tarling, 2001; Carlile, 2012).

Similarly, links between emotional well-being, mental health and internalised behaviours such as depression, anxiety and withdrawal, as well as peer rejection and dependency, have been indicated (e.g. Guttmanova et al., 2007; Kraatz-Keily et al., 2000; Margalit et al., 1997). Both externalising and internalising emotional and behavioural difficulties have been found to correlate with academic failure (e.g. Allen, 2011; Murray-Harvey, 2010; Reitz et al., 2005; Zullig et al.), which is a significant risk factor in long-term outcomes for children and young

people entering into adulthood. School exclusions present a significant risk factor in terms of academic failure.

‘There is... a wealth of evidence linking exclusion from school with academic underachievement, offending behaviour, limited ambition, homelessness and mental ill health. For example, the Department for Education and Skills’ 2004 Youth Cohort Study showed that only 20% of pupils with a fixed-term or permanent exclusion from school in Years 10 and 11 achieved 5 or more GCSEs at A–C (or equivalent), compared to 58% of children not excluded.’*

- House of Commons Educational Select Committee,
2011, Paragraph 17.

Behavioural difficulties and emotional well-being should therefore perhaps not be considered or treated as separate constructs or by separate policies and approaches. Indeed, *“Behavioural and emotional problems in pupils detected by their teachers have been shown to be associated with both existing and future mental health difficulties”* (Laukannen et al., 2002, p.143).

UNICEF’s Report Card #7 (UNICEF, 2007) found, using a range of measures aimed to evaluate the relative well-being of children across twenty one OECD (Organisation for Economic and Cooperative Development) countries, that children’s well-being in the United Kingdom was lower than in any other country in the survey. Follow-up research comparing children’s situations in the United Kingdom with

those in Spain and Sweden (UNICEF, 2011) found a number of factors which accounted for the relatively low-ratings of children's well-being in the United Kingdom. These included very high levels of social inequality (the highest in the OECD), which appeared to impact on children from both affluent and deprived backgrounds. Interestingly, the UK was also found to have the highest levels of variation in academic performance in all of the OECD countries (e.g. PISA, 2006). In addition, a lack of family time (around the table, carrying out family activities and for talking problems through) accounted for a great deal of the difference between the UK and the findings from Spain and Sweden. This may have implications for the development of resilience, a factor which the study draws attention to in relation to social pressures for latest technologies and branded clothes, saying that in Sweden and Spain children tend not to be so worried about these as they are in the United Kingdom. The increased pressures on social conformity and demonstration of identity through belongings may have a direct impact on children's sense of happiness and well-being in schools. The Department of Health's New Horizon's Strategy (2009) defines emotional well-being (mental health) as, *"a positive state of mind and body, feeling safe and being able to cope with a sense of connection with people, communities and the wider environment"* (Department of Health, 2009, p.18).

The importance of managing children's challenging behaviour in schools and the importance of supporting their emotional well-being are thus

not separate goals. It may be crucial in addressing the issues causing concern that policy-decision-making and action reflects the interaction between emotional-well-being and challenging behaviour (in the most persistent and intense cases at least, Miller, 1994) and that these are reflected simultaneously and not as separate constructs.

2.3. SCHOOLS' ROLES IN SUPPORTING EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING AND MENTAL HEALTH.

As regards supporting children with difficulties relating to emotional well-being, schools have a number of very delicate balances to strike. Roffey (2010) suggests that *“Limited acknowledgement is given to the incongruence of education policies. On the one hand schools are being urged to raise educational standards that are measures in individual, competitive test scores whilst on the other hand, they are encouraged to develop values and skills that promote collaboration and pro-social behaviour. This can lead to tensions in community well-being”* (Roffey, 2010, p.157). Furthermore, *“The introduction of published league tables of examination results and other indicators of performance in schools has created a climate less like to be sympathetic to children not only producing no positive contribution to these indicators, but who may also prevent others from doing so”* (Head et al. 2003, p.8).

Nonetheless, McLaughlin and Clarke (2010) report that schools are widely assumed to play an active and key role in promoting children's emotional well-being (ECM, DES, 2003; SEAL, DES, 2005) and that

children spontaneously mention school and education when asked about the ingredients of a good life (see also Blake, Bird & Gerlach, 2009). Steer (2009) also drew attention to parents' perceptions of the role of schools in teaching children manners and behaviour. However, Steer does acknowledge that these are primarily the responsibility of parents and school staff can help by modelling and teaching of social values.

2.3.1. SCHOOLS' ROLE IN SUPPORTING EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING AND MENTAL HEALTH WITHIN THE CAMHS TIERED MODEL.

Similarly to initiatives designed to support behaviour in schools, interventions to support emotional well-being may take place across a continuum of levels, from whole school approaches designed to create a supportive learning environment for all children, to indicated approaches aimed to meet the specific and high needs of individual children. This is consistent with CAMH's Tiered Model for supporting children's emotional well-being and mental health needs. Prior to the Together We Stand Review of CAMH services in the UK, there was a significant divide between support available from front-line services which children encountered, and specialist CAMH services, which resulted in there being limited detection of children's needs until they had reached a critical point, by which time there was often limited access to the specialist services required (Appleton, 2000). The 2008 Tiered Model therefore set out a clear role for schools (among other

front line services) in supporting children's emotional well-being and mental health needs at the Tier 1 level of Universal Services. These were defined as general advice and treatment, early intervention, promoting mental health, and referral to more specialised services. The 2008 review notes that there has been 'considerable progress' (p.24) within Children's Services in providing Tier 1 support, through for example, Sure Start Centres, high quality Early Years provision, parenting courses, Health Schools, SEAL, and cites a popular view which, "*see[s] schools as central stakeholders in efforts to promote mental health and psychological well-being*" (CAMHS, 2008, p.40). The role of schools in supporting children's emotional well-being and mental health needs is also defined at Tier 2, which provides an interface between Tier 1 and multidisciplinary specialist services (Appleton, 2000). Schools' role at this level is to engage in consultation, based largely on a model of collaborative problem-solving between mental health specialists at least one person working closely with the child (e.g. Caplan, 1970). At Tier 2, schools may therefore be involved in assessments with specialist mental health practitioners, may engage in training, and of key importance, are developing their own skill sets in supporting the emotional well-being and mental health needs of children in their schools. This is highly related to Standard 9 of the National Service Framework for Children, Young People and Maternity Services (2004), which states that:

"All children and young people, from birth to their eighteenth birthday, who have mental health problems and disorders have access to timely,

integrated, high quality, multi-disciplinary mental health services to ensure effective assessment, treatment and support, for them and their families”.

- National Service Framework for Children, Young People and Maternity Services, 2004 (p 4.).

Where Tiers 1 and 2 of the CAMHS model are more closely related to the preventative and early intervention work, referred to by Shucksmith et al. (2011) as ‘targeted intervention’, Tiers 3 and 4 reflect work that is reactive to more severe and/or persistent needs which require support from mental health specialist services, discussed by Shucksmith et al (2011) in terms of ‘indicated intervention’. The tiered CAMHS model thus supports the profile of emotional well-being and mental health needs in schools, and emphasises the need for early intervention, prevention and referral to more specialised services where necessary.

2.3.2. SCHOOL-BASED INITIATIVES FOR SUPPORTING EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING AND MENTAL HEALTH.

The introduction of the Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL) initiative in 2005 (DES, 2005) was a culmination of an initiative aimed raise the profile of the importance of emotional health and well-being in schools. Prior to 1997, although emotional literacy and well-being were concepts widely referred to in academic writing and other spheres of the public sector, they were notably absent from educational policies and practice in the United Kingdom (Tew, 2010). Steiner’s (1997) work on

emotional literacy sparked a wave of interest in how these ideas may be relevant to, and applied in schools, and thus was SEAL born, as part of a national strategy relating to behaviour and attendance in England (DES, 2005).

SEAL operated at a number of levels from Wave 1 (whole school), to Wave 2 (small group work) and Wave 3 (targeted 1:1 work), the latter having been implemented and evaluated as part of the national Targeted Mental Health in Schools (TaMHS) programme. There is mixed evidence regarding the effectiveness of SEAL at a whole school level. Adi, Killoran, Janmohamed & Stewart-Brown (2007) found through a systematic literature review that there was some evidence that there was a reasonable impact of Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) on some elements of learning⁷ and Weare and Gray (2003) exalt the potential benefits of whole-school SEL programmes. Conversely, Bachard (2003) states that intervention initiatives involving SEL *“are not the panacea that some writers claim”* (Bachard, 2003, p. 856) and Matthews, Roberts and Zeidner (2004) have proposed that a majority of claims made about the effectiveness of SEL programmes are largely unsubstantiated (Humphrey, Kalambouka, Bolton, Lendrum, Wigelsworth, Lennie & Farrell, 2008). The difficulty in establishing impacts may reflect a number of different factors including idiosyncratic research approaches without triangulation, a significant degree of variation at baseline measures

⁷ Although the nature of the systematic literature review was such that it was difficult to glean a great deal of information about context and conditional or implementation.

before the implementation of the SEL intervention which would make interpretation at a whole school level difficult, and a lack of clarity over the measures in terms of direct measurement or proxy indicators.

SEAL also formed part of the TaMHS project (e.g. at its highest (Wave 3) level of indicated intervention), which also has mixed results in terms of outcomes for children and young people (e.g. DCSF, 2008). This has, in part at least, been accounted for by the high degree of external support in implementing SEL programmes which makes them difficult to sustain in the longer term (e.g. Humphrey et al., 2008). Roffey (2010) notes that the success of any intervention carried out in a school, but particularly in relation to emotional and social well-being, is dependent on two crucial factors; the nature of the intervention but also the ethos, culture and climate of the individual school. Where such interventions have tended not to be successful, she argues, has been where an inflexible social or emotional well-being and development package has been introduced, which is not related to the context (e.g. Craig, 2007; Ecclestone, 2004).

The impact of children's externalising and internalising behaviour and emotional difficulties on themselves as well as their peers, school staff and families is significant. The risk factors associated with emotional and behavioural difficulties on longer term outcomes for the children and young people, their families, communities and societies, is significant. The value of understanding the perspectives of children and young people experiencing difficulties themselves, as well as their peers,

the school staff who work with them, their families and policy makers is not to be underestimated in allowing for meaningful positive change. The importance of introducing support strategies that are adaptable to a school's needs and sustainable in the longer term is clear. The following sections consider other aspects of understanding of children and young peoples' difficulties with behaviour and emotional well-being which may be important in planning to make meaningful and positive change.

2.4. MULTIPLE ELEMENTS

Consistent with a systemic interpretation of children's emotional and behavioural difficulties (see Figure 2.1), Bennett (2005) notes that to pursue a single cause for these in any individual is likely to be ineffective (see also Cooper, 1998; Miller, 2003). Yet, McCausland, Grey Wester and McClean (2004) indicate that many behavioural interventions comprise a single element. Indeed, based on the findings of a government-initiated large-scale review of behaviour in schools which drew on evidence (questionnaires, interviews, visits, open-ended written submissions) from some 3500 teachers representing 250 secondary schools and 220 primary schools, Elton (1989) stated that behaviour in schools is "*a complex problem which does not lend itself to simple solutions*" (p.64). He added further that "*One of the most striking features of our evidence is the sheer variety of causes of, and cures for, bad behaviour*" (Elton, 1989, p.64).

LaVigna, Willis, Shaul, Abedi & Sweitzer (1986) were among the first to acknowledge the complexity of behavioural and emotional difficulties and that, *“success will be more likely if the problem is attacked from as many angles as possible”* (Eccles & Pitchford, 1997, p. 117). Out of this work, the concept of multi-element plans (MEPs) was developed. Geer, Gates and Wray (2000) describe such approaches as offering a ‘whole person’ view of behavioural and emotional difficulties, in that they acknowledge the effect of the totality of culture on people’s behaviour, as well as the potential impacts of social conditioning. However, Geer et al.’s (2000) approach represents more of a social-constructivist lens on emotional and behavioural difficulties in that the emphasis is heavily weighted towards environmental changes around the child, with minimal focus on supporting the child in developing skills. Multi-element approaches as described by Newton and Pitchford (1988), Cook and Pitchford (1996), Eccles and Pitchford (1997) and Doody (2009) allow for both changes in the environment as well as skill development for the child. In this sense, the emphasis is on empowering the child.

Eccles and Pitchford (1997) set out four key areas of consideration in Multi-element Plans used for planning support for children and young people experiencing behavioural and emotional difficulties:

- 1) Ecological Strategies.

These address elements of different environments surrounding the child to support their needs. This may be done by making alterations to the

physical, social and instructional environments with the rationale that this will make difficulties less likely to be provoked and the child's needs better met.

2) Positive Programming.

These considerations aim to support the child in developing new skills that are both directly and functionally related to the difficulties they are experiencing (see Section 2.4). These may include general, functionally equivalent, related and coping skills.

3) Direct Treatment.

Direct treatment is based on behaviourist principles of children making links between events in contexts that may reinforce or maintain inappropriate or unhelpful behaviours. Direct treatment manifests within MEPs as exploration of different types of clearly specific reward strategies aimed to either increase desirable and appropriate behaviours, or to extinguish counterproductive or inappropriate behaviours.

4) Reactive Strategies.

Reactive strategies in MEPs relate to consideration for contingency plans when a child or young person does experience a 'wobble' with their externalised behaviour. The focus of this is to keep the child and others

around them safe, and for their behaviour to be managed in a suitable and personalised way such that further escalation is not inadvertently provoked or maintained.

Eccles and Pitchford (1997) provided a helpful Case Study of an MEP in action in a case study focussed on a six year old boy with complex needs. The young boy had challenging behaviour which may be caused, or at the very least exacerbated, by a combination of difficulties with learning, communication and limited experience of a structured curriculum. Eccles and Pitchford worked with school staff to gather a great deal of information about the boy and the contexts and conditions under which his challenging behaviours emerged, and developed a plan for intervention based on the different elements of his needs (as outlined above). Eccles and Pitchford reported that the boy did not change his behaviour noticeably, but that he stopped having exclusions, which may indicate a further benefit of such multi-element plans; that it supports school staff with understanding and developing their approaches to behavioural and emotional difficulties. A further difficulty with Eccles' and Pitchford's case study was that the targets set for this young boy were not very specific and any progress towards them may therefore have been difficult to measure. Combination of Multi-element Plans with a tool designed to specify targets and monitor progress towards them such as Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME: Dunsmuir, Brown,

Iyadur and Monsen,2009), (see Section 2.5) may provide a useful adaptation.

2.5. FUNCTIONS OF BEHAVIOUR

Multi-element Plans tend to be used in conjunction with functional analysis (e.g. Doody, 2009; Steege & Watson, 2009) and indeed in the United States, a Behaviour Intervention Plan (American counterpart to the MEP) and functional analysis are currently a statutory requirement for any student at risk of permanent exclusion from schools (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act – IDEIA; 2005).

The early 1980s saw a shift in the United States from interventions for behavioural difficulties being selected on the basis of the form of a given behaviour to those selected on the basis of its function (e.g. Iwata, Dorsey, Bauman and Richman, 1982). This approach was significantly influenced by Carr's (1977) assertion that, *"It is very likely that ... most complex human behaviour, may be under the control of a number of motivational variables and that different treatment interventions may be required to eliminate each source of motivation"* (p.800-1). Focus on the functions rather than immediate presentation of children's behaviours and contingent interventions thus saw a movement away from more traditional methods of selection for interventions in the United States. In the absence of such an emphasis, interventions for presenting behaviours tend to be selected on the basis of topography (i.e. selected as most appropriate on the basis of a literature review of interventions

used with individuals with similar difficulties), case (i.e. implemented successfully in the past with an individual with similar difficulties) or individual or team-preference (i.e. default interventions as historically successful and fit with existing circumstances, policy and skills) (Steege and Watson, 2009).

The rationale and procedures inherent in Functional Analysis are based heavily on two key assumptions: that behaviour has a communicative purpose (either conscious or unconscious) and that behaviour tends to be reinforced or maintained in relation to a complex array of variables (e.g. Bijou, Peterson & Ault, 1968; Iwata et al., 1982). In this way Functional Analysis emphasises the relationship between a particular behaviour, and the environment (e.g. McIntosh, Brown & Borgmeier, 2008). There are thus two key components to Functional Analysis: firstly the identification of the environmental and contextual elements which may reinforce or maintain a behaviour causing concern. Secondly the identification of what function that behaviour serves for the individual. Common functions of behaviour include: seeking interaction (with peers and/or adults), control, avoidance (of people, places and tasks), expression of emotion or reduction of stress, increasing or reducing stimulation (or any combination of these) (Derby, Wacker, Sasso, Steege, Northup, Cigrad et al., 1992). This is of crucial importance to the success of Functional Analysis as the logic is that unless a given intervention is able to address the function of the behaviour then it is unlikely to be

successful. Identical behaviours may manifest in different children for very different reasons.

At a simplistic level, three children may throw a pencil across a classroom; one because they are frustrated by their work and expressing stress or emotion, the other because they have a sense of strong need for interaction with an adult in the class or with their peers, another because they have poor proprioceptive and motor skills and lost control of the pencil. This list is by no means exhaustive but serves to illustrate the point that the same interventions may not be suitable for all three children and that selection of an intervention based on the function rather than the form of the behaviour is likely to be more appropriate. Indeed, McIntosh et al. (2008) describe a series of experimental single-subject designs carried out by Filter and Horner (2008), Ingram, Lewis-Palmer and Sugai (2005) and Newcomer and Lewis (2004), to test the effectiveness of a series of frequently-used behaviour interventions with widely recognised effectiveness. In each of the studies, a Functional Analysis was carried out to establish the function of the young person's behaviour causing concern. Two intervention plans were then developed using commonly-used strategies (as mentioned above); one of these plans was consistent with the outcome of the Functional Analysis and one was not. A baseline for the behaviour causing concern was established during an initial phase of no intervention. Following this, the plans were realised in 'concurrent and counterbalanced phases'

(McIntosh et al., 2008, p.8) such that each of the young people accessed one plan that was consistent with the understanding of the functions of their behaviour and one that was not. Results revealed that implementation of the functionally-consistent intervention plan coincided with a reduction in the frequency and/or intensity of the behaviour causing concern for all young people involved in the study. When the plan that was not consistent with the functions of the behaviour was applied, despite also being based on interventions with documented effectiveness, results revealed either no difference in behaviour or an increase in the behaviour causing concern.

Similarly, Kennedy, Meyer, Knowles & Shukla (2000) explored whether or not stereotypical behaviours displayed by children and young people with autism could be accounted for by multiple environmental factors. They carried out functional analyses with five young people between the ages of nine and seventeen years old who had diagnoses of autism and who had also been characterised by educational authorities as having severe to profound difficulties (in particular related to communication). All five of the children displayed behaviours which were deemed to be stereotypically associated with autism, including body rocking, head movements, hand waving and nose-touching. Kennedy et al. carried out a series of observations and coded stereotypical behaviours (as outlined above) in relation to four conditions in which the child found themselves: attention, no attention, demand and recreation. Having

established baseline rates of stereotypical behaviour for each student relative to each of the four conditions, Kennedy et al. carried out a second study in which they gave one of the students an alternative behaviour for each of the response-reinforcers ascertained in the first study. This was to raise his right hand to sign “break” (resulting in removal of task demands in the ‘demand’ condition) and “more” (resulting in the delivery of tangible preferred stimuli during the ‘no attention’ condition). Although the authors claim a decrease in stereotypical behaviours and an increase in signing following training, the differences are minimal. It establishes neither whether the responses were maintained over time, nor, in fact, whether James, the young person in Study 2, was able to use this to communicate his needs more generally. The study does indicate that behaviours can be observed and analysed in a way which may reflect functional communicative purpose, but in this case the scope of the possible functions was relatively limited by restricted conditions. Similarly, Kennedy et al.’s findings in relation to James’ learning of alternative functional responses are necessarily limited in the degree to which they may be generalised to a wider population of individuals displaying stereotypical behaviours related to autism on account of its nature as a single-case study. Nonetheless, the principle that functionally-equivalent behaviours can be explored and developed is consistent with findings from a number of small-scale case studies (e.g. Iwata et al., 1982; Wilder, Zanneveld, Harris, Marcus and Regan, 2007).

While Functional Analysis, in particular in relation to multi-element plans, is intuitively useful and highly regarded within the USA and increasingly in parts of the United Kingdom, there are a number of difficulties surrounding a clear understanding of its effectiveness. Firstly, the term 'Functional Analysis' (or indeed Functional Assessment or Functional Behaviour Analysis) is used idiosyncratically such that it may refer to extremely in-depth analyses carried out by external professionals with specific expertise over several months, or may refer to more indirect measures such as exploration through discussion of behaviours causing concern. Even within the United States, Sasso, Conroy, Sticher and Fox (2001) note that, *"despite the fact that functional assessment is now mandated in federal law, there appears to be no formal or even informal agreement on the essential components of the functional assessment process"* (p. 288). This is consistent with Steege and Watson's statement that, *"FBA is not one specific methodology. Rather it is an amalgamation of techniques that have the same purpose: identifying the variables that control a behaviour and using that knowledge to design individualised interventions"* (Steege and Watson, 2009, p.7). For this reason, throughout the remainder of the present thesis, discussion of identification of the functions of children and young people's behaviours is referred to as 'Exploring reasons underlying behaviour' (ERB) as it may be the case that issue could be taken with whether or not some elements of what follows would truly constitute a Functional Analysis in the sense described by more

extensive and comprehensive practice. This very issue relates neatly to a further difficulty with Functional Analysis noted by Borgmeier and Horner (2006) that it is extremely time-consuming and requires the involvement of personnel who are adequately trained. In terms of trying to build capacity within schools, it would be difficult to see how heavy dependency on external personnel could be sustainable over time. However, Conroy, Brown and Davis (2001) found that with well-targeted training, Functional Analysis-type approaches could be used effectively by school staff. This represents a risk as, Borgmeier and Horner (2006) warn that, *“It is important to note that the efficiency of FBA is inextricably linked to the accuracy of the resulting functional assessment hypothesis”* (p. 100). However, there are no large-scale studies including comparison groups exploring the effectiveness of approaches to supporting children and young people’s behaviour and emotional well-being in schools. It is therefore currently difficult to establish whether or not it is Functional Assessment itself which facilitates positive and meaningful changes in behaviours causing concern, or whether it is something more related to the process of carrying out a solution-focussed planning meeting collaboratively with key professionals in which difficulties highlighted are explored from a range of different angles. One element of the present case study will be to explore this issue by comparing outcomes for children on the basis of planning interventions which are identical except for the inclusion or not of a section in which the reasons underlying behaviour are explored (ERB).

Finally, Steege and Watson (2009) share that an analysis of Behaviour Intervention Plans and Functional Behaviour Assessments (the US counterparts to our MEPs and functional analysis, respectively) carried out over three years in Wisconsin, indicated that a clearly defined target behaviour was not included. As noted earlier, Eccles and Pitchford's (1997) Case Study of an MEP which included an element of ERB that lacked a clearly defined target. This presents a crucial difficulty; if target behaviours are not clearly defined and specified in a way which is observable and measurable then the task of identifying progress towards those targets becomes nebulous and unreliable. The following section describes a simple adaptation to a procedure for carrying out an MEP (with or without a section on ERB) which may address this issue.

2.6. TARGET MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Cottrell (2002) emphasised the point that key decisions by practitioners working with children and young people need to be based on systematic knowledge of intervention outcomes rather than unsubstantiated judgement. As Fox (2011) notes, randomised control trials (RCTs) may provide the most sought after evidence of impact amongst professionals (in particular amongst clinical professionals). However, he also acknowledges that RCTs are often not feasible in practitioner-research and declares that Educational Psychologists must seek to find alternative methods of evidencing the effectiveness of their interventions. Similarly, Dunsmuir et al., (2009) affirm that, "*The challenge for Educational*

Psychology Services (EPSs) is to define outcomes that are measurable and demonstrate impact within an increasingly complex and multi-professional working environment (p.54). Dunsmuir et al. (2009) observed that one of the difficulties faced by Educational Psychologists within a Service or Local Authority context is that we tend to measure outputs relating to how specific client groups *felt* rather than through evaluative data relating to specific outcomes for children and young people based on specific interventions. Dunsmuir et al. (2009) suggest that this may be addressed through a process of Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME).

TME in its original incarnation was based on Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS – Kirusek & Sherman, 1968), a tool used for assessing outcomes in mental health settings. Its potential applications in supporting evaluation of intervention on outcomes for children and young people in the UK was explored to begin to address some of the issues faced by Educational Psychologists as outlined above (Frederickson, 2002). GAS was specified as adhering to the following principles: five levels of outcomes for each goal (target), advanced specification of five levels, and at least three goals (targets), and independent review of targets (Kiresuk, Smith & Cardillo, 1994). Reviews and evaluations of the effectiveness of GAS revealed that it tended not to be used properly, on account of it being limited by difficulties in defining five discrete

outcome targets with no overlap, its time-consuming nature, poorly defined targets which made evaluation of progress difficult, and failure to allocate time to review (Cytrynbaum, Ginath, Birdwell and Brandt, 1979).

Target Monitoring and Evaluation thus presents a streamlined version of GAS, within which the main component features are retained but in a more manageable and sustainable manner. Rather than identification of progress towards outcomes at five levels, progress is coded as: worst progress (outcome is below baseline), no progress (outcome is at baseline), some progress (outcome is not at expected level but above baseline), expected progress (outcome is at expected level), or better than expected progress (outcome is above expected level). Of crucial importance within the context of the present discussion, is Dunsmuir et al.'s assertion that the targets set should be SMART (i.e. Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-limited). They also specified that the targets should be given a baseline rating on a Likert-type scale of 1-10, that expected progress towards that target should be defined on the scale at planning, and that at review, actual progress towards that target should be noted on the scale. This is with the aim of providing a tangible measure of progress.

Dunsmuir et al. (2009) investigated whether TME could be usefully employed to measure outcomes for work in Educational Psychologists using pre- and post measures. They asked eight assistant Educational

Psychologists and thirteen practising Educational Psychologists to use TME approaches for substantive pieces of Educational Psychology work they carried out. Each TME procedure had to entail three SMART targets (coded by type, i.e. literacy, communication and interaction, behaviour, social and emotional). They were also asked to code the targets according to the five outcomes of the Every Child Matters (ECM) agenda (i.e. Stay Safe, Be Healthy, Enjoy and Achieve, Achieve Economic Well-Being, and Make a Positive Contribution; DfE, 2006).

Dunsmuir et al. (2009) compared baseline measures to actual outcome using t-tests for the assistant and practising Educational Psychologists and found that for both, outcome measures were significantly higher at review (actual) than at baseline that was not related to type of target or ECM-outcome. They also found that there was no significant impact of time (i.e. number of months between planning and review) on outcomes.

Dunsmuir et al.'s (2009) findings thus indicate that TME can provide an effective and efficient way to measure tangible outcomes in terms of progress towards clearly specified targets and to give a clear basis to review. On a technical note, interpretation of their statistical findings should be approached with caution. The use of t-tests requires that the data meets parametric assumptions, including that it is continuous in nature. Data from Likert-type scales is ordinal and therefore cannot meet those assumptions. A non-parametric statistical test such as Wilcoxon Paired Samples would therefore have been more suitable.

Furthermore, progress towards targets relating to emotional needs may only be made possible through the use of proxy indicators which provide observable and measurable data (e.g. if the aim is for a child to feel more secure, or happy, or even comfortable in school, this can only be measured through the use of a behavioural indicator). Nonetheless, TME may provide a useful tool for specifying targets that are measurable in a way that can complement multi-element Plans and ERB.

2.7. PERSPECTIVES

Wilson and Lipsey's (2007) meta-analysis of the effectiveness of interventions aimed to address aggressive and disruptive behaviour revealed a subtle but critical issue. When they examined the source of the ratings of effectiveness, they found that respondents were predominantly school staff, and in some studies, parents or the children and young people themselves. Rarely were the perspectives of more than one stakeholder taken into account, and when they were, they tended not to be consistent. The most frequent, and concerning, manifestation of this was that teachers rated significant progress towards targets relating to aggressive and/or disruptive behaviour where the children and young people themselves did not.

Differential perspectives on behaviour and emotional well-being may be explained partly by the systems surrounding children and young people (see Figure 2.1). For example, Elton (1989) found that teachers tended to blame parents for their children's behaviour. Similarly, Rutter, Tizard

and Whitmore (1970) found in a large-scale survey of views on behaviour on the Isle of Wight, that views were rarely consistent between school and home. As Miller (2003) notes, this type of simplistic blame tends not to be helpful or productive, but acknowledgement and naming of the fact different perspectives do exist may be helpful.

Perspectives on emotional well-being also tend to differ between parents and teachers. Laukannen et al. (2002) found that teacher's responses using specific tools tended to be reliable in predicting later externalising and internalising emotional and behavioural difficulties, and concluded that, "*Behavioural and emotional problems in pupils detected by their teachers have been shown to be associated with both existing and future mental difficulties*" (p. 143). Similarly, Sharp, Croudace, Goodyer & Amtmann (2005) found that teacher versions of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) tended to be more reliable than parent versions in predicting help-seeking behaviours for social and emotional difficulties. Findings reported by Kraatz-Keily et al. (2000) indicated, however, that where teacher report was more reliable than parent report for predicting externalising behaviour and emotional difficulties, the converse was true for internalising difficulties. Margalit et al. (1997) found that student self-report varied in comparison to teacher and peer report in relation to internalising difficulties.

This raises two important points: firstly, if outcomes have improved following an intervention for a child, who have they improved for?

Secondly, how can differing perspectives be reconciled? In the following study therefore, attempts are made as far as possible to triangulate the views of school staff working with the children, and the children themselves⁸, both through measurement tools and through interview.

2.8. SUMMARY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS.

Children's behaviour and emotional well-being are crucial protective factors in their development. They are influenced by a complex interplay of systems, and in turn exert their own influences back on elements of the systems. In the UK policies and practice in relation to the more extreme end of behaviour and emotional well-being in school both exist in abundance but rarely in conjunction. Approaches to support them both, but particularly behaviour, tend to comprise a single-component, which, in view of the complexity of the systems surrounding them, is likely to be inefficient. Intervention approaches using multiple elements (Multi-element Plans) can be employed to address both behavioural and emotional needs effectively in a manageable and effective way which is individualised for the a particular child and their needs. Multi-element plans can often be complemented by approaches based on Functional Analysis which have been consistently found in small scale studies to be effective to the extent that they are endorsed by the US government for

⁸ The views of parents were also initially sought, but extremely low return on these despite collaborative work with school staff on reminders meant that this element of the study was abandoned.

all children at risk of permanent exclusion from schools. However, their implementation is idiosyncratic and their evaluations have tended to lack comparison groups, so it is difficult to establish their discrete impact. Furthermore, although MEPs and Functional Analyses rely on clearly specified targets, neither have a clear structure in place to support this. TME may provide a helpful addition to the procedure to address this limitation.

The present case study thus aims to explore how alternative models of planning intervention may be used to support children's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools. Key members of staff in two schools were trained as lead behaviour coordinators, and received separate training on two planning intervention tools such that they could lead the planning intervention meetings and process. One model was based on elements of MEPs and TME. The other was identical except that it also included a section in which the reasons underlying behaviour could be explored (ERB). The latter is based on the principles of Functional Analysis, but is scaled down in order that it may be used sustainably in schools by school staff. In order that the perspectives of key stakeholders could be reflected in the study, the views of both school staff and children were sought through measurement tools and interviews. A Logic Model is used to aggregate, triangulate and interpret the data using an incremental process of analysis to address the

following research sub-questions, and ultimately, the overarching research question (see Figure 2.2).

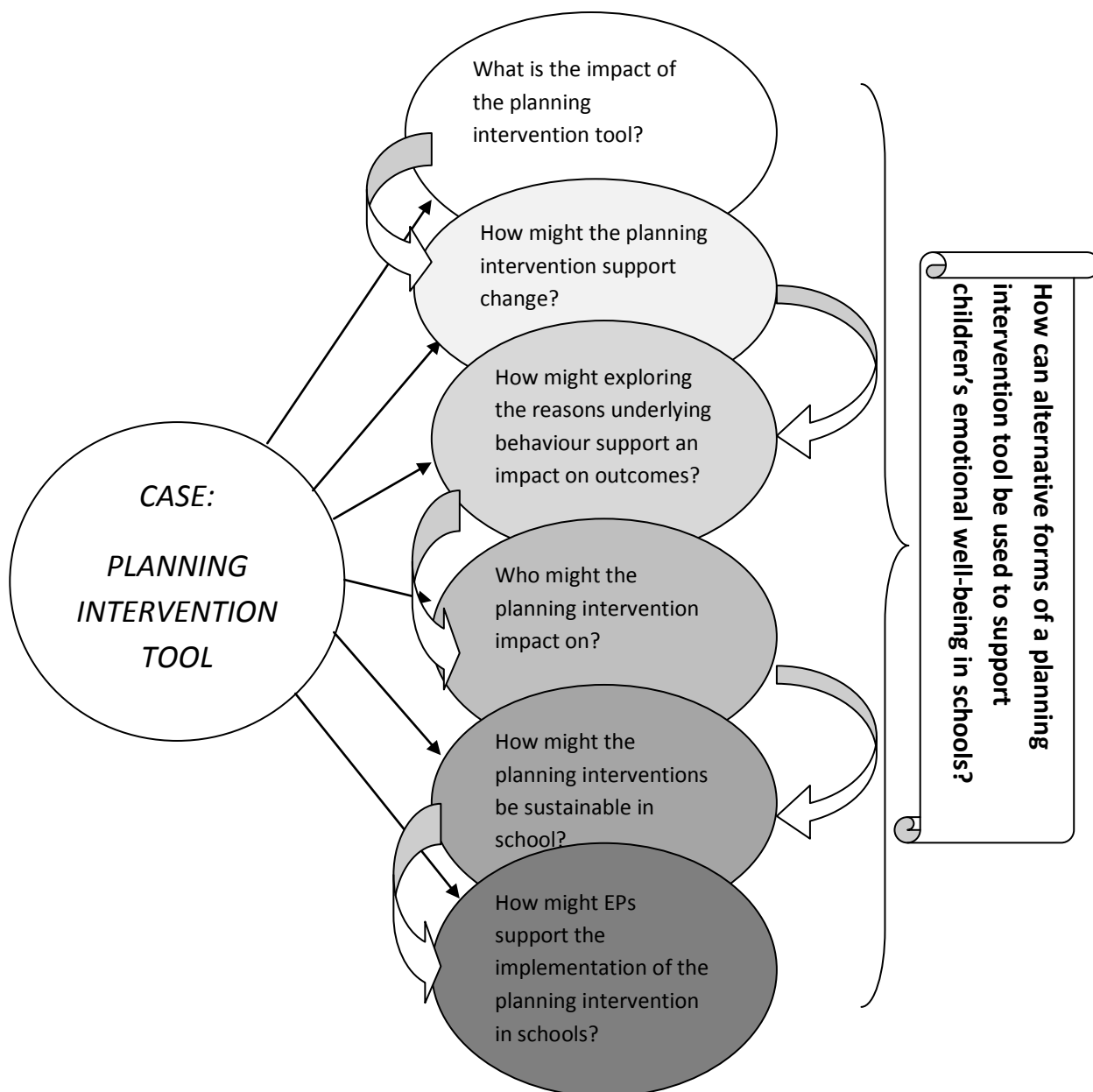


Figure 2.2 Graphic showing key research question ('How can alternative forms of planning intervention tools be used to support children's emotional well-being in schools?') and component sub-questions arranged in hierarchical structure reflecting Logic Model to be used in analysis and interpretation. Data for each sub-question is derived from the Case Study. Each oval containing a research sub-question is darker in colour than the previous one in order to demonstrate the incremental nature of the developing theory. The arrows between each of the sub-questions indicate that the conclusions drawn from each will contribute to the interpretation of the next.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The following chapter aims to communicate the ways in which the research and related sub-questions (see Chapter 2) were addressed and the rationale for the methodology used. Reasoning, both philosophical and technical, of the approach will be considered, the design and procedure detailed, and the methods and principles of analysis, outlined and discussed.

3.1. APPROACH

3.1.1. PHILOSOPHICAL POSITIONING

Furedy (1988) refers to a reported view prevalent amongst some research communities in North America (and seemingly increasingly in the United Kingdom) which holds that one's philosophical stance on the nature of truth and knowledge (ontology and epistemology, respectively) is largely irrelevant to research undertaken. He also makes reference of some researchers' assertions that the philosophical assumptions underlying research positions are, in some ways, akin to religious views; personal and not open to critical examination. Maze (1983), however, warns that to avoid such matters can result in educational psychologists being 'hurled into philosophical blunders', despite methodological rigour. In practice this may result in a perfectly reasonable observation from which a totally false conclusion is drawn (Sokal and Bricmont, 1996). Pleasants (2003) notes that social scientists

tend to be more prone to 'crises in professional identity' (p. 69) than natural scientists, leaving them more likely to afford more attention to issues in the philosophy of science than their natural science counterparts. Indeed, Bhaskar (1989) refers to a sense of 'evident malaise' (p.16) in the natural sciences, resulting in the 'angst-ridden state' (p.16) of the discipline.

The crux of the philosophical debates within science, and more prominently within the social sciences refers to two key issues: ontology (i.e. the state of truth and reality) and epistemology (i.e. whether and how we may be able to ever discover knowledge about the world) (e.g. Bryman, 2004). The nature of the differing positions relating to debates regarding ontology may be best conceptualised as a continuum (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). One extreme of the ontological continuum may be characterised by a Positivist or Realist perspective which holds there exist facts and truth such that, the *"world is an orderly, law-abiding enduring, fixed and objectively knowable and constant place"* (Moore, 1995, p.106). At the other extreme of the ontological continuum sit Relativist perspectives which hold that, *"the world is indeterminate, disorderly and constantly in flux"* (Moore, 1995, p. 106). In the extreme, such positions may be interpreted as suggesting that the notion that science (i.e. objective reality) may be limited by static and 'universal' rules is unviable and naive (e.g. Feyerabend, 1975).

Epistemological positions tend to be roughly, although not always precisely, aligned to the continuum of ontology, such that at the Realist or Positivist end of the scale, Knowledge is often described as that which is understood through study of the observable aspects of the world around us through the development of hypotheses (based on observations of those aspects) and subsequent testing of those hypotheses, leading to subsequent refinement, and thereby closer approximation of hypotheses to underlying truths or reality (e.g. Cutcliffe & McKenna, 2002). Epistemological perspectives at the Relativist end of the Ontological continuum may be characterised at their extreme by Postmodernist or Poststructuralists views which hold that knowledge entails the understanding of the relationships between language, subjectivity, social organisations and power (e.g. Weedon, 1987) and that the world is “*ultimately ‘unknowable’ in any objective sense*” (Moore, 1995, p. 106).

There is no doubt that, given the colossal multitude of factors and interactions that constitute our experiences, facts about the world are extremely difficult to disentangle, all the more so in the case of social research. However, my view is that the fact that they are difficult (some may argue, impossible) to discover, does not necessarily imply that they do not exist. At this level, my philosophical position may be equally characterised by Critical Realism (e.g. Bhaskar, 1975, 1998) or Pragmatism (e.g. Patton, 2002), given that “*Pragmatism and critical realism are not necessarily exclusive approaches*” (Proctor, 1998, p.354)

and may in fact both be considered as, *“reconstructive epistemological projects especially in response to certain negative excesses of postmodernism”* (p354). However, where Pragmatist and Critical Realist perspectives do differ is in their relative emphases on ontology, whereby the latter prioritises ontology over epistemology within its stratified concepts of the ‘real’, the ‘actual’ and the ‘empirical’ (Bhaskar, 1975) whilst allowing for two levels of knowledge, the ‘intransitive’ (that which does not depend on human activity) and the ‘transitive’ (whereby artificial objects are fashioned into knowledge by the ‘science of the day’, Zacharidis, Scott & Barrett, 2010). Pleasants (2003) notes a logical conundrum in this approach, whereby Bhaskar’s assertion that we need to ‘know’ a domain of reality before it can be known whether or not we can know it scientifically, results in a *“metaphysical scheme....reminiscent of a scene depicted by a newspaper cartoon celebrating the first man to reach Everest’s summit. In this cartoon, the heroic conqueror is greeted by a news cameraman who had already climbed the mountain in order to record this historic moment. We could substitute Bhaskar for the cameraman and science for the mountaineering expedition* (Pleasants, 2003, p. 74).

Bhaskar’s Critical Realism does allow for social phenomena to be context-dependent (Sayer, 2000) and emphasises the importance of human perspectives (Clarke, Lissel & Davis, 2008). However, the complex framework within which this is conceptualised and the logical

conundrum outlined above, as well as the strong emphasis on axiological commitment to emancipation (Deforge & Shaw, 2012), render a Critical Realist perspective, to me overly complex and overly prescriptive, to the extent that it risks the nature of any research undertaken being tangled in a metaphysical debate which overshadows the purpose of the enquiry at hand (scientific or not; e.g. Pleasants, 2003).

Pragmatism, *“in its simplest form, is a practical approach to a problem”*, (Cameron, 2011, p.101), and like Critical Realism, lends itself to mixed methods research (e.g. Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010a). Pragmatism is often criticized for not providing a ‘unitary’ theory (e.g. Deforge and Shaw, 2012, p.87), on account of its capacity to conceptualise knowledge at any level of the ontological continuum (e.g. Deforge and Shaw, 2012; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010a). This presents a risk of an ‘anything goes’ approach in methodological decisions which must be avoided (e.g. Lipscomb, 2008; Rorty, 1982). Bazeley (2003) suggests that such concerns may be overcome by a researcher ensuring that they have sufficient understanding of the philosophical bases of their research and how these may influence their methods and interpretations, as well as by researchers learning to take risks as long as they can justify the decisions that they make. These two caveats are adhered to as closely as possible throughout the following research.

Pragmatism thus presents a more 'agnostic' approach to ontology than Critical Realism (Pleasants, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010a), with Knowledge presented as that which guides those responses which help us to orient ourselves within the conditions and events which we experience in our daily lives. This is characterised by the view that sensory experiences do not provide a completely accurate representation of the world and we therefore have to create categories and concepts which support us in simplifying our experiences of the world and making sense of it such that we can survive within it (see also Cherryholmes, 1994; Rorty, 1982). Deforge and Shaw (2012) summarise this position by stating that *"while pragmatists seem to recognise the existence of external physical reality, it becomes clear that there is simply no value in discussing it – a point which rests on the important observation that our knowledge of it can never be fully representational of its true nature"* (Deforge and Shaw, 2012, p.88). This position accepts the Aristotelian dictum that science should not pretend to provide any more precision than its object of study allows (Pleasants, 2003), whilst simultaneously allowing for the view that, *"Science is at no moment quite right, but it is seldom quite wrong, and has, as a rule, a better chance of being right than the theories of the unscientific"* (Bertrand Russell, 1959, p.13). Furthermore, neo-pragmatist perspectives on axiology do not rely upon any form of intransitive morality, but instead conceptualise morality as an interaction between personal and social constructs (e.g. Butt, 2000). To this extent, morality is dependent on the

nature of the context and the people involved (Deforge and Shaw, 2012), and a lack of an intransient nature does not deny that the pragmatic researcher would be bound by the same personal and social constructs of morality as the Critical Realist with their prescribed axiology, in much the same way as Dawkins (2006) argues that in a wider sense, morality is not dependent on religion or religious writing. The present study is thus guided by personal and professional values, as described in section 1.1, some of which may coincide with elements of a Critical Realist axiology.

In relation to the assumptions, values and motivations of the present study, Patton provides a suitable summary which reflects my own position:

“My pragmatic stance aims to supersede one-side paradigm allegiance by increasing the concrete and practical methodological options available to researchers and evaluators. Such pragmatism means judging the quality of a study by its intended purposes, available resources, procedures followed and results obtained, all within a particular context and for a specific audience”

-Patton, 2002, p.71-2.

A mixed-methods approach, as undertaken here, allows the use of the most appropriate tools used to answer the research questions at hand, and reflects a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (e.g. Cresswell, 2003). In this sense, an equal-status qualitative and quantitative approach does not, in the case of the present study, reflect a relativist ontology, rather, the decision to employ qualitative approaches used here is *“essentially a pragmatic rather than an ideological one”* (Watts, 1996, from Richardson, 1996, p.9).

3.1.2. CASE STUDY- RATIONAL AND CONTEXT

Consistent with the ethos of a pragmatic epistemology underpinning the mixed-methods approach here, is the selection of a Case Study to provide a framework for this. Indeed, Hartley (2004) suggests that, *“Case studies generally include multiple methods because of the research issues which can be best addressed through this strategy”* (Hartley, 2004, p. 324). A Case Study itself is not a method, but rather a research strategy (e.g. Hartley, 2004). What this strategy provides is a framework within which to explore complex social phenomena in a way which allows the research to *“retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events”* (Yin, 2009, p. 4).

Although in its original incarnation, the present study was designed as an RCT, given practical limitations surrounding schools’ capacity (actual or perceived) to subscribe fully to the project⁹ and a therefore restricted

⁹ Despite the current drive for evidence-based practice derived from quality research, it can prove extremely difficult for large-scale studies to be undertaken in school settings. This may be on

sample size, the study was reconfigured into the current Case Study. An advantage of this is that it allows and indeed capitalises on opportunities to examine evidence from a variety of different sources in analysis and in drawing conclusion (e.g. Yin, 2009). Furthermore, Boruch and Foley (2000) argue that in terms of evaluation research, the principles of RCTs can be applied to case studies in a way which promotes the logic of experimental design within a community context (in this case, a school community). Factors can be manipulated to an extent but the findings can be interpreted within a wider and more reflective context, with recourse to a wider range of information and data that might have been afforded by a straightforward quasi-experimental RCT.

There are a number of commonly cited concerns surrounding the validity of extrapolating conclusions from Case Studies to a wider body of research. Yin (2009) refers to a number of these, including that:

i) There is a lack of rigour in Case Study research

In the case of the present study, it is hoped that the Research Overview (presented in Figure 3.1) and the approach to and methods used in the analysis of the data using a Logic Model , will demonstrate a commitment from the outset to a systematic approach and a transparent and unbiased method to examining the research questions under investigation.

account of school staff being inundated by initiatives in addition to already heavy workloads and staff capacity in terms of release time (see Fox, 2011 and Section 3.4).

ii) There is little basis for scientific generalisation.

See Section 3.6.3. for further discussion of this.

iii) Case Studies take a long time to carry out and often result in cumbersome, indigestible documents.

A combination of Cameron's (2011) suggestions relating to alternative presentations and a Logic Model to promote clear and concise dissemination is employed.

iv) Causal relationships cannot be established from Case Studies.

As alluded to above, this point is not in dispute, and the value of the Case Study here in contributing to the existing body of research surrounding evaluating the effects of exploring reasons underlying behaviour on children's emotional well-being in schools, is presented as an adjunct to the existing experimental literature and not as an alternative to it. Furthermore, where RCTs have the capacity to explore whether or not a given intervention has an impact, a Case Study may be well-placed to explore how and/or why this may be the case. A variation on a Logic Model (see Section 4.1) provides a helpful framework within which this may be achieved.

3.1.3. SPECIFIC APPROACH TO CASE STUDY.

The present Case Study aspires to an exploratory approach within which the research questions predominantly emphasise the 'how' and 'why' features of the topic under investigation. In this case it is suitable for

addressing the question of how alternative planning intervention tools may affect children's emotional well-being in school and thus allowing a holistic exploration of the process in context (e.g. Gummisson, 1988). Benedicte-Meyer (2001) encourages the clear communication of design specification of Case Studies. The present design (see Figure 3.1, below) is presented as an embedded, multiple case study employing mixed-methods in order to address the research sub-questions, and ultimately the over-arching research question. As shown in Figure 3.1, the Case in the present study was the planning intervention tool. The nature of the 'Case' selected for a study is such that it should provide the unit surrounding which exploration may be undertaken which best addresses the research question(s) (e.g. Evers & Wu, 2006; Yin, 2009). It may be worth noting that the children constitute elements of the embedded units within the design and not 'cases' *per se*.

The Case Study is embedded in that there are different layers within the project, namely the contrast between the planning interventions (i.e. the fact that half include overt exploration of reasons underlying behaviour and half do not), which affords the study a comparative element. It is multiple in that data was collected for multiple instances within two different school settings, in an attempt to afford additional validity to the study. The two forms of the planning intervention tool (TME & ERB and TME) allowed the question of whether an additional component of the process in which explicit consideration of the possible

reasons underlying a child's behaviour provided any different or increased impact

3.2. DESIGN

The present section aims to provide clarity and transparency over the design of the present study (see Figure 3.1).

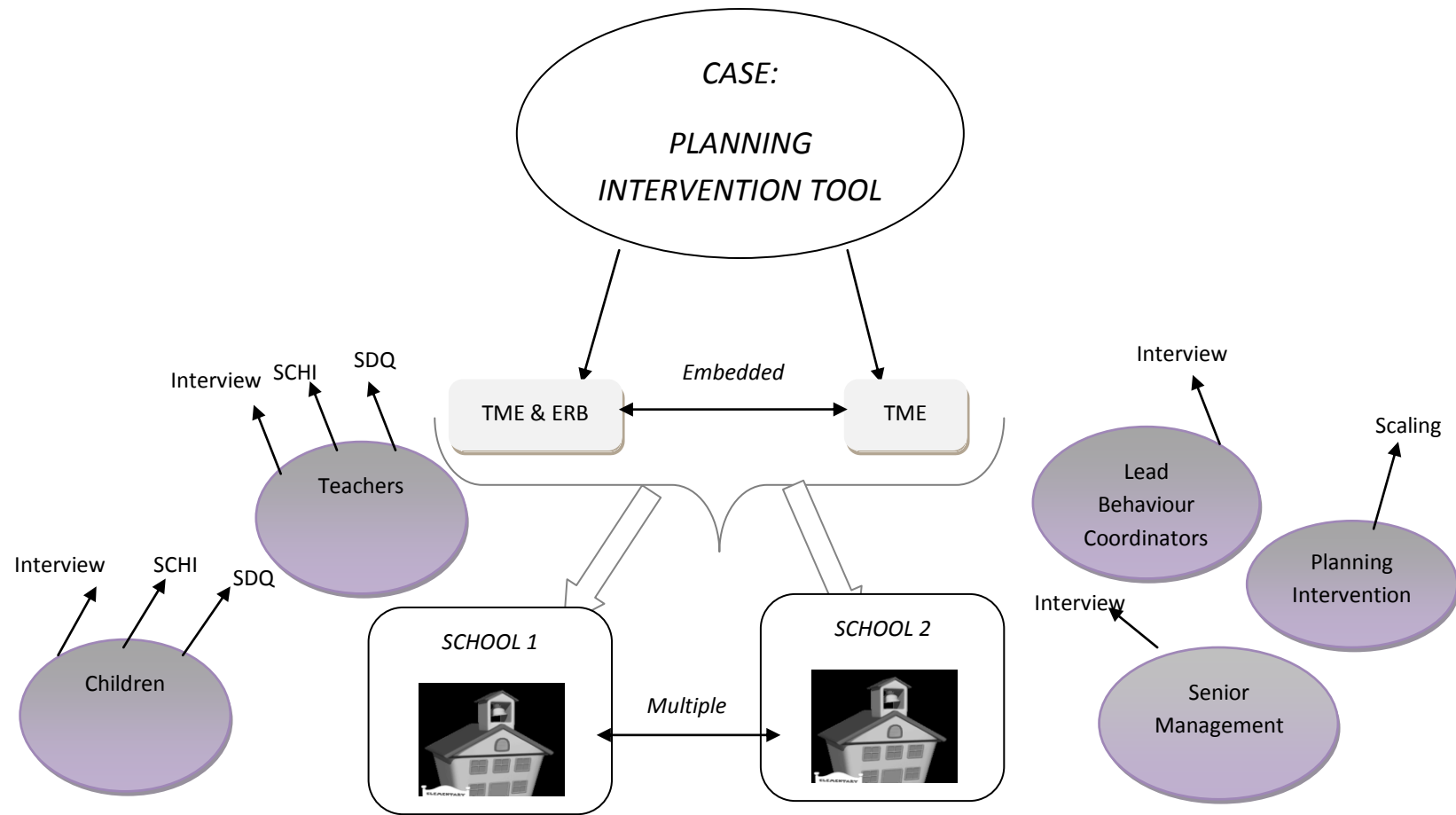
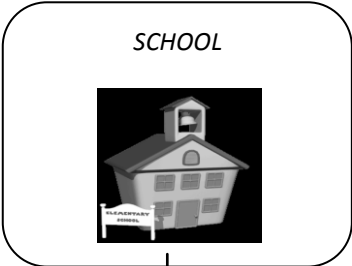


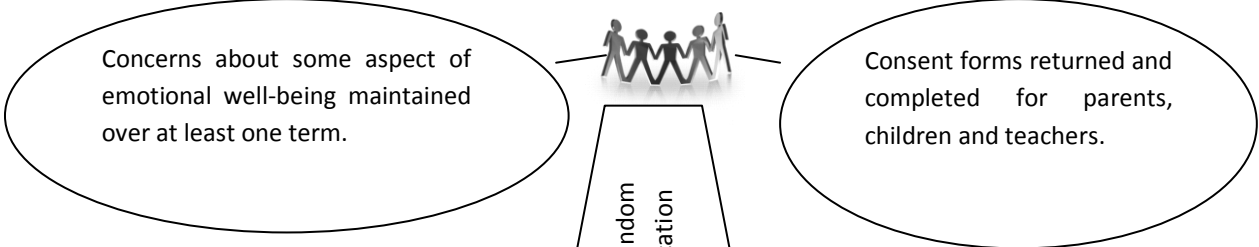
Figure 3.1 Overview of multiple-embedded case study design and data sources. *N.B. SDQ = Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire; SCHI = School Children’s Happiness Inventory; TME = Target Monitoring and Evaluation; TME & ERB = Target Monitoring and Evaluation & Exploring Reasons Underlying Behaviour.* Note also that the data sources apply to both the TME and TME & ERB forms of the planning intervention tool and are thus not specified to one or the other by their positioning on the graphic.

3.2.1. SPECIFICATION OF DESIGN AND PROCEDURE.

A further graphic expanding upon the design of the study and how this comparison was achieved is presented in Figure 3.2.



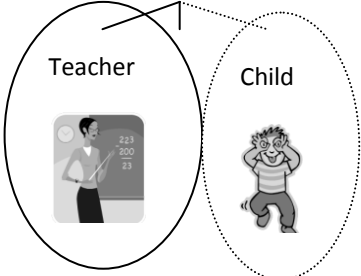
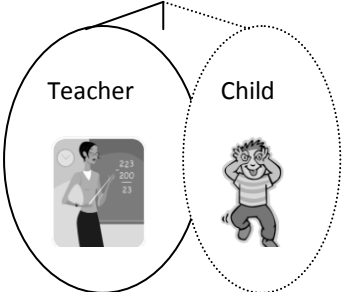
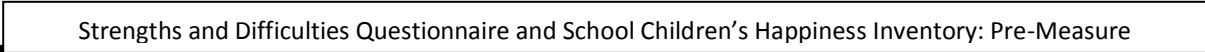
1. Identification of students meeting criteria for intervention



3. Training School Staff (Lead Behaviour Coordinators)



4. Generic measures:
Pre-Measure



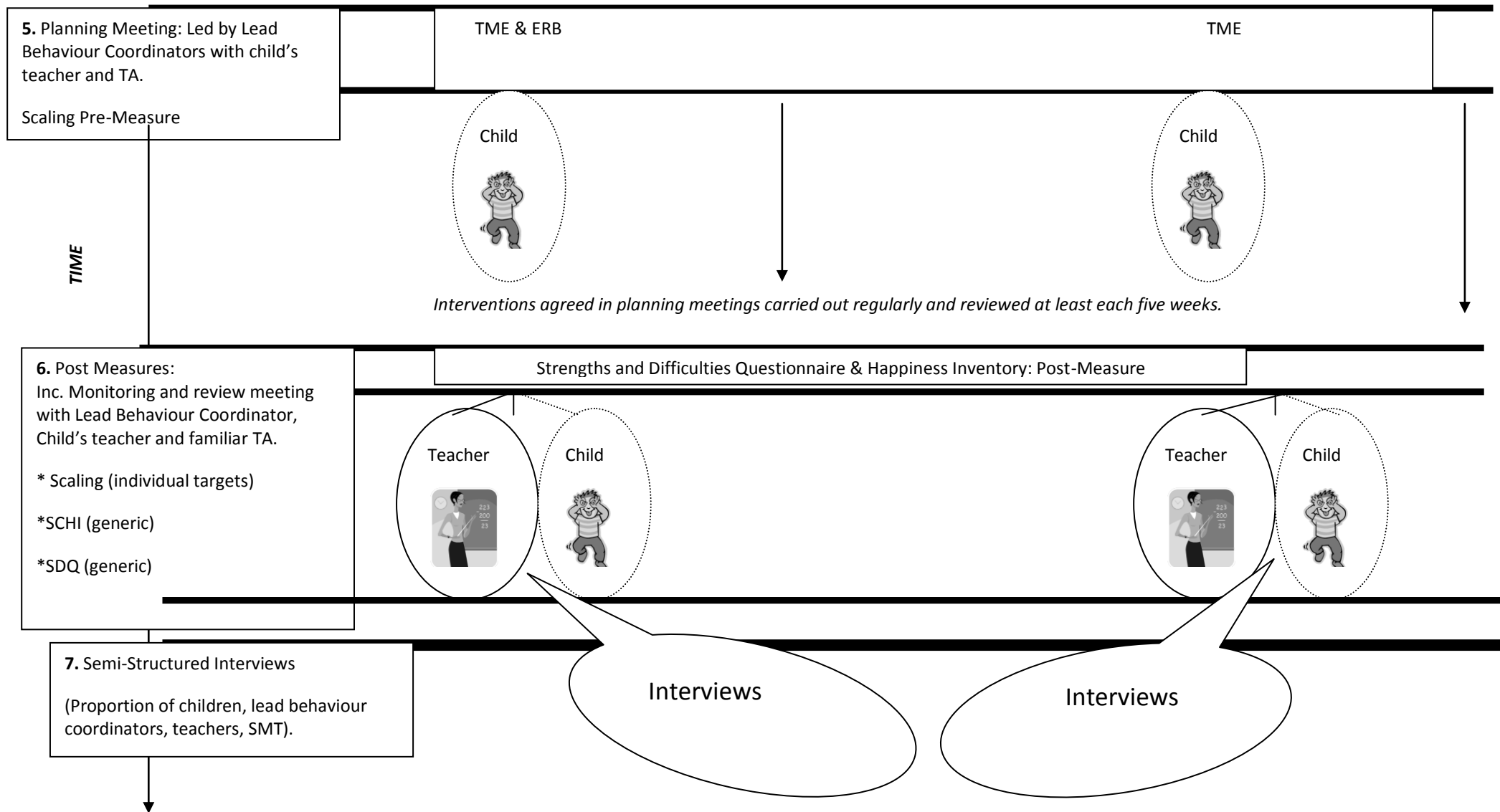


Figure 3.2 Graphical overview of the more specific details of the research design. Each component is expanded upon in more detail below. *N.B. SDQ = Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire; SCHI = School Children's Happiness Inventory; TME = Target Monitoring and Evaluation; TME & ERB = Target Monitoring and Evaluation & Exploring Reasons Underlying Behaviour*

1. Identification of students meeting criteria for intervention

Students were selected for the study on the basis that school staff working with them had a concern about their emotional well-being (either internalising or externalising) which had been maintained over at least one term. While this may appear to be a somewhat subjective and vague criterion for inclusion, it was done in honour of one of the study's core values; namely that an intervention may be evaluated for those children whose needs do not necessarily reach threshold for School Action Plus¹⁰. Furthermore, Wolpert, Fuggle, Cottrell, Fonagy, Philips, Piling, Stein and Target (2006) note that where effectiveness of interventions in this field tend to be investigated with children with diagnostic classification, for example from the DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association, 2004) or ICD-10 (World Health Organisation, 1992). *"Most children do not present to CAMH services with such neat diagnostic labels"* (Wolpert et al., 2006, p. 6); the same may be the case for children whose emotional well-being causes concern within schools. It was however, considered important that the concerns about the students' emotional well-being had been maintained for at least one term in order to ensure that the concerns were not transient. Training about what may constitute internalising or externalising behaviours

¹⁰School Action Plus is a category within SEN Code of Practice (DfES, 2001) whereby external agencies are involved; Educational Psychology intervention by definition falls into this category.

which may reflect concerns about emotional well-being was covered within the training which preceded participant selection.

School staff were instructed to identify only children in Key Stage 2. This was in order to promote some degree of consistency in the contexts of the children selected for the study. Furthermore the student self-report strand of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (e.g. Goodman, 1997) has been found to retain its internal reliability for children as young as eight years¹¹ (e.g. Muris, Meesters, Eijkenelenboom and Vincken, 2004), despite being initially designed for students from the age of eleven years onwards¹².

2. Allocation of children to groups (i.e. TME & ERB or TME only).

Students were randomly allocated to one of the two groups for planning intervention (TME & ERB, or TME), by the researcher. Children were not allocated to participation in either group until their and their parents' signed consent had been received (see Appendix 1).

3. Training School Staff¹³ (Lead Behaviour Coordinators)

Training for the lead behaviour coordinators was carried out separately for each form of the planning intervention; in each school the lead

¹¹ Read by an adult if necessary.

¹² This is not being used as absolute but as a comparative measure (i.e. repeated measures) and this feature is therefore not crucial in examining the data.

¹³ The sequence of events presented in Graphic 3.2. may require some further qualification. Although schools were asked to identify children for possible inclusion in the study prior to the training session, the training covered how to identify children with both internalizing and externalizing emotional difficulties. Information sheets and consent forms were not distributed until after the training.

behaviour coordinator for the TME & ERB group and the lead behaviour coordinator for the TME group were thus trained on two different days and were asked not to share the details of each training session with the other. Each type of training was delivered in a single session but school staff were offered follow-up training in line with Fox and Davis (2005), who identified training with subsequent ongoing support as a key feature in effective implementation of processes using functional behavioural analysis to guide intervention. Full copies of the training materials can be found in Appendix 2.

The focus of the training was on how to effectively carry out the planning intervention (specific to the group, i.e. TME & ERB or TME). In addition to this, emphasis was placed on the principles underlying each stage. Exploration of the link between emotional and behaviours and issues relating to both internalising and externalising behaviours and emotional difficulties were explored. The importance of beginning with discussion of children's strengths and likes was also discussed with reference to positive and solution-focussed psychological principles. Supported activities were carried out focussed on how to specify behaviour in relation to contextual factors. Following a full run-through of each component of the planning intervention tool, lead behaviour coordinators were also encouraged to carry out a hypothetical planning intervention during the training session.

Pre- and post measures of lead behaviour coordinators' confidence in the different elements of carrying out a planning intervention were collected immediately before, and then immediately following the training. Comparison of the pre- and post measures indicated that all lead behaviour coordinators were more confident following the training than they had been prior to it, and all rated their confidence with carrying out a planning intervention independently at at least eight out of ten.

4. Measures (Generic)

Two generic measures were used with the children and by an adult in school prior to the planning interventions being carried out. This provided a baseline against which to evaluate any potential impact of the planning intervention, as well as for staff to spend time with the children prior to the meeting to explore some of their views. The generic measures (in addition to the scaling measure specific to the children's individual targets) include the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; e.g. Goodman, 1991) and the School Children's Happiness Inventory (Ivens, 2006; 2007).

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ, e.g. Goodman, 1991).

The SDQ was selected on the basis that it is commonly employed in evaluations of behaviour interventions (e.g. Di Riso, Salcuni, Chessa, Raudino, Lis and Altoe, 2010; Goodman, Lamping and Ploudibis, 2010;

Petermann, Petermann and Schreyer, 2010) and may therefore allow for comparisons to be made of any impacts from the present planning intervention with interventions reported in the wider research literature. Furthermore, the SDQ provides a standardised measure which may be compared at pre- and post- stages of intervention. The Teacher version and student self-report version were employed¹⁴ as measures (see Appendix 3). As discussed above, the student self-report measure has been used for children as young as eight years (e.g. Muris et al., 2004) and this was therefore considered suitable for the present study. School staff were instructed regardless to facilitate the children's versions of the SDQs but with a clear understanding that they were to make a note of the child's response even in cases in which they did not agree with them.

School Children's Happiness Inventory (Ivens, 2006; 2007).

The items on the SDQ are somewhat extreme and medicalised and therefore may not be sufficiently sensitive to identify more subtle progress in areas of more general emotional well-being targeted by the relatively low-level planning intervention employed in the present study. A further measure was therefore used in order to allow for these to be monitored; this was the School-Children's Happiness Inventory (SCHI; Ivens, 2007). This is a thirty-item measure designed to measure

¹⁴The parent version of the SDQ was also initially employed, but limited parental return was such that this element of the research was abandoned.

subjective well-being, a construct considered by Ivens (2007) to be synonymous with happiness. The SCHI allows a balanced exploration of both positive and negative factors that contribute to emotional well-being and can *“prove useful in assessing the effect of environmental factors on SBW [subjective well-being]”* (Ivens, 2007, p.222). The measure is also considered useful in exploring *“the individual child’s experience of school; what enhances or diminishes SWB”* (Ivens, 2007, p. 223). The questionnaire was adapted for teachers¹⁵ by amending the wording from the first person to the third person (see Appendix 4).

5. Planning Meeting: Led by Lead Behaviour Coordinators with child’s teacher and TA. (and Scaling Pre-Measure)

The planning meeting involved a lead behaviour coordinator, the child’s class teacher and a teaching assistant who knows the child well¹⁶. The process for the planning intervention was followed (according the training materials for each group; either TME & ERB or TME). Individual and specific targets were set and pre-measures of progress towards them noted on a scale.

Specific interventions aimed at addressing children’s individual needs in relation to each target were discussed and agreed. These were

¹⁵ As for the SDQ, the SCHI was also adapted for parents but was not used on account of poor parental return.

¹⁶ Children were not present at the planning meetings within the present study. This was in order to promote consistency across the meetings and in order to facilitate open and frank discussion among staff who were relatively inexperienced in carrying out the process. Although this may present a limitation to the study, the views of children were sought beforehand through use of the SDQ and SCHI as well as more general discussions between them and at least one adult who would be present at the meeting such that they could be incorporated and acknowledged in the discussion.

implemented over the following period of time and were scheduled for review every five weeks.

6. Post Measures: Inc. Monitoring and review meeting with Lead Behaviour Coordinator, Child's teacher and familiar TA.

Children's progress towards their individualised targets was reviewed at the end of the period of the research intervention¹⁷ and rated according to the original scale. These constituted their post-intervention scaling measures.

Children and teachers were also asked to complete the SDQ and the SCHI once again. These constituted their post-intervention generic measures of emotional well-being.

7. Semi-Structured Interviews (Proportion of children, lead behaviour coordinators, teachers, parents, SMT).

Semi-structured interviews were carried out with a selection of children and teachers who had been involved in either type of planning intervention (i.e. TME & ERB or TME). Interviews were also carried out with all of the lead behaviour coordinators and also with a member of the senior management team from each school (head teacher in School B; SENCO in School K). The interviews were designed to elicit the participants' various experiences of being involved with the planning

¹⁷ The end of the period of the research intervention was intended to be July for School B and so interviews were carried out then. Children's progress was also reviewed at this point (although the generic measures were not collected). School B decided to continue with the planning intervention until December. There are therefore two sets of interview data for School B. School K only ran their planning intervention for just over half of one term and so were only interviewed on one occasion.

intervention project, including their views on its impacts for the children, impacts for them, what elements they found helpful, which they found to be less helpful, how they felt it may be sustainable in their schools and how they felt Educational Psychologists may be able to support its future implementation should they choose to continue to use it. Consistent with the recommendations of Yin (2009) which emphasise ensuring flexibility within Case Studies to promote the inclusion of data which may be unexpected but of relevance, the structure of the interviews was underpinned by key questions, but open to diversion when areas of additional interest emerged.

3.3. PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL

The different components of the planning intervention tool are shown in Figures 3.3a – 3.3e. The planning intervention tool is based predominantly on multi-element plans (e.g. Eccles & Pitchford, 1997). There is an added element of Target Monitoring and Evaluation (e.g. Dunsmuir et al., 2009). This is in order that progress observed can be measurable in relation to targets. It is hoped that behavioural targets here may provide proxy indicators of emotional well-being if the

assumption can be made that behaviour serves a communicative purpose (e.g. LaVignia & Willis, 1996).

1. Identification of child's strengths and likes

Strengths	Likes

2. Specific behaviour(s) causing concern (not more than three)

Where is the child currently?

3. Specify Target Behaviour

Where do you (realistically) want the child to be by the end of X period of time?

Figure 3.3a First page of the planning intervention tool. Identification of children's strengths and likes. Specification of behaviour(s) causing concern, and of measurable targets.

As shown in Figure 3.3a, the planning intervention process begins with a discussion of the child's strengths and likes. This provides a positive, solution-focussed approach from the outset. Subsequent interventions (see Figure 3.3c) may refer back to this so as to build on 'what works' for the individual children. It also centres the discussion firmly on the child and their needs, rather than focusing on the behaviours they may be engaging in that are causing difficulties.

The next step is specification of behaviour(s) causing concern. This is consistent with multi-element plans and TME. Key to this is that the behaviour must be observable and that contextual features must be identified such as when it happens, where it happens, who is there

when it happens, how often it happens and how long for. This element has its basis in behaviourist principles (e.g. Skinner, 1938; Watson & Rayner, 1920), and is underpinned by an assumption that a behaviour is maintained or extinguished by factors present within the environment (e.g. Carr, 1977; Carr & Durand, 1985). By being specific about the behaviour causing concern, a corresponding target may be generated that is tangible. This links to boxes 5 and 6 (Figures 3.3d and 3.3e, respectively) with emphasis on the targets being SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-limited).

Child's name:	Class:	Adults present at planning meeting:
School:	Date:	Nature of reason for selection in study:
Functions of Behaviour <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Getting Social Interaction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ With adults ○ With peers • Trying to gain some control in their life • Avoidance (e.g. of places, people, activities etc.) • Expressing emotion / reducing stress • Increasing or reducing stimulation 	Functions	"I..." Messages

Figure 3.3b Second page of planning intervention tool *present only in TME and ERB group*. Exploration of possible reasons underlying behaviour specified in box 2 (see Figure 3.3a) and corresponding "I messages".

The component of the planning intervention tool presented in Figure 3.3b was present only in the TME & ERB group and was absent from the TME group. This component is based on the principle that interventions

based on the *function* rather than the *form* of behaviour may be more likely to be appropriate and thus effective¹⁸ (e.g. Doody, 2009; Iwata et al., 1984; e.g. McIntosh et al., 2008). It is worth acknowledging that the Exploration of Reasons underlying Behaviour element of the study in its present form represents a departure from the purest forms of functional analysis, whereby the latter is based upon behavioural observations and in this sense, empirical interpretations of behaviour, and the former can only be based upon the perspectives of the adults involved in the planning meetings. The importance of considering hypotheses relating to the possible reasons underlying the children's behaviour as exactly those, and not established fact, was emphasised during the training. Although in practice, such a subjective approach is often taken without behavioural data under the guise of 'Functional Analysis' (e.g. Sasso et al, 2001; Steege & Watson, 2009) , the present study makes an explicit distinction between a behaviourist or empirical approach and the present approach, in the interest of maintaining transparency and clarity.

¹⁸ There are a number of existing checklists for functional behaviour analysis but these are widely considered not to be reliable (e.g. Barton-Arwood, Wehby, Gunter & Lowe, 2003) and are therefore not used here. Similarly, there is an existing interview tool, the Functional Assessment Checklist for Teachers and Staff: FACTS, March, Horner, Lewis-Palmer, Brown, Crone, Todd, & Carr, 2000). However, this is not recommended for individuals who have not gained the requisite skills through training (e.g. McIntosh, Brown & Borgmeier, 2008) and is therefore not used here.

Child's name:	Class:	Adults present at planning meeting:
Date:		
4. Strategies to support the pupil		
Environmental Strategies – support around the child <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical Environment • Social Environment • Teaching & Curriculum • Meeting Basic Physical and Emotional Needs • Some Preferred Activities 		
Skill Development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building on strengths and interests • Addressing areas of difficulty • Functionally Equivalent Skills • Coping Skills 		

Figure 3.3c Third page of the planning intervention tool. Multi-element planning format for considering different ways to support children in reaching their targets (see box 3 in Figure 3.3a). In the TME & ERB group the exploration from Figure 3.3b should be considered in relation to this section.

This was combined with “I... messages” which are hypothetical explorations of what a child may be inadvertently be communicating when engaging in a particular behaviour¹⁹.

¹⁹ The training includes clarification that the process of exploring reasons underlying behaviours is not scientific but hypothetical. Although in a comprehensive Functional Behaviour Analysis, ideally direct observation would be employed to confirm or refute the hypotheses, this is not undertaken explicitly here. This is first because there is not the capacity to carry this out reliably within the schools and would therefore not be sustainable on a longer term basis. Sustainability of the planning intervention within schools was a core value of the current study. Furthermore, McIntosh et al. (2008) state that, “*In circumstances in which the behaviour is less complex or severe....indirect functional behaviour analysis measures might suffice as adequate measurement*” (p. 9). Thus, indirect measures such as those employed in the present study, “*could save resources but at the expense of accuracy*” (p. 9).

Child's name: _____ Class: _____ Adults present at planning meeting: _____

Date: _____

Praise / Reward strategies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To acknowledge improvements • For a gradual reduction in the behaviour causing concern • For the absence of the behaviour causing concern 	
---	--

5. Target setting and scaling

C = where is the child currently
E = where do you realistically expect them to be?
A = at review, where is the child actually?

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

Figure 3.3d Fourth page of the planning intervention tool. Format for considering reward and praise strategies with specific reference to targets and in the TME & ERB group, the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour shown in Figure 3.4b Also shows scale used to consider children’s progress towards their individual targets (see Box 3 in Figure 3.3a) at the initial meeting and at subsequent review.

Reward and praise strategies are then considered (see Figure 3.3d) with reference to the impact that they would like them to have. Reward and praise strategies may differ depending on whether they aim to reinforce a desirable behaviour, to reduce the frequency or incidence of an inappropriate or unhelpful behaviour, or to eradicate a dangerous behaviour.

The scaling component (box 5) is presented at the end of the planning intervention format so that it can be revisited and a discussion reiterated about how progress towards targets can will be noted and observed. Figure 3.3e shows the arrangements for monitoring and review.

Child's name:	Class:	Adults present at planning meeting:
Date:		
6. Monitoring and Evaluation		
<input type="checkbox"/> If the child is making progress towards the target: *How will you know? *What will be your measure(s) of success?		
7. Set Review		
Review Date.....		
Review of progress	Enter here the date that progress is to be reviewed...../.../..... Who is to be involved in the review?	
Duration of meeting: _____		

Figure 3.3e Fifth page of the planning intervention tool. Format for considering reward and praise strategies with specific reference to targets and in the TME & ERB group, the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour shown in Figure 3.3b.

3.4. PARTICIPANTS

3.4.1. SCHOOLS

All of the primary (and junior) schools in the researcher's patch of schools were invited to participate in the study. The schools which participated in the study were those where staff members felt able to manage the time commitment that the project required. Six schools initially enrolled and staff members engaged in the training, but four withdrew on account of concerns relating to staff shortages and other organisational pressures.

Both remaining schools were large primary schools (420 on roll in School K and 450 on roll in School B) and were situated in two adjacent towns within a rural area of a large shire Local Authority. Both catchments are identified by the Local Authorities as requiring support in relation to indicators of social deprivation. School B had a proportion of 12.7% of children accessing free school meals, and School K had a proportion of 17.5%.

School B may be considered to be a highly inclusive school with a generally high level of emotional literacy amongst the staff, including the Head Teacher, and a strong emphasis on this within the general curriculum. School K appeared to have elements of inclusivity, but this related more to the values and personalities of different adults within school than to an emphasis on this and emotional literacy forming an inherent feature of the school's core values.

3.4.2. LEAD BEHAVIOUR COORDINATORS

Each school was asked to nominate two key members of staff to take a lead on the project. The two staff members could either be high level teaching assistants or teachers. School staff either volunteered or were nominated by the Senior Management Team (SMT) to take on this role. They were three high level teaching assistants (HLTAs) and one Key Stage 2 teacher.

3.4.3. CHILDREN

The students involved in the study were twelve pupils in Key Stage 2. There were eight boys and four girls, and their ages ranged from 8 to 11 years, with a mean age of 9 years (standard deviation = 1.04). The primary reasons for inclusion in the study were cited broadly by school staff as: Concentration, confidence, anxiety, disruption, social skills, behaviour, engagement in work.

Summary of Participant Allocation to Groups			
Group	School B	School K	Mean Age
ERB + TME	4	3	8.4 years SD = 0.5
TME	4	1	9.8 years SD = 1.1

Table 3.1. Summary of participants' allocation to Exploration of Reasons Underlying Behaviour (ERB) & Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME) and TME only groups by school and age.

Four children were allocated to each of the two planning intervention conditions in school B, and three to the TME & ERB and one in the TME group in School K, such that in total, seven children were involved with TME & ERB and five were involved with TME²⁰. The mean age of the children in the TME & ERB group was 8.4 years (standard deviation = 0.5; range: 8 – 9 years). In the TME condition, the mean age was 9.8 years (standard deviation = 1.1; range: 9 – 11 years). The primary reasons for inclusion in the study were similar in both groups.

²⁰ Although equal allocation of children to groups was encouraged through random allocation, organisational issues within School K resulted in more children having access to the TME & ERB group than to the TME group.

3.4.4. OTHER SCHOOL STAFF

The teachers in the study were those who had a child in their class who was involved and who were therefore involved in the planning intervention meetings and were responsible for ensuring that the agreed actions arising from the meetings were implemented and monitored. Members of school senior management teams (SMT) were also involved (in one school the Head Teacher, in the other, the SENCO) in order to ensure that the key staff taking the lead roles on the project had sufficient time to carry out the meetings and coordinate collection of consent and questionnaires. Four teachers and key members of school SMT (one head teacher and one SENCO) were also interviewed during, and following the conclusion of the project.

3.5. PRINCIPLES OF ANALYSIS

The principles of the ways in which data from both quantitative and qualitative sources are approached, analysed and interpreted is key in providing transparency. However, the scope of the present thesis does not allow for a full discussion of this within the main body of the text. Appendix 5 therefore provides a full discussion of the principles of analysis underpinning the present study, should the reader wish to find further information. This includes discussion of Mixed-methods, Pragmatism and Data Triangulation.

3.5.1 RATIONALE FOR ANALYTIC APPROACHES ADOPTED.

In presenting the analysis of the data, it may be worth reiterating from the outset that, consistent with the pragmatic epistemology underpinning the study as a whole, the analysis of the data presented in this chapter is question-dominant. Robson (1993) states that, *“Irrespective of whether your study generates qualitative or quantitative data, the major task is to find answers to your research questions”* (p.372). As such, analyses have been selected here in order that they may best be able to illuminate the research questions at hand

3.5.2. ANALYSIS OF NUMERICAL DATA.

The numerical data were gained from three sources: scaling data (provided by adults), results of the SDQ and results of the SCHI (both of the latter are scored according to an external marking criteria according to which overall scores are derived).

There were several factors of interest in addressing the research questions including, whether there was any difference in scores (scaling, SDQ and SCHI) between pre- and post-measure, whether there was any difference in scores between the type of planning intervention (i.e. including ERB or not), and between time for implementation (one or half terms or half a term). Although a narrative discussion of all of these comparisons can be allowed by descriptive data, the size of the data set limited the capacity for statistical comparison, and these were only possible on the data set as a whole (i.e. collapsed across type of

planning intervention and time period). Further information about the nature of the statistical comparisons can be found in Appendix 6.

3.5.3. ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW DATA.

The interview data was collected from interviews with different stakeholders in the planning intervention. The details of the exact procedure of analysis undertaken are presented in Chapter 4. The present section provides a discussion of approaches to analysing interview data and the rationale for employing the approach eventually undertaken.

3.5.3.1. THEMATIC ANALYSIS.

The interview data collected from interviews were analysed using thematic analysis. There are some who argue that thematic analysis is not a method in itself in the same way as other thematising methods such as Discourse Analysis, Content Analysis or Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) (e.g. Ryan & Bernard, 2000; Tordres, 2003). However, there are those who argue that it can provide a *“method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data”* (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79). It is perhaps its inherent theoretical and procedural flexibility (and therefore compatibility with different paradigms) which allows it the scope to address data free from the constraints of such firm theoretical boundaries as those guiding such methods as Discourse Analysis, IPA or Grounded Theory. Braun and Clarke (2006) do however emphasise the importance of carrying out

Thematic Analysis within guidelines and with transparency over procedure (Attride-Stirling, 2001), in order to avoid the oft-cited criticism that ‘anything goes’ (e.g. Antaki, Billig, Edwards & Potter, 2002). Again, there is not capacity within the main body of the present thesis to allow a full discussion of this, but a more detailed account can be found in Appendix 7.

3.6. KEY CONSTRUCTS

Mixed methods research has been described as “the third methodological movement” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010, p804). As an approach it is closely aligned to pragmatism (Cameron, 2011 and see Section 3.1.1). The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of investigation is not straightforward on account of important considerations relating to, for example, differing philosophical, cultural, psychological (cognitive) and practical perspectives and approaches (e.g. Mingers, 2001). However, these barriers are not considered to be insurmountable as long as key issues are acknowledged, and addressed through careful consideration of paradigm, pragmatism, praxis, proficiency and publication (e.g. Bazeley, 2003; Brannen, 2005; Cameron, 2011 and Appendix 5). Within this, appropriate attention must be accorded to three key concepts in research. The present section provides a discussion of the notions of reliability, validity and generalisation, albeit with acknowledgement that these terms are more applicable to the quantitative than the qualitative aspects of analysis

presented later in this chapter (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Stenbacka, 2001). Although terminology more specific to mixed-methods research (e.g. Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008) is explored in the following sections, the terms reliability, validity and generalisability are maintained in order to provide consistency and quickly recognisable focal points.

3.6.1. RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the extent to which the findings from research are consistent over repeated measurement and how accurate reflection of the population under investigation they present (e.g. Johnson, 2000). Within quantitative research, this is often evaluated as a function of replicability. A paradigmatic difficulty becomes immediately apparent (e.g. Cresswell & Miller, 2003), inasmuch as researchers with more relativist ontologies (such as social constructivism) may not attribute importance to the notion that findings can be replicated, and indeed, may reject the very concept of reliability in qualitative research as 'irrelevant' (e.g. Stenbacka, 2001). This is especially relevant to the element of the planning intervention tool involving the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour. Given that this diluted variation on functional analysis is not supported by behavioural data in the same way as more robust versions of functional analysis, it is completely dependent on adults' perceptions, which could pose potential risks to the reliability of this element of the study. However, Patton (2002) suggests that reliability, as well as validity, *should* be of concern to

qualitative as well as quantitative researchers in order that they can consider, *“How can an inquirer persuade his or her audience that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to”* (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.290). For this reason, it would be inconsistent with the paradigmatic stance of the present study to declare that concerns relating to reliability of this interpretative element of the study are not relevant. This is therefore acknowledged and addressed, to some extent at least, by the emphasis on gathering a range of adult views within the planning meetings, as well as, as far as possible, children’s views. Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) go further to state that, *“Research needs to be defensible to the research and practice communities for whom the research is produced”* (p. 148). Denzin and Lincoln (2003) call for a ‘serious rethink’ of the terms used to refer to key constructs in the quality assurance of qualitative research, and increasingly more suitable terminology has been introduced, often encompassing both reliability and validity (e.g. Lincoln and Guba, 1983; Patton, 2002).

3.6.2. VALIDITY

Scaife (2004) defines validity as *“the degree to which a method, a test or a research tool actually measures what it is supposed to measure”* (p. 68). Krathwohl (1993) goes further to suggest that (internal) validity, *“is the power of a study to support an inference that certain variables in it are linked in a relationship”* (p. 271). Patton (2002) posits that one way in which validity may be increased is through triangulation, especially of multiple perceptions

on a single reality (e.g. Healy & Perry, 2000). Again, the problem of paradigm becomes clear as validity can only be judged in accordance with the researcher's (or audience's) paradigmatic assumptions, and *"Some qualitative researchers object to the concept of validity based on their rejection or the correspondence theory of truth"* (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). While qualitative researchers have developed their own more suitable terminology for validity such as credibility, confirmability, dependability, transferability and so on (e.g. Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Sturman, 1999), there remains a problem in mixed-methods research of how to consider quality assurance in studies which employ both qualitative and quantitative analysis and confer equal status to both (Brannen, 2005). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) thus advocate a 'bilingual nomenclature' (p.12) which can be employed for all analyses in mixed-methods studies and have developed the concept of 'Inference Quality', which encompasses both design rigour (providing standards for methodological rigour) and interpretative rigour (standards for evaluating the validity of conclusions). They set out four criteria for evaluation, namely: within design consistency (i.e. that there is consistency between the procedures which allowed for the inferences to be drawn), conceptual consistency (i.e. that the inferences are consistent with existing theories), interpretative agreement consistency (i.e. that there is consistency in the way the data is interpreted by different individuals) and interpretative distinctness (i.e. that the inferences have been drawn following a process of ruling out rival explanations). As regards the present

findings, the notions of conceptual consistency and interpretative distinctness (i.e. the extent to which the inferences drawn from the data fit with extant literature and the arguments by which the inferences were reached) are covered in Chapter 4. However, individual agreement consistency has been reviewed here by discussing the findings from the numerical data with colleagues from the Educational Psychology Service and discussing possible alternative interpretations of their implications. Similarly, thematic maps at various stages of development have been shared with colleagues as well as the quotes which substantiate each code in order to explore the extent to which there is agreement on the ways in which they have been interpreted. Risks of confirmatory bias in relation to staff-report and children's self-report, based on perceptions are addressed as far as possible through triangulation with a range of measures. In terms of design consistency, Sturman's (1999) nine factors to raise what he terms *credibility*, may provide a useful guideline. These include: clearly explaining the data collection procedures (Chapter 3 of the present thesis), displaying data and being prepared for re-analysis (Chapter 4 and raw data is available for scrutiny on request). Re-analysis has been carried out iteratively throughout and reporting of negative instances (Chapters 4 and 5), acknowledging biases (Chapters 4 and 5), clarifying the relationship between assertion and evidence (Chapters 3, 4 and 5) distinguishing between first and second degree evidence (Chapters 4 and 5), ensuring methods to check data quality (as outlined above attempting some degree of inter-rater reliability through

sharing of analyses with colleagues). In addition, codes and themes were taken back to participants in order to see whether they felt their views and utterances had been accurately represented and interpreted. In order to crudely control for the risk of participants simply saying that the interpretations were appropriate, a very small number were deliberately altered to say something which seemed very much at odds with the rest of the interpretation. Those participants picked up on these saying that they hadn't remembered intending those meanings, but other than that, all agreed that the interpretations were representative and accurate.

Thus, irrespective of the terminology felt to most aptly define reliability and validity within the context of the present research, measures have been taken as far as possible to ensure that high regard has been given to quality assurance with data collection, analysis and interpretation.

3.6.3. GENERALISATION

As should perhaps by now be expected, there is also considerable debate as to whether or not research carried out through case study research can be considered to be generalisable (or, 'transferable' e.g. Golafshani, 2003). For example, Stake (2000) posits that findings from small scale case studies cannot be generalised to a wider population, stating that, "*Single or a few cases are a poor representation of a population of cases and questionable grounds for advancing grand generalisations*" (p. 448). Evers and Wu (2006) acknowledge this problematic aspect of small scale studies, but do highlight

the value they may bring in clarifying theory and at least having some implications for generalisation. Correspondingly, Yin (2009) draws a distinction between analytic and statistical generalisation and holds that small scale case studies can provide evidence to support the former. Giddens (1984) goes further, to suggest that small scale case studies can develop into generalising studies if carried out in 'some numbers', consistent with Yin's (2009) point that rarely are theories drawn from single scientific studies standing alone. Indeed, although there is full acknowledgement here of the small scale of the study, the multiple nature of the case study (i.e. in two separate settings) aims to provide a further degree of robustness (e.g. Herriott & Firestone, 1983).

Where there is debate about the relative generalisability of findings from statistical quantitative analysis and thematic qualitative analysis, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) once again provide a compromise through their 'bilingual nomenclature' for research in which both types of analysis play a role. Instead of generalisability in mixed-methods research, they refer to 'Inference Transferability', and specify: Operational Transferability, Temporal Transferability, Ecological Transferability and Population Transferability. Within the present study, the extent to which the four different methods of measuring emotional well-being (scaling, SDQ, SCHI and interview) are transferable are discussed briefly in Chapter 5, as are the potential longitudinal aspects, the transferability across the two settings studied here and potentially further afield in future, and the potential transferability

across different populations (different demographic situations, different age ranges such as secondary-aged children, and children with more complex needs).

3.7. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.

A full outline of the ethical considerations required for the present study are presented in Appendix 8. Salient ethical concerns are outlined here. It was not felt that participation in the study would cause physical harm or distress to any participant.

In order to ensure that participants were able to give fully informed consent, an information sheet was provided with the consent forms. The wording was adapted to make them more accessible for the children, and staff were asked to read through the information with the children (see Appendices 1a-c). Parent and staff information sheets were also provided and consent sought before participation in the study began. All of the consent forms made it explicit that any participants were free to withdraw from the study at any time and that their data would remain anonymous, although that once the data had been aggregated and analysed they would no longer be able to retract it. A series of boxes on the consent form asked participants to confirm that they had understood each of these conditions.

An important ethical factor worth consideration here is that initially a Wait-List Control group was included in the study (but was removed following the

transformation of the study from experimental design into Case Study). Four children and their parents in School B signed a consent form saying that they would have access to the intervention in the future. By the time of writing the present thesis all four of the children in the Wait List Control group had been given access to the planning intervention.

CHAPTER 4: DATA, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

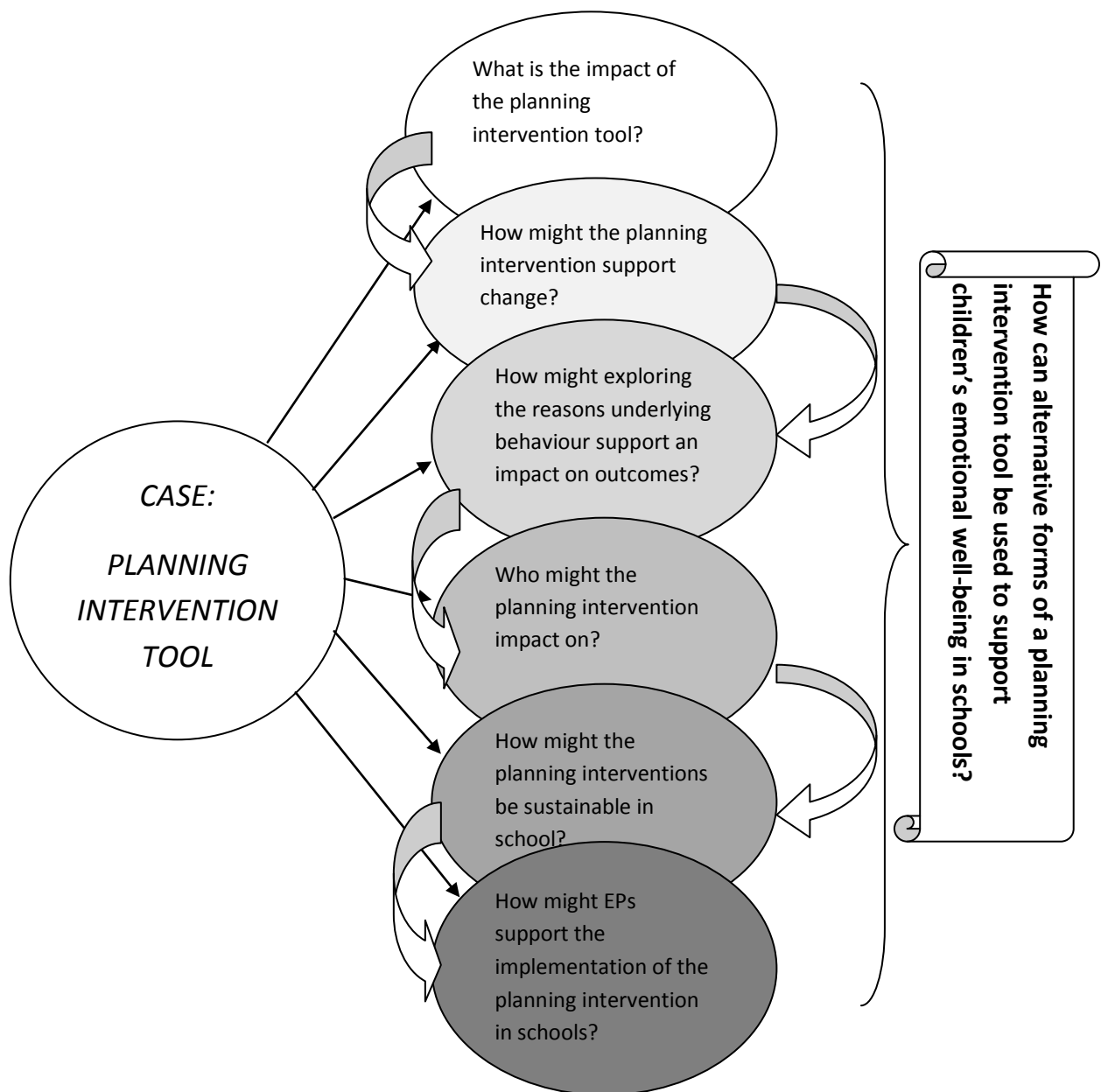


Figure 4.1 Graphic showing key research question ('How can alternative forms of a planning intervention tool be used to support children's emotional well-being in schools?') and component sub-questions arranged in hierarchical structure reflecting Logic Model to be used in analysis and interpretation. Data for each sub-question is derived from the Case Study. Each oval containing a research sub-question is darker in colour than the previous one in order to demonstrate the incremental nature of the developing theory. The arrows between each of the sub-questions indicate that the conclusions drawn from each will contribute to the interpretation of the next.

4.1. OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER.

Consistent with Cameron's (2011) call for consideration of how findings from a mixed-methods study may be best presented, and Yin's (2009) concern that dissemination of case study research may become unwieldy, the present Chapter aims to incorporate the specification of the data, the analysis and the interpretation of findings in an integrated discussion. This is in order to reduce the duplication of information as may be presented in sequential, more traditional results and discussion chapters. Following the first section in which the nature of the data is presented, an overview of the numerical and interview data is provided, and the remainder of the chapter will consider the analysis of the findings and their interpretation within the structure of a variation on a Logic Model (as outlined in Figure 4.1). An approach based upon some features of a Logic Model approach (e.g. Afifi, Makhoul, El Hajj & Nakkash, 2011; Strahan, Kronenberg, Burgner & Doherty, 2012; Yin, 2009) aims to interpret information from multiple sources in a logical way. A Logic Model in its purest form, "deliberately stipulates a complex chain of events over an extended period of time. The events are staged in repeated cause-effect-cause-effect patterns, whereby a dependent variable (event) at an earlier stage becomes the independent variable (causal event) for the next stage" (Yin, 2009 p. 149). For example, Strahan et al (2012) used a study within the framework a Logic Model to explore how teachers could work together to effectively differentiate teaching for secondary students. Their findings as presented within a

Logic Model allowed a more accurate description than had been allowed by their previous research, of the interactions of elements and processes which operated together to promote 'responsive teaching'.

Afif et al (2011) note that, "*Logic models are [also] useful in monitoring the implementation of a programme of activities and in management and evaluation*" (Afif et al., 2011, p. 509). Within the present study, the implementation of the planning intervention tool, its management and evaluation are thus encapsulated within six key questions. Each of the research sub-questions is addressed in a hierarchical manner such that each new question to be addressed builds on the interim hypothesis and conclusions drawn (following consideration of rival explanations) from the previous one. In this sense, the process of the Logic Model approach to data interpretation is incremental and builds ultimately, to conclusions regarding the main research question, in relation to the system and processes involved directly, and indirectly in influencing the immediate and longer term outcomes in relation to the planning intervention

4.2. DATA SPECIFICATION.

The data were collected in a variety of ways: through active discussion (scaling scores and interviews), and through questionnaires (the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) and the School Children's Happiness Inventory (SCHI). The latter two were carried out by children (in the form of supported self-report), and by teachers in relation to the children. Data sources can be seen in full in Figure 4.2a and Figure 4.2b.

Numerical data were collected for a total of twelve children across two different schools and also two alternative formats of the planning intervention. However, as shown in Figure 4.2a numerical data were analysed for only eleven children on account of one incomplete data set. Subjective measures carried out by adults at the planning meetings were made of children's progress in relation to their individual targets on a scale (*scaling*) at the outset of the process (pre-measure) and, at review, at the end (post-measure). More generic pre- and post-intervention measures were also collected through the SDQ and SCHI. Data for each child on the SDQ and SCHI were provided by the children themselves (supported self-report) and the child's class teacher.

Interview data was also collected at two points in the course of the planning interventions being implemented. Interviews were carried out with stakeholders across both school settings and who had been involved with either or both types of planning intervention. As shown in Figure 4.2b, interviews were carried out with children, class teachers, lead behaviour coordinators and members of senior management.

Specification of Data and Sources – Numerical Data.

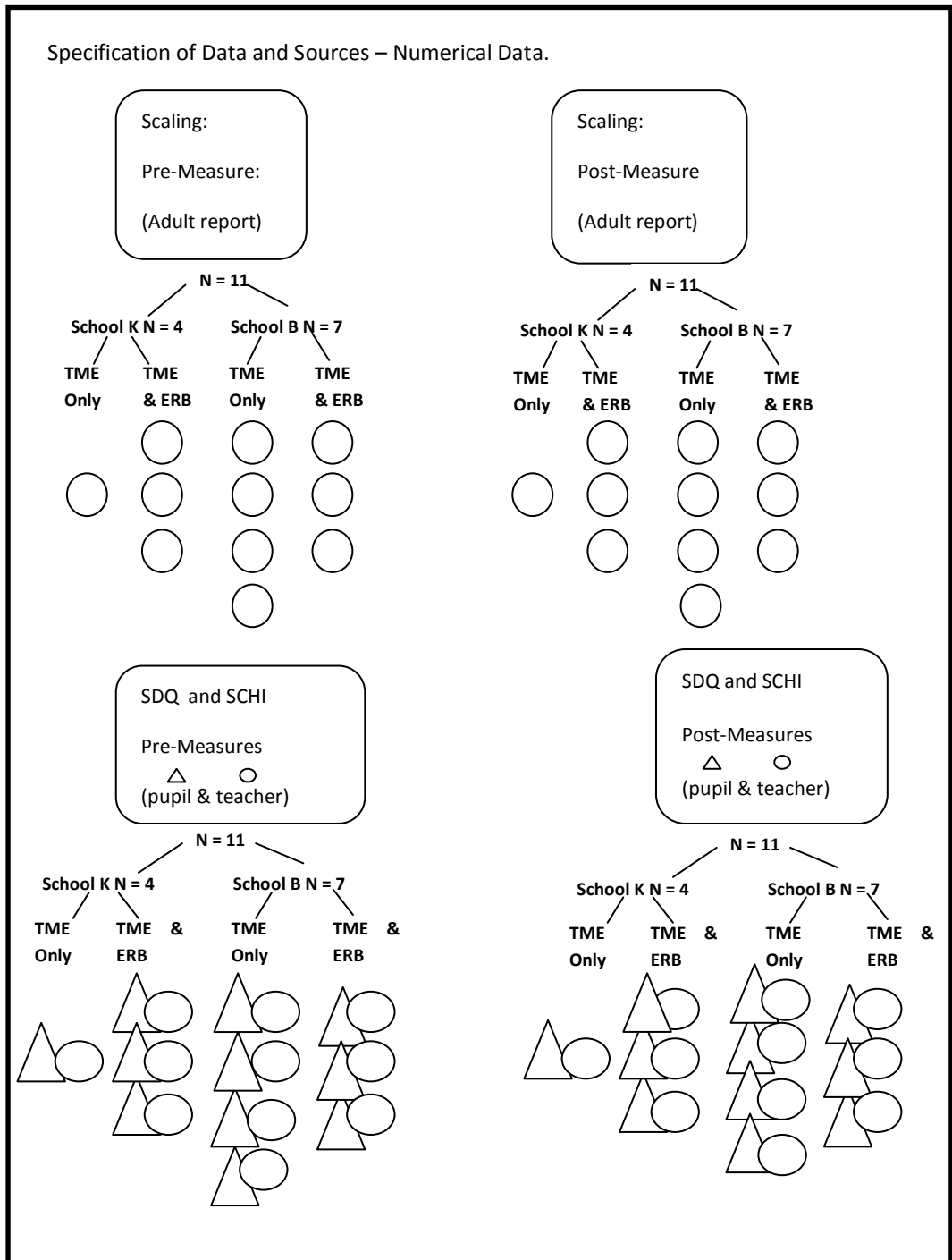


Figure 4.2a Graphical representation of the source and nature of the numerical data collected. Scaling scores at pre- and post-measure are represented as ○ having been taken by adults involved with the process of the planning intervention. The SDQ and SCHI measures for each child were informed by the child's self-rating (supported) and is represented on the bottom panel by ○. Class teachers also completed the SDQ and SCHI at pre- and post-measure in relation to each child, and their measures are represented as △.

In the case of School B, the lead behaviour coordinators and the Head Teacher were interviewed twice; once in July and again in December²¹.

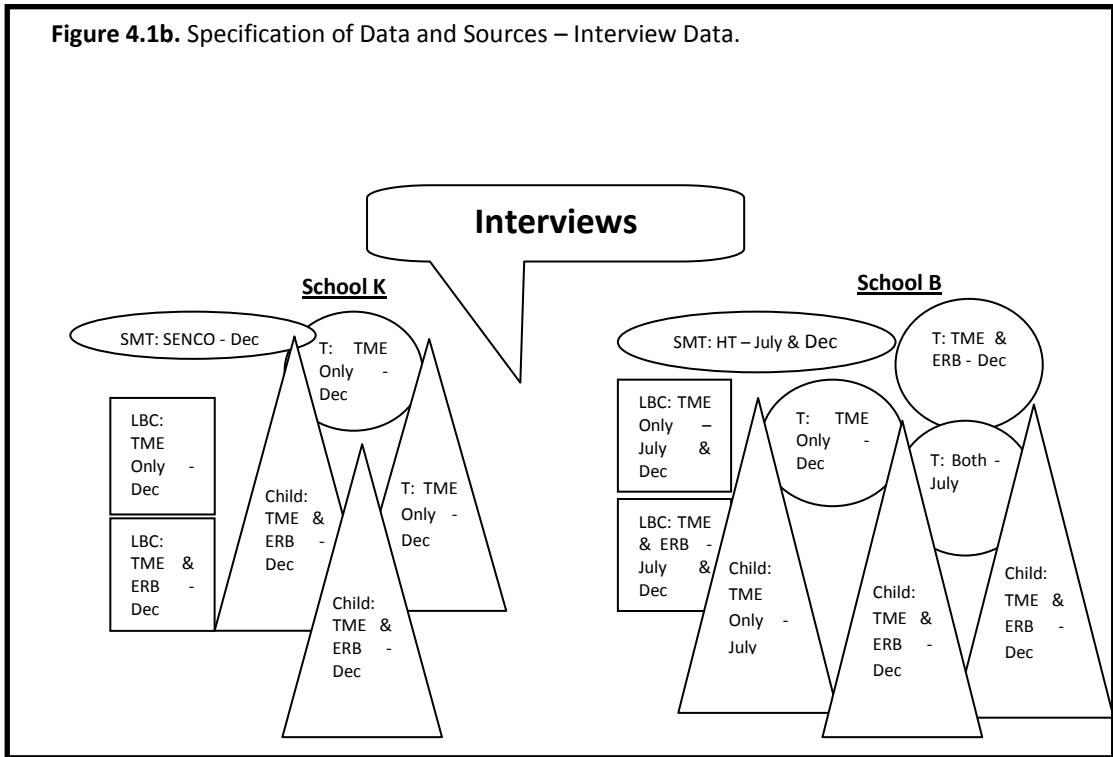
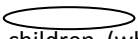
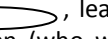




Figure 4.2b Graphical representation of sources and more specific details of the Interview data collected. Interviews were carried out in both school settings (School K and School B), mostly in December although five were carried out in July in School B. Different stake-holder groups are represented as follows: Senior management (head teacher and SENCO): , lead behaviour coordinators for each type of planning intervention: , children (who were involved with either type of planning intervention): , and class teachers (who had children in their class involved with either or both of the planning interventions): .

²¹ The interviews were aimed to take place at the end of the intervention period, but as School B decided following the meetings in July to continue the intervention until December, further interviews were carried out at that time.

4.3. OVERVIEW OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

4.3.1. NUMERICAL DATA

As outlined in Section 4.2. data were collected in relation to a total of twelve children across two schools and within each of the two types of planning intervention, but analysed for only eleven children due to one incomplete data set (see Figure 4.2a for full specification of the numerical data). However, it is worth noting that for the 'scaling' data, there are seventeen data points as some children had more than one individual target against which progress was assessed. The analyses of the numerical data comprise comparisons (statistical where possible) of pre- and post-measures on the scaling, SDQ and SCHI. An overview of the findings for all of the children can be found in Table 4.1. The data will be analysed in further detail through the process of analysis through a Logic Model. However, at a glance, the data indicate that all children made progress towards their individual targets as assessed through scaling, except for one of Sam's targets for which there was no change from baseline. This target, 'contributing [to class discussions] at least five times each day', was discussed in interview with Sam, who was aware of it but didn't appear to feel that it was relevant to him.

The data also show that seven out of the eleven children's self-ratings on the SDQ showed progress between pre- and post-measure, as did nine of the eleven on the SCHI. Of the two children whose self-reports were lower at post-measure on both the SDQ and the SCHI (Aidan, and Crystal), it's worth noting that Aidan said that he would prefer not to have his interview recorded, and Crystal indicated in her interview that

she had little idea of what her targets were (although her scaling data shows some progress towards them).

Child	Main Concern	Year	Pre-Scaling	Post-Scaling	Children: SDQ		Teacher: SDQ		Children: SCHI		Teacher: SCHI	
					Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Verity ²² _(B)	Confidence	5	1	6	15	14	9	12	83	119	74	75
Andrew _(B)	Anxiety, nervousness	6	3	8	11	5	12	5	108	109	106	97
Bianca _(B)	confidence, maintaining social relationships	4	1	6	13	8	15	8	85	105	87	83
Tyrone _(K)	Concentration/disruption	6	3	5	20	4	21	15	76	109	78	85
Alfie _(B)	anxiety, engagement in work	4	3	9	19	14	13	23	104	110	89	90
	-		5	7	-	-	-	-				
Matilda _(B)	Confidence, engagement	4	3	5	9	10	17	15	104	114	93	92
Aidan _(B)	Social skills	5	2	5	26	28	29	26	78	70	61	62
Kyle _(B)	Lack of progress, emotional	5	2	6	11	5	10	8	105	109	86	94
	Concentration/disruption	4	3	6	10	13	11	16	85	100	93	79
Ashley _(K)	-		1	3	-	-	-	-				
	-		3	5	-	-	-	-				
Sam _(K)	Concentration/anxiety.	4	2	2	9	6	11	14	97	107	91	99
	-		2	4	-	-	-	-				
Crystal _(K)	Annoying other children/concentration	4	1	4	15	12	19	19	91	89	91	96
	-		2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-		2	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4.1 Summary of children’s reasons for inclusion in the project and year groups. Pre- and post-measures are also presented for children’s scaling towards their targets, their self-ratings on the SDQ and SCHI, and teacher’s ratings on the SCHI. Post-measures are coded by colour according to progress where green = positive progress, orange shows no difference from baseline and red shows negative progress. Note that the top four children (presented above the black line) had access to the TME only version of the planning intervention tool; those underneath had access to the TME & ERB version of the planning intervention tool. (B) refers to children at School B, and (K) to children at School K.

²² The names of all of the children have been changed and will be used consistently hereafter throughout the remainder of the thesis.

The teachers' ratings on the SDQ showed progress at post-measure compared to pre-measure for six of the eleven children, and for seven of the children on the SCHI. Teachers' ratings showed negative progress across both the SDQ and SCHI only for Ashley, although interestingly, the difference between Ashley's own SCHI at pre- and post-measure was strikingly similar in magnitude (difference = +15) as the teacher's ratings (difference = -14) but in opposite directions.

4.3.2 INTERVIEW DATA

A total of nineteen interviews with a range of individuals (children, lead behaviour coordinators, teachers and members of senior management) carried out in two different schools were transcribed by the author (see Figure 4.2b).

4.3.2.1. PROCESS

The process of thematic analysis undertaken was based upon the phases of thematic analysis as set out by Braun and Clarke (2006) and then adapted in line with further guidance from the literature relating to thematic analysis (e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldana, 2009; Sturman, 1999), and is shown in Table 4.2 below.

Prevalence of data supporting codes and themes.

Some researchers use the relative prevalence of different codes within themes in their data set to determine their relative importance and therefore to prioritise the way in which the data is presented. This practice is not undertaken in the present analysis for two reasons. Firstly, the data set comprises interviews from a variety of individuals with different roles (i.e. children, class teachers, lead behaviour coordinators and senior management) and therefore different perspectives on the project being discussed in interview. In addition, It was felt that to prioritise different emerging ideas numerically risked occluding important voices and perspectives and potentially interesting ideas within the data which were relevant to the research questions at hand. For example only two members of senior management were interviewed (one in each school) and yet some of their perspectives were considered to be of key relevance to addressing the research questions.

Phase	Description of Process	Iterative re-coding and re-organising of codes into families and themes throughout.
1. Familiarisation with the data.	Initial thoughts around key ideas in data were noted during data collection. The interviews were transcribed by the author, and then read and re-read several times (see Appendix 9 for example annotated transcript).	
2. Generation of initial codes (1 st generation codes).	Initial ideas and features of interest were coded systematically across the data set in its entirety. Codes were generated throughout the process and data relevant to each code was collated. This was carried out by hand using Post-Its and then by computer as a process of review and refinement (see Appendix 9 for example annotated transcript).	
3. Organisation of codes into families (2 nd generation codes).	Initial (1 st generation) codes were grouped into 'families' and code categories were refined into 2 nd generation codes with increase coherence. This was carried out by hand using Post-Its and then by computer as a process of review and refinement (see Appendix 9 for example annotated transcript).	
4. Organisation of 2 nd generation codes into themes and subthemes.	2 nd generation codes were organised into potential subthemes, and then further into themes. All data relevant to each theme was collated (see Appendix 10). This was carried out by hand using Post-Its and then by computer as a process of review and refinement.	
5. Review and definition of the themes.	Inter-rater consistency was sought by checking that the data substantiating each 2 nd generation code, subtheme and theme was congruent with the nature of the code. This was carried out by the author and four different colleagues from the Educational Psychology Service. Themes, subthemes and 2 nd generation codes were arranged into a thematic map in order to be able to demonstrate relationships and interactions. Through iterative review and feedback, themes were refined, named and clearly defined.	
6. Review of coherence.	Thematic maps and annotated transcripts with codes were explored with a selection of eight participants to see whether the codes and themes were consistent with their views.	
7. Production of report.	In this final stage of analysis, a selection of 'vivid and compelling' data extracts are selected and analysed in terms of potential inferences that may be drawn in relation to the research questions at hand and an attempt is made to provide a suitable balance between analysis and illustration.	

Table 4.2 Main phases of thematic analysis carried out, based on Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87) and adapted to reflect further guidance (e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldana, 2009; Sturman, 1999).

It is perhaps worth emphasising from the outset of the analysis that participant responses are heavily influenced by questions asked during the semi-structured interviews, although in line with Yin's (2009) guidance on carrying out effective case studies, sufficient flexibility was also maintained to allow follow up and elaboration on elements of interest that emerged during the process of the interviews.

A skeletal map of the thematic map is presented in Figure 4.3 in order to provide an overview and key to the thematic map proper (cf. Murphy, 2010). It is worth noting that there is no relative weighting placed on the value of each theme, subtheme or code; rather what is represented reflects a system with multiple components. Indeed, *"The procedure of thematic networks [maps] does not aim or pretend to discover the beginning of arguments or the end of rationalizations; it simply provides a technique for breaking up text, and finding within it explicit rationalizations and their implicit signification"* (Attride-Stirling, 2001, p.388).

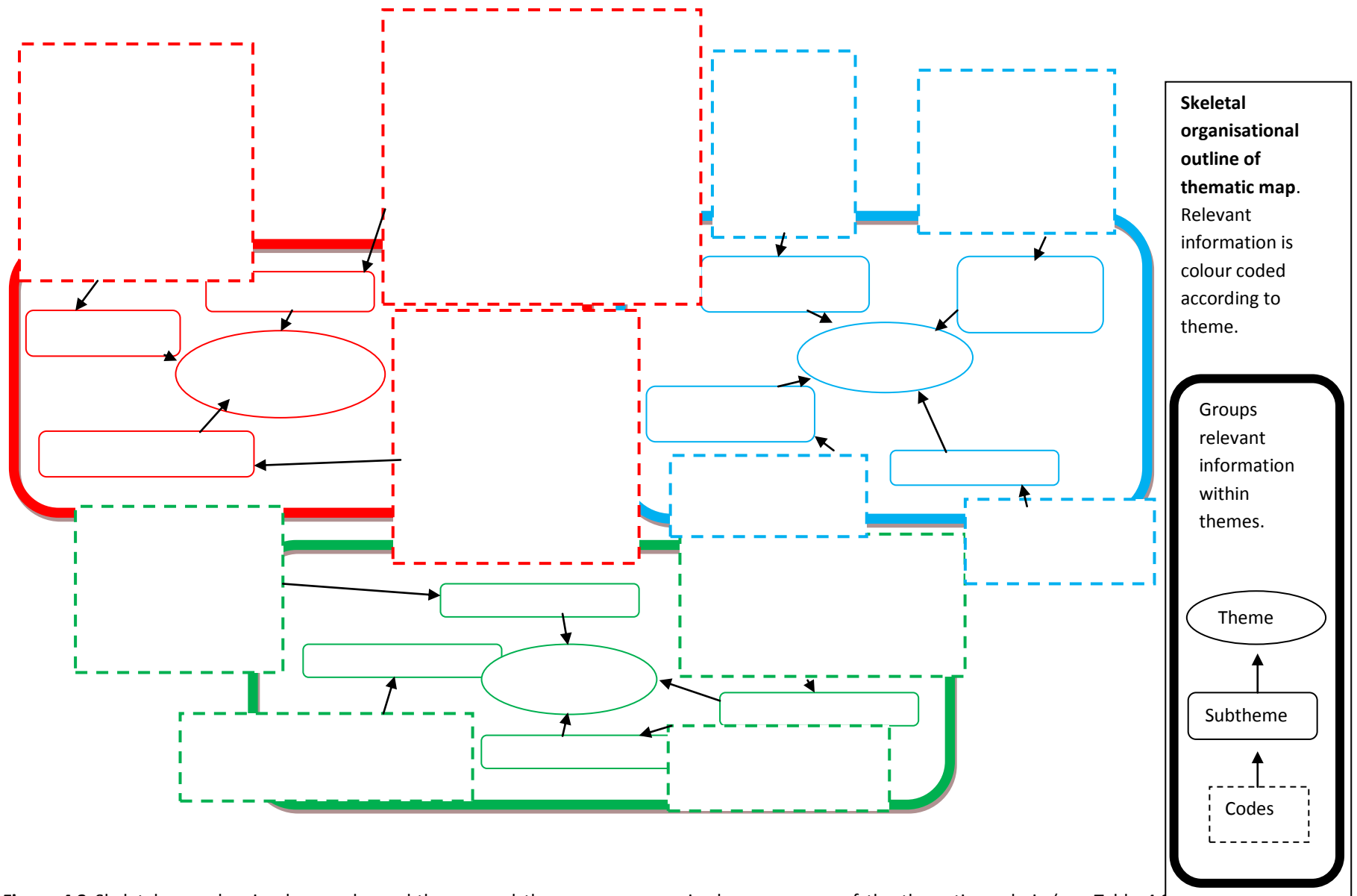


Figure 4.3 Skeletal map showing how codes, subthemes and themes were organised as a process of the thematic analysis (see Table 4.2 for process).

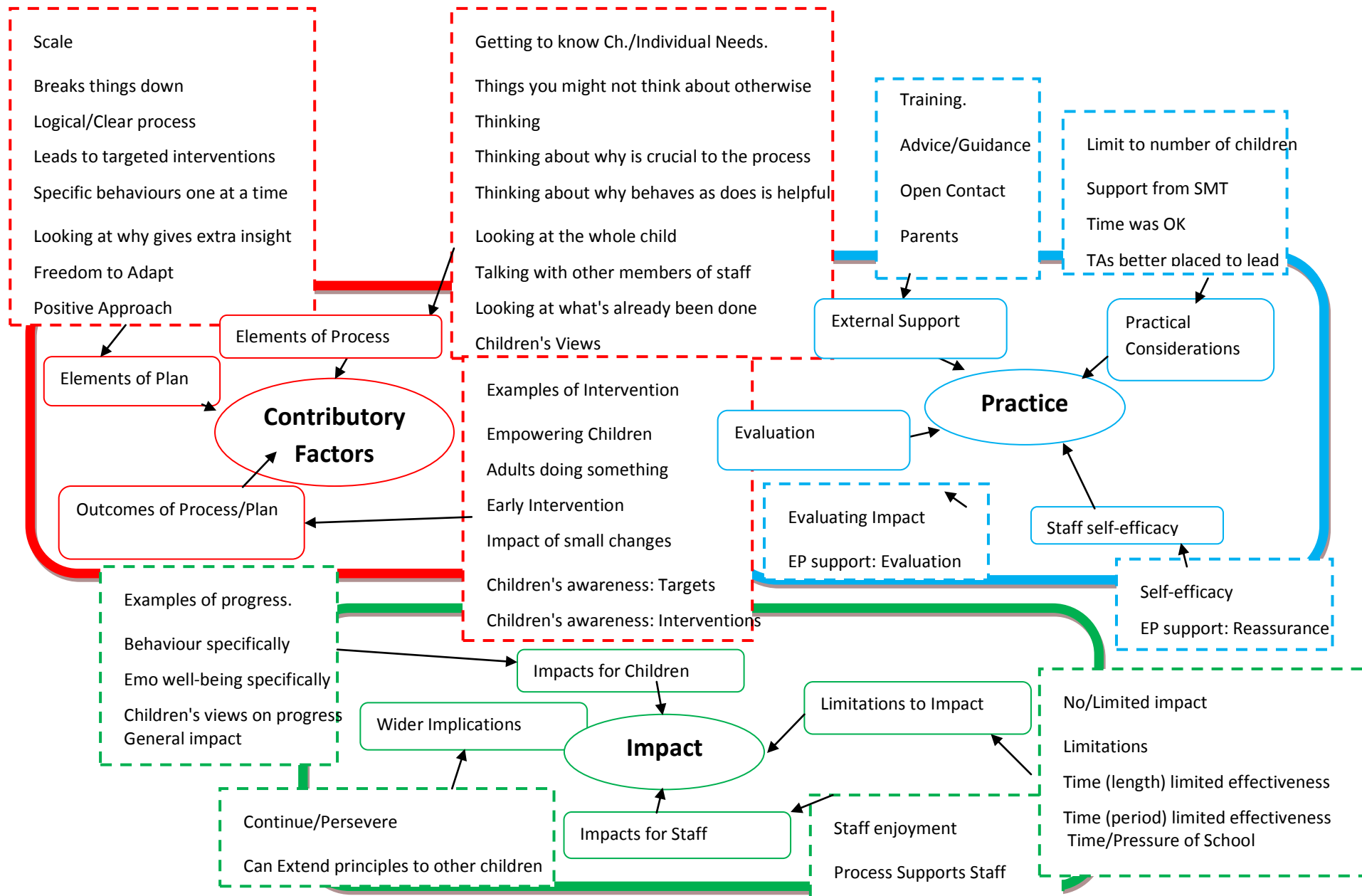


Figure 4.4 Final Thematic Map: Generated following thematic analysis of all nineteen participant interviews.

4.3.2.2. THEMES

Figure 4.4 shows the final thematic map generated following a thematic analysis²³ carried out on nineteen participant interviews, and indicates the identification of the following three main themes. Summaries of the three themes are presented here, and elements relevant to the integrated analysis and discussion will be elaborated on throughout the presentation of each of the research sub-questions through the process of a Logic Model.

a) Impacts (of the planning interventions)

As a theme, **Impact** reflects participants' discussions relating to the ways in which the planning interventions had affected children and staff, as well as factors which limited their impact. **Impact** here also refers to participants' discussion of ways in which the planning intervention has taken effect, and may continue to take effect beyond the scope of the project itself.

The theme, **Impact** reflected participants' (school staff and children) commentaries and discussion about whether the planning intervention had any effect on children's behaviour and emotional well-being, and indicated that overall there was a sense that it did. Participants were able to give examples of where there had been progress as a function of the planning intervention in general, but also more specifically in relation to emotional well-being and behaviour. Participants also

²³The final thematic map presented here is in its fifth incarnation following review and refinement, consistent with the iterative and cyclical nature of thematic analysis as advocated, for example, by Braun and Clarke (2006), and Grbich (2007).

discussed how involvement in the planning intervention had impacted on staff, through enjoyment and development, but also with teachers and teaching assistants being supported in managing children causing concern, as a result of the process. There were, however, a number of limitations brought to light in relation to the effectiveness of the planning intervention project. There were some children for whom staff felt that the impact on their behaviour and emotional well-being was limited. This was accounted for, for the most part, by limitations such as finding it difficult to think of support strategies, as well as short time-scales, a period of the year that was not ideal (i.e. the summer term), and general pressures on staff and their time. Nonetheless, there was a great deal of discussion about the wider implications of the planning intervention, beyond the scope of the focus children and the period of the project. Staff spoke about continuing and persevering with the planning intervention for focus children already involved, but also with further children as a school setting. They also spoke about being able to extend the principles of the planning intervention to other children who they work with more generally.

b) Contributory factors (to the effectiveness of the planning interventions);

Contributory factors can be defined here as those factors which were identified by participants as contributing towards the effectiveness of the planning interventions. This theme comprised three main subthemes

(see Figure 4.7): *Elements of Process, Elements of Plan and Outcomes of Process/Plan.*

As a theme, **Contributory Factors** referred to participants' discussions and commentaries on the features of, and surrounding, the planning intervention which resulted in its effectiveness. Participants discussed the *Elements of the Process* of the planning intervention which contributed to effectiveness, including opportunities to talk with other members of staff about children causing concern, thinking more deeply about the children in general, and found that considering why the focus children may be behaving in the way they was helpful, and even crucial. Participants also referred to elements of the planning format itself which they felt contributed to the effectiveness of the planning intervention. These included the page giving explicit reference to exploring reasons underlying behaviour, and the way in which very specific determination of behaviour and targets and monitoring thereof was facilitated through the planning format. These elements of the plan and process of the planning intervention, participants reported, resulted in outcomes which may have supported its impacts (for children as well as staff). These included examples of the interventions, approaches and strategies applied, early intervention, and the impact of small changes, as well as the focus children's awareness of what their targets were and what interventions and strategies were in place to support them in achieving them (there was a great deal of variability in this).

c) Practice (considerations for practice when implementing the planning interventions).

This theme encompasses participants' discussions and commentaries about factors that may affect the implementation in practice of the planning intervention, both during the project and in the longer term (see Section 4.4.4 for elaboration on participants' intentions to continue to use the planning intervention beyond the scope of the project).

Practice was made up of four subthemes: *Practical considerations*, *Evaluation*, *Staff Self-Efficacy*, and *External Support* (see Figure 4.11).

As a theme, **Practice** referred to factors that required consideration in order for the planning interventions to run effectively during the projects, and beyond. Participants discussed a number of practical considerations, including support from the Senior Management Team (SMT) in providing time for the meetings to take place, limiting the number of children participating in a planning intervention at any one time, and teaching assistants being better placed to lead the planning interventions. Participants also spoke about the importance of evaluating impact in order to ascertain whether any progress has been made, but also in a formative way, to work out what elements are helpful, and if they are not, then why they are not. Reference was also made to EP support with evaluation. *Staff self-efficacy* as a subtheme referred to the perceptions of staff members about their ability to run the planning interventions, and, more generally, to manage behaviour

difficulties. One head teacher made the point that school staff are trained as 'educators', and that behaviour management is but one part of this. In the same vein, participants' mentioned EP support through reassurance as having been helpful, and perceiving that it would be helpful in the future surrounding the planning interventions. Finally, participants discussed the potential for support from external parties (Educational Psychologists, other external agencies, and parents) to affect the effectiveness of the planning intervention over time.

Each **theme**, its component *subthemes* and their component codes are explored in turn in the following sections. The roles of the participants whose voices generated codes are also presented to provide an overt overview of data sources. It is interesting to note that the order of presentation of the findings is the converse of the process of analysis; where the analysis begins with the smallest units of analysis (data "chunks") and builds into codes, subthemes and themes, the presentation discusses themes, then subthemes, codes and finally data "chunks" substantiating them. There is no hierarchy implicit in the order with which each theme is presented; the only reasoning underlying the order of presentation is to promote consistency with the order in which they are likely to be covered in the Discussion, in line with the research questions.

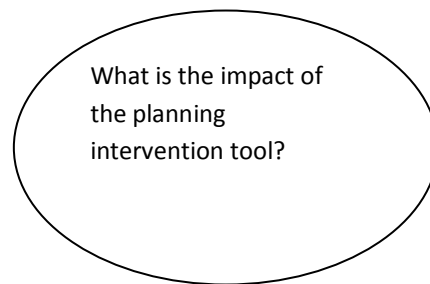
4.4. INTEGRATED ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION USING A LOGIC MODEL

The aim of the present research was to explore how alternative forms of a planning intervention tools may affect children's behaviour and emotional well-being in two schools. A multiple-embedded case study was employed as a framework within which the planning intervention tool comprised the case. The planning intervention tool was employed in two forms, both of which incorporated elements of Multi-element Plans (MEP) and Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME), but only one of the forms included Exploring Reasons Underlying Behaviour (ERB). School staff in two different schools were trained up on how to employ either the TME or TME & ERB planning interventions and carried out the planning intervention tool collaboratively focussed on a total of twelve children (five with the TME tool and seven with the TME & ERB tool), although one incomplete data set for a child in the TME & ERB group resulted in data being analysed for only eleven children. The following analysis and interpretation comprises data from both numerical (scaling, SDQ and SCHI) sources and interviews. Each of the research sub-questions is treated in turn with hypotheses²⁴ being developed

²⁴ Note that the development of 'propositions', as suggested within Yin's (2009) description of a Logic Model, is substituted here by 'hypotheses'. This is in order to reflect the Pragmatic caveat that the data can only give indications of what may be occurring, especially in relation to the experiences of the participants. Furthermore, given that there are a number of rival explanations for the findings presented below, the term, 'hypothesis' refers to that explanation which appears to best fit the data within the context of the study, the tools used and the method of analysis; in essence, it provides as accurate account as possible, whilst explicitly allowing for the possibility that there are alternative explanations.

incrementally over the six sub-questions so that the conclusion from each question is considered in the development of the hypothesis in the subsequent question, in relation to the overarching research question: How can alternative models of a planning intervention tool affect children's emotional well-being in schools?

4.4.1. WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF THE PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL?



The impact of the planning intervention tool (in both of its forms) was assessed through both numerical (scaling, SDQ and SCHI) and interview data interrogated through thematic analysis. Analysis of the data relevant to this research sub-question is thus addressed in turn, including data from scaling, the SDQ and SCHI as well as interviews-data.

Scaling

Pre- and post measures of children's scaling scores (adults' perceptions of their progress towards their individualised targets) are presented below. Note that although the scores for eleven children were analysed, there were seventeen data points at pre- and post-measure overall for

the scaling scores as some children had more than one target which was assessed at each point.

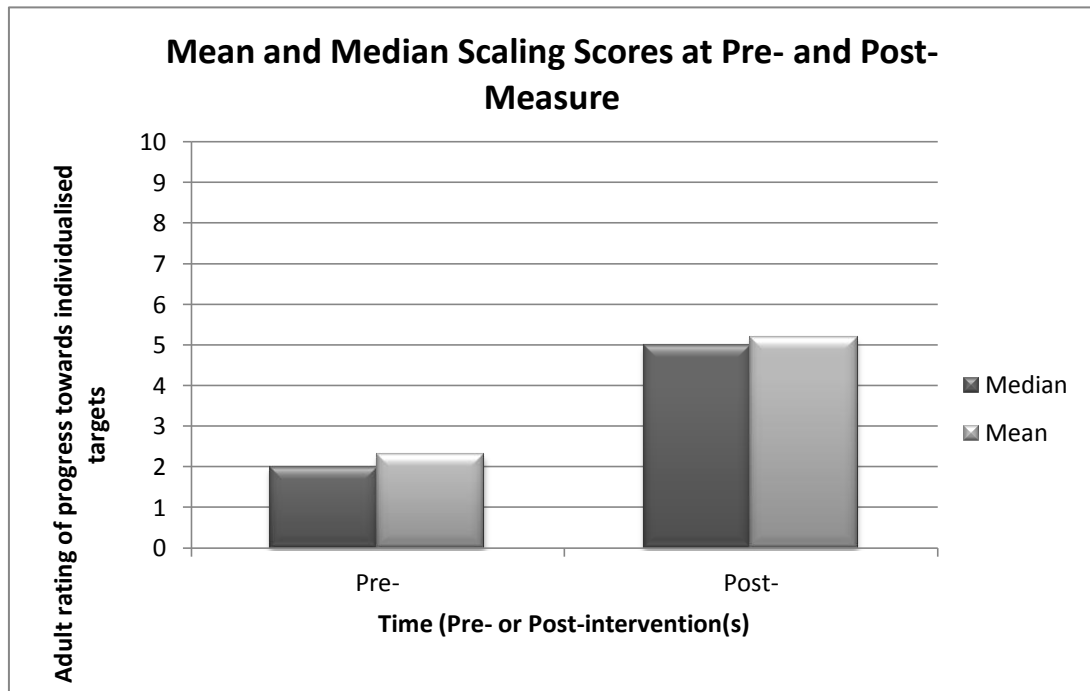


Figure 4.5 Adults’ ratings of children’s progress towards their individualised targets, collapsed over school and planning intervention type, at pre-measure (at the outset of the intervention process) and at post-measure (at review – after one and a half terms for School B and one half term for School K).

A Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used to compare ratings of children’s progress on the scaling at pre- and post-measure. As shown in Figure 4.5 scores were significantly higher ($W_{(16)} = 136, z = -3.5, p < 0.001$) at post-measure ($M = 5.12; SD = 1.81$) than at pre-measure ($M = 2.29; SD = 1.05$). These findings indicate that in relation to individual targets, the planning intervention did impact on progress. This is consistent with a plea from the Department of Education and Skills as far back as 1945 who claimed that provisions should be made for “*pupils who show evidence of psychosocial disturbance or emotional instability and require special educational treatment in order to affect their personal, social or educational readjustment*” (Bennett, 2005, p. 8). This need was also

acknowledged by Steer (2009) who asked the OECD countries to provide international research into what works for behaviour and emotional well-being as a response to the 2007 UNICEF findings regarding children's well-being in the United Kingdom.

However, it is worth noting that scaling through TME is susceptible to high levels of subjectivity on the rater's part, as well as the rater's sense of degree of investment in the process. Although this should be avoidable to some extent by the use of SMART targets, the targets resulting from the planning interventions were not consistently 'SMART' and these findings should therefore perhaps be treated with a degree of caution. Triangulation with other, purportedly more objective measures may add robustness to these findings.

Children’s Perceptions of Progress with Behaviour and Emotional Well-Being.

Children’s views relating to their progress, as ascertained through self-ratings, were consistent across the SDQ and SCHI (see Table 4.3).

SDQ: Children’s Self-Rating										
	Overall		Intervention Type				Intervention Period			
	Pre-	Post-	TME		TME & ERB		1 ½ terms		½ term	
			Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Mean	14.36	10.82	14.50	9.00	15.25	13.75	14.12	12.00	13.50	8.75
Median	13	10	14	8	13	11	12	10	12.5	9
Standard Deviation	5.30	6.84	4.37	4.79	6.59	8.31	5.84	7.98	5.06	4.42
Change (pre–post)	Mean: -3.54		Mean: - 5.50		Mean: -1.50		Mean: -2.12		Mean: -4.75	
	Median: -3		Median: -6		Median: -3		Median: -2		Median: -2.5	
SCHI: Children’s Self-Rating										
	Overall		Intervention Type				Intervention Period			
	Pre-	Post-	TME		TME & ERB		1 ½ terms		½ term	
			Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Mean	92.36	103.72	91.20	110.40	94.5	95.50	95.28	105.10	87.25	101.25
Median	91	109	85	109	97.5	99	104	109	88	103.5
Standard Deviation	11.69	13.57	13.98	5.17	10.7	16.29	12.67	16.12	8.96	9.03
Change (pre–post)	Mean: +11.36		Mean: + 19.20		Mean: + 1.0		Mean: + 9.82		Mean: +14.0	
	Median: +18		Median: +24		Median: + 1.5		Median: +5		Median: +15.5	

Table 4.3 Mean, median and standard deviations of children’s self-ratings on the SDQ and SCHI at pre- and post-measure collapsed across intervention type and period, by intervention type (i.e. TME and TME & ERB, but collapsed across intervention period), and by intervention period (i.e. one and a half terms in School B, and half a term in School K, but collapsed across intervention type).

It may be worth noting that a negative change between pre- and post-measure on the SDQ reflects a positive change in emotional well-being scores, whereas the converse is true for the SCHI (where a positive change reflects an improvement in emotional well-being).

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests indicated that children’s self-ratings on the SDQ were significantly lower ($W_{(10)} = 47, z = 2.07, p < 0.05$) at post-

measure ($M = 10.82$; $SD = 6.84$) compared to pre-measure ($M = 14.36$; $SD = 5.39$). Similarly, children's self-ratings on the SCHI, however, showed significant positive changes ($W_{(10)} = -52$, $z = -2.29$, $p < 0.05$) between pre- ($M = 92.36$; $SD = 11.69$) and post-measure ($M = 103.72$; $SD = 13.57$).

These findings are encouraging in indicating potential for the planning intervention tool under examination here having an impact on children's emotional well-being in schools. However, without further elaboration it is difficult to ascertain more precisely what this may entail in practice. The findings from the thematic analysis may therefore support by providing further insight. Figure 4.6 presents a summary of one of the three key themes to emerge from the thematic analysis on the interview data collected, **Impact**.

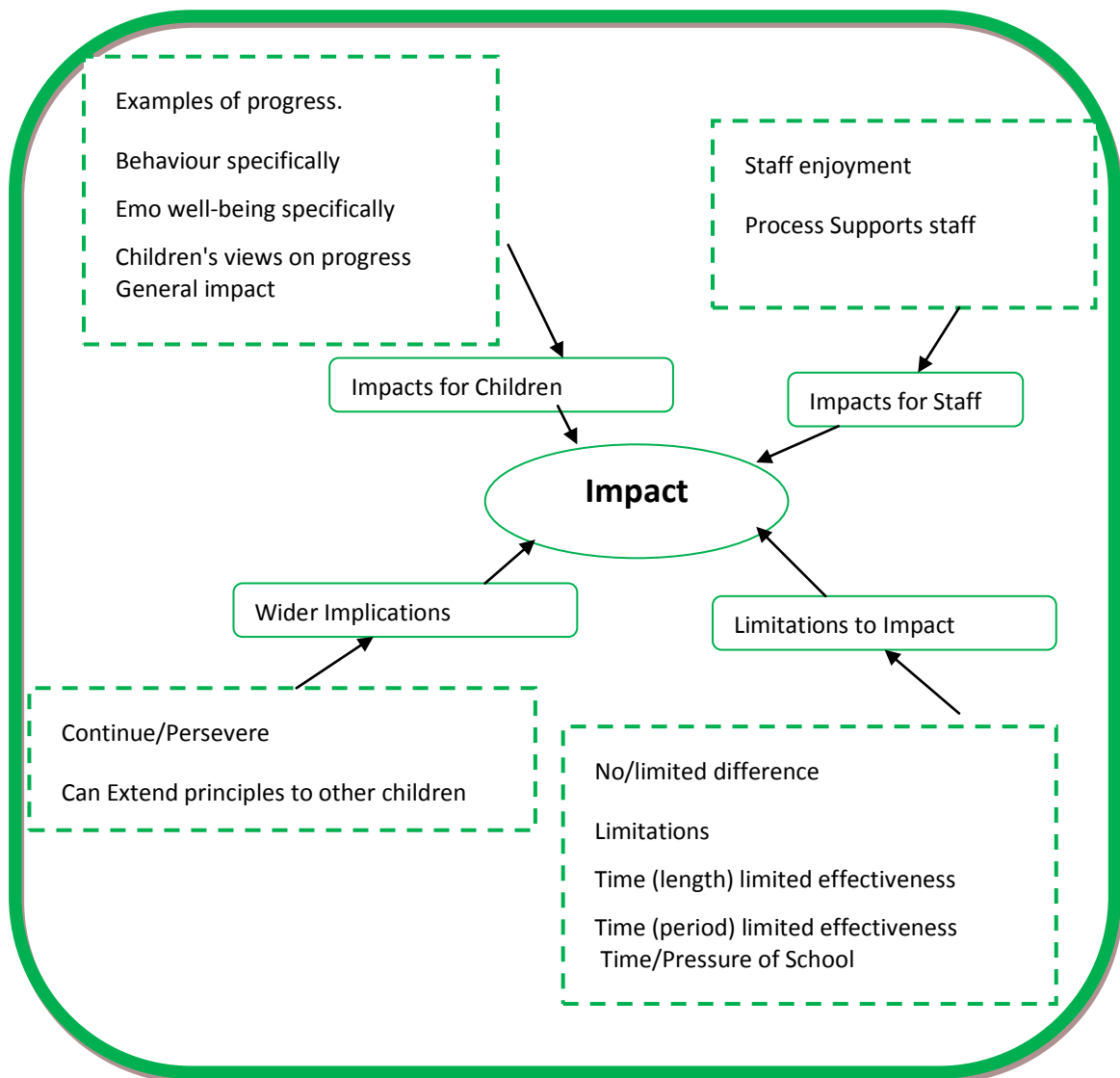


Figure 4.6 Extract from final thematic map presenting the theme, **Impact**, the sub-themes which substantiate it, and the codes underpinning the subthemes.

Of particular relevance here is the sub-theme, *Impacts for Children*, and specifically, one of its component codes: Children's views on progress.

Children identified a range of ways in which they felt they had made progress in relation to either their targets or the interventions that had been implemented in order to support them.

Children's Views on Progress [child]

JW: So you were shouting out the answer?

TH: Yeah.

JW: Ok, and has anything changed since?

TH: well, I have, I have stopped it. It's only like, like one in a million now.

JW: Right. So every so often it happens but not all the time?

TH: Yeah. (KF18D)

JW: Yeah? What's going particularly well?

ATG: Um...just....um...not falling out with my friends so much. (BM10D)

Teachers' perceptions of progress with behaviour and emotional well-being

Interestingly, teachers' ratings of children's progress between pre- and post-measure on the SDQ and SCHI did not show significant positive change (see Table 4.4).

Descriptive Data from Pre- and Post-Intervention SDQ Scores										
SDQ: Teacher Rating										
	Overall		Intervention Type				Intervention Period			
			TME		TME & ERB		1 ½ terms		½ term	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Mean	15.18	13.64	14.5	12.6	18.75	17	15.25	13.86	15.5	16
Median	13	13	14	12	18	17	14	12	15	15.5
Standard Deviation	5.98	6.39	4.18	6.95	7.28	5.95	6.29	7.98	5.26	2.16
Change (pre – post)	Mean: -1.54		Mean: - 2.3		Mean: - 1.75		Mean: - 1.39		Mean: -0.5	
	Median: 0		Median: -2		Median: -1		Median: -2		Median: 0.5	
SCHI: Teacher Rating										
	Overall		Intervention Type				Intervention Period			
			TME		TME & ERB		1 ½ terms		½ term	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Mean	86.27	86.54	86.8	86	82.75	85.75	85.14	84.57	88.25	89.75
Median	89	90	87	85	88.5	93	87	90	91	90.5
Standard Deviation	11.79	11.79	12.39	8.18	12.43	14.41	14.27	12.76	6.89	9.36
Change (pre – post)	Mean: +0.27		Mean: -0.8		Mean: + 3		Mean: - 0.57		Mean: + 1.5	
	Median: +1		Median: -2		Median: +4.5		Median: -3		Median: -0.5	

Table 4.4 Mean, median and standard deviations of teacher ratings on the SDQ and SCHI at pre- and post-measure collapsed across intervention type and period, by intervention type (i.e. TME and TME & ERB, but collapsed across intervention period), and by intervention period (i.e. one and a half terms in School B, and half a term in School K, but collapsed across intervention type).

As shown in Table 4.4 teachers' ratings of children on the SDQ were not significantly different ($p = 3.37$) between pre-measure ($M = 15.18$; $SD = 5.98$) and post-measure ($M = 13.64$; $SD = 6.39$). Similarly to the SDQ scores, teachers' ratings of children's progress on the SCHI were not significantly different ($p = 0.35$) between pre- ($M = 89$; $SD = 11.79$) and post-measures ($M = 86.54$; $SD = 11.22$).

Interestingly, however, these ratings are not entirely consistent with the views of teachers and other school staff shared during interview, which predominantly indicated that children had made progress both with behaviour and emotional well-being.

Participants gave a range of examples of the ways in which children had made progress as a result of the planning intervention. School staff identified situations which reflected progress with specific behaviours relating to their specific individualised targets. School staff equally commented on children's progress in terms of their emotional well-being in relation to the planning intervention.

Examples of progress [LBC, teacher, SMT, child]

He's in school every day now. I don't actually remember the last time he was ill. He had a moment a few months back when he was in the hall and he was just, something had changed...he likes everything organised and someone wasn't sitting next to him and he was in a bit of state but he actually sat there, and I could see him looking at me across the hall, and he went, 'can I leave'? . And I just sat out with him, round like where we've got the blackboards, and I sat out there and we talked about it.....Before he would have just gone into a meltdown and probably just sat there and cried, and then, the rest of the afternoon, he would have gone....and he would have been ill, andand then he probably wouldn't have come in the next day. Whereas, by the end of the afternoon, he was smiling, and he was doing ...back in his class, and actually saying, it doesn't matter, it's not the end of the world is it, and it's like....no, it's not and it's great that you think like that, and ...when I walked past his classroom the other day he's like, Hi Mrs L, I'm having a fantastic day (BM9D)

Yeah, which is nicer, and also, if he does have an outburst, we can...I mean, sometimes you just have to send him out, say you need to go out and you need to bounce, or whatever, but actually everybody's like that in a situation sometimes, and it's much better that he's not, um...lashing out so much. We have had a couple of incidents, but it is much better, which is good. And he, he can talk things through and understand things a bit more, which is....good. (BM13D)

However, some staff did discuss limited or no impact during interviews.

No/Limited difference [LBC, teacher]

where you looked at like what you'd already put in place and what different things...coz you looked at the environment, and that...that bit was....I think with some it was more helpful than with others...um...but with some of them, like, a lot of things had already been tried out and not worked so we were able to discuss that and look at what else we could do (BM6D)

JW: Did you see any difference in, kind of...

KMK: No.

JW: So no differences at all?

KMK: No. No, unfortunately not. (KF15D)

There is thus a discrepancy between the different measures of impact from staff, with positive views on positive progress shown through the scaling scores and predominantly in interviews, compared with no significant improvements according to the teacher ratings on the SDQ and SCHI. This may suggest that teachers were more aware of progress towards discrete behaviour targets than general changes in behavioural presentation. Conversely, there were a number of examples that school staff gave of progress related to emotional well-being specifically.

Before, she would just sit on the bench for most of lunchtime. And, again, didn't really come into school a lot, wasn't around very much. And then, she'd come back in and be sat there and now she's coming in and she's participating in lessons, her hand's going up more...Um...L probably spends more time with L than I do now, but she'll come over and she's messing around, running around and B, the same. I mean, B had...what we figured out with B after we did this, because really, sort of, my meeting with M around B was quite quick. But what we found with B when me and L started working with her, she was very self conscious about her body. So she started coming to us to get changed for PE. She wouldn't get changed in the classroom. But she still comes over and changes which is fine, if that's what makes her comfortable. But she wouldn't, she didn't want to participate in PE, but now when she comes to the Burrow, she's playing basketball and running around, but she wouldn't run around or do any of that before. So, B, I'd say.....yeah, she was a one, one for the currently, and I would say she's around I'd even say, six. So she's come on leaps and bounds. And really, B, we didn't get started on until beginning of July, (BM9D)

It could also be the case that the teachers were prone to responding conservatively on the SDQ and SCHI as they had an underlying concern that to respond in too positive a manner may indicate that the child did not continue to have needs and therefore cease reception of additional support. It could also be that teachers were not especially sensitive to changes in internalising well-being, consistent with Kraatz-Keily et al. (2000).

Limitations to impact

Although the prevailing view appears to be that there was a positive impact of the planning intervention overall, albeit with some exceptions, school staff did discuss some of the limiting factors which constrained the extent of the impact, including length of time, time period, and time pressures on staff within school.

As a result of this prevalent theme during the first set of interviews with School B, they decided to continue into the Autumn term; at the second set of interviews, after a term and a half, time-scale was not mentioned as a limiting factor. School K, who only began the planning intervention in the Autumn term and so only undertook the project for half a term, also mentioned the short time-scale as a factor which limited effectiveness.

Time (length) limited effectiveness [LBC, teacher, SMT]

Yeah, they've said...really positive responses...um...time's been the only issue, because it's been a short time-scale to get it done in, so if things have got in the way, it's been that, I think it's been, that's been the only difficulty they've communicated with me. (BM4J)

Yeah, K ...the child that K worked with ...it was a lot easier because he, he was given a social story and things, and I think that will impact on him greatly next year, but because it was so short (BM5J)

Uh.....no, I think it would just be the time element, would be, definitely (KF14D)

Yeah, I mean we 'd love to carry it on in September coz with it being so close to the end of term, it's been hard to sort of see if, like, well, to see it through I suppose. We've seen a difference already, but yeah it would be lovely to carry it on in September. I mean, I'm... B's mum, M, actually says, she'd like to carry hers on till Christmas, and um...obviously come half term, we'll perhaps scale her again, just to see where she's got to, and then hopefully she's moved up a bit, because, especially with that kind of low self esteem, it's nice to give them that bit of longer term... (BM3J)

Similarly, the lead behaviour coordinators in School B both mentioned the difficulty in running the planning intervention and associated strategies and approaches in the summer term on account of the time of year making implementation difficult to manage.

Time (period) limited effectiveness [LBC]

GA: ...and don't want to be like that. Um...but all the others were sort of happy to do it and...I mean...timewise it's been quite hard to get some of them out, and it's um... this time of year it's just kind of...

JW: Oh yeah ...

GA: ...these last few weeks it's just been trying to find the children either doing something or...they need to be somewhere else....It has been quite tricky.(BM1J)

Fantastic, as it gives us that half a term when we come back just...really get in. As I say, from September to October it's gonna be so much more structured than this time of the year, I mean, it's not 'ooh, I need this doing, and....' Everything's done, so you're just left to do your job. (BM3J)

However, the scaling, SDQ and SCHI measures of impact do not indicate that having a shorter time period affected the degree of outcome. The sample sizes were too small to permit a statistical comparison of these, but as shown in Tables 4.3 and 4.4, the teachers' ratings on the SDQ reflected a greater change after one and a half terms, whereas children's self-ratings showed greater change following half a term than one and a half terms. SCHI scores were higher for teacher ratings and children's self-ratings after half a term than after a term and a half.

Regardless of time of year school staff generally noted that at times it had been difficult to manage the planning intervention project alongside the other tasks within school that demanded their time and energy.

Time and pressures of school [LBC, teacher]

The only time it's sort of felt a bit pressured, I suppose, is when it's end of term and you still really wanna give them that time, and they're asking you to do other different things, or get this or that ready, and I'm like, 'aah', I haven't got time to go and see that person today, but then,...then you feel like you're letting that child down, but it has worked in the fact that I've actually gone, and gone I've been pulled to do something else, and they've been really understanding, the kids... (BM9D)

So, yeah, but I think it's been worth as well, having it and using it. Obviously as a school you've got lots of other things going on, (BM14D)

JW: Is it something that you'd like to do, kind of more actively? Or at the moment is it just too much?

CN: At the moment, no. But yes, eventually. I think it's quite....it is good, um...yeah, to have, yeah, to help with children who have kind of difficulties with emotions and stuff, and it honestly has worked.(BM13D)

Nonetheless, it may also be worth noting that staff also spoke about situations in which the time was sufficient and for whom involvement with the planning interventions did not feel like a pressure (see Section 4.4.5).

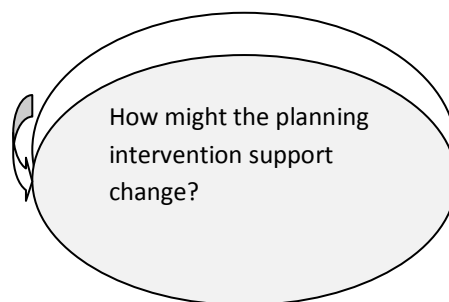
4.4.1.2. INTERMEDIARY HYPOTHESIS #1: WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF THE PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL?

The planning intervention tool appears to have had a positive impact overall. This is most evident in children's progress towards their specified individual targets set at planning, but also in their self-ratings on the SDQ and SCHI, as well as some of their comments during interview. School staff also discussed children's progress with both behaviour and emotional well-being in their interviews in relation to general progress, progress specifically with behaviour or specifically with emotional well-being, and gave a number of examples of these. Their ratings on the SDQ and SCHI however, did not correspond to this, which may reflect a range of factors, including that teachers may not be terribly sensitive to changes in children's internalised well-being (e.g. Margalit et al., 1997). This supports the hypothesis that use of the planning intervention tool supports positive progress for children's well-being, as suggested by a range of measures reported by children and teachers, although the extent to which teachers perceived progress may be less robust.

An intervention can be used successfully in school by school staff to address behavioural and emotional well-being is consistent with McLaughlin and Clarke's (2010) assertion that schools are assumed to have a key role in

supporting the emotional well-being of children and young people. It is also consistent with Sharp et al.'s (2010) finding that, *“the substantial use of the education sector compared with primary care or CAMH was not influenced by the child’s gender, IQ, age or social-economic status, which implies that parents regard schools as a source of support regardless of those characteristics”* (Sharp et al, 2010, p.40). The role of Educational Psychologists in supporting schools’ recognition, promotion and management of children’s emotional well-being, is becoming increasingly clear in government publications, *“Education psychologists appear to be a key group to work in relation to mental health provision in schools”* (DoE, 2011, p.105).

4.4.2. HOW MIGHT THE PLANNING INTERVENTION SUPPORT CHANGE?



If it can be concluded that the planning intervention tool has a predominantly positive impact on children’s behaviour and emotional well-being in two schools, it may be helpful to elaborate further on which aspects of the planning intervention supported any positive impact.

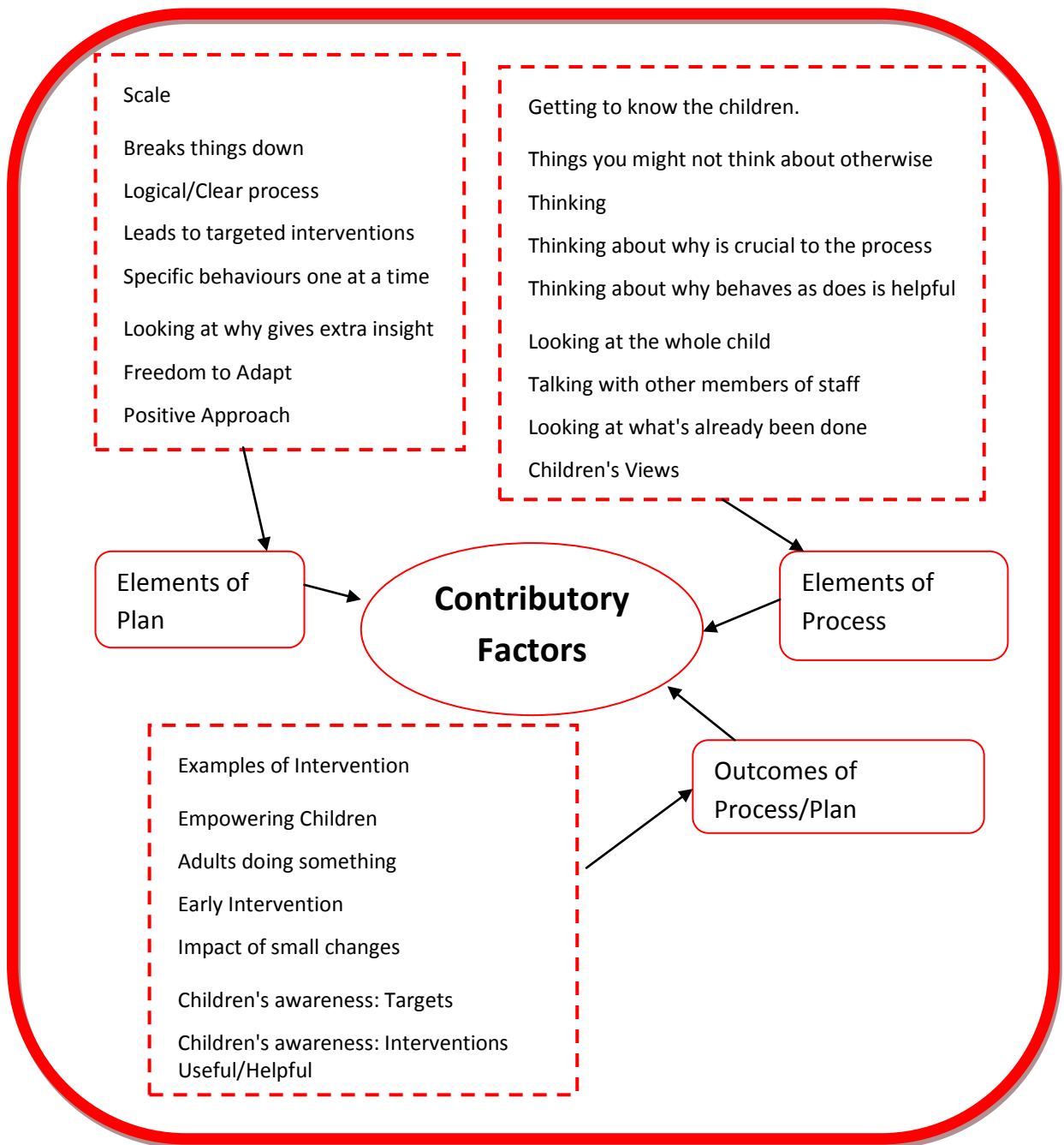


Figure 4.7 Extract from final thematic map presenting the theme, Contributory Factors, the subthemes which substantiate it, and the codes underpinning the subthemes.

As shown in Figure 4.7 school staff identified a number of factors which they felt contributed to the effectiveness of the planning intervention in having an impact on children’s behaviour and emotional well-being in their schools. These included elements of the plan itself, but also a less

expected subtheme reflecting their views on the contribution of the *process* of the planning intervention. School staff also highlighted direct outcomes of the plan and process combined which led, in turn, to impacts for the children.

Elements of the Plan

Elements explicitly referred to within the planning format itself were grouped together under the subtheme title of 'Elements of Plan'.

Generally staff reported finding the scaling element of the planning format useful for specifying behaviour and associated targets, and also for review.

Scale [LBC, teacher, SMT]

I really liked the scale...um...the way that where you could put where they are, predict it, and then review it – that's helped (BM6D)

Mm...yeah, this is good. Because it does get you to narrow it down and think about, well if you're, if they're currently a four, what do we want them to be? What is gonna make them into a five, so it helps you break it down into just those smaller behaviours. Just in your own mind. So yeah, that is quite useful. (KF15D)

This is consistent with the aims of the TME approach (Dunsmuir et al., 2009).

However, some staff did report finding the scaling element of the plan difficult to use and somewhat arbitrary and subjective.

CN: See, like December emotions, and looking back on it now, I think ...I mean it'sI'm an NQT so my brain's gone, but December emotions, obviously I can remember, but then somebody else picking that up, to start...I don't know if...do you know what I mean they might not know what that meant, so if there could be a box to put, I don't know, what he was like in December, so then we can look back on it. Coz he, coz we might....by when we review it or whatever....coz he's come on so much already...he might be so different that we're sort of thinking, well, what was he....what does that mean? What was he like? I dunno? (BM13D)

School staff also approved of the link between clear targets and associated interventions, which is consistent with both Multi-element Plans and Target Monitoring and Evaluation, and may provide support for the suggestion that the two may be used in conjunction in order to promote even greater effectiveness.

Some school staff praised the capacity of the planning format to facilitate development of intervention approaches and strategies which met the child's individual needs. It is perhaps worth noting that this was raised within School B, but not mentioned in School K.

Leads to targeted intervention [LBC, teacher, SMT]

And, um....but as I say, the social story was...he's still got them, but he's said he...he's even said to me, coz I did him two, about comfortable and uncomfortable, and like the different ways in which comfortable can feel, and we...we did, one was an actual story, but another one was one where I sat with him and he filled in the blanks (BM9D)

The emphasis of the planning format on specificity in relation to behaviour, target, interventions and strategies were mentioned by a range of school staff as being helpful contributory factors to the effectiveness of the planning intervention.

School staff reported finding the format of the planning intervention tool straightforward and logical to use on account of its logical and clear structure. They referred to it 'breaking down' a complex situation into manageable and achievable portions to support understanding and development of action plans.

Breaking things down [LBC, teacher, SMT]

.....but it was all broken down so it's not just a generaloh, he's you know, well sometimes he behaves and sometimes he doesn't or whatever it might be, it's broken down into the different targets areas which was really useful...and when we were, it was quicker to...to do, because, it was very , 'what's this?', you know and we spoke about it, and ok what's the next bit, we'll talk about this specific behaviour, or the target or whatever it might be, so... (BM8D)

Um...the actually paper...the actual idea of it is really good. Um...and the paperwork side of it, the um, actual, the actual looking at the children's issues and doing it in a very specific way, is a really good idea (KF17D)

And it...the praise and reward strategies are good because it specifies, it make you be specific, and I think that's a real strength of this, being specific about... (KF17D)

Similarly, the lead behaviour coordinators commented on how the lay-out of the planning format facilitated smooth running of the process through logical steps.

Logical and Clear Process [LBC]

They were [teachers] really...they like they...were really impressed with the action plans ...um...and but they said they were sort of set of quite simple so it made everything clear what we needed to talk about (BM1J)

I liked the whole set-out of the action plan. I think it's very clearly set out to help identify the...the sort of...things to do with them. (BM1J)

And it's quite, your plan's quite a clear process of thinking through things. (KF14D)

A further element of the plan that lead behaviour coordinators and teachers reported to be helpful was the flexibility offered by the plan in adapting interventions and approaches if they did not appear to be effective or appropriate. This is of particular importance given Roffey's (2010) findings that interventions relating to emotional well-being need to be flexible to the setting and the individual children, rather than constituting an imposed and rigid structure.

Freedom to adapt [LBC, teacher]

Um....it has changed, but it did start with him having, um...his reward time at the end of the week. He now gets it every day, which actually, I think is probably better for him coz he sees it, he sees, um...the reward for it sooner than waiting for the end of the week, then sometimes it would mean that, oh we've gone like swimming or whatever so he couldn't have it. So....and then it...I have to say that it would be forgotten about, because I've got so many children with those kinds of things. (BM13D)

I think just continuing doing it. Obviously if some things lose their touch, sort of thing, changing them. Say, I was doing the dots with A, but I mean, if that started to stop working, then obviously I'd have to think of a different way of doing it. But definitely carrying on, focussing on them, and keep encouraging them, and things would.... (KF14D)

if it doesn't work, it doesn't work, but nothing ventured, nothing gained. (BM9D)

Members of senior management, in particular, noted that the planning format encouraged a positive approach, predominantly in relation to the early emphasis on strengths and likes, but also to staff focussing on addressing elements that they could influence, rather than becoming bogged down or stressed by factors that they could have no impact on. This may promote a sense of self-efficacy in the staff (see Section 4.4.6).

Positive Approach [teacher, SMT]

And it's a lot more positive because you're actually....you've thought about why it's happening, and you've thought about the strengths and the likes, and the way of rewarding, so it's um...so it's a positive way of dealing with that behaviour, rather than just keep, keep picking up on it when it...the negative when it's happening.(KF15D)

Um....and actually looking at what the children's strengths are, rather than thinking about their weaknesses is really good (KF17D)

Elements of the Process

Elements of Process reflects aspects external to the plan which were identified as contributing to its success in supporting a predominantly positive impact for children within the two schools. This may be most usefully considered within a systems framework (as presented in Figure 2.1). It reflects the link between children, school staff and school systems.

Staff spoke a great deal about the process supporting their thinking. However, although ‘thinking’ appears frequently within codes the precise nature of what participants discussed thinking about was not considered to constitute a subtheme in itself.

The encouragement and opportunity to *think* about children’s situations and needs more generally was identified as a facilitatory factor in implementing the planning intervention.

Thinking (LBC, teacher, SMT)

I think it makes you stop and really think about that particular child (BM5J)

Because it’s having that space to sit and really, really think isn’t it (KF16D)

Yeah. I think sometimes we do need to sort of look deeper. (KF17D)

School staff also talked about the process prompting them to think about possibilities for intervention that they may not otherwise have considered.

This is also consistent with the MEP approach.

Things you might not think about otherwise (LBC, teacher)

It was helpful in prompting it, but it was also helpful in helping you think, ooh, I've done lots on the preferred activities and the teaching and curriculum, but I haven't triedSo yeah, it made you aware of what you could have done, but also the small little changes ...um...that maybe you hadn't thought about. Um...coz we're quite lucky that, like, teaching and curriculum, we're trying to make it a lot more child-focussed, coz it's skills focussed. But, within that, you suddenly think, hang on, well, he quite likes this, have I given him lots of opportunities to work in that way? So it does help probe your thinking a little bit more (KF15D)

This is also consistent with their feeling that the process encouraged them to think about the whole child and addressing needs from a range of angles (e.g. Doody, 2009; Eccles & Pitchford, 1997; LaVigne et al., 1986).

Focus on the whole child [LBC, SMT]

I think sometimes we just forget don't we, because we so firmly believe that the all-round child is what is going to lead to good progress, sometimes we just forget to articulate that. Coz we are focussing on the all-round child to get progress, but we just forget to say that bit. (BM12D)

I think it's good, it's a pretty comprehensive format actually I think. I think it's really well done, and it focuses on the child, and the holistic child rather than just bits of the child. It's the whole child, not just the behaviour. It helps you to focus on the child, rather than he's a naughty boy (KF17D)

A further key element of the process which was perceived to be helpful was the opportunity to speak with other members of staff in order to share perspectives and reach understanding of a child's behaviour, to consider options for support together, and simply to feel supported. Talking with other members of staff as a function of the process of the planning

intervention was also raised as promoting more effective communication between teachers and teaching assistants. Stewart-Evans (1994) found that teaching assistants he interviewed were often unhappy with their degree of input into planning meetings, which may account for the positive responses from teaching assistants shared here.

Talking with other members of staff [LBC, teacher]

Um..I think that [talking to other people] impacted massively because we were able to put the right stuff into place...because you had a lot of different opinions, which then you can bring, like sort of, whittle it down to...the one issue, or or, sort of, even if it's 1, 2, or like 3 issues, all those different opinions come together. (BM3J)

That, although you know, that there's something, you don't sometimes get the time, or you don't know what'sand because you haven't got that person to talk it through with, I think that really helped the fact that you just sat down and you literally just spoke about that child and you were able to think, 'yeah', and sometimes I think it helps me, I don't know about everyone, but for me it helps me to talk to someone about somebody ...so....(BM5J)

Yeah, it is, but ...I don't know, but it also brings the TAs and the teachers together as well, because a lot of it, you kind of are just passed stuff from the teachers, and you don't get told why, you don't, and you don't sort of...I don't know, you don't really get to know the child either, whereas, doing this, you get to know more about the child that you're about to work with, um...on a more personal level as well (BM9D)

Furthermore, having opportunities for school staff to work collaboratively to address the needs of children whose behaviour is causing concern can promote a solution- and outcome-oriented approach (e.g. Chisholm, 1994; Rogers, 1990), as well as a sense of peer support: *“Social relationships and collaborative opportunities can play a critical role in supporting teachers in managing disruptive behaviour in their classrooms. We recommend that teachers draw on their relationships in finding ways to address the behaviour*

problems of individual students” (US Institute of Education Studies, 2008, p.6).

School staff spoke about the process supporting them in getting to know children and looking at what’s already been done.

The way in which the children’s own views contributed to the effective process surrounding the planning intervention was raised a great deal. Children’s Views was initially catergorised as a theme in its own right. However, it appeared isolated and contrived standing alone, and was subsequently incorporated into *Elements of Process* during one of the many revisions of the thematic map. School staff at varying levels noted the ways in which children’s views contributing to the planning intervention was very important in understanding their perspectives and developing suitable and appropriate approaches to support.

Children’s Views [LBC, teacher, SMT]

I think having the children involved is...just ask them how they feel things are going and have them get their ideas of what rewards they would like(BM6D)

I think these, the strategies, to put into place, again that came from us two talking and then stuff that he wanted to do, as well, which was really good. (BM8D)

...Yeah, yeah and be having conversations with those children about, you know whether they want to change things for themselves , and they can change things for themselves through education at the end of the day (BM12D)

well no, not really coz I was...I mean you’ve got the...you’ve got T’ views, you’ve got his mum’s views....I don’t really think so. Um...I think it...I think if we hadn’t already got his views then I think it would have been different. (KF15D)

The sub-theme, *Outcomes of Process/Plan* refers to those events which school staff felt happened as a result of the process of the planning intervention and of the plan itself, which contributed to its overall effectiveness. This sub-theme represents aspects which are considered to be distinct from 'impacts' as the following factors were considered to be important in facilitating those impacts, but did not themselves constitute the impacts.

Many examples of interventions that had been implemented during the project were shared by participants during interview. These ranged from general approaches to approaches that were very specific to the child's individual needs and preferences.

Examples of Intervention [LBC, teacher, SMT, child]

JW: I just wanted to ask you how it's been for you , being involved in the project.

E: It's been brilliant.

JW: What's been brilliant about it?

E: Um..it's really fun just talking to Miss L....and I like all the activities...

JW: Wonderful. What sorts of activities have you been doing?

E: Writing down what sorts of things make me uncomfortable...and um..stuff like that. (BM2J)

Um...I think it was when we looked at, um...for rewards, and we looked at what was personal to him, what he would like, um...and anything, sort of, when we talked about the skill development as well, when we...like we said about the ...if he's finding it difficult to understand something, can we find something that is interesting to him...that would help him understand? And that's when like his teacher said, well he's absolutely fanatical about Harry Potter. And if you bring Harry Potter into it, he just suddenly has this amazing understanding of it. So, it was kind of like, can we put anything.... (BM9D)

Yeah, which is nicer, and also, if he does have an outburst, we can...I mean, sometimes you just have to send him out, say you need to go out and you need to bounce, or whatever, but actually everybody's like that in a situation sometimes, and it's much better that he's not, um...lashing out so much. We have had a couple of incidents, but it is much better, which is good. And he, he can talk things through and understand things a bit more, which is....good. (BM13D)

Some school staff spoke about one of the key potential contributory factors arising as a result of the plan and process being an emphasis on empowering children to develop skills and attitudes which may facilitate the development of resilience later on (e.g. Garcia & Cohen, 2011). According to Traxson (1994), supporting children with the self-managing of their emotions and behaviour is powerful in, *“encouraging [them] to take more responsibility for the choices made and for opening up a new range of choices for the future”* (Traxson, 1994, p. 223).

Empowering children [LBC, SMT]

Absolutely, and part, of the project has developed into rather than sort of counselling, and it's more developing down the sort of empowerment side of...of...coz we can't change what goes on at home. We can work with parents to try and change things, but ultimately as a school we can't change them, but what we can change is how a child interacts between nine and half three. Um...and sometimes when children have got very very difficult, to give them more and more and more time to dwell on that, but in a non power position, from the victim, hinders their progress. You know, yes they need time to talk, but then they need time to draw the line, leave and get on with what they're really here for.... (BM12D)

You know, letting children just be responsible for themselves and things like that. And, um...being self aware (KF17D)

School staff who had a high level of direct contact with a child commented on the impetus that the planning intervention gave them to be proactive about making positive changes to support children. This may to a large degree reflect the relatively low-level needs of the children participating in the project, especially those with internalising rather than externalising emotional difficulties; the pressures of a classroom are such that unless a

child is causing disruption, their emotional needs can quite easily be overlooked.

Adults doing something [LBC, teacher]

...surely because it just like, we can't just sit here and do nothing for her...that means we do need to get to know this child....because no one knows her...(BM3J)

I think a lot, and I think it's helped me identify well like, and really think about the children, coz it really makes you think about their issues and what needs to be done for them (BM5J)

Um, it's made me, especially with the three children in my class, more focused on those children. And, um...I suppose making me...coz I knew that they had issues, in the classroom, but it made me more focused on actually do something about it (KF14D)

The benefits of carrying out the planning intervention for those children whose needs may not place them at School Action Plus were noted by staff in terms of equity of opportunity as well as in terms of intervening early to avoid later escalation of difficulties into more significant problems. As discussed in more detail in Chapter 1, early intervention may be considered crucial for children's emotional and behaviour well-being in preventing later escalation of difficulties (e.g. Shucksmith et al., 2011). One of the school staff's statements resonates with that of Allen (2011) who recommended in his government report that awareness should be raised that influencing emotional and social difficulties gets much harder as children get older and as the difficulties become more embedded.

Early Intervention [LBC, SMT]

they're the ones that need something emotional but they miss out on everything else because they don't hit the ...hit the guidelines, do they, so....it is nice and actually to see the difference in them and see that they're finally , like, 'ooh right, actually I am...' so... (BM3J)

And it fits in with um...early intervention, because these are the children that aren't...they're not in need of CAMH, they're not at that level, but some of them will be if we don't intervene early. And also, some of them might even be more unfortunate that that coz they might never get to CAMH, but they're gonna be school failures, you know, they're gonna be the people that don't leave um...education with the qualifications they need to do what they want in life. So it's about getting in there early for children that, that just, just don't reach that high threshold that there is out there to get school action plus support. It's school action support. (BM12D)

And then, um...you can focus in on those children and try and make that difference early on. (KF14D)

School staff made frequent mention of the capacity of the planning intervention to identify small changes which may be made with relative ease but which could nonetheless be effective in contributing to effectiveness (see Garcia & Cohen, 2011)

Impact of small changes [LBC, teacher, SMT]

...but, you know, ten minutes could make a massive difference.... (BM3J)

Because it worked out that he's ...we could do a reward chart for both, if he was handling his emotions, he got something for that, and if he's doing what he's expected to in his classroom.....and it's, you know, just about sitting there and making the time to just say, right he needs his expectations on there visibly, and he needs different things up on the wall...and something's..... (BM9D)

and realise that actually just small changes would help them rather than...it wasn't any onerous task, it was just something small that could be done, to actually help them. (KF14D)

School staff discussed children's awareness of their targets and intervention plans to support them and found that there was a large degree of variation in this with some children able to say what they were, some children unable to do so and some children referring to something apparently unrelated in the context of the study, although meaningful to them.

JW: Yeah? Coz I'm sure you've got lots of interesting things to say. Well I know you do, coz you've been talking to me. So is there anything that your teachers have been doing differently to help you recently?

S: Hmm....well I did get quite a lot of help with my Mrs Tiggywinkle.

JW: Oh, oh right, ok, what did that involve?

S: Well, first I had help from Naomi and Joseph to, um...do the big circle....and then Miss L done most of it, coz she done the polystyrene balls and that, she attached my arms for me. (KF20D).

It may be the case that children not consistently being aware of their targets or interventions in place to support them have a bearing on the degree to of success of the planning intervention. However, for some children this reflected a conscious decision by school staff to avoid the children feeling 'singled out'. Furthermore, children in schools are currently beset with targets for literacy and maths, among others, so expecting them to keep all of their targets in mind at any one time may be a tall order.

Overall, there was a prevailing sense that the planning intervention had been useful and helpful for the school staff using it, and that this had supported effective outcomes, in turn, in terms of impact for children.

Useful/Helpful [LBC, teacher, SMT]

I don't think there's any, there's anything on here that's not helpful, I think it all helps. (BM6D)

Yes, really good. Really, really good. And they actually do focus back to class work, don't they? Yeah, it's about changing things in the classroom. (BM12D)

I think this will be a really helpful tool for lots of people in school. Um...it could be helpful for certain groups in each class, I think. Particularly with your newly qualified teachers. I think it would be really really useful. (KF15D)

I think it would be a really useful tool for teachers to be able to have. Um...I don't know about the time element. I know it's always the time element, but I think that for specific cases, it's where children are....behaviour, and it's just behaviour and we're quite sure it'sthe behaviour strategy is needed, I think then this would be a useful thing to be able to offer. (KF16D)

I think it's been really good. I think the action plan's really effective – it really helps you to look quite deeply into the child's problems and background and over ...even though it's only over quite a short amount of time, I though definitely something that will work...work with the children. (BM1J)

There are thus a number of factors, both direct and indirect relating to the planning tool that school staff identified as contributing to the positive way in which it affected children's behaviour and emotional well-being in these two schools. There were equally a number of factors relevant to the planning intervention that school staff raised which they felt limited its effectiveness (see *Limitations on Impact*). The perceived impact of limited time has already been discussed, although staff perceptions of this are not consistent with the findings from the numerical data. Their views on the barriers presented by particular periods of the school year being more difficult to manage as well as additional pressures on school staff throughout the year have also been discussed, as well as one participant's unease with using the scale.

It may be that the limitations on impact for children referred to in Section 4.4 are explained to some extent by some shortcomings in the planning intervention itself, or in the processes necessary to support it. School staff commented on situations in which they found it difficult to generate ideas for support strategies, and also that the process of trying to identify possible reasons underlying behaviour was difficult (See section 4.5). Not having children's views explicitly gathered in advance of the planning meetings was also cited as a source of difficulty.

Limitations of planning intervention [LBC, teacher]

LW: The knowledge of what could be done, coz G really didn't know what to do, and she had to contact you didn't she? But that was because, really, I gave her a major list of things and we were just sat there, and I was kinda like, 'um....I'm really sorry...' because actually I really don't know what I could have done. (BM5J)

Um...sometimes people thought...the teachers ...hard to think of enough ideas (KF17D)

I think when we're doing it some, some of the teachers are a bit sort of 'Ooh, what does that...sort of...um...behind the behaviours bit...sometimes that was quite hard to do... (BM1J)

I think sometimes it's harder to plan when you don't know the children's views - you don't know how they're feeling (BM6D)

It could equally be that the planning intervention tool is too complex for schools to employ in-house. However, given that triangulated data has indicated positive effects overall, this is unlikely to be the case.

4.4.2.1. INTERMEDIARY HYPOTHESIS #2: HOW MIGHT THE PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL SUPPORT CHANGE?

Having concluded that overall the planning intervention tool appears to be predominantly effective in supporting positive progress for children in terms of their behaviour and emotional well-being, it is helpful to explore why this may be the case. Wilson and Lipsey (2007) discuss the utility of understanding which elements of interventions are of particular help and effectiveness rather, than simply stating whether or not they are of use overall.

The outcome of the thematic analysis carried out on interview data with children and school staff in the two schools involved in the study indicated that staff felt that the elements relating to MEPs and TMEs were helpful in conjunction as they

provided a means to address the needs of the whole child whilst maintaining clear, measurable targets and targeted intervention (e.g. LaVigne et al., 1986; Steege & Watson, 2009). In terms of the format of the planning intervention tool, school staff reported finding that the structure lent itself to a clear, logical and straightforward process.

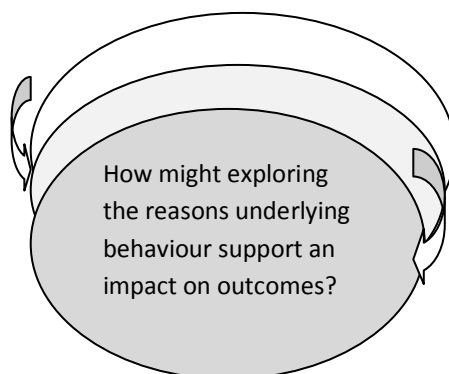
The contribution of the process surrounding the planning intervention tool was also felt by many school staff to be helpful in supporting positive outcomes for the children. This included factors such as opportunities to talk with other staff (e.g. Chisholm, 1994; Rogers, 1990; Stewart-Evans, 1994) and many opportunities for thinking about various factors. The latter is of particular interest as Margalit et al. (1997) and Poulou and Norwich (2000) suggest that there is a causal relationship between teachers' perceptions of children's behaviour and emotional needs and their responses to it. This implies that a change in thinking in relation to a child's needs may lead a teacher to respond very differently to the child, although not necessarily consciously. Tobbell and Lawthorn (2005) may interpret this as providing support for an understanding of behaviour and emotional difficulties that are entirely socially constructed by school staff. However, this may prove to be as short-sighted as approaching any such difficulties as if they are entirely within child; a systemic view of children's behaviour and emotional well-being allows consideration of behaviour from a range of angles and thus, it is hoped, may circumvent too narrow an interpretative focus.

School staff spoke frequently about the importance of children's views in promoting appropriate measures for intervention, and mentioned an absence of children's views in one meeting as presenting a barrier to the effectiveness of the planning intervention.

An interesting subtheme that arose from the thematic analysis related to the outcomes of the planning intervention tool that represented a form of interface between the process and plan and impact. More specifically, codes within the sub-theme included, among others, the potential for the planning intervention tool to provide early intervention for those children who may not otherwise reach threshold for support from an external agency (e.g. Allen, 2011; Shucksmith et al., 2011), as well as a raised awareness amongst staff of the potentially large impacts of relatively small changes (e.g. Garcia & Cohen, 2011). However, school staff also mentioned some elements which provided limitations on the effectiveness of the planning intervention tool, in addition to limited time as discussed in Section 4.4. These were difficulty in using the scale, and difficulty in generating ideas for support.

The hypothesis may thus be developed that the planning intervention tool has impacts which are predominantly positive, which are supported by key identifiable factors, including features inherent in the tool, as well as elements arising from the process of carrying it out, in addition to intermediary outcomes which, in turn, have a potential effect on this impact.

4.4.3. HOW MIGHT EXPLORING REASONS UNDERLYING BEHAVIOUR SUPPORT AN IMPACT ON OUTCOMES?



In order to explore whether or not additional components of the training and planning intervention form which explicitly emphasise the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour had an increased impact on children's behaviour and emotional well-being, a comparative element was introduced into the study. This was based on evidence and support for the development of interventions based on the function and not the form of behaviour (e.g. Carr et al., 1999; McIntosh et al., 2009) and emotional well-being. Two alternative forms of the planning intervention tool were therefore compared (see Chapter 3 for further detail), but in summary the format and training differed only in that there was explicit reference to and discussion of exploration of the reasons underlying behaviour.

Figure 4.8 shows teachers' ratings and children's self-rating scores on the SDQ at pre- and post-measure collapsed over school and intervention period.

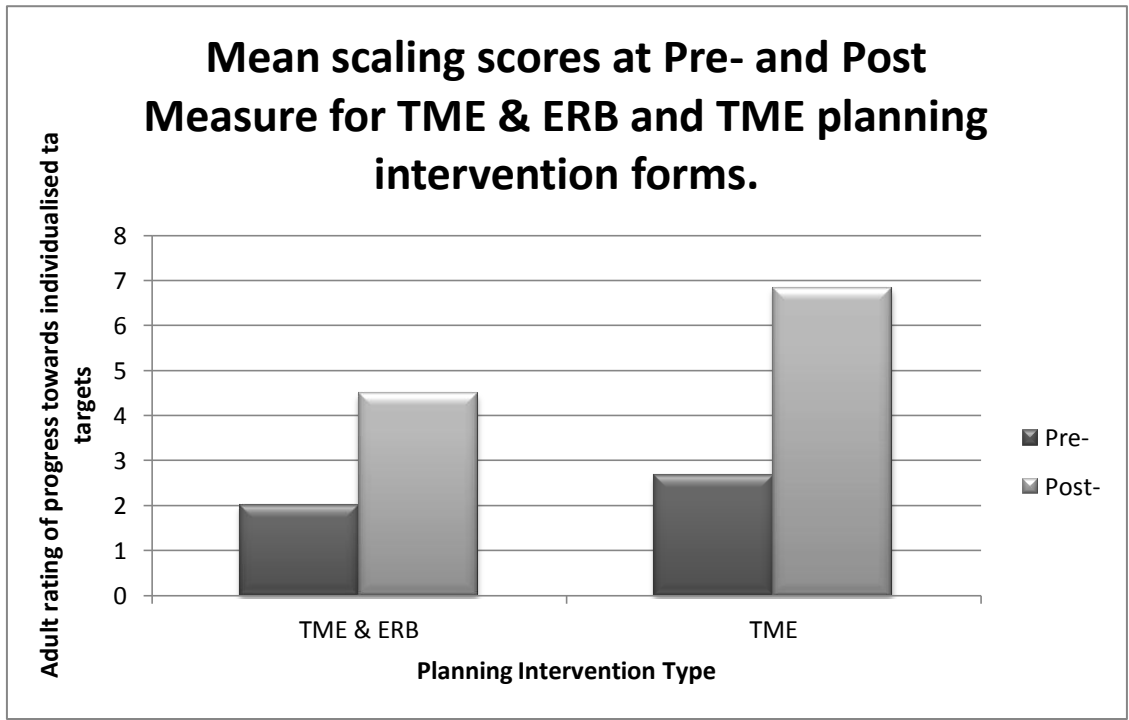


Figure 4.8 Adults’ ratings of children’s progress towards their individualised targets for the two forms of the planning intervention tool (TME & ERB and TME), collapsed over school at pre-measure (at the outset of the intervention process) and at post-measure.

As shown in Figure 4.8, changes in rating of progress towards target on the scaling scores were positive in all configurations, and more so for children’s ratings in the TME only group (mean change = 4.2; median change = 5) than in the TME & ERB group (mean change = 2.5; median change = 2.5).

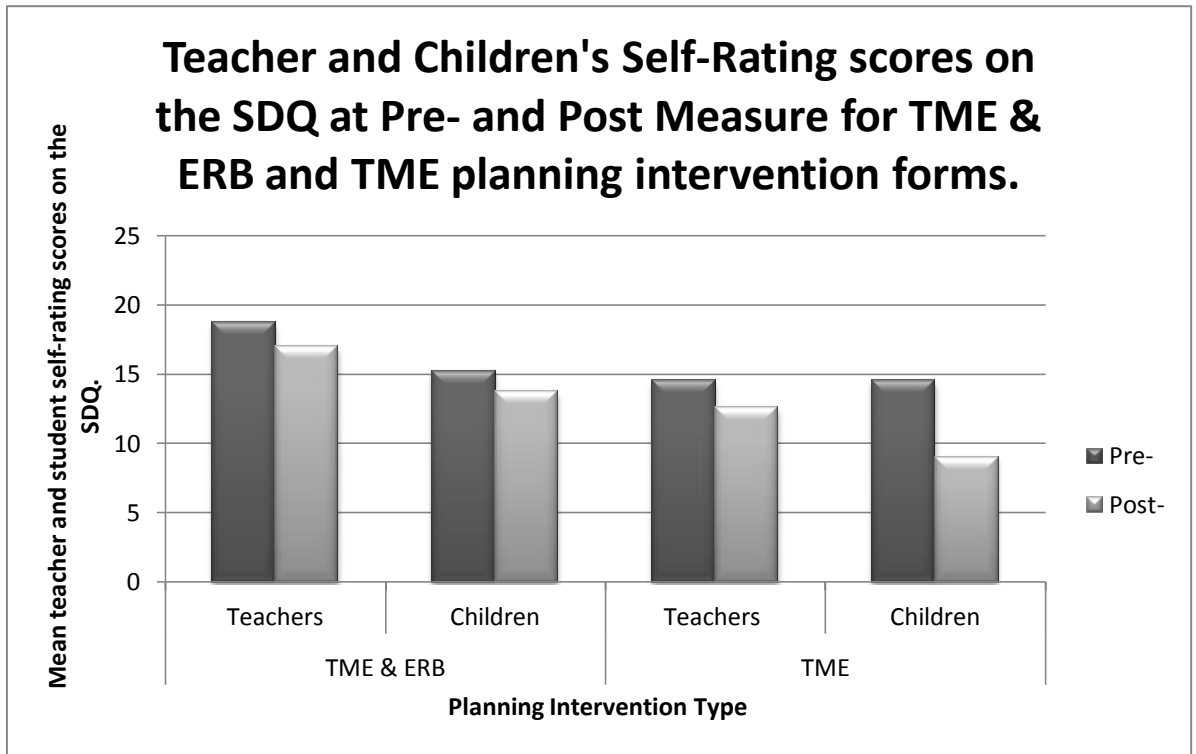


Figure 4.9 Teacher's ratings and children's self-ratings on the SDQ for the two forms of the planning intervention tool (TME & ERB and TME), collapsed over school, at pre-measure (at the outset of the intervention process) and at post-measure.

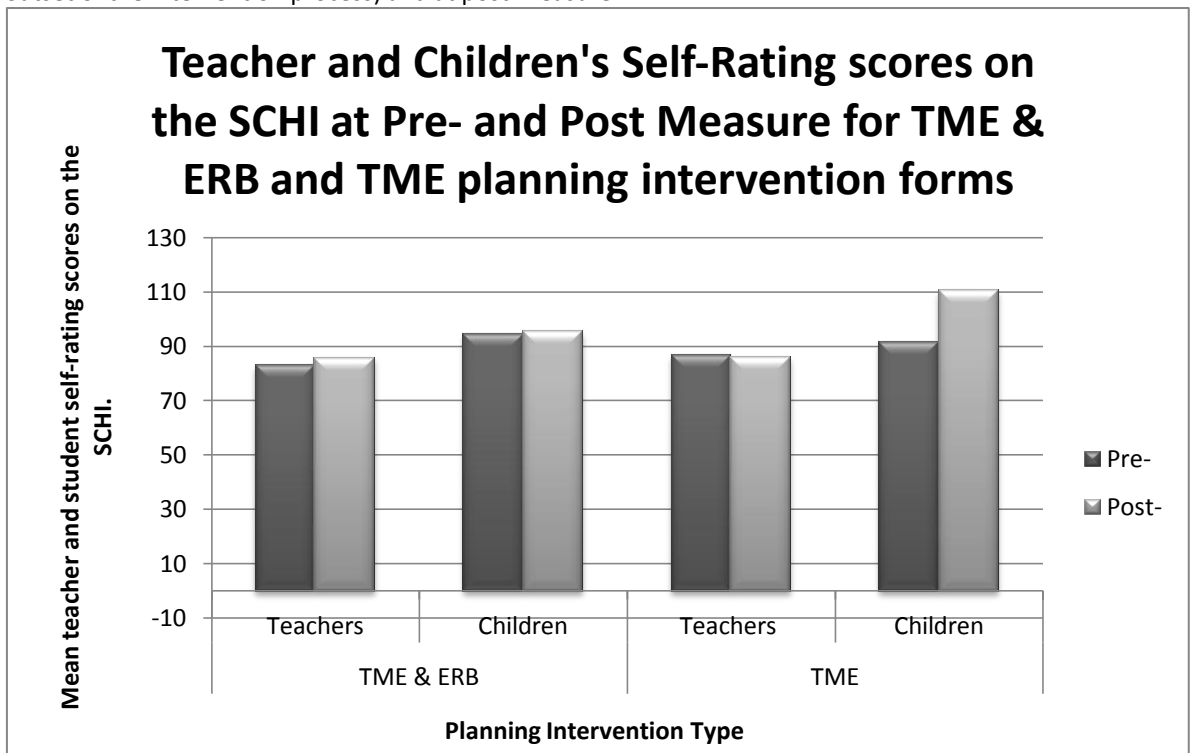


Figure 4.10 Teacher's ratings and children's self-ratings on the SCHI for the two forms of the planning intervention tool (TME & ERB and TME), collapsed over school, at pre-measure (at the outset of the intervention process) and at post-measure.

Figures 4.9 and 4.10 show mean teacher ratings and children's self-ratings on the SDQ and the SCHI, respectively, at pre- and post-measure for each form of the planning intervention (TME & ERB and TME)²⁵. As with the scaling scores, the sample sizes did not yield sufficient power for statistical analysis to be carried out. Descriptive analyses indicate that for ratings of the SCHI teachers rated negative progress (deterioration), for the TME only planning intervention, although this difference is relatively small (-0.8). All other configurations showed positive progress on the SDQ and SCHI from pre- to post-measure, although the pattern is not consistent over teacher and children's self-ratings. Where teacher ratings indicated greater improvement for children in the TME & ERB intervention than the TME intervention on both measures, children's self-rating scores reflected the converse, with the TME only configuration generating scores that were markedly higher than those in the TME & ERB configuration on the SCHI and SDQ.

It is interesting to note that inclusion of an explicit section on exploring the reasons underlying behaviour in the training and planning intervention did not yield any significant increase in impact on children's scaling, SDQ or SCHI scores, and in fact the converse was the case for the children's self-ratings. This is not consistent with McIntosh et al. (2009) who found that interventions that were consistent with the functions of behaviour were more likely to be

²⁵ To reiterate, a negative change between pre- and post-measure on the SDQ reflects a positive change in emotional well-being scores, whereas the converse is true for the SCHI (where a positive change reflects an improvement in emotional well-being).

successful than those which were not. There are a number of possible explanations for the current findings.

Firstly, the sample sizes were small with relatively large standard deviations which may have a large effect on the means. However, it could equally be the case that the training did not provide the school staff carrying out the TME & ERB planning intervention tool with sufficient training to carry it out effectively. Leadbetter (1997) stated that understanding children's perspectives is something which many teachers try to achieve, but which they find very hard. This is echoed in the views of some of the staff involved in the TME & ERB planning intervention meetings.

I think when we're doing it some, some of the teachers are a bit sort of 'Ooh, what does that...sort of...um...behind the behaviours bit...sometimes that was quite hard to do.... (BM1J)

However, the views that staff shared about the process of exploring the reasons underlying behaviour as a function of both the elements of the plan and process (see Figure 4.7) were overwhelmingly that they felt that it was positive and useful.

Many participants (at least one from each 'role') identified the helpfulness of thinking about why a child may be behaving as they are. This code was highly prevalent and also of key relevance to the research questions. A large quantity of data 'chunks' are presented here in order to illustrate the wide-ranging extent of this code. However, it is worth mentioning that despite the high prevalence, this code did not seem to stand alone (or even with the following code to be explored, see below). It was therefore not presented as a

subtheme despite its relevance to the research questions as this was not felt to be in keeping with the transparent and organic aspirations of the present analysis.

Thinking about why [a child may be behaving as they are] is helpful [LBC, teacher, SMT, child].

Um...I think definitely the kids' reasons why we think that they could be behaving in that way, or ...they've got the issues with, I don't know, say confidence or something...coz it really helps you look into it (BM1J)

Um...I think that action plan really helped to analyse the children's behaviour...Um..and looking at the functions in their behaviour ...um...so you could, you get like a background of why...and also it brought up things that you maybe wouldn't think about (BM6D).

Um...no, as I say, I think what helped the process was merging the two. That helped me when we, um....coz when I did a meeting with one of the new....one of the teachers for one of the new children and we'd merged the two papers and just put those functions in, it made the actual meeting a lot easier. (BM9D)

well I suppose it impacted because it did make me think more about the child, and then, thinking from the child, it helped think about how, what things I could do for them, so ...rather than just my, from my point of view, so...from perspective, I was thinking about what the child might be thinking as well so I suppose in that way it was a benefit because you were thinking from their....coz you're trying to help them, you're thinking from them rather than just from yourself. Does that make sense? (KF14D)

That would have been really helpful. Because then it would have helped us to really get to the nitty gritty of what his problems were and why he was acting the way he was. (KF15D)

I think it's just really, really thinking about what that behaviour means and why it's happening. Rather than just addressing it like we tend to do. We'll just say, turn around and don't look out of the window but rather than just addressing the behaviour on the spot, you're actually looking into why it's happening. And I think that's the key thing (KF15D)

Coz like, you know, as adults if we know what makes us tick, we can then help children to know what makes them tick, and till you're there yourself, it's really hard to sort of, understand children. Yeah. I really like that bit. (KF17D)

Yep. I was a bit tired. Yeah, coz if you put that, coz on the 'I felt relaxed' I put a little coz I was a bit tired, and that can affect my relaxation. (KF20D)

School B decided to adopt the use of the planning intervention tool incorporating TME & ERB beyond the scope of the project, such that eventually both lead behaviour coordinators for children additional to the research project in school. This was an internal decision and did not affect the validity of the present findings as all as the planning intervention had been carried out for the children taking part in the present study months previously. Lead behaviour coordinators noted the additional insight afforded by the additional page promoting exploration of reasons underlying behaviour.

the 'I Messages' were really good, really thinking of what they might be saying to you. Coz from that it kind of made it clearer as to what you could sort of, put in place. So obviously, what you think they're thinking, like, 'oh we could do that', give them that, or...whatever... (BM1J)

But having that extra page, we just got a little bit more input. So that's....that's what made the difference for me (BM9D)

Some staff even went so far as to suggest that the incorporation of the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour was 'crucial' to supporting positive change for the children in the two schools. Data 'chunks' suggesting a perception that exploring the possible reasons underlying children's behaviour is crucial, were thus coded separately from those suggesting its helpfulness. This was in order to reflect the indication here that this was an *integral* and indispensable element of the process, rather than simply a desirable one.

Thinking about why [a child may be behaving as they are] is crucial to the process [LBC, teacher, SMT].

Yeah, yes....coz otherwise you're going straight from specify the target behaviour into strategies, and you're not unpicking them. You're not, you're missing out....coz there might be really really simple things here that when you take that step back and watch there might be really simple things, to do with one of these things that....we do that too quickly. We go, oh we're the adults, we're the educationalists, we know what should be happening, without ...without looking carefully enough...and that's what it makes you do. (BM12D)

Very helpful. I mean extremely helpful actually that bit. I think that's quite crucial...to think about...for us to think about the children more, on a deeper level. But it's hard if you've got two or three children that are doing this sort of stuff in a class. You know. It's good. I like that a lot. (KF17D)

There is thus a discrepancy between the comparative numerical findings regarding the usefulness and impact of the inclusion of ERB and the staff's views on this; they appear to be entirely at odds. As noted above, this may reflect a sample size too small to make meaningful numerical comparison. Alternatively, it may reflect ineffective training (although the staff did self-rate as feeling confident in carrying this step out in the evaluation of the initial training). Furthermore, Borgmeier and Horner (2006) advise that, *"It is important to note that the efficiency of FBA is inextricably linked to the accuracy of the resulting functional assessment hypothesis"* (p. 100).

The fact that it is not necessarily easy to explore the reasons underlying behaviour is also an important consideration, although Conroy, Brown and Davis (2001) do argue that it can be carried out by school staff, as long as they are effectively trained.

However, a further explanation may be that staff in both groups were inadvertently beginning to explore the reasons underlying the children's behaviour as a function of the TME and MEP elements of the process. One head teacher suggested that:

And the most skilled in behaviour manage...manage...people who manage behaviour in the most skilled manner in schools, do do this [exploring reasons underlying behaviour] naturally. But this paperwork supports people that aren't that experienced. Or, aren't that skilled to do it. (BM12D)

4.4.3.1. INTERMEDIARY HYPOTHESIS #3: HOW MIGHT EXPLORING REASONS UNDERLYING BEHAVIOUR SUPPORT AN IMPACT ON OUTCOMES?

Thus far the integrated findings have indicated that in these two schools, the planning intervention had a predominantly positive impact on children's behaviour and emotional well-being. School staff's discussions have highlighted factors associated with elements of the planning intervention tool, elements of the process surrounding its implementation and further outcomes which have indirectly supported impacts on positive outcomes for the children's behaviour and emotional well-being. The potential additional impact of a process of exploring the reasons underlying behaviour on outcomes (based on the principles of functional analysis) yielded idiosyncratic findings. Although the data sets were not sufficiently large to support a statistical analysis of the numerical (scaling, SDQ and SCHI) data, descriptive scrutiny indicated that outcomes were greater for children when there was no mention of exploring the reasons underlying behaviour in either the training for lead behaviour coordinator or in the planning format.

Although small sample sizes do need to be taken into account, it is important to further examine why in this case the TME & ERB group did not indicate improved outcomes as would be expected given the findings of McIntosh et al. (2009) and Carr et al. (1996).

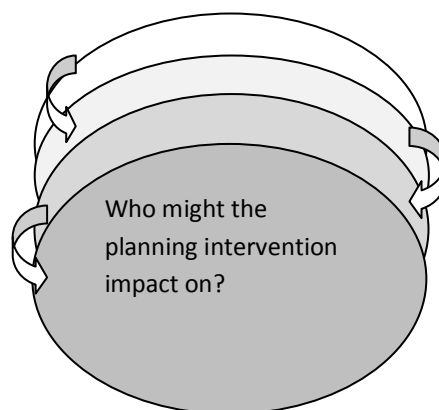
It could be the case that exploring the reasons underlying behaviour is in fact not the element of previous research into functional analysis and multi-element plans that has resulted in positive outcomes and that instead those are accounted for by a clearly structured approach with emphasis on multiple approaches to intervention. However, given the wealth of research in this arena indicating the effectiveness of functional analysis, this would be a rash conclusion to draw on the basis of a Case Study. Furthermore, school staff felt that exploring the reasons underlying behaviour was useful, in particular in adding additional insight, and some went so far as to state that ERB constituted a crucial feature of the planning intervention tool, to the extent that one school has elected to continue to use this form of the tool beyond the scope of this study.

Although Conroy et al. (2001) claim that school staff can carry out functional analysis with appropriate training, school staff in the present study did admit to finding exploration of reasons underlying behaviour difficult and this may reflect that their training was not adequate in preparing to carry this out effectively. In addition, it may be the case that school staff in both groups were inadvertently exploring reasons underlying behaviour, whether or not it was explicit in the training or planning tool. Furthermore, given Borgmeier

and Horner's (2006) words of caution about the importance of getting the functional analysis right for children it may be that over-emphasis of the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour without sufficient skill or training resulted in outcomes that were counterproductive. It is thus difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding any additional contribution of exploration of reasons underlying behaviour on impacts for children's behaviour and emotional well-being in the present study.

The hypothesis may thus be developed that although the planning intervention tool appeared to have a predominantly positive impact on children's emotional well-being, on the basis of a range of factors both intrinsic and extrinsic but all relating to the tool, the additional element of the exploration of behaviour within the form provided within the planning intervention tool did not appear to add any additional benefit.

4.4.4. WHO MIGHT THE PLANNING INTERVENTION IMPACT ON?



A key, but often overlooked factor in the evaluation of interventions aimed to support children and young people's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools is the triangulation of the perspectives of different stakeholders. Wilson and Lipsey (2007) found that rarely was more than one perspective taken into

account in evaluations of behavioural interventions, and that when they were these tended not to be consistent with each other (see also Kraatz-Keily et al., 2000; Laukkanen et al., 2002).

As discussed in Section 4.4.1, teachers' and children's ratings on the SDQ and SCHI did not correspond, with children rating significant progress whilst teachers did not. Interestingly, however, children and school staff suggested that they felt that the planning intervention had had a predominantly positive impact during interview.

In addition to impacts on outcomes for the children involved in the study, a number of ramifications were identified which suggested wider spread impact.

The subtheme *Impacts for Staff* (see Figure 4.6) can be defined as the way in which participating in the planning intervention project affected staff experience. This subtheme comprises two codes: Staff enjoyment and Process supports staff.

Staff who participated in the project reported having enjoyed being involved, in particular in relation to enjoying the experience, opportunities to develop understanding and practice, and finding the experience interesting.

Staff enjoyment [LBC, teacher]

Um...very positive. Um...I feel, I do feel like I've learned a lot from the teachers, and from...and from the children...(BM3J)

But it is, I do...I don't know how else I can say...how much I've enjoyed doing it and would really enjoy to carry that kind of thing on, coz I'm quite sort of big on the behaviour side, as I said to you before, I'm looking into sort of doing child psychology...(BM3J)

No, thank you for giving us the opportunity to do it. (BM9D)

So yeah, no, it was an interesting one from my point of view (KF15D)

...I don't know, I have, I've really enjoyed it. (BM9D)

School staff also spoke about the way in which the planning intervention can support teachers and teaching assistants by sharing ownership of managing concerns and support strategies for children, as well as providing a structure around which to implement this support.

Process supports staff [LBC, SMT]

Very positively, yeah. I think in some ways, it can be a bit of relief, for teachers, because although, I mean, again, from once you've got sort of the normal term time, you can like, always organise the meetings quite easily, but it does take, I think it takes a bit off, off their shoulders, in some respects, because it's just one less thing for them to panic about, and think, 'oh god, right I've got to set time aside for that (BM3J)

She has. It's kind of like, giving her support as well, really, I suppose...coz she was like, what do I do with him? He's getting angry all the time, um...and I took him away and did um...the five point scale of emotions.... (BM9D)

Um...and TAs, are not...and they're not able ...they're certainly not able to work at this level around children without the support of a program. Not independently. But that program provides them with the support to be able to do that. (BM12D)

These findings are consistent with Dearden (1994) who suggests that understanding children's behaviour, in a supported environment is an important resilience factor for teachers and other school staff who may otherwise be at risk of becoming too emotionally involved.

In addition *Wider Implications* (See Figure 4.6) as a subtheme of Impact encompasses participants' comments and suggestions alluding to ways in which the planning intervention may extend beyond the focus children and the project itself.

Participants discussed continuing or persevering with the planning interventions as a setting beyond the scope of the project.

Continue/Persevere [LBC, teacher, SMT]

Yeah, I think kind of definitely carry on with them because, you know, I've started that I've homed in on them and focussing on their particular needs and things, so I think definitely carry on with persevering to try to improve their confidence and concentration. It's mainly my two with the lack of concentration that I need to carry on, C and A, coz I think that they need a lot more work on it, but definitely carrying on with the techniques and things with them in class, so... (KF14D)

We're planning on using the format of the action plan. Um...the head's asked us, me and K if we'd be able to carry it on with just some new children, and also to sort of keep up with what we're doing with the children that were already involved in the project. Um...so we're gonna be using it within school (BM6D)

Um...and what we've...obviously G said we've ended up sort of basically bringing them both together, both forms. Um...I mean I...the ones I've typed up because we put...we scanned them and put them on, and then we put both forms together (BM9D)

We're looking to carry it on. Actually we've already started it with a couple more children. I've already got another four that I've picked up, that I'm already working with, so... (BM9D)

School staff also spoke about the ways in which they had extended the principles of the content of the planning intervention to other children they

worked with: where lead behaviour coordinators spoke about extending strategies to future focus children with similar difficulties and about considering the principles in relation to other children in their classes.

Extend principles to other children [LBC, teacher]

yeah the only ...I would say, it would be the low...but now we've done one, for low self-esteem, there's ...again we'd probably base most of them around how we started that, coz that's exactly the same we'll do with L,...because we'll...well, we've decided to put the same plan into place for her, (BM3J)

So, it is useful for me to see coz it doesn't just apply to him, it applies to everyone, and so you can kind of think, ooh, why are they, why are they behaving like that, and is there something....coz I think sometimes you get so lost in they're just being, so.....naughty in class and you don't step back and think, ah, actually.... (BM8D)

Coz it...even if it doesn't make a difference, like it hasn't made a difference with T, but it has made me question and think, what strategies can I use for other children? I mean, it has started to impact on those other children that just need that little bit more of a tweaking. (KF15D)

4.4.4.1. INTERMEDIARY HYPOTHESIS #4: WHO MIGHT THE PLANNING INTERVENTION IMPACT ON?

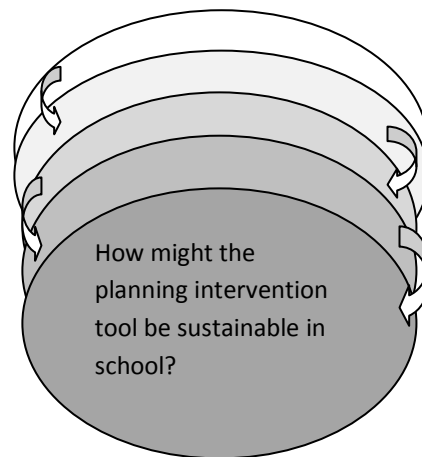
It seems that the planning intervention, which appears to have been predominantly effective in supporting positive progress for children's behaviour and emotional well-being for children in these schools, as supported by elements of the process and plan, as well as outcomes of both which may or may not be related to the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour.

The planning intervention tool appears to have had the most convincing impact on the children themselves, as there is variation in the integration of

staff's views as ascertained through SCHI and SDQ scores and interviews. However, school staff also discussed positive impacts for the adults involved in the study, including enjoyment of being involved on account of interest and developing knowledge bases. It is possible of course that there is an element of novelty which may subside, but staff spoke about it with great enthusiasm. The planning intervention was also felt to support school staff through promoting shared responsibility for behaviours causing concern (both externalising and internalising). In addition to this, the planning intervention was felt to impact more widely for other children in the schools through their direct involvement in a planning intervention approach, but also by extension of the principles of the approach to other children within the school on an informal basis.

This supports the hypothesis that the indicated positive impacts of the planning intervention tool, allowed by a range of factors as discussed, but not ostensibly by the additional feature of exploring reasons underlying behaviour in the form presented here, were observed and experienced by a range of stakeholders both in relation to the children, but also, indirectly, to school staff themselves.

4.4.5. HOW MIGHT THE PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL BE SUSTAINABLE IN SCHOOLS?



Of key interest here was the extent to which school staff felt it was sustainable in school beyond the scope of the study (e.g. Swain et al., 2009). Hattie (2009) suggests that despite an abundance of educational research, schools and classrooms are roughly equivalent to how they were over two hundred years ago. While this feels like something of an exaggeration (and is unsubstantiated), if it is clear that something needs to change then it is important to understand what factors may potentially facilitate or provide barriers to such a change.

The subtheme, *Practical Considerations* (see Figure 4.11) represents participants' discussions and commentaries about factors requiring consideration in order for the smooth implementation of the planning intervention. Although several codes were identified relating to support from Educational Psychologists, these fitted most suitably into other subthemes and were therefore not amalgamated into a discrete subtheme.

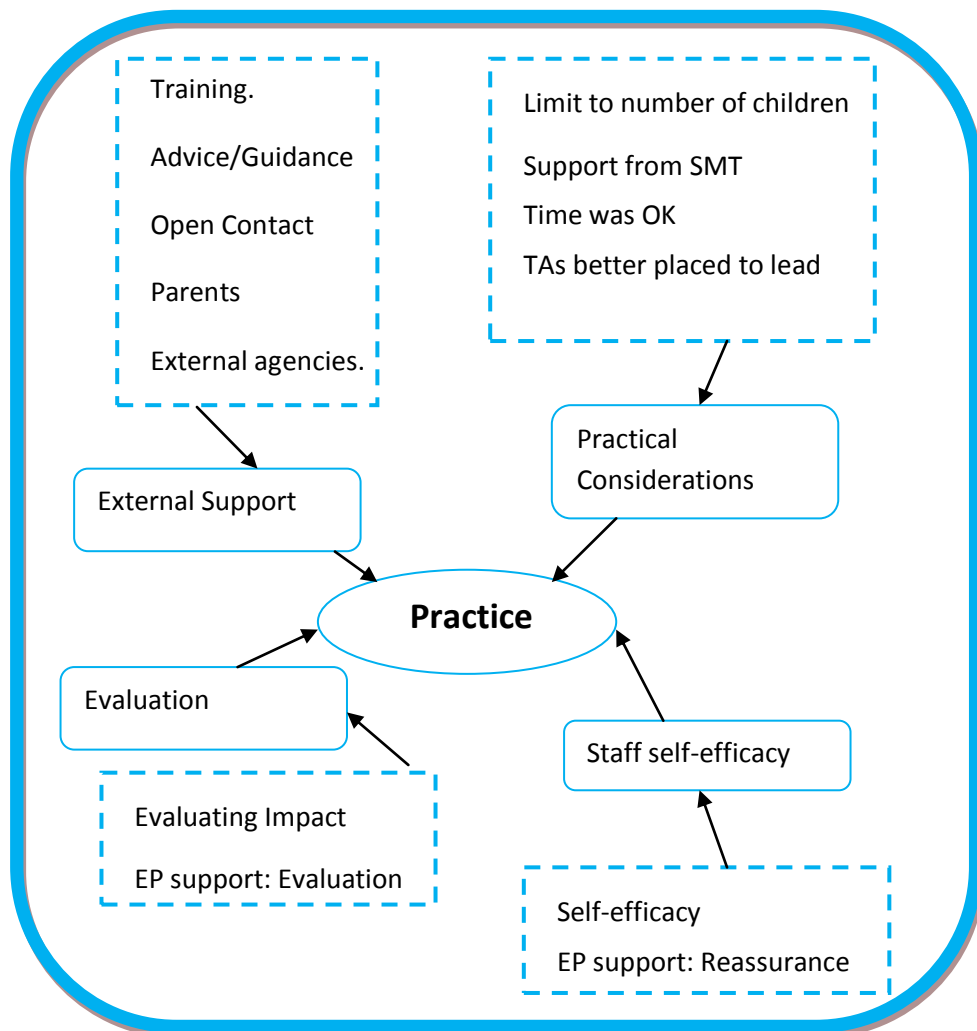


Figure 4.11 Extract from final thematic map presenting the theme, **Practice**, the subthemes which substantiate it, and the codes underpinning the subthemes

Although some schools mentioned that time pressures in school presented a barrier to impact, some staff also said that they felt that the planning intervention was not overly time-consuming (Time was ok [LBC, teacher]).

School staff did, however, indicate that the planning intervention was not an approach that could be used with an unlimited number of children as it would not be efficacious or straightforward to manage for all of the children in a class.

Limit to number of children [LBC, teacher, SMT]

See, I found it fine, dealing with two children who, over that time, have been that...but obviously if it was...I think ...see it's not gonna be the whole class anyway, so I think it would be...fine.(BM5J)

but I haven't got the time, always, and every teacher will say, but...I haven't got time to do it all for thirty children, so it's great for him just to have that calm down time and to just chat to somebody coz I think sometimes if you don't get it from home, it's lovely to have it in school, isn't it, to feel like a safe environment that you can talk to someone, so.... (BM8D)

I think maybe, thinking about...it could be something that we looked at and focussed on, not many everyone in your class, but picked out some children, I think it definitely could be worthwhile doing. Especially at the beginning of the year, when you've got your new class. And then, um...you can focus in on (KF14D)

Also related to sustainability (and time being considered sufficient) was the level of support from the school's SMT. There was variation between the two schools (B and K) in terms of the amount of time allocated to the project for the lead behaviour coordinators, which may have affected perceived sustainability in schools. One key difference between the two schools was the degree to which the SMT took an interest in the implementation of the project; in School B the head teacher was very much involved, whereas in School K, time was promised for the project but did not materialise in practice.

Support from SMT [LBC, SMT]

KL: Um...I think, well they've said if its works, if we find it works then they've said they would like to schedule it into timetable...so...and I think as my timetable is being set, the intervention time I've been scheduled is to allow for interventions and this kind of stuff, and they've also, they've also said, coz lunchtimes, I work in the B [in school emotional/behaviour support]..um...and that's when obviously the best times to meet are, but they've already sorted out who would cover me if I need to go off to do meetings, so...so yeah, they would be more than happy to schedule it in....because, I mean, A [HT]'s been very proactive about involving it into the school, coz it's...I think, I mean, the way the school works as well...very sort of big on inclusion, and making sure the children are happy....I think it helps...personally...(BM3J)

Very. I mean, we've got lots of hours into it at the moment, depending on need, um....yeah...totally...it fits totally in with Wave 3 provision. (BM12D)

-And school are very supportive, but apart from meeting out of school time, which is what's been happening...so that's what school can continue to do that. Um...and providing time for training, which we do, we do do I think really the school do everything they could... (KF17D)

Teaching assistants were frequently referred to as most suitably placed to take on the role of lead behaviour coordinator for a number of reasons. These included Teaching Assistants' perspectives on the children from working throughout the school, the fact that often it will be them implementing interventions, and that they often have more time and are under less pressure than teachers.

TAs better placed to lead [LBC, teacher, SMT]

And as much as you see them in class, like you say, the TAs are probably the better ones to do this because we've seen so much of them. You're that extra pair of eyes aren't you in the classroom. (BM3J)

Yeah, I'd imagine that they've probably got more time to...to really think about, coz, sort of, after work they'd be able to do the meetings and things coz they didn't have planning and everything else to do. So I'd imagine they had, would have a bit more time to do it. Even though I've done it, you know what I mean. (KF14D)

TA or a learning mentor, that would be perfect, because that then, that kind of comes under the learning mentor role. And, um...yeah...it would be better rather than having a teacher, just coz , as you've already indicated you know how under pressure we all are, and lack of time (KF15D)

This may be an important outcome as regards of the role of Teaching Assistants (TAs) supporting children with behaviour and emotional difficulties. Blatchford, Basset, Brown, Martin, Russell and Webster (2012) found in their study that children's access to TAs in lessons did not have any impact on their academic progress. However, Steer (2009) notes the crucial role that TAs have to play in supporting children with behavioural difficulties, and this type of intervention may provide an efficient use of TA time.

Lead behaviour coordinators and SMT talked about the importance of evaluating the impact of the planning intervention in terms of children's progress toward their targets, but also in relation to its impact more widely on their academic progress. One head teacher made the pertinent point that improvements in a child's emotional well-being may be expected to impact on their academic performance and that, for schools, this was a key measure of progress. This is consistent with suggestions surrounding the potential impact of emotional needs on learning (e.g. Allen 2011; Shucksmith et al.,

2011), and thus with Murray-Harvey's (2010) assertion that evaluation of emotional well-being must extend beyond behaviour targets.

In order for longer-term sustainability to be supported, not only would these factors thus need to be in place, but the schools would need to ensure a consistent ethos regarding this approach (e.g. Hevey, 1994). This was a concern for one of the lead behaviour coordinators:

I think so, yeah. Obviously as a whole school we'd have to adopt it as a whole school. I mean, I can't say, I'm just a TA.... (KF17D)

The power of school ethos in supporting interventions to support children's behaviour and emotional well-being is not to be underestimated (e.g. Head et al., 2006; Roffey, 2010), a consideration which links to the understanding of a child's experience in school being determined by the interplay of a large variety of factors operating at a range of levels (direct and indirect) within a complex system (see Figure 2.1).

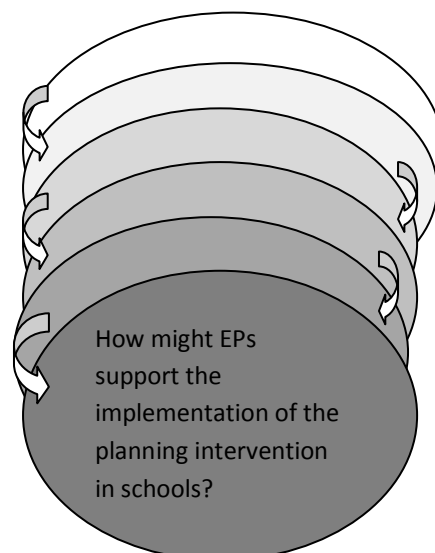
4.4.5.1. INTERMEDIARY HYPOTHESIS #5: HOW MIGHT THE PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL BE SUSTAINABLE IN SCHOOLS.

A planning intervention tool has thus been found to be predominantly effective in supporting a positive impact on children's behaviour and emotional well-being in two schools on account of a range of key features (both direct and indirect) of the tool itself. Despite a lack of clarity about the additional contribution of exploring reasons underlying behaviour, school staff identified impacts of the planning intervention tool beyond the children who are directly involved and noted impacts on the staff themselves as well as other children through indirect extension of the principles.

School staff unanimously stated an intention to continue to use the planning intervention in schools beyond the research project, but identified a number of factors which would support them in being able to manage this. These included support from the school's senior management team, limitation of the number of children directly involved with the planning intervention at any one time in a given class and allowing TAs to take the lead on coordinating and running the meetings. School staff also identified evaluation as a key factor in whether or not they would choose to continue to use the planning intervention in the longer term.

The incrementally-developing hypothesis may thus be developed further to suggest that an indicated positive impact of the planning intervention tool, based on a number of facilitatory features (although not apparently related to the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour), which impact both directly for the children but also more widely for other children and school staff, is most likely to be sustainable within schools if a number of conditions as described above are able to be met.

4.4.6. HOW MIGHT EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGISTS SUPPORT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLANNING INTERVENTION IN SCHOOLS?



A core value of the present study was to evaluate whether or not a planning intervention tool to support children's behaviour and emotional well-being could be implemented in such a way that it is sustainable in schools and not reliant on intensive intervention from an external agency. School staff identified factors which may facilitate its intervention in the longer term and stated their intention to continue to use it beyond the scope of the research project. However, possible ways in which Educational Psychologists may be able to support from afar were discussed.

Members of Senior Management from both schools raised the potential benefits of support from the Educational Psychology Service on ways to evaluate the impact of the planning intervention on children's progress with behaviour and emotional well-being.

EP Support: Evaluation [LBC, SMT]

Maybe help us unpick the impact at the end of the year. Because it would be useful to have your knowledge in there, because we'll start to look at which children did, which children didn't, and we'll start to ask those questions about why and what we could do differently next time. So it would be good to have uh, um...that knowledge at that point (BM12D)

Um....and also having a look at how to analyse it when you've got all of the information. (KF16D)

School staff also spoke about being happy to continue with the planning intervention autonomously but feeling that they would benefit from being able to talk things through or check them out with an Educational Psychologist, for reassurance.

EP Support: Reassurance [LBC, teacher]

To make sure you're doing the right thing (BM6D)

And then you obviously supported me in getting my meetings done. I think having that extra session with you, going through one was beneficial, because I think I knew what I had to do, but then you know when you start something new, you need someone to go through it, so that definitely, um...helped. Good contact with you. (KF14D)

Well, maybe for that reassurance, or that what you are trying is working , will work just keep on with it, or ok it's not working, that's fine, try.... (KF15D)

Lead behaviour coordinators talked about initially feeling nervous running the planning meetings, but said that they had felt more comfortable once they started. Teachers talked about their frustration about not being able to 'get to the bottom' of children's behaviour. Senior Management discussed there being a range in the extent to which different staff are skilled in behaviour management, and that the most skilled think about the reasons underlying behaviour 'naturally'. Furthermore, a head teacher raised a key point that school staff are trained as 'educators' within a classroom, of which behaviour management is only one of many components.

Staff-Self Efficacy [LBC, teacher, SMT]

And I think the first one, I kind of sat there thinking 'oh my god, I can't...what do we do...what did we say in the training, but um...but then I had obviously all the bits from the training anyway, and all the bits that I'd noted down in the separate parts, and I just used that to go back to. And I've kept hold of that coz I thought if it is a little bit of time till I do the next meeting, or...at least you can still...and that's why we need that there. But I found it really easy to use (BM3J)

once you got going, it was fine. Just sort of getting...doing that initial, getting it going sort of thing, you've got to get into sort of, but...no, it's been a good process. (KF14D)

Um...just because ...I think just for my own peace of mind of trying to get to the bottom of his behaviour that I can't change. Coz I'm usually pretty good at modifying, or helping children to modify their behaviourand it's like I just can't change it, so if it was narrowed down to something like, I find it stressful, and that's why I'm behaving, then you can just try and work that out, so yeah, it would be really, really quite useful to have that. (KF15D)

And the most skilled behaviour manage...manage...people who manage behaviour in the most skilled manner in schools, do do this naturally. But this paperwork supports people that aren't that experienced. Or, aren't that skilled to do it. (BM12D)

And also, we're trained as educators. Yes, behaviour management is part of that, but as teachers in a classroom (BM12D)

EPs can support school staff with developing their self-efficacy in part through reassurance. Indeed, although school staff spoke about being happy to continue with the planning intervention autonomously they often reported feeling that they would benefit from being able to talk things through or check them out with an Educational Psychologist, for reassurance.

Linked with one of the limitations of the effectiveness of the planning intervention being difficulty in generating ideas for approaches and strategies, school staff talked about ways in which Educational Psychologists could support them through providing advice and guidance as necessary.

EP Support: Advice/Guidance [LBC, teacher]

I think one of the main difficulties was..um...one of the children...we struggled to think of things to come up for him. So obviously I spoke to you about it...to get some ideas.(BM1J)

I suppose, just a little bit more guidance and some strategies that we could use. I mean, I'm quite lucky coz I've got counseling and psychology backgrounds, so I've got quite a range of strategies. But I'm just thinking if I didn't have that, possibly some guidance on strategies. That might be a helpful one. (KF15D)

School staff also spoke about the benefits they found in having open contact with an Educational Psychologist (i.e. over telephone and email) in resolving concerns arising as a function of the planning meetings.

EP Support: Open Contact [LBC, SMT]

...so...he might stump us as yet, but if he does I'll be...I'll be on the email, 'oh my god...what do we do...?'. (BM3J)

I felt really bad for G but she did what I think she should have done and contacted you. And yeah.... (BM5J)

And then you obviously supported me in getting my meetings done. I think having that extra session with you, going through one was beneficial, because I think I knew what I had to do, but then you know when you start something new, you need someone to go through it, so that definitely, um...helped. Good contact with you. (KF14D)

Training was identified by many different school staff as a way that Educational Psychologists may be able to support ongoing and future successful implementation of the planning intervention in their settings.

EP Support: Training [LBC, teacher, SMT]

Also training,maybe rolling out to teachers as well. You know, once we've addressed the impact of it this year, if we're gonna continue it we need to um...learn more as a whole staff about what it is and why it is successful. (BM12D)

I think ongoing training. It would be training more for people and training the people who need it when they need it (KF16D)

Yeah, just people understanding it a bit more. And maybe training (KF17D)

4.4.6.1. INTERMEDIARY HYPOTHESIS #6: HOW CAN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGISTS SUPPORT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLANNING INTERVENTION IN SCHOOLS?

The planning intervention tool can thus be assumed to have had a predominantly positive impact, on account of factors related to both its nature and the process surrounding it, regardless of whether or not there was direct exploration of reasons underlying behaviour, to the extent that school staff indicated their intentions to persevere with it beyond the scope of the study, and staff reported that they, as well as the children involved had benefitted from it. They raised a number of key practical considerations which would facilitate its sustained implementation in their schools, including support from senior management, the outcomes of evaluations and a key role for TAs in taking a lead on it.

School staff also identified a number of ways in which Educational Psychologists could support the implementation of the planning intervention in the longer term. These included support with evaluation and reassurance through open contact, occasional advice or guidance when they are stuck,

and ongoing training. It is important to emphasise that whilst the goal would be for schools to implement this independently, findings from Bond et al. (2011) indicate that withdrawal of external support altogether can be a key factor in the cessation of hitherto successful interventions in school. The sort of 'light-touch' approach suggested by the school staff here may be feasible on a more permanent basis and may thus provide a way in which Educational Psychologists can address the professional dilemmas related to addressing the needs of both those children who are already having significant difficulties, as well as those who may be at risk of developing them later on (e.g. Allen, 2011; Shucksmith, 2011). It may also serve to improve staff self-efficacy.

This supports the hypothesis that the planning intervention tool may support positive impacts on children's emotional well-being, on account of a range of contributing factors, although not, it seems, the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour, and that these positive impacts are experienced directly by the children and indirectly by other children and school staff, but that in order for this success to be sustained within schools there are a number of key organisational factors which need to be met, including access to support at a range of levels from Educational Psychologists.

CHAPTER 5: SYNTHESIS AND FINAL CONCLUSIONS

5.1. HOW CAN ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF A PLANNING INTERVENTION TOOL BE USED TO SUPPORT CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOUR AND EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING IN SCHOOLS?

The analysis and interpretation of triangulated data from a multiple embedded case study exploring how a planning intervention can support children's behaviour and emotional well-being in two schools was carried out using a Logic Model to structure discussion of six research questions. The findings indicated that the planning intervention tool, based on principles of Multi-element Plans (MEP) and Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME) resulted in positive progress for children; significantly so on scaling ratings carried out by adults in relation to individual targets and on children's self-ratings on the SCHI and SDQ. Interview data analysed using thematic analysis revealed children's examples of their own positive progress. School staff also spoke predominantly about children's positive progress during interviews, although their ratings on the SDQ and SCHI were not significantly higher at pre- than post-measure. The thematic analysis of the interview data suggested that the effectiveness of the planning intervention tool in supporting predominantly positive impacts for children reflected three key factors: elements of the plan itself, elements of the process surrounding the implementation of the plan, and intermediary outcomes of the plan and

process which facilitated a positive impact on the children involved in the study.

The embedded feature of the Case Study entailed a comparison of two alternative forms of the planning intervention: one in which there was explicit reference to the exploration of the reasons underlying children's behaviours causing concern (ERB) during training and the planning format, and another which was identical except for this element. Findings regarding the effectiveness of the additional element of ERB were idiosyncratic; the numerical data did not support an additional benefit in terms of outcomes for children of this being included. However, school staff perceived the ERB element of the planning intervention tool to be helpful, and even crucial in some cases. It may be the case that the training was not sufficiently effective in allowing school staff to carry out the ERB element effectively, or indeed that the design of the present study did not allow for this element to be isolated to an extent whereby its additional impact may be reliably evaluated. Furthermore, there is a limitation in the degree to which the lead behaviour coordinators had the opportunity to practice implementation of ERB; it is possible that practice and development of expertise could facilitate effectiveness and impact.

Nonetheless, as discussed above, the planning intervention tool did appear to correspond to predominantly positive impacts for children, although there was some discrepancy between the rating scores of children and adults whereby the former showed significant progress across all measures, and the latter did only for the scaling element. There are a number of possible accounts for this finding, including that teachers may tend to err on the side

of caution when completing such measures so as to avoid a situation whereby positive progress is over-reported to the extent that external support is withdrawn. An alternative explanation is that teachers may not be sensitive to progress in particular in relation to internalised emotional needs. A core value of the planning intervention explored in the present case study was that its implementation should be sustainable in school and carried out by school staff. Findings from the thematic analysis indicated a number of factors that would need to be in place in order to support longer-term sustainability, including practical implications relating to time and who should lead on the initiative and the need for evaluation. School staff also shared how they felt that Educational Psychologists might be able to indirectly support the implementation of the planning intervention in the longer term, and discussed the role of Educational Psychologists in providing reassurance, open contact, advice and guidance, and ongoing training.

5.2. KEY FEATURES OF THE PLANNING INTERVENTION FORMAT.

The planning intervention tool aimed to combine MEPs and TME in order to capitalise of the strengths of both; a multi-element approach with clear, specific and measurable targets.

5.2.1. MULTI-ELEMENT PLANS

Consistent with Eccles and Pitchford (1997) and Doody (2009), school staff spoke at length about beneficial features of the Multi-Element Plans: thinking about the whole child, considering possibilities that they might not otherwise have thought about and encouraging school staff to make a first

step in support where they had concerns relating to a child's behaviour or emotional well-being, even if they were small changes (e.g. Garcia & Cohen, 2011).

5.2.2. FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS

Functional analysis provides opportunities for exploration of the communicative functions of behaviour causing concern such that interventions may be devised which meet these needs (e.g. Carr et al., 1997). Definitions of functional analysis employed in research literature are idiosyncratic and there does not appear to be any clearly agreed consensus over what it entails in practice. As such, the term functional analysis was substituted by 'Exploring Reasons Underlying Behaviour' (ERB) in the present study to acknowledge that the model employed here was diluted in comparison to more intensive practices (e.g. Kennedy et al. 2000; Steege & Watson, 2009).

Findings from the present study did not indicate that the Planning Intervention Tool was more effective when it incorporated ERB, as measured through scaling, the SDQ and the SCHI. Interestingly, however, staff perceived that it was very helpful, even crucial in supporting children's needs. School staff may be supported further by educational psychologists in developing their use of TME, including ensuring proper isolation of behaviours causing concern as well as in developing and monitoring progress towards corresponding observable targets that lend themselves to measurement that is as objective as possible.

Given the idiosyncratic nature of the present findings, as well as the large body of research supporting Functional Analysis, it would be rash to conclude that ERB is not helpful. However, it could be that the diluted version employed here was not sufficient to effect significant positive change. It may also, or alternatively, be that the training was ineffective in supporting correct implementation; some school staff did report finding that it was hard to use (Borgmeier & Horner, 2001; Leadbetter, 1997). Given the approach to exploring the reasons underlying behaviour undertaken here, there is a significant reliance on the perspectives of the school staff without support from robust behavioural measures of the possible functions of a child's behaviour. It may therefore be helpful for educational psychologists to provide appropriate levels of challenge and support for school staff in challenging their own and each others' perspectives on the possible reasons underlying children's behaviours, in order to minimise and address risks of confirmation bias and hypothetical understandings being developed inadvertently into assumed fact or truths. The sample sizes were small, which eliminated the possibility of a more robust statistical comparison, and also renders the mean rating scores susceptible to the influence of outliers. Furthermore, the design of the study may not have been effective in allowing the effective isolation of ERB as a factor in comparison to the alternative planning intervention tool, and it may have been that school staff in both groups were inadvertently exploring the reasons underlying children's behaviour. Further support from educational psychologists may be helpful in supporting staff's observation of the process of using the planning intervention tool.

Further research may address some of these issues through using larger sample sizes (where possible, see Fox, 2011). Similarly, further investigation in which outcomes for a wait-list control group may be helpful in examining the extent to which progress may be accounted for simply by inclusion in the study, regardless of the planning intervention. A more ingenious design would also be helpful in isolating ERB as a potential contributory factor on impacts for children's behaviour and emotional well-being. For example, a single-case design (e.g. Filter and Horner, 2008; Ingram et al., 2005; Newcomer and Lewis, 2004), may be effective in isolating the extent to which exploration of reasons underlying behaviour within a more traditional and extensive model of functional analysis, can support positive progress towards a given child's behaviour and emotional well-being. This may be achieved to some extent by comparing progress during a period of intervention based on a TME only version of the planning intervention tool, and progress after inclusion of functional analysis with associated and corresponding interventions. Within the present study, given that a core value was for schools to use the planning intervention study without a heavy reliance on external support, the particular approach discussed here would not have been consistent. However, for future research designed to address the question of how exploring the reasons underlying behaviour may support positive changes in children's behaviour and emotional well-being, the above approach may be more suitable.

5.2.3. TARGET MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Target monitoring and evaluation (TME) provided an attempt to address concerns raised in relation to the specificity of targets generated through

MEPs and the intervention plans associated with functional analysis (e.g. Eccles & Pitchford, 1997; Steege & Watson, 2009). School staff identified a number of the features of TME as contributory factors to the predominantly positive impact of the planning intervention tool on children's behaviour and emotional needs. This included the facilitation of targeted intervention, the benefits of scaling, and the support with effective and meaningful evaluation. It thus seems that MEPs and TME can be usefully and easily combined in order to capitalise on the advantages of both tools.

5.3. CORE VALUES

All of the three core values presented Chapter 1 were reflected in the outcomes of the present study. The effectiveness of the planning intervention tool in addressing both internalising and externalising emotional needs, its capacity to provide support for early intervention and its sustainability in school settings permeate the data analysis and interpretation presented in Chapter 4.

5.4. TRIANGULATED USE OF THE SDQ AND SCHI

It is interesting to note that patterns of results were largely parallel for the SDQ and the SCHI. Where results differed between teachers and children, they were consistent across these two measures (in the overall planning intervention at least). This may indicate that the adaptation of the School Children's Happiness Inventory (SCHI, Ivens, 2007) into a teacher version provides a valid measure of adult perspective on children's subjective well-being.

5.5. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

As discussed in brief above, there are a number of areas which may require further research before more distinct conclusions may be drawn from some elements of the present study, in particular the potential additional impact of ERB on affecting outcomes for children's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools. It may thus be helpful to explore whether the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour requires the direct input of more extensively trained, experienced professionals with limited existing beliefs about the functional of a child's behaviour in order for there to be an additional impact of ERB within the present form of the planning intervention tool. A further study could thus be conducted in which outcomes are compared for those planning interventions in which an educational psychologist with experience in implementing the tool is directly involved in the process, against outcomes for those in which recently trained members of school staff take the lead, as in the present study. Differing levels of experience of school staff may also be compared by introducing a third group in which school staff have, a given amount of experience (for example a number of uses of the planning intervention too over a particular length of time). This may allow clarification of whether it is experience or familiarity with the tool which supports any possible greater impact on outcomes.

More generally, as discussed in Chapter 4, the sample sizes in the TME only and TME and ERB groups were not sufficiently large to allow trends in the data to be compared using statistical analysis. The results indicated in the present study relating to the comparison of the impact of the TME only and TME and ERB groups must therefore be treated with caution. A simple way

to allow a more robust comparison of these relative impacts would be to access larger groups of participants, consistent with guidance on sample sizes derived through a power analysis (e.g. Howell, 2010). In practice, gaining access to a sufficiently large sample of individuals is not as straightforward as it may appear in practitioner-research, but in the aim of addressing some of the outstanding questions arising from the present study, this should remain an aspirational goal (e.g. Fox, 2011).

In addition, in order to explore more fully whether or not ERB does provide an additional supportive feature of the planning intervention tool, when carried out within a robust version of a more traditional form of functional analysis (e.g. Kennedy et al., 2000), a single-case study design as described in Section 5.2.2.) or indeed a series of these, may provide an effective means of exploration than the approach undertaken within the present study.

Further Research Questions	Possible Designs
<p><i>To what extent does the effectiveness of the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour (ERB) component of the planning intervention tool depend on the level of experience of the individual facilitating its implementation?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Embedded case study or • Quasi-experimental design.
<p><i>Is there an additional benefit of including Functional Analysis in the planning intervention tool?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single case design to address functional analysis specifically. • Quasi-experimental design reflecting sample sizes required for statistical comparison as established through a power analysis.

Table 5.1. Summary of research questions to clarify issues not addressed within the present study and possible appropriate research designs.

The experience of persistent and intense experiences arising from, and concerns about children's behaviour and emotional well-being in schools can have a substantial effect on staff morale and confidence (e.g. Miller, 1994; Steer, 2009). School staffs' self-efficacy in supporting children with their behaviour and emotional needs in schools is likely to be a key factor in addressing this as a wider national issue (e.g. Allen, 2011; Steer, 2009; UNICEF, 2011). Miller (1994) interviewed a group of teachers and head teachers about their perspectives and views on behaviour support, and found that key themes emerged in relation to the profound emotional impact of working with children with high level emotional and behavioural needs, as well as a direct negative effect on their professional confidence, or self-efficacy (see also Leadbetter, 1999; Tew, 2010).

There may thus be a key role for Educational Psychologists in supporting school staff in developing children's behaviour and emotional well-being at a more systemic level. A gap is increasingly apparent in the market for training focussed on behaviour and emotional well-being on Initial Teacher Training Courses (e.g. Allen, 2011; Fox, 2011; Hevey, 1994; Margalit et al., 1997; Shucksmith et al., 2011; Steer, 2009). Educational Psychologists may be well-placed to take a lead on this training given our unique role as educational and child psychologists who have a clear understanding of the systems surrounding children, the systems surrounding schools, and the systems which encapsulate all of the above.

It is hoped that the planning intervention tool presented here may be extended to more schools so that it can impact on the behaviour and emotional well-being of children and young people at an early stage. The overarching aim of the totality of the present work is that access to the planning intervention tools presented here provides a positive experience for children and young people, and on that note, I leave it to Sam to conclude this thesis.

***JW:** Ok S, I think that was everything I was going to ask you. Is there anything you want to say to me, or ask me?*

***S:** ...could do.....I'm always going to remember you.*

***JW:** Aw, that's lovely. I'm always going to remember you too S.*

***S:** Yeah.*

***JW:** Yeah? Well thank you so much for coming to talk to me, I really appreciate it....*

***S:** I'm going to put it on the computer so if I forget it I can just look on there.*

***JW:** aaaaw, that's lovely. Well I'm really glad to hear that, and I'm glad it's been a nice experience.*

***S:** Yeah, and I'm going...I'm going to do it on NotePad and call the file Good Times.*

***JW:** Aaaaaw that's lovely. Well I'm gonna keep a file in my brain that's called Good Times too. Wonderful. It was lovely to meet you. Shake hands? And Merry Christmas.*

***S:** Yep. Merry Christmas to you. (KF20D)*

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Evaluating the impact of two intervention models on children's well-being in schools.



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Participant Information Sheet - Parents

This research aims to evaluate the impact of two models of intervention for improving children's well-being in schools.

For parents, involvement will involve:

- a) Providing consent for you and your child to take part in the study.
- b) Your child being randomly allocated to one of three intervention groups within school (one of these will be a 'Wait-List Control Group' which means that your child may not receive the intervention immediately but they will receive it at a later date).
- c) Completing a questionnaire about your child in aimed to look at their overall well-being. This will happen twice; once at the beginning of the process and once afterwards.
- e) Your child will also be asked to complete a questionnaire about their overall well-being in school. This will also happen twice; once at the beginning of the process and once afterwards.
- f) Some parents may be asked to take part in an interview to get your view on what you think may be helpful or not about the interventions.

Thank you for taking the time to read about this research. If you have any further questions or concerns please don't hesitate to contact me:

Telephone: 01353 612803 or at Joanna.Wagstaffe@Stanbridgeshire.gov.uk

Participant Consent Form (Parents)

Evaluating the impact of two intervention models on children's well-being in schools.

Please V or X

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet explaining the research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.
3. I understand that once the research has been analysed and presented I will no longer be able to withdraw (N.B. all aggregated data will be fully anonymous).
4. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.
5. I confirm that I have had access to information explaining the likely time implications of the research project.
6. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in this research.
7. I am happy to be contacted at a later date for a follow-up interview.
8. I agree to take part in the above research project.

Name: _____

Role: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Evaluating the impact of two intervention models on well-being



Joanna Wagstaffe

Trainee Educational Psychologist

Stanbridgeshire County Council

Participant Information Sheet - Schools

This research aims to evaluate the impact of two models of intervention for children with challenging behaviours.

The attached graphic shows an overview of the design of the study. For schools, involvement will entail

- a) Identifying all children meeting the criteria for involvement in the study (i.e. children who have an Individual Education Plan (IEP) for behaviour which has been reviewed at least twice and for whom strategies have been implemented which have not been successful).
- b) Requesting informed consent from the parents of children identified as meeting the criteria for involvement in the study (information sheets and consent forms to be provided by the researcher).
- c) Two members of staff being designated to take on the role of behaviour coordinator being trained in one of two different interventions: Multi-element Plans (MEP) or Target Monitoring and Evaluation (TME). Attending training for either MEP or TME (2 hours each).
- d) Collection of Strengths and Weaknesses Questionnaire (pre-measure) from parents and teachers of children involved in the study (as well as from the children themselves over eight years old).
- e) Implementation of intervention for action planning for between three and four children (around one hour per child by staff) and supported as necessary by trainee Educational Psychologist.
- f) Communication of action plan to relevant staff and parents.

g) Collection of Strengths and Weaknesses Questionnaire (post-measure) from parents and teachers of children involved in the study (as well as from the children themselves over eight years old).

h) Some participating staff may be asked to participate in a semi-structured interview in order to investigate the potential benefits and limitations of the two models of intervention on improving outcomes for children as well as the extent to which the interventions are considered to be implementable and sustainable or not in schools. This will be recorded and will only be used by the researcher.

Time-Costs

*Per member of participating staff (usually two per school): Maximum nine hours between March and July.

*Implementation of most effective intervention to children in Wait-List Control group at a later date: around one hour per child (less with practice at procedure).

Benefits

* Free training in two evidence-based models of intervention for supporting children with challenging behaviours.

* Free follow-up support for implementation of two models of intervention for supporting children with challenging behaviours.

*Opportunity to take part in potentially publishable evaluation research.

Thank you for taking the time to read about this research. If you have any further questions or concerns please don't hesitate to contact me:

Telephone: 01353 612803 or at Joanna.Wagstaffe@Stanbridgeshire.gov.uk

Participant Consent Form (School)

Evaluating the impact of two intervention models on outcomes for children with challenging behaviour.

Please ✓ or X

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet explaining the research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.
3. I understand that once the research has been analysed and presented I will no longer be able to withdraw (N.B. all aggregated data will be fully anonymous).
3. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.
4. I confirm that I have had access to information explaining the likely time implications of the research project.
5. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in this research.
6. I am happy to be contacted at a later date for a follow-up interview.
7. I agree to take part in the above research project.

Name: _____

Role: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX 1C: CHILDREN'S INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM.

Evaluating the impact of two intervention models on children's well-being in schools.



Joanna Wagstaffe

Trainee Educational Psychologist

Stanbridgeshire County Council

Participant Information Sheet - Children

Hello,

My name is Joanna Wagstaffe. I am working with some of the adults in your school on different ways to help to keep you happy in school.

I would like to do this by giving them some different ways that they can use to help plan things they can do to help you in school. I'll ask them to fill in some questionnaires, and would like you and the people you live with to do this too.

I may ask some children to talk with me afterwards about how they found the experience. I'll record these interviews and keep all of your information safe until I can destroy at the end of the project.

Thank you very much for taking time to read this. If you have any more questions about it then ask one of your teachers. If they aren't sure they are more than welcome to give me a call or an email.

All the best,

Joanna

Participant Consent Form (Children)

Evaluating the impact of two intervention models on children's well-being in schools.

Please V or X

1. I have read the information about the project attached to this form

2. I understand that it's up to me whether or not I want to take part and that I can say at any time if I don't want to be involved any more.

3. I understand that no-one will know what my responses to the questionnaire are and my name won't be shared with anybody in, or outside of school (unless there is any serious reason for concern)

4. I agree for what I say to be used in this project (without my name attached)

5. I understand that what I say might be recorded but that these recordings will be kept safe and destroyed when the project is finished.

6. I am happy to talk to Joanna about the project afterwards.

7. I agree to take part in the above research project.

Name: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX 2. TRAINING MATERIALS

APPENDIX 3A TEACHER SDQ

APPENDIX 3B CHILD SDQ

APPENDIX 4A TEACHER SCHI

APPENDIX 4B CHILD SCHI

APPENDIX 5: PRINCIPLES OF ANALYSIS

A5.1. MIXED-METHODS AND TRIANGULATION.

The nature of the research questions at hand was such that a range of data sources were necessary in order to address them. As outlined in Chapter 4, the data are varied in nature and different analytic approaches were required in order to examine them appropriately. Such an approach reflects 'Mixed-methods' (e.g. Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998); the use of both qualitative and quantitative analytic approaches to address a single research question²⁶ (e.g. Bryman, 2004; Cresswell, 2004).

A5.1.2 MIXED-METHODS

Although there are issues concerning whether or not some of the assumptions underlying quantitative and qualitative approaches to analysis can be compatible (e.g. Firestone, 1987; Morse, 1991; see also Mingers, 2001), there is increasing acknowledgement that within Educational Psychology, that as long as ontological positions are clearly and transparently considered (see Chapter 3, Methodology), a pragmatic epistemology may support a mixed-methods approach (e.g. Brannen, 2005). Cameron (2011) presents a series of five important considerations for undertaking mixed-methods research, drawn together from issues raised by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) and Brannen (2005). Cameron suggests that consideration of the 'Five Ps', "*can provide those*

²⁶ This is a rather loose definition, although captures the essence of what Mixed Methods research entails. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) asked twenty one mixed methods researchers for their definitions of mixed methods and received nineteen distinct responses that varied according to such factors as: what was being mixed (e.g. type of data, type of analysis), what stage in the research the mixing took place, the extent of the mixing, the reasons for the mixing and the motivation behind the research.

wishing to embark into mixed-methods research with the essential components of a mixed-methods starter kit, inclusive of a contemporary checklist of contentious issues, risks and traps that require consideration” (Cameron, 2011, p. 106). The ‘Five Ps’ include:

- Paradigms (identifying a clear need to have a clear understanding and communication of how any apparent paradigmatic differences may impact on the research, and how these may be resolved).
- Pragmatism (illustrating the importance of avoiding superficial practicalism by ensuring an understanding of key debates and literature in mixed-methods research and emphasis on justifying the approach taken, although being prepared to take risks as long as they can be justified).
- Praxis (emphasising the value of making and explaining informed and justified choices about the appropriateness of different methods based on the question(s) being addressed, i.e. being question-driven).
- Proficiency (indicating the consequence of having suitable skills in both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis).
- Publication (including consideration of how best to communicate mixed-methods within word-limits and developing new ways to present data which do not necessarily fit a conventional format).

Bryman (2004) also notes a common drawback of Mixed-methods research as not being justified sufficiently and consequent need for demonstration of methodological congruence. This is consistent with Conostas’ (2004) plea to the world of qualitative researchers to make their research a ‘public event’ such

that assumptions, decisions, analysis and interpretation are transparent and available to all, at all levels (see also Morse, 2010).

The current thesis aspires to cover Cameron's (2011) 'Five Ps', albeit not necessarily simultaneously. Issues alluding to Paradigms are discussed in Chapter 3. Pragmatism is explored in Section A5.3, here. Issues relating to Praxis and Proficiency are covered in Chapters 3, 4 and 5. Finally, throughout the present thesis, issues relating to clear and concise presentation have been considered with reference to Cameron's (2011) concerns surrounding the potentially unwieldy nature of mixed-methods approaches and data in Publication. Diagrammatic representation has therefore been employed where possible to communicate complex interactions between various factors at different levels.

A5.1.3.TRIANGULATION

Shipman (1988) warns that *"Different designs produce very different results and, not surprisingly, researchers seem to choose designs that lead to the results that they expect"* (p. 51). This has the potential to be considered as a rather cynical view. Nonetheless, it is be helpful when addressing research questions relating to evaluative issues, to reflect on what methods have been selected in order to find out about what may be occurring in relation to the process being evaluated. In this way, one may ensure that methods which may risk bias in one direction or another have not been favoured. To this extent, triangulation may provide some reinforced reliability within a study. The term 'triangulation' was originally derived from the nautical process in which two points may be used to determine the distance to a third point (see

Denzin, 1978). Similarly, within research, triangulation refers to the combination of multiple sources to examine the same phenomenon, although the sources may refer to data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation or methodological triangulation. Most relevant to the present study is data (and to some extent methodological) triangulation, or as Cresswell (1995) describes, 'convergence of results'. The interpretation of such results depends on the relative weightings applied to the convergence of qualitative and quantitative data. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) describe a number of different models of how data may be weighted, including dominant-less dominant designs (where dominance refers to either qualitative or quantitative data), designs with multi-level approaches, and equivalent status designs (whereby both findings from quantitative and qualitative analyses are considered as equally important in interpretation). The present study is best described by the latter, with full acknowledgement that there is a risk that the findings from the quantitative analysis of the numerical data and those from the qualitative analysis of the interview data may not be congruent. Indeed, that very risk suggests a clear reason to attempt to triangulate data as it may increase the chances of gaining a more accurate understanding of the phenomenon under investigation than the use of a single data source alone. Brewer and Hunter (1989) argue that, *"Our individual methods may be flawed, but fortunately the flaws are not identical. A diversity of imperfections allows us to combine methods....to compensate for their particular flaws and imperfections (p. 16 – 17).* By triangulating the data collected from numerical data (of different types), and data gained from interviews with different stakeholders involved with the case, (i.e. the planning intervention) in relation to the research questions, it is hoped that a

Logic Model approach to interpretation may provide as accurate a picture as possible.

A5.2 PRAGMATIC APPROACHES.

As with many other phenomena explored in the present thesis, there appears to be a great deal of diversity over what is meant by 'pragmatism' as regards approaches to research. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) emphasise the importance of clarity and transparency over which paradigm may underlie any given researcher's paradigmatic identification of pragmatism in mixed-methods research. They outline six common paradigmatic stances in mixed-methods research, including:

- A-paradigmatic (whereby in applied, real-world settings, paradigms are not considered relevant or important).
- Substantive theory (whereby the theoretical orientations relevant to the subject of study are more important than philosophical paradigms).
- Complementary strengths (whereby mixed-methods are only possible if the methods are kept separate such that the strength of each can be maintained).
- Multiple paradigms (whereby in some designs, multiple paradigms are required to address the question under consideration; a single paradigm may not apply).
- Dialectic (whereby the assumption is that all paradigms offer something and that consideration of multiple paradigms within a study will contribute to a greater understanding of the phenomenon).
- Single paradigm (also known as the 'alternative paradigm stance' according to Greene (2007), which includes pragmatism and critical realism).

In summary, the pragmatic approach underpinning the present study reflects a realist ontology with a pragmatic epistemology reflecting multiple paradigms, to the extent that there are such a multitude of factors which are likely to contribute to any findings that a variety of ostensibly appropriate tools are used in an attempt to identify and understand as many of them as possible. This is carried out with full acknowledgement that there will be factors missed, and perhaps factors misinterpreted. In order to minimise this as far as possible, a rigorous approach has been employed as far as possible throughout the design of the study, and the collection, analysis and interpretation of all of the data.

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APPENDIX 6: PRINCIPLES OF NUMERICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical comparisons were carried out in order to examine whether or not any difference between any of the scores at pre-measure and post-measure was likely to have been accounted for by chance. The data do not meet assumptions for parametric analysis on account of their ordinal (in the case of the scaling) and nominal (in the case of the SDQ and SCHI²⁷) nature (i.e. it cannot be assumed that the scales from which they were derived has an equal interval scale). A statistical comparison of repeated measures (or paired) data sets was therefore carried out using a Wilcoxon Signed Rank test for each comparative set. The Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was considered suitable as it treats the paired data sets (in this case pre- and post-measures for each individual) by examining the difference between them (i.e. $T_1 - T_2$), discarding the sets for which $T_1 - T_2 = 0$, and amalgamating the signed values (i.e. the difference may be positive (e.g. $78 - 76 = +2$) or negative ($96 - 104 = -8$)) into a score, called 'W'. With a sample size of $N = 10$ or greater, the sampling distribution of W approximates the outlines of the normal distribution sufficiently well to allow for the calculation of a Z-ratio. The value of the Z-ratio may be determined as reaching a critical level (i.e. different enough from zero to be 90 or 95% likely to be not due to chance) or not. In the former case, the comparison of the scores at pre- and post-measure would indicate a statistically significant difference. In the latter case it would not. One key caveat to be emphasised in the interpretation and report of numerical data that has been analysed statistically is that the

²⁷ Although the scores on the SDQ and SCHI may look like continuous data, they are composed of scores obtained by attaching numerical value to semantic labels (e.g. 'often', 'sometimes', 'never'). To this extent the data therefore remain nominal in nature and do not meet criteria regarding validity required for parametric statistical analysis.

nature of any effect in relation to its 'chance' of being accurate can never be any greater than cut-off of the p-value against which it is compared. For this reason, it is not possible to reliably say that the results of the statistics show that something *is* the case, but rather than it is 90% or 95% *likely* to be the case. Any interpretation can therefore only draw conclusions to the extent that the findings *suggest* or *indicate* a phenomenon. Ostensibly unwarranted assertions of 'truth' or 'fact' are a commonly-cited criticism of quantitatively analysed research and following Cameron's (2011) call for consideration of such issues as Praxis and Proficiency, transparent identification aimed at avoiding any such potential pitfalls in interpretation are therefore openly recognised.

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APPENDIX 7: PRINCIPLES OF THEMATIC ANALYSIS

Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to the importance of a 'conceptual framework' which provides an opportunity to acknowledge key elements of the system of concepts, beliefs and theories underlying the research at hand. Boyatzis (1998) and Ezzy (2002) present some potential obstacles to Thematic Analysis and considerations for how these may be avoided. The former discusses the risk of projection (although he suggests that the risk of this is exacerbated in analysis of latent, as opposed to semantic (e.g. Braun & Clarke, 2006) or manifest (e.g. Boyatzis, 1998) elements of the data. Among other considerations, Boyatzis mentions the risk of researcher mood to the extent that, with theory driven analysis in particular, researchers may be prone to seeking out only positive examples which confirm their hypothesis. However, this is surely only a risk as far as the integrity of the individual researcher is concerned. Popper (1963) warned against this very type of confirmation bias:

"The most characteristic element in this situation seemed to me the incessant stream of confirmations, of observations which "verified" the theories in question; and this point was constantly emphasised by their adherents. A Marxist could not open a newspaper without finding on every page confirming evidence for his interpretation of history; not only in the news, but also in its presentation — which revealed the class bias of the paper — and especially of course what the paper did not say. The Freudian analysts emphasised that their theories were constantly verified by their "clinical observations." As for Adler, I was much impressed by a personal experience. Once, in 1919, I reported to him a

case which to me did not seem particularly Adlerian, but which he found no difficulty in analyzing in terms of his theory of inferiority feelings, Although he had not even seen the child. Slightly shocked, I asked him how he could be so sure. "Because of my thousandfold experience," he replied; whereupon I could not help saying: "And with this new case, I suppose, your experience has become thousand-and-one-fold."

- Popper, 1963, p. 46.

Within statistically-based quantitative approaches avoidance of confirmation bias can be undertaken by explicitly stating a null hypothesis (i.e. a statement of what would not support the hypothesis in question), and results must be considered with open consideration of how this alternative hypothesis may equally account for them. Similarly, Robson (1993) states that within thematic analysis, evidence must be treated fairly and without bias, with transparent consideration of alternative potential explanations. Nonetheless, Miles and Huberman (1994) do acknowledge that the way in which particular elements of Interview data are selected for analysis is dependent on the orientation and interest of the individual researcher, noting that, *"What you 'see' in a transcription is necessarily selective"* (p. 56). This is not necessarily problematic, as long as it is clearly acknowledged, and as long as the process of analysis is transparent, stating what was done and how (e.g. Attride-Stirling, 2001) and what the decision points in the analytical process were (e.g. Braun & Clarke, 2006). Moreover, studies incorporating a thematic component are increasingly recognised as providing context for social interventions which is crucial in systematic reviews in order to make them of use to social policy makers (Baxter, Killaron, Kelly & Goyder, 2010).

A7.1 PROCESS

In its essence, thematic analysis provides a process of guiding a researcher through ways to observe, encode and interpret Interview data (Boyatzis, 1998) by exploring patterns of meaning within it, and drawing inferences from these about the wider context of the data corpus as a whole (e.g. Braun & Clarke, 2006). This is carried out by initially identifying units of meaning within the textual data (interview transcript or other pre-existing documentation), a process commonly termed 'coding'²⁸. At their most basic, codes are 'labels' or 'tags' that can be used to assign meaning to information compiled in a study (e.g. Miles and Huberman, 1994), or even more simply, *"a symbol applied to a group of words to classify or catergorise them"* (Robson, 1993, p.385). The nature of the codes depends on a number of factors relating to the nature of the study and the epistemological position of the researcher(s).

A7.1.2. DECISION POINTS

The first decision point to be made which will impact on the way in which the process of coding is undertaken and how it manifests in practice, is whether or not the data is to be treated at a semantic (manifest, overt; Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006) level, or at a latent or implicit level. This refers to the depth of analysis (whereby latent analysis that extends beyond the meanings of the words themselves) may illuminate something more fundamental about the data) and also to the availability of the link between the process of analysis and the interpretations or conclusions presented to

²⁸ There is a fair degree of inconsistency in the literature surrounding thematic analysis in the use of terminology. Where Boyatzis (1998) appears to use the terms, 'code', 'catergory' and 'theme' somewhat interchangeably, Saldana (2009) explicitly distinguishes between 'code', 'category' and 'theme'.

readers (which is more explicit within analysis at a manifest or semantic level). Within the present study, analysis is carried out from a manifest perspective, although with some flexibility so that there is a degree of interpretation about the meaning of the utterances beyond the literal word content (i.e. allowing for multiple meanings of words). Recognition of this and the rationale behind it in the case of each data chunk relating to each code is reflected by presenting a degree of additional context around the quotes comprising the data chunks. Analysis of the data at a manifest level was considered to be most suitable to addressing the research questions at hand. Furthermore, codes may occur at different levels, whereby the name of the code can be: 'in vivo' (quoting the participant's exact words), 'descriptive' (developing a name which describes the content of the key meaning), or 'inferential' (exploring at a level deeper than the meanings of the words) (e.g. Saldaña, 2009). The initial codes developed within the present study were generated at both the 'in vivo' and 'descriptive' levels.

A second key decision point in thematic analysis is whether or not coding is to take place in a top-down (theory-driven or inductive) way, or a bottom-up (data-driven or deductive way). The former approach is at its most extreme driven by looking for codes within the data that are set out in advance of the process of analysis (a priori), and which are derived from the literature surrounding the topic of study; in this sense the task is to make sense of the data in a way which fits pre-determined avenues of exploration. The latter, bottom-up approach relies, at its most extreme, on the premise that the patterns do not exist within the data but that they can emerge as a function of the interaction between the individual researcher and the text. Within

bottom-up approaches to thematic analysis, codes are generated throughout the process and the data “chunks” (i.e. individual quotes) and allocated to each code over time. A pragmatic approach to the thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) allows a middle ground between the top-down: bottom up dichotomy, and as such *“a rejection of the either-or at all levels of the research process”* (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010b, p.16). Within the present research there were clear areas of interest in terms of the content of the interviews (as evidenced by the research sub-questions presented in Chapter 2), although codes were not generated a priori. This allowed for the identification of a number of unexpected codes and patterns of meaning within the data as well as exploration in reference to key elements of interest. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that, *“The challenge [with data retrieval] is to be explicitly mindful of the purposes of your study and of the conceptual lenses that you are training on it – while allowing yourself to be open and re-educated by things you didn’t know about or expect to find”* (p. 56).

A7.1.3 DEVELOPING CODES

Decisions about what constitutes a data “chunk” worthy of a code are difficult to delineate. Cresswell (2007) highlights the simple, yet key question, *‘what strikes you?’* (p. 18), in initially identifying codes. Miles and Huberman (1994) astutely note that in the beginning stages of data exploration, before codes have been generated (assuming that they have not been developed a priori) it is not possible to know what is going to be most relevant, which means that initially everything is equally relevant. Bazeley (2007) suggests that the second transcript coded should be as different as possible to the

first so that new and different (and potentially conflicting, to encourage consideration of alternative explanations) codes may begin to emerge from the outset. The cyclical nature of thematic analysis allows refinement of codes at recurring stages throughout the process. The crux of the process is to explore or investigate patterns of meaning within the text(s) so that over time, data “chunks” which are grouped by some manner of commonality or similarity, are clustered together within the developing codes²⁹. The codes themselves are thus likely to develop dramatically over time, with some being collapsed together into a single code, some being split into more than one code, some having the names adapted to be more relevant and some being discarded altogether. This is especially likely given the prevalent advice that initial ideas about coding may begin during and immediately after data collection (e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994; Robson, 1993; and Saldana, 2009), and transcription (e.g. Braun & Clarke, 2006; Ezzy, 2002), as the boundaries between codes are likely initially to be ‘fuzzy’ (e.g. Tesch, 1990). The cycling and iterative nature of coding may result in a number of code incarnations, which Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to as 1st, 2nd and 3rd level codes and so on. This process may occur as a result of what Grbich (2007) calls codifying, which involves grouping and regrouping 1st generation codes and shaping them into ‘families’. These families may constitute 2nd generation codes, and so on. This can be particularly helpful for those researchers who have a very large number of initial codes as a result of their tendency to split the meanings of their individual “data chunks” into small

²⁹ It is important to note however that the process of coding is not necessarily synonymous with analysis, although it is a crucial element (e.g. Basit, 2003).

sections, each allocated to a code. Saldana (2009) describes such researchers as 'splitters', and distinguishes between those and 'lumpers', who may allocate only a single code to a larger "data chunk". Saldana suggests that 'splitters' may have access to a more careful examination of the social action represented in the data than might the 'lumpers', although the approaches of the latter are more expedient and less overwhelming. It seems to be the case that researchers carrying out a thematic analysis for the first time are more likely to fall into the 'splitter' than the 'lumper' category, as a result of an eagerness to be thorough and rigorous, but not without significant time and anxiety costs.

A7.1.5 BUILDING THEORY

Having coded and recoded the data, and refined the codes accordingly, the next step is to build up from codes to theory by comparing and consolidating, and thereby shaping the data into concepts. Coding, "*generates the bones of your analysis.....[I]ntegration will assemble those bones into a working skeleton*" (Charmaz, 2006, p.45). This integration and 'skeleton' thus provides the concepts on which higher-level and abstract constructs are built (Richards & Morse, 2007), and it is the way in which the systematic interrelation between these themes and constructs is demonstrated that constitutes the basis for theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). It is worth noting that even at the top end of this process, recoding and refinement of codes may continue to rumble on. Towards the end of the process, having organised the data in a meaningful and increasingly theoretical way, the researcher should ideally find themselves with a number of themes (overarching constructs and concepts that account for large portions of the

codes, and underlying those, the “data chunks”). These may comprise a number of sub-themes, but in essence, a theme should be the lowest common denominator of commonality for a portion of the data. There is variation in the suggested ‘ideal’ number of themes, including between five and seven (Lichtman, 2006), between five and six (Cresswell, 2007) and three as the ‘most elegant quantity’ (Wolcott, 1994), but Saldaña (2009) diplomatically states that, “*The final number of major themes or concepts should be held to a minimum to keep the analysis coherent, but there is no standardised or magical number to achieve*” (p. 21).

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UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ETHICS APPLICATION FORM FOR STAFF AND POSTGRADUATE RESEARCHERS

A.6 Briefly summarise the project's aims, objectives and methodology?

The aim of the proposed study is to investigate whether an intervention based on exploring the reasons underlying children's behaviour difficulties in schools has an impact on their outcomes. There is a large body of research based on small scale qualitative studies which suggests that exploring behaviour can improve outcomes for children in schools, but there are few, if any, larger quantitative studies investigating this. Furthermore, there is little research which allows investigation of whether previous reports of a positive impact on behaviour reflect the exploration of underlying reasons themselves, or simply an impact of increased attention to target setting and a structured discussion resulting in clearly defined and measurable targets. The present study therefore aims to evaluate the impact of two models of intervention on outcomes for children with behaviour difficulties: one which promotes exploration of the reasons underlying behaviour and one which provides a clearly structured discussion and which does not but which also relies on a structured discussion and results in clear actions. Outcomes for children randomly allocated to these two intervention groups will be compared with outcomes for children randomly allocated to 'Wait-List Control' group. The children assigned to the latter group will be able to access the most successful intervention at a later date.

Outcomes for children will be measured by comparing their scores on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) taken before the intervention (pre-measure) and after the intervention (post-measure). The SDQ can be completed by parents and teachers (or key school staff working with a given child) and also by children over the age of eight years (see Muris, Meesters, Eijkenelenboom and Vincken, 2004).

Statistical comparison of the pre- and post-measures on the SDQ can only provide a numerical affirmation or negation that outcomes appear to be significantly improved for children in any of the three groups. A second stage of research will therefore be conducted, which aims to provide elaboration on what features of the two interventions may have been facilitators or limiters for improving outcomes for children. Semi-structured interviews will be carried out with a proportion of the key members of school staff involved in the study, and will also aim to explore the extent to which these interventions are perceived to be implementable and sustainable in schools.

A graphical representation providing an overview of the design of the proposed study can be found in Appendix 1.

A.7 What is the potential for physical and/or psychological harm / distress to participants?

There is no reason to believe that any aspect of the proposed study will cause any physical harm or distress to any party involved.

There is no reason to believe that any aspect of the interventions proposed will cause any psychological distress to any party involved per se. There will be no contact between the researcher and the children involved in the study; the interventions and administration of the SDQs will be carried out by school staff who know each child. In this sense, the proposed interventions do not entail any process which is radically different than what would be carried out in school under normal circumstances.

The intervention in which reasons underlying behaviour are explored makes it explicit that any hypotheses generated are no more than this and any recording of the process will state this overtly. The processes supported by this intervention based on principles of the Department for Education's latest Intervention Development Plan (IDP) for addressing behaviour in schools. In this sense, the exploration of reasons underlying behaviour is a strategy endorsed by the government.

There is a relatively great time-cost for schools in taking part in the proposed research as it requires attendance at training, implementation and use of an evaluation tool (the SDQ in this case). The time-costs are made explicit to participating schools and their key members of staff so that they are able to make a decision to participate or not before beginning. As recompense they are offered the professional training in the two intervention methods free of charge and it is aimed that these tools will be of use to them in supporting children with behavioural difficulties in the future, rendering them sustainable in the longer term. Follow-up support will also be offered to all participating schools following training so that any concerns which they may have about the implementation of the interventions may be addressed. The training will be of the highest possible quality and will observe ethical principles for informants supporting children about whom there are behavioural concerns. Furthermore, both approaches are well recognised and have been previously researched within educational psychology research literature.

A.8 Does your research raise any issues of personal safety for you or other researchers involved in the project?

There is no reason to suspect that there will be any potential for the personal safety of either myself or anybody else involved in the proposed research to be compromised above and beyond what they would normally encounter in supporting children with behavioural difficulties.

A.9 How will potential participants in the project be (i) identified, (ii) approached and (iii) recruited?

The schools to be included in the proposed study are the primary schools with whom myself and my supervisor already work. Two members of staff will be asked to volunteer to take part in the study and will have access to information about time- costs, role and the training.

The schools will be asked to identify all children who meet the criteria for inclusion in the study (i.e. they will have an Individual Education Plan around behaviour which has been reviewed at least twice and behaviour persisting despite strategies implemented in school to address it). Schools will be asked to disseminate information about the proposed study to parents of these children and the children themselves and to ask for parental consent for themselves and their children to take part in the study, with their data fully anonymised.

The children for whom there is parental consent for inclusion will then be randomly allocated into one of three groups by the researcher: the exploration of behaviour group, the target specification and monitoring group or the Wait-List-Control group.

Given that there will be staff in each school trained in each of the two intervention conditions, the children in the Wait-List Control group will have access to the interventions at a later date. Staff will be provided with training materials in case they wish to further disseminate the two interventions to the rest of the staff team. There is currently no empirical evidence which provides information about effect size of either of the two interventions and so a control group is necessary, but it is not necessarily the case that they will be worse off for not having had initial access to either of the interventions.

A.10 Will informed consent be obtained from the participants?

YES

NO

If informed consent or consent is not to be obtained please explain why. You may want to consult Section 2.4.3 of the University's Ethics Policy or the guidance fact-sheet on consent at:

http://cms.shef.ac.uk/content/1/c6/03/25/85/ethics_guidance_consent.pdf

A.10.1 This question is only applicable if you are planning to obtain informed consent:

How do you plan to obtain informed consent? (i.e. the proposed process?):

Informed consent from the school will be sought by presenting members of Senior Management with clear information about the purposes and design of the study, as well as a clear outline of the potential time-costs and roles of staff members taking part. A series of boxes on the consent form will ask Senior Management to confirm that they understand each of the above factors.

Staff members taking part will also have access to this information before agreeing to take part. They will also be informed that they may or may not be asked to take part in a semi-structured interview at a later date, A series of boxes on the consent form will ask staff members and to confirm that they understand each of the above factors and to ask them whether they would be happy to take part in an interview at a later date.

Parents will have access to information about the purposes and design of the study. It will also be made explicit that the allocation of individual children to each group will be carried out on a random basis by the researcher and that should their child not be in either of the intervention groups, they will have access to the most successful intervention at a later date. A series of boxes on the consent form will ask parents to confirm that they understand each of the above factors.

Children taking part in the study will have access to an accessible version of the information presented to the school and parents which will state that they are being asked to take part in a study in which people are trying to find ways to help them with their behaviour. They will be told that they will be asked to

fill in two forms (which they can do with the support of an adult if they would like). A series of boxes on the consent form will ask Senior Management to confirm that they understand each of the above factors.

All of the consent forms will make it explicit that any participants will be free to withdraw from the study at any time and that their data will remain anonymous, although that once the data has been aggregated and analysed they will no longer be able to withdraw it. A series of boxes on the consent form will ask school staff to confirm that they understand each of these factors.

A.11 What measures will be put in place to ensure confidentiality of personal data, where appropriate?

The paper copies of the SDQs and the interview recordings and transcriptions will be retained in a locked cabinet in a secure location (the Educational Psychology ServiceBase). The data entered into the IT programmes for analysis will be coded so as not to reveal any information about individual schools, members of staff, parents or children. The electronic raw data will be stored on a secure Local Authority computer only and will be destroyed following completion of the researcher's doctoral programme.

A.12 Will financial / in kind payments (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to participants?

(Indicate how much and on what basis this has been decided)

YES

N
O

APPENDIX 9: EXAMPLE TRANSCRIPT – ANNOTATED.

Interview 6 – BM

14th December 2011

GA – Lead Behaviour Coordinator – TME/FA. (7:48)

	1 st Generation Codes	2 nd Generation Codes	Themes
JW: So, we're back here in December, and you started			
the project back in, around June time?			
GA: Um...yes, I think it was wasn't it.			
JW: Wonderful. And just...um...overall, how do you			
feel it's gone?			
GA: Um...I think it's gone really well. Um...I really...the children we've seen, I think in all of the children in my group there's been an improvement...and with some it's been bigger than others....but...and I think it's been really good.	Improvement (varied in amount) Really good	Positive impact. No difference in emo well-being. Useful/helpful.	Impacts for children. Limitations on impact. Outcomes of plans/process.
JW: Brilliant. What, um...what part of it do you think			
has been the bit that made a difference?			
GA: Um....I think that action plan really helped to analyse the children's	Action plan helped analyse behaviour.	Looking at why was helpful Things might not	Elements of plan. Elements of process.

<p>behaviour...Um...,and looking at the functions in their behaviour ...um...so you could, you get like a background of why...and also it brought up things that you maybe wouldn't think about. We felt, sort of going through those steps and going through the ideas that are on it...if you just had a meeting without that you'd kind of....I think you'd be a bit more stuck as to what might be the underlying issues, and things like that.</p>	<p>Things might not have thought of.</p> <p>Going through ideas</p> <p>Going through steps</p> <p>Things might not think about.</p>	<p>have thought about.</p> <p>Plan: logical/clear process.</p>	
<p>JW: That's brilliant, thank you very much indeed that's really helpful. Um...in terms of the action plan itself, you talked about kind of looking at the functions of behaviour, is there anything else in the action plan, on the format, that was helpful?</p>			
<p>GA: Um...I think...I do, I really liked the scale...um...the way that where you could put where they are, predict it, and then review it – that's helped. Um....the part, ah, I can't think what it was called, the part after the functions of behaviours, where you looked at like what you'd already put in place and what different things...coz you looked at the environment, and that...that bit was...I think with some it</p>	<p>Scale helped (predict and review).</p> <p>Look at what's already been tried and not worked.</p> <p>More helpful for some than others [strategies]</p>	<p>Scale was useful.</p> <p>Look at what's already been done.</p> <p>Limited difference in emotional well-being.</p>	<p>Elements of plan.</p> <p>Elements of process.</p> <p>Limitations on difference.</p>

<p>was more helpful than with others...um...but with some of them, like, a lot of things had already been tried out and not worked so we were able to discuss that and look at what else we could do, and ...within each of those areas...</p>			
<p>JW: So you were using it almost as a kind of excluding other options coz they hadn't been done before....?</p>			
<p>GA: Yeah,,,,,</p>			
<p>JW: Ok, that's great. Thank you. Um...in terms of um..outcomes for children, how do you feel this has helped them...impacted on the individual kids?</p>			
<p>GA: Um...I mean, I've got one particular boy who ...very quite angry, and potential to get violent, and, I mean, the last couple of weeks we've for example had two really good weeks. We've had a little hiccups, but nothing sort of major. SO, I think that as an example was really good.</p>	<p>Recent improvement in behaviour (anger/violence).</p>	<p>Positive impacts on children: behaviour specifically.</p>	<p>Impacts for children.</p>
<p>JW: And what do you think, if you could think about with him, could have made the difference?</p>			
<p>GA: Um...I think just being able to look at what, why we think he was doing it, and...which then gave us the different ideas of what we could do with him....with what we could put in</p>	<p>Helped look at why we though he was doing it. What we could do about it. Strategies seem to be working.</p>	<p>Thinking about why behaves as does. Leads to targeted intervention Positive impact on children.</p>	<p>Elements of Process. Impacts for children. Elements of plan.</p>

<p>place....when obviously they've been put in to place and sort of, they seem to be working with him, so...</p>			
<p>JW: That's brilliant. Thank you, I know you've done a brilliant job with these. Um...In terms of the whole, the whole process, so the planning format, all of that, is there any part of it that's not gone so well or not been so helpful?</p>			
<p>GA: Um...I don't think there's any, there's anything on here that's not helpful, I think it all helps. Um...I think sometimes it's harder to plan when you don't know the children's views - you don't know how they're feeling and also with some of em, you may put things in place that they don't react too well to, like you might have put something in place like saying, to talk to the child but a lot of children, they might not want to talk straight away, so obviously not having...them, not being involved I think haswith some of them it sort of hindered it a bit coz</p>	<p>All helpful. Harder when don't know child's views (can hinder helpfulness).</p>	<p>Useful/helpful. Limitations. Children's views.</p>	<p>Outcomes of process/plan. Limitations on impact. Elements of process.</p>
<p>JW: So have you sort of got plans for how you would kind of do that differently?</p>			
<p>GA: I think yeah, I think having the children involved is...just ask them how they feel things are</p>	<p>In future would have children involved (their views, ideas, rewards).</p>	<p>Children's views.</p>	<p>Elements of process</p>

going and have them get their ideas of what rewards they would like			
JW: That's brilliant, thank you. In terms of the future of this sort of work, obviously this project has come to an end now in terms of our work together on it, what are your plans for next steps?			
GA: Um...We're planning on using the format of the action plan. Um...the head's asked us, me and Kirsten if we'd be able to carry it on with just some new children, and also to sort of keep up with what we're doing with the children that were already involved in the project. Um...so we're gonna be using it within school, um, to hopefully pick up some more children, and have a good effect on them as well.	Plan to continue using tool within school. Good effect on children.	Continue/Persevere. Positive impact on children.	Wider implications. Impacts for children.
JW: Brilliant. And will you do anything differently? I mean you've talked about getting the children's views, is there anything else that you'll use in terms of?			
GA: Um...we've got the children's pupil discussion form , and the cards, um...and have used...coz we've already started a bit of work with like some new children I have used that with a couple and it's really good. It is,...	Tools for gaining children's views are helpful.	Children's views.	Elements of process.

<p>JW: Brilliant. Has that fed into the meetings that go afterwards around the planning?</p>			
<p>GA: Yeah, yeah it has, and you're able...the children can tell you about their behaviour and I like the way they can describe it using the cards and you get, you get their...they're able to tell you what they, um...what helps and what doesn't help, and that...really...I think that does make a difference to um..then what you put in place on the plan.</p>	<p>Children's views impact on what goes into the plan.</p>	<p>Children's views.</p>	<p>Elements of process.</p>
<p>JW: That's brilliant. Wonderful. And, last question...in terms of carrying on in the future what could, um..I, or any other Educational Psychologist do to support with that?</p>			
<p>GA: Um... I think, just like being there as a backup...kind of thing. Um...for, coz obviously there's..there are times when you do the plans with the children, about the children, and you kind of...you know what the behaviour is, and you know what the issues are but you don't know what to do with them, you don't know what sort of things to put into place, or who's best to do it with them. So, it's quite nice to be able to come to you and then have input that way.</p>	<p>EP as backup. EP support when not sure of next step.</p>	<p>EP support: Reassurance.</p>	<p>Staff self-efficacy.</p>

JW: So, is it just kind of around discussing it?			
GA: Yeah, I think so, yeah.			
JW: Do you think that would sort of give you guys just reassurance about what you're doing anyway.			
GA: Yeah. To make sure you're doing the right thing and...	Make sure doing right thing.	EP Support: Reassurance.	Staff self-efficacy.
JW: That;s brilliant. Thank you so much. Is there anything else that you feel would be helpful to add, or anything else you wanted to say?...just general thoughts?			
GA: I think...I think we've covered it. Well, I think, I think it is a really good....uh...and I think it does, it has helped with what we're doing, with all the childrens we've worked with, and I think it's down to the way it's all set out and everything so...yeah.	Helped with the children. Down to way it's set out.	Positive Impact on Children. Plan: Logical/Clear process.	Impacts for children. Elements of plan.
JW: Brilliant, Well thank you very much once again G for being such a star all the way through - much appreciated.			
GA: That's ok.			

APPENDIX 10: EXAMPLE COLLATION OF CODES BY SUB-THEME AND THEME.

Impacts

Impacts for children

Examples of progress

KL:given him...um...to show for comfortable and uncomfortable...um...he just...I find he'll walk past me now in the corridor, 'Hello Mrs L...my day is really good today'. Or, 'I've had a bit of a rubbish day'. So he's kind of appealing to...

JW: Oh that's wonderful...

KL: ...to be spoken to, which...you know, as much as I've always known him, sort of through school, probably since, well, since Reception coz he's in my daughter's year...he's...apart from when I've used to work with him on the playground, he's not really spoken to me very much...he'd say hello to me, 'Hi Mrs L', but now he, like daily, he'll walk past me in the corridor..and ...'Am I gonna see you later today?'...and he'll ask, and those sort of things, and I ...I do genuinely think, in some ways it's making his school day...

JW: Well, he said to me...

KL:...bearable... (BM3J)

KL:and um...I do....you can kind of see it in him, and he's, I mean he...we were talking about...coz he needed to win everything, and it was...um....the end of the world if he didn't win, and he went for school captain, and we'd been talking about that and I said, 'If you don't get it, it doesn't matter'. I said, 'the fact that you're about to stand up in front of the rest of the school and put your point, issues across, that's fantastic.'

JW: Would he have done that previously?

KL: Possibly not. Not unless he was guaranteed to get a result and he's...like he stood up and he didn't get the school captain but he got vice captain, which, [incomprehensible] I mean I said, 'How do you feel about it?'. 'That's alright', he said, 'It's something', he said, 'but I do think I achieved something by standing up and...' (BM3J)

And he actually sources me out though to tell me good things thatbecause he...like, because I've picked up more children, I spend less and less time with him

and I didn't want to spend too much time with him anyway, with him being a Year 6, I was kind of, I don't want to be in your pocket the whole time (BM9D)

he's in school every day now. I don't actually remember the last time he was ill. He had a moment a few months back when he was in the hall and he was just, something had changed...he likes everything organised and someone wasn't sitting next to him and he was in a bit of state but he actually sat there, and I could see him looking at me across the hall, and he went, 'can I leave'? . And I just sat out with him, round like where we've got the blackboards, and I sat out there and we talked about it.....Before he would have just gone into a meltdown and probably just sat there and cried, and then, the rest of the afternoon, he would have gone....and he would have been ill, and ...and then he probably wouldn't have come in the next day. Whereas, by the end of the afternoon, he was smiling, and he was doing ...back in his class, and actually saying, it doesn't matter, it's not the end of the world is it, and it's like....no, it's not and it's great that you think like that, and ...when I walked past his classroom the other day he's like, Hi mrs L, I'm having a fantastic day (BM9D)

Yes, because...really quite anecdotal stuff at the moment, but children will ask for their key adult. Um...particularly in the afternoons, particularly after lunchtime often, or first thing in the morning, depending on what their particular circumstances are. But they...I'll meet them in the corridor and they'll say to me, have you seen ...when you see her can you ask her to pop in and chat with me this afternoon please? So, yeah, on that level. (BM12D)

So, yeah, it is good. But, and also, now he can have more of a discussion about whether he feels he's met those targets, which is great, coz I'll say, right, let's talk about this one, and read it out, well do you think you've met it? Well, no, or yes, or partly, so we kind of discuss and we decide together how, you know, how he should be rewarded with his time, and stuff, so...yeah. (BM13D)

Yeah, which is nicer, and also, if he does have an outburst, we can...I mean, sometimes you just have to send him out, say you need to go out and you need to bounce, or whatever, but actually everybody's like that in a situation sometimes, and it's much better that he's not, um...lashing out so much. We have had a couple of incidents, but it is much better, which is good. And he, he can talk things through and understand things a bit more, which is....good. (BM13D)

Well, yeah, oh definitely, there's already been some progress and, as we said, we've only done it a little while, but I'm definitely already seeing one of my obviously less facial ticks and twitches and things like that. And also, the concentration of one of mine is much better. (KF14D)

JW: 'I felt relaxed'.

TH: Um...yeah, a lot.

JW: Ok, brilliant. Is that different? Were you as relaxed before?

TH: Yeah, I've been sort of relaxed. Yeah, coz I....coz we're doing like SATS and trying to relax so I don't over-react.

JW: That's brilliant. So, is that something new that you've been doing?

TH: Yeah, coz when we were in year 5, they told us about SATS then, and I was like, 'wooah'.

JW: Right. And is there something that you're teachers have been doing that's been helping you to relax?

TH: Well, we've done this like test week, but it wasn't the real SATS, but they did last year's (KF18D)

Well, I think, I think it is a really good....uh...and I think it does, it has helped with what we're doing, with all the children we've worked with, and I think it's down to the way it's all set out and everything so...yeah. (BM6D)

Yeah, where they think they've come in it, and ...but...I mean, the ones I've been with, I mean, I do ...I've definitely seen a difference in them. And I'm hoping that ...as I say, from what I've spoken to the teachers about with this, they've seen a like...a massive improvement in them...so... (BM9D)

I think. So...yeah, it's made a big difference, I think, it's (BM9D)

.....E was at a three for his emotions.....and by half term I wanted him to be at seven, and he's easily at a seven. I'd say he's even touching eight. (BM9D)

Yeah, but yeah, and the concentration, there's definitely been a change. (KF14D)

Behaviour specifically

I've got one particular boy who ...very quite angry, and potential to get violent, and, I mean, the last couple of weeks we've for example had two really good weeks. We've had a little hiccups, but nothing sort of major (BM6D)

JW: Ok, brilliant. Thank you. Um...in terms of kind of outcomes for the children, what has been your experience, in terms of kind of...do you know kind of if TH has been able to make any progress?

MF: Yes, he has, yeah. He's shouting out less in class, more focussed on what he's up to. (KF17D)

CN: *There is...there is...I mean it's not completely cured, and I...you know, but I don't think that's what it's for anyway....*

JW: *No, no it's not.*

CN: *But it's definitely helped. There's been much less outbursts but they obviously are still there. (BM13D)*

Emotional well-being specifically

KL: *Yeah, and the maths challenge that ..um...he recently went on, I mean, they didn't win, but we put the positive spin on that, but, you know, you haven't won, but at the same time, I said, 'look what you've achieved'. I said, 'you got into the finals and it's the first time BM's been in the finals.....'*

JW: *Wow...*

KL: *'...and you're part of that...', and those sort of things, and...he does look so much more positive...(BM3J)*

...but the little bit of time that I've spent with him, and just seeing how he is presenting himself, I would say he's jumped up a couple...already...and probably the same with B, she just seems so much happier (BM3J)

But then G's child I do know, and I think that will help him ...it is just that fact that it ...it was a lot simpler with Kirsten because of K's chld...G's was...I felt awful because he has got a lot more underlying type issues of a more emotional ...but we didn't know how emotional but he's going to have certain things put in place for him, and I think, like I say, that will all come into practice next year. And they have both seemed a lot more happy , so hopefully... (BM5J)

As long as we're polite andand....but he's always got a smile on his face and he's feeling really positive about N W, and that was one of our targets, to get him positive about the transition. Coz he was kind of like, well I don't really know. And now he talks, oh I can't wait, just bring it on. So, I mean, we are top end of the scale with him, so.... (BM9D)

KL: *L....where was L? We wanted her three to four, and she was right down on a one. Same with B, B's was very similar, but L, as I say, four to five, emotionally. Um...because she is more confident. She'll come to the Burrow on her own, or with a friend.*

JW: *And before would she....?*

KL: Before, she would just sit on the bench for most of lunchtime. And, again, didn't really come into school a lot, wasn't around very much. And then, she'd come back in and be sat there and now she's coming in and she's participating in lessons, her hand's going up more...Um...L probably spends more time with Liberty than I do now, but she'll come over and she's messing around, running around and B, the same. I mean, B had...what we figured out with B after we did this, because really, sort of, my meeting with M around B was quite quick. But what we found with B when me and L started working with her, she was very self conscious about her body. So she started coming to us to get changed for PE. She wouldn't get changed in the classroom. But she still comes over and changes which is fine, if that's what makes her comfortable. But she wouldn't, she didn't want to participate in PE, but now when she comes to the Burrow, she's playing basketball and running around, but she wouldn't run around or do any of that before. So, B, I'd say.....yeah, she was a one, one for the currently, and I would say she's around I'd even say, six. So she's come on leaps and bounds. And really, B, we didn't get started on until beginning of July, (BM9D)

because she's been able to develop as her own person, rather than developing into...in someone else's shadow I think. (BM9D)

General progress

Um...I think it's gone really well. Um...I really...the children we've seen, I think in all of the children in my group there's been an improvement...and with some it's been bigger than others....but...and I think it's been really good.(BM6D).

And actually, the stuff that she does with him he brings into class as well and so it doesn't just help him, it helps everyone. And I've seen a big change in him from the beginning of the year to now (BM8D)

To be honest, no, actually. IT's all, it's all helped me identify places I need to take D, and it's helped him enormously, I can't...I think without it he would be very lost (BM8D)

JW: Is it something that you'd like to do, kind of more actively? Or at the moment is it just too much?

CN: At the moment, no. But yes, eventually. I think it's quite....it is good, um...yeah, to have, yeah, to help with children who have kind of difficulties with emotions and stuff, and it honestly has worked.(BM13D)

Well, yeah, oh definitely, there's already been some progress and, as we said, we've only done it a little while, but I'm definitely already seeing one of my

obviously less facial ticks and twitches and things like that. And also, the concentration of one of mine is much better. (KF14D)

Children's Views on progress

JW: Ok. And, absolute last thing...thinking about some of the things that you might have been finding difficult before, are you finding them any easier now?

E: Yeah.

JW: How are you finding them easier?

E: Yeah, quite a lot easier.

JW: Brilliant. And,um..where in school is it easier?

E: Um...probably it makes science and PE easier.

JW: Brilliant. Do you know why?

E: I don't know...but um...it's especially been PE. (BM2J)

JW: Yeah? So, I just wanted to find out what you think about it, how helpful you think it is – do you think it's helped you? That sort of thing. So, uh, first of all do you want to tell me what's going really well at the moment.

DB: Uh, um...my lessons.

JW: Yeah? What's good about them?

DB: Uh, I get to sit near people I want, and work with people.

JW: That's brilliant. And is that a new thing? Has that changed?

DB: [Nods]. (BM7D).

JW: Brilliant. That's really good D. And, does that make you happier?

DB: Yeah. (BM7D).

JW: Yeah? What's going particularly well?

ATG: Um...just....um...not falling out with my friends so much. (BM10D)

JW: Ok, brilliant. 'I concentrated'.

TH: Yeah, a lot.

JW: Brilliant. 'I felt sick'.

TH: Um....I disagree....yeah, no

JW: Is that ever something that you find hard, to concentrate?

TH: No, never really. (KF18D)

JW: So you were shouting out the answer?

TH: Yeah.

JW: Ok, and has anything changed since?

TH: well, I have, I have stopped it. It's only like, like one in a million now.

JW: Right. So every so often it happens but not all the time?

TH: Yeah. (KF18D)

JW: That's really good. And does that make you happier?

TH: Yeah.

JW: Yeah? And does that mean you're not in trouble so much?

TH: Yeah, I'm in trouble...sometimes in trouble but a little bit...but not like serious trouble if you know what I mean. It's just like, no no no, don't do that. I'm not like, in deep trouble where I have to go to the headmaster or something. (KF18D)

JW: Yeah? Brilliant. So, do you feel, if I gave you three choices...I'm gonna ask you a question and you can say yes, no, or a little bit, do you feel like you've been getting better at concentrating in lessons?

CC: Yeah.

JW: Yes? Oh that's really good. And do you feel...same thing, yes, no or a little bit, do you feel like you've got better at doing more work during lessons?

CC: A little bit. (KF19D)

JW: A little bit? Ok, and what sorts of things have helped you with that?

CC: Bead strings, number lines, um...I've forgot what those square things are now...number square.

JW: Number square, oh that's really good. So those things are helping you?

CC: Yeah.

JW: And so you like coming to school and you feel happy in school?

CC: Yeah. And cal....caltulators... (KF19D).

