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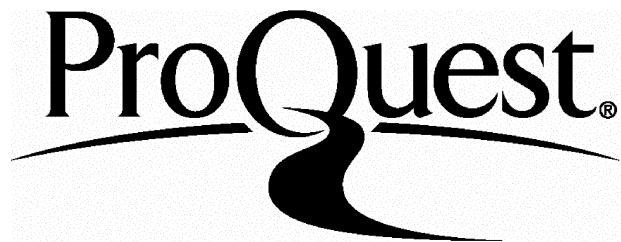
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Abstract

This research took place within a 2-year behaviour improvement programme, led by the Educational Psychology Service, with school-based coordinators in 7 primary and 1 secondary schools. The programme worked to increase the clarity of school rules, improve classroom management, and review provision for pupils with behaviour problems, as well as improving school ethos, and empowering teachers in behaviour management.

The study examined two hypotheses: firstly that teachers in 'failing' schools would be more likely to offer explanations for pupil problem behaviour focusing on home, community or child factors as opposed to teachers in 'effective' schools who would be more likely to focus on school and teacher factors, and secondly, that the level of implementation of improvement programmes would be a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour. Teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour were surveyed at the outset, and teacher perceptions of the behaviour environment were measured before and after the programme. Levels of implementation were assessed for different subsets of the school populations throughout.

Explanations for pupil problem behaviour showed no difference between teachers in failing and effective schools. Across all schools, teachers showed a significantly higher use of the explanation *Family factors* as a cause for pupil problem behaviour. After the programme, teachers in all schools reported that behaviour had improved in some respect, corroborated by other feedback mechanisms. Implementation levels were found to differ across the schools. In both failing and effective schools, where the program was well implemented, teachers reported significantly more positive outcomes.

Some major elements contributing to implementation and effectiveness are suggested as the coordinators' network, the tailored professional development programme and the external facilitation. Unexpected variations are discussed, and linked to findings of earlier research studies. Recommendations are made for a future EP role in school improvement interventions.

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List of acronyms used in the text

CoP	Code of Practice (SEN)
CSNU	Connexions Service National Unit
BEC	Behaviour Environment Checklist
BEP	Behaviour Environment Plan
DfE	Department for Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DoH	Department of Health
EAZ	Education Action Zone
EBD	Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties
EBDOT	Outreach Teacher for pupils with EBD
EDP	Education Development Plan
EP	Educational Psychologist
ESW	Educational Social Worker
FFI	Framework for Intervention
ISS	Integrated Support Services
LEA	Local Education Authority
LSA	Learning Support Assistant
LTS	Lunchtime Supervisor
MKOB	Milton Keynes, Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire (Connexions)
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
PEP	Principal Educational Psychologist
PRU	Pupil Reintegration Unit
SDP	School Development Plan
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SENCo	Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator
SMT	Senior Management Team (usually in schools the Headteacher, Deputy(ies), Assistant(s), Senior teacher(s))
YOT	Youth Offending Team

Chapter 1 Introduction and research review

1:1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the research and theoretical background to this study on improving teacher behaviour management, and describes the research problem. Disruptive pupil behaviour has a serious impact on young people, in terms of poor attainments and low occupational outcomes, on schools, with lower standards and increased teacher stress, and on communities, which are damaged by anti-social behaviour (Gottfredson et al., 1993). Increasingly Local Education Authorities are sponsoring multi-agency approaches as a more effective way to support schools in addressing these issues, through improved behaviour management systems as well as more rigorous individual casework (Harris and Eden, 2000).

This chapter reviews the thinking about the nature and causes of poor pupil behaviour, and describes the background to current concerns in schools, before looking at how national guidance has impacted locally. This study was informed by research from four main areas. Firstly, the knowledge base on school effectiveness is examined for what is known about effective and failing schools. Next, some processes and principles in school improvement are described. Finally, the application of these principles to improving pupil behaviour is illustrated through key studies of different approaches.

The study will examine whether teacher perceptions of behaviour management changed over the 2 year programme. The nature and extent of any changes will be analysed for each school, and related to evidence of the level of implementation. The relationship between the pre-existing effectiveness of the schools and teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour will also be explored, and discussion of the findings will look at links with the level of implementation and the perceived outcomes.

1:2 BEHAVIOUR DIFFICULTIES IN SCHOOLS

Throughout the past decade the media has presented the behaviour of children and young people as increasingly problematic, with schools a particular focus.

‘Sensationalist reporting of particular incidences of exclusion has encouraged public perceptions of a serious and general decline in standards of behaviour in English schools.’ (Osler, 2000).

Statistics on the frequency, level and trend of behavioural problems are not easy to interpret. There appears to have been a significant increase in reported formal exclusions e.g. between 1995 – 1996 the DfEE (1997) recorded a four-fold increase in permanent exclusions (Harris and Eden, 2000). The number of permanent exclusions in English schools in 1997-1998 was over 12000, and reducing exclusions has remained a key governmental target (Vulliamy and Webb, 2003).

Schools with similar intakes can have very different exclusion rates. Exclusion has been shown to lead to poor long-term outcomes for pupils, resulting in reduced educational attainments, social alienation and increased participation in crime (Harris and Eden, 2000). It is suggested that over 20% of permanently excluded pupils require Social Service intervention, and in some cases Home Office provision because of offending (Vulliamy and Webb, 2003). However, exclusions are a complex concept and may not be a direct reflection, or therefore a valid measure, of worsening pupil behaviour (Watkins and Wagner, 2000).

Data from the 1989 national survey by the Elton Committee of Enquiry suggested that the main concern of teachers, however, has been more about low-level disruptive behaviour, said to be commonplace at all levels of the school system, and a major source of stress, whereas extreme aggression was found to be infrequent. The recommendations within Elton encouraged a focus on realistic objectives:

“There is no aim to eliminate bad behaviour but only to reduce it by good management and the encouragement of positive behaviour.” (P.65)

It might have been timely to follow this report with a national behaviour initiative similar to the literacy strategy (Williams and Daniels, 2000). Indeed the Times newspaper on 22nd February 2001 reported several schools successfully adopting and testing pupils on a

behaviour curriculum. Setting up a national model would be complicated, however, by the continuing debate about the causes of disruptive behaviour.

The nature and causes of disruptive behaviour

Whether behaviour is defined as a problem will depend on a number of factors, including the circumstances of the act, the audience, the timing and the observer (Watkins and Wagner, 2000). Gottfredson et al. (1993) reviewed a range of evidence from longitudinal studies and suggest that misbehaviour in school has both individual and environmental determinants but that “*much disorderly behaviour in schools reflects troubling but stable characteristics of certain individuals*”, with early behaviour problems in some cases predictive of later difficulties continuing into young adulthood. Guidance and legislation now emphasises that severe EBD is a category of special educational needs, with the aim of early identification and provision for troubled pupils, and recognising the contribution of remediable school factors to behaviour difficulties (DfES, 2001). If work is poorly structured or inappropriate, if classroom expectations are unclear, or if school procedures and communication are loose, then the risk of poor behaviour is increased (Gottfredson et al., 1993).

The national background

Following up the Elton report, DfEE Circular 9/94 on The Education of Children with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties, required schools to produce behaviour policies, setting out the expectations for pupil behaviour as well as ways in which staff would encourage appropriate behaviour and discourage inappropriate behaviour, through a system of rewards and sanctions. The 1996 Education Act developed this theme, with school discipline policies to be based on a written statement of general principles, following a consultation process in each school with parents. However, schools were left to develop their own methods or to seek guidance from their LEA on ways of operationalising a behaviour policy. The significance of the task is described by Galvin et al. (1999): “*the importance of schools developing consensus-based inclusive policies based on articulated values, known to all members of the staff community, which are regularly reviewed and modified according to feedback*”.

In 1997, Excellence for all Children - Meeting Special Educational Needs emphasised that unresolved emotional and behavioural difficulties put students at risk of underachievement educationally, as well as in their personal development (DfEE, 1997). Each LEA was required to produce a Behaviour Support Plan to show how schools would be supported in their efforts to maintain appropriate behaviour, and provide for pupils with behaviour difficulties, and the Audit Commission suggested that LEAs were more effective working with schools at the systems level in promoting behaviour management than in casework for individual pupils (DfEE, 1999).

Looking at the individual pupil level, there remained a lack of clarity and consistency in schools about the criteria and procedures for behaviour as a special educational need (Williams and Daniels, 2000). SEN procedures often involved a long process of assessment from support services, through the need to meet thresholds for support, compounded by often insufficient services to meet demand (Daniels and Williams, 2000). The language used within the SEN system ("to meet his needs") illustrates also that this is essentially a reactive rather than a preventative approach. Trends such as the national rise in exclusions and the high numbers of young people leaving school and not in education, employment or training were seen to provide further evidence of problems in the system (DfEE, 1999).

Poor behaviour was a common feature of failing schools and LEAs were instructed to take a more robust approach to schools in special measures and with serious weaknesses (Fisher, 1999). Therefore, with an increasing focus on behaviour management in failing schools, there were more opportunities for educational psychologists to undertake systems level work.

The local context and the Educational Psychology Service

The LEA inspection by Ofsted and the Audit Commission had shown that although the response to schools in difficulty was improving, there was still need for further co-ordination of support (Ofsted, 2000). Guidance produced following this included a role for educational psychologists overseeing the progress of schools 'subject to special measures' or 'having serious weaknesses' particularly where SEN or behaviour was an issue.

Nationally, the Green Paper on Special Educational Needs emphasised the need for psychologists to move away from an emphasis on statutory assessment work to supporting general classroom practice (DfEE, 1997). The Report of the Educational Psychology Working group, established as one of the outcomes of this Green Paper (DfEE, 2000a; DfEE, 2000b), suggested more effective uses for educational psychology time working within the whole-school system. This move away from individual assessment was generally welcomed by educational psychologists, and reflected in an increase in specialist posts in school improvement and behaviour management.

EPs have since worked on supporting schools in difficulty to audit their special educational needs support, behaviour management and attendance. EPs have also contributed to staff development and to the establishment of systems for inter-agency liaison. The contribution of EPs in this role is not easy to measure given the number of different LEA personnel often simultaneously engaged in school improvement activities in failing schools (Ofsted, 2000a). What can be shown is that the perceptions of the headteachers about EP effectiveness in this role have been positive, as reported through the annual service delivery review, and in the annual survey of Headteachers' views. Evidence can also be found in HMI monitoring reports that input from the Educational Psychology Service has been effective in supporting failing schools to improve practice in SEN and behaviour management.

It may be suggested, therefore, that one marker of an effective school is that the school has the knowledge and systems to develop a successful behaviour policy and to manage behaviour appropriately, and that it is important for educational psychologists to develop a broad awareness of the 3 areas of study on which EP work at this systems level is based: school effectiveness research, school improvement practice and managing change.

1.3 SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH

Effective schools

Studies of effective schools have identified characteristics which appear to distinguish schools with good pupil outcomes from other schools with similar populations but with less favourable pupil outcomes (Sammons et al., 1995):

1. Professional leadership
2. Shared vision and goals
3. A learning environment
4. Concentration on teaching and learning
5. Proper school teaching
6. High expectations
7. Positive reinforcement
8. Monitoring progress
9. Pupil rights and responsibilities
10. Home School Partnership
11. A learning organization

Despite changes in terminology, these factors are similar to those highlighted in previous studies (e.g. Rutter et al., 1979; Mortimer et al., 1988). Such lists are of limited usefulness, however, in examining individual schools for particular effectiveness characteristics, and the picture of what might be a cause and what might be the consequence of a school being effective is even less clear at the secondary level when departmental levels of effectiveness are examined (Harris, 2001).

Ineffective schools

Research suggests that most schools are not effective or ineffective “across the board”, but are differentially effective for different children in different subjects (Reynolds, 1992). Some subjects therefore will be well taught in a school rated as ineffective and the differences between effective and less effective schools may be due to only a small number of teachers (Gray, 1997; Rosenholtz, 1989).

Research studies often describe ineffective schools in emotive language, as ‘stuck’ or ‘low consensus’ (Rosenholtz, 1989). In such schools teachers are said to stress students’ failings and struggle to reinforce consistent standards for student behaviour. Hopkins et al. (1994) note the diffused staff development procedures often seen in failing schools and how the teachers appear to work to the motto “*If kids had a better attitude we could teach*”.

Ineffective schools are said to be marked by a lack of vision and focused leadership, dysfunctional staff relationships and ineffective classroom practices (Stoll, 1995).

Ofsted (1999) identified characteristics of ineffective schools as low pupil attainments, poor quality teaching and learning, poorly organised governing bodies and weak leadership, and noted that in most failing secondary schools, exclusion rates were high and the behaviour of a significant number of the pupils was unsatisfactory:

“Very often, disruptive behaviour results from weak teaching, poor school management, inconsistent approaches to discipline by the staff and a lack of knowledge about behaviour management” (P.21)

It seems that it is increasingly possible to identify features which mark out ineffective schools, but there are difficulties faced in attempting detailed studies of ineffectiveness, perhaps because of the unwillingness of researchers to “*potentially damage inter-professional relationships by studying failure*” (Reynolds, 1998). Sampling issues may be more marked in school improvement studies, with problems of sample attrition, as the skills of organisation needed for a school to participate in a research project are often those skills which less effective schools lack (MacBeath, 1998). The ethical difficulties in creating or maintaining non-treatment schools for research purposes are also incompatible with experimental design.

Behaviour and school effectiveness

School effectiveness research suggests that effective schools manage behaviour better and characteristics of schools which deal well with pupil behaviour were noted in the Elton report (DES, 1989), summarised by Galvin et al. (1999):

- good leadership at senior management level
- student, parent and pupil involvement in planning
- well communicated policies and procedures
- effective pastoral systems
- mechanisms to consider the relationship between curriculum and behaviour
- systems for monitoring all of these

These factors are consistent with the key features of effective schools listed previously (Sammons et al., 1995). Determination to tackle poor behaviour is one hallmark of an improving school (Gray et al., 1999; Fisher, 1999). To what extent effective behaviour management is affected by school context is a further issue.

Context and school effectiveness

The role played by the context of the school in contributing to overall effectiveness has been debated in the research. Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools is recorded in 1996 as saying '*it is essential that Ofsted does nothing to encourage use of background as an excuse for poor performance*' (Gray, 1997). From the beginning of the Ofsted system, it was clear that pupil mix resulting from a deprived socio-economic catchment would not be accepted as an excuse for low standards (Thrussell, 1999). However, Thrussell suggests that that some school improvement projects may have been less successful because they failed to take sufficient account of the complex relationship between context and effectiveness.

One mechanism which has been suggested to partially account for the importance of socio-economic context is teacher expectations, in that, in deprived areas teachers may tend to expect less of their pupils and indeed of themselves, and these lower expectations then act as a self-fulfilling prophecy (Stoll, 1999). A different approach may therefore be required to improve ineffective schools in areas of deprivation, to address the potentially self-limiting beliefs of teachers.

One study providing evidence for this view examined four schools, two chosen from each end of a continuum of effectiveness and socio economic status (SES) (Brown, Riddell and Duffield, 1998). Teachers' thinking in the low SES-low effectiveness school was focused on SES issues in the community, and teachers were found to have lower expectations of their pupils. In both the high and low SES catchment schools however, the morale of the staff in the high effectiveness schools was higher. In the third school, an ineffective school in a high SES area, there was also a higher number of pupils who were dissatisfied. Brown et al. noted the emphasis placed on parent and pupil involvement in the running of the highly effective schools, despite very different intakes and catchments. Although only a

small sample, this detailed study suggests that school effectiveness can be independent of school intake and pupil background.

School effectiveness research therefore reflects differing viewpoints on the importance of the schools' community context to level of effectiveness.

1:4 MAKING SCHOOLS EFFECTIVE: SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

In school improvement it seemed it might be possible to produce better schools by "back mapping" onto ineffective schools the features of effective ones (Reynolds, 1998). It has been pointed out, however, that it is not only the absence of effectiveness characteristics which mark out the failing school, but also the presence of a number of antithetical characteristics (Stoll et al., 1996; Fullan, 1991). This process of helping schools to become more effective is called school improvement, defined as "*a systematic sustained effort aimed at change in learning conditions and other related internal conditions in one or more schools*" (International School Improvement Project definition, Reynolds et al., 1996).

Schools at different stages of development and growth may respond in different ways to school improvement initiatives, and methodologies for exploring the process of change in schools require to be identified (Hopkins et al., 1996). "Cruising" schools which are reasonably effective, but underachieving, will need a different programme of support to the "school recovery" work needed in failing schools (Stoll and Fink, 1998; Stark, 1998). Schools also appear to show very different improvement trajectories, in that there are some common responses across schools and some unique to each school (Gray, 1999). School performance can vary quite dramatically over a relatively short timescale of 2 or 3 years, with staffing issues a major factor (Reynolds, 1998). Rapidly improving schools appear to straddle different approaches at the same time, and move forward on a number of fronts, with rapid periods of change followed by consolidation. School improvement research has strived to capture and document some of these complex processes, and since the mid 1980s, there have been a number of phases in the development of school improvement practice (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001).

The first was largely around organisational change at a whole-school level. The organisational development perspective works on a number of assumptions about employees and their relationship with their organisations, namely that people desire growth and development and only function effectively in an atmosphere of trust and support (Dalin and Rust, 1983). This approach has been criticised for lack of explicit attention to organisational goals and performance management, but provides a helpful description of some aspects of changing school culture (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001).

The second phase added to this a stronger focus on change at classroom-level change as well as partnership working and peer support.

Change mechanisms in school improvement

The starting point for change in many schools has been an external inspection (Miles et al., 1986). The impact on teachers and schools of the increasing transparency in schools, with a national system of inspections and local monitoring procedures, has been described by Michael Fullan (2000) as “*under a microscope, in a complex, turbulent, relentless, contradictory, uncertain environment with increasing demands for better performance and greater accountability*”.

Three stages in educational change or improvement are suggested as: initiation, implementation and institutionalisation (Fullan, 1991). The management of the initiation phase must ensure that the whole organisation is committed to the process, given that change is threatening, and change imposed from outside particularly resented. As systems only change when the behaviour and beliefs of the individuals within change, educational initiatives may not complete the third stage of integration into the school system because of teacher resistance.

Teachers may focus on how the change might affect them personally rather than professionally, and therefore early success in improving attendance and behaviour will have immediate personal benefits for teachers, reducing stress and creating pleasanter working conditions, and may reinforce the movement to further change in teaching practices (Reynolds, 1998). The next section will look in more detail at working with teachers on change.

Exploring teachers' perceptions

It is suggested that the failure to explore carefully teachers' thinking about their work can undermine school improvement initiatives (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999). It is important, therefore, to look at teachers' own constructs, and find out teachers' 'theories in use' (Riddell, Brown and Duffield, 1998).

'Theories in use' underlie teachers' everyday behaviour in contrast to the 'espoused theories' which teachers may say they use (Argyris, 1992). Indeed teachers may be largely unaware of their 'theories in use' and the phrase 'single loop learning' has been used to describe this model. Within a single loop culture, sharing problems may be inconsistent or limited, leaving teachers isolated from assistance (Gill and Monsen, 1996). In working with teachers' espoused theories rather than their actual practice, change may occur in school, but without problem resolution (Robinson, 1993). For staff to use a double loop learning model there needs to be systematic exploration of teacher intentions and practices, which are made explicit. MacBeath (1999) suggests school self-evaluation as a way to bring out into the open "*teachers' implicit theories, taken for granted beliefs and the intuitions which shape their daily practice.*" (P. 19). Until there is clarity about what teachers think, i.e. until the culture is understood, effective change may be unlikely.

School improvement and teachers' professional development

School improvement research has focused on the change or reculturing process and staff development is a key aspect of this (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001; Hopkins et al., 1994; Louis and Miles, 1990). Reliance on the traditional approach to staff development, of information-providing and awareness-raising, may be misplaced and the subsequent integration of the teacher's new knowledge or skills may be less well provided for in a less effective school system (Reynolds et al., 1996; Brown and McIntyre, 1993). Schools at the more effective end of the educational spectrum are selective, choosing staff development topics carefully and working on applying what they learn (Fullan, 2000). There is evidence that the traditional training model is unlikely to produce the necessary changes in how teachers deal with problem situations, particularly in the complex field of EBD (Gill and Monsen, 1996; Harris and Hopkins, 2000).

Ofsted (1993) described effective staff training as starting with an accurate needs analysis with mechanisms in place to ensure staff can support each other after formal training sessions. Providing teachers with effective in-service opportunities has been shown to increase teacher commitment, and programmes drawing on the existing talents of teachers and set within school were viewed more positively by teachers (Rosenholtz, 1989; Louis, 1998).

The next section will describe 3 development programmes which illustrate some of the issues raised in this review.

Examining three key development programmes

The three programmes described here each have particular relevance for the current study, in terms of strategies employed, research design and EP involvement. As one of the so-called 'third wave' of school improvement programmes, with a closer focus on pupil outcomes and teacher behaviour, the first of these, Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA), involved external consultants working with groups of schools, and appears to have been an influential model in school improvement research of the 1990s (Ainscow et al., 1994). A number of strategies from IQEA were repeated in the two further programmes described here. Schools Make a Difference (SMAD), is included as an example of an action research approach focused on a small partnership of schools as in the current study (Myers, 1996). In the third programme, The Essex Primary School Improvement Project (EPSI), a key role was taken by the Educational Psychology Service in the cross-service planning and delivery team affording valuable insight into the skills and experience EPs can bring to school improvement, as well as the EP perspective on this role (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999).

Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA)

Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA) was designed with a focus on pupil outcomes, and included a strong networking component (Ainscow et al., 1994). External support agencies were used as consultants to support school audits, and the programme was structured to encourage reliability of implementation across schools. Teacher retraining was through coaching and development programmes (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001). The

relationship between the schools and consultants was underpinned by a contract detailing implementation, with priorities set by the schools, building on an analysis of current conditions. The following were found important in ensuring the commitment of the whole school:

- widespread consultation among all the staff
- the appointment of school co-ordinators
- the allocation of substantial staff development time to project-related activities
- specified classroom-based staff development activities for at least 40% staff
- release from teaching for project activities
- involvement of a critical mass of staff numbers in the development work
- planning sufficient time for classroom observation and staff development.

The school co-ordinators then analysed the key consultant functions as

- pushing thinking forward
- framing the issues
- encouraging partnerships
- providing incentives
- modeling ways of working

The consultants saw a key part of their task as mobilising the internal resources of the school to try to develop a culture of evidence-based enquiry, as found in a professional learning community (Fullan, 1993). The instructional behaviour of teachers was also more directly targeted (classroom-level work) with growing understanding that multi-level work (whole-school, classroom-level and individual pupil) is necessary for sustained school improvement (Harris and Hopkins, 2000)

Three inter-related points were noted in the preliminary evaluation of IQEA (Ainscow and Southworth, 1996). Firstly, the importance of the school leadership in creating a collaborative culture and setting a strong emphasis on teacher development was noted. The second point was that school development appeared an idiosyncratic and micropolitical process in each school, involving coalition building, negotiation and changing attitudes and

behaviour. Finally it was suggested that this was an uncomfortable process involving a high degree of interprofessional challenge.

Criticisms of previous school improvement initiatives have been around the difficulty of understanding the actual mechanisms involved. It could be argued that detailed descriptions of the IQEA programme implementation are also lacking (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001). Further development of the IQEA programme has taken place in Hammersmith and Fulham, and by Essex LEA.

Schools Make a Difference (SMAD)

This was a smaller 2-year school improvement pump-priming project in partnership with the LEA and head teachers from 8 secondary schools (Myers, 1996). Of these schools, 2 were reported as giving no cause for concern at the start of the programme, and 3 were described as of great concern. A network of school-based coordinators was set up with projects tailored to each school: training on pastoral and curricular issues for all staff, with weekend conferences and good practice visits to other schools, flexible learning centers, revision centers, extended day provision, mentoring, consultation with students and work with parents.

The evaluation of the programme noted the positive impact of increased self-knowledge and collaboration between schools (Pocklington, 1996; Myers, 1996). Effectiveness was greater when the programme priorities were built into the school development plan. Findings showed a significant rise in achievement for secondary age pupils and staff surveys reported improved pupil motivation and ethos. Work with parents was said to have been the least successful component of the project, related to the secondary age range.

It was suggested that SMAD established the foundations of school improvement practice in the schools (Pocklington, 1996). This study appears to be one of the few which discuss the links between school effectiveness and school improvement processes and raised a number of issues about sustained change in schools. Myers speculates that school improvement practices go out of date with changes in education legislation and the impact of government initiatives (1996). The SMAD programme was based on the school effectiveness literature at the time, and was essentially developed in the context of schools which have systems in place to use help. Ofsted inspections in the SMAD schools impacted in a new way by

increasing staff turnover, including that of headteachers. Myers suggests that in school improvement the individuality of schools continues to be a key determinant of the impact of support.

A number of useful lessons for the current study can be taken from this project, which gives detailed descriptions of the systems set up, analyses pace and progress in each school, teases out key factors, including the roles of coordinators and the project manager as external change agent (Pocklington, 1996).

The Essex Primary School Improvement Project (EPSI)

The Essex Primary School Improvement Project focused on pupils at Key Stage Two, in schools of varying socio-economic context, and like SMAD developed further the IQEA approach to improving learning outcomes as well as strengthening the school's capacity for managing change (Ainscow et al., 1994). Multi-disciplinary pairs of staff, including advisors, educational psychologists and special needs teachers, worked on a data-driven programme for each school (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999). EPSI was based on the need for sensitivity to the individual aspects of each school, "*an ongoing search for what works locally rather than the adoption of what seems to work elsewhere*". This approach aimed to build up confidence and capacity within the school rather than relying on externally produced packages, and a major element of the work was looking at teacher views through a Conditions Rating Scale and whole-school discussion (Ainscow and Southworth, 1996).

Several other strands of the EPSI programme are relevant to this research study. Firstly, a key finding was the significant impact of pupil perception data on capturing teacher attention. The project evaluation also recommended that increased governor involvement would have been beneficial and, thirdly, it emphasised the importance of understanding from the outset where exactly schools are on their improvement journey, although not specifying how this might be done.

The multi-disciplinary nature of the consultancy was found to have been a strength to the schools and in the development of improved LEA practice, leading to '*greater consistency and a stronger sense of teamwork*' (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999, p.22). At the outset it was decided not to assign specific roles to the various professional groups, including the EPs, but to let the teams establish their own roles. Points pertinent to the current study are

that the schools continued to have their own link professionals with comments from schools signalling confusion as a result. Secondly the need to ensure ‘co-supervision’ for colleagues working in this taxing and complex area was suggested early in the programme by the educational psychologists, and mechanisms were set up such that each team was enabled to consult with another team on a regular basis.

The interdisciplinary nature of the work meant for the educational psychologists that they were able to take a broader view of teaching and learning issues. This approach was said to give a ‘*richness and integration*’ which may be missing when rigid professional boundaries are maintained (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999, p. 137). The EPSI programme appears to have shown the advantages as well as the challenge of a data-driven approach to school improvement, the benefits from a team approach within the school, and the encouragement of a teacher network.

The evaluation of the programme suggests that there were difficulties in analysing to what extent changes in the schools had been due to the programme and to what extent other initiatives, and as with SMAD, staff turnover was a factor (Loose and Sebba, 1999). Many of the findings were confirmatory but the large sample size (22 schools) and the clearly laid out success criteria offer useful exemplars, although as with IQEA, the methods and materials are not described in detail. The variations between the three programmes described tend to make comparison difficult, but some general principles can be drawn out of these studies and other research noted here. It is important to start from where the school is, and schools may require support in auditing their practices, and in setting up systems for change, with feedback loops to capture the results of improvements. Programmes oriented to the learning level are needed, and teacher development in the form of collaborative enquiry, peer coaching, and networks of support appears to be effective.

Further exploration is required into how school improvement practice may need to be more context-specific (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001). A key aspect of EPSI was said to be the involvement of Senior Educational Psychologists in the “programme pairs” supporting schools and the next section will consider further the skills which educational psychology can contribute to this work.

The role of the educational psychologist

The role of a school improvement consultant as described by Ainscow and Southworth (1996) has been suggested as a natural extension of the role adopted by psychologists in their generic work with schools (Fuller and Fisher, 1999). The techniques which psychologists use to influence children may be equally applicable to organisations, and there have been criticisms of psychologists working in school systems for taking too limited a role in the process of change (Newton and Tarrant, 1992).

Recently there has been a growth of interest in methods of EP service delivery that allow psychologists to apply psychology more effectively to a wider range of needs and in a more preventative way (DfEE, 2000a). Williams and Daniels (2000) found a consistent view among specialist EPs that a weakness of current EP practice was the extent to which they were forced to collude with questionable teacher constructs and resulting bad practice. They give an example as the way some teachers pathologise pupil behaviour, and given the SEN system, this leaves the psychologist with little option other than traditional assessment. The need to move to a more preventative style of working was noted in the Research Report into Educational Psychology Services in England and Wales (DfEE, 2000a), through increased use of consultation and problem-solving approaches. In this research, a majority of Headteachers reported that their psychologist engaged in consultation and problem-solving work with the SEN co-coordinator but far less frequently on whole-school issues with the Headteacher (other than in the development of behaviour management techniques). A survey of headteacher views showed that discipline was one of only two areas where headteachers had recently applied research findings in their work, and suggested that this was an area where EPs could usefully contribute (MacKay, 1997).

Other research in school improvement has commented on the need for a solidly grounded psychological and sociological framework to support successful change strategies (Louis, 1998). Psychological knowledge and techniques can be helpful in understanding the insecurities and irrationalities of ineffective schools (Reynolds, 1991). The application of psychological knowledge and skills is also a prerequisite for learning organisations (Roffey, 2000).

In particular educational psychologists should be able to take key role in the dissemination of evidence-based practice, where professional expertise is integrated with the best available external evidence from systematic review (Frederickson, 2002). Particularly in the field of school improvement, where evidence of intervention efficacy and effectiveness can be sparse, there may be a need for more training for EPs. Kratochwill and Stoiber (2000) point out that knowledge of empirically -supported interventions and skills in evaluating intervention effectiveness will be increasingly important to school psychologists, given the increasing need for school based interventions to support psycho-social changes. In some areas this is already a major strand in the service plan for educational psychology (Kerfoot and Imich, 2000).

Other skills of problem diagnosis, conflict mediation and training are roles within the daily remit of many psychologists. Fuller (1999) suggests that educational psychologists are well placed to act as consultants to schools wishing to improve, although findings have emphasised the quality not the quantity of consultation as most important (McLaughlin, 1990). Organisational consultancy in educational psychology is described as extremely challenging and EPs may need to work on developing confidence and competence in this field (Roffey, 2000).

The EP in school improvement consultancy

Looking at the consultancy activities in the EPSI programme, the role of the consultants was to help the schools to diagnose and develop their own capacity to improve rather than providing advice (Fuller and Fisher, 1999). In 'process consultancy' it is assumed that the consultant is not in a position to know enough about the organisation to diagnose or suggest remedies. The aim, therefore, is to increase the school's ability to see itself accurately and draw up a viable and effective plan for improvement.

There may be implications in this for the professional development of EPs. The EPSI preparation included training activities, jointly with the other services. Changes in the support role appeared to take place at different stages of the process e.g. the schools' desire for intensive support during the initiation phase waned during the implementation phase when they felt more able to move forward independently. In response to feedback, the DfEE Report (2000) concluded that ' a significant amount of training' would be needed for

EPs to support a wider consultation and problem-solving role in the LEA. The next section looks at the school improvement issues in the particular context of behaviour management.

1.5 SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND BEHAVIOUR

Improving behaviour in failing schools

Mainstream schools have a growing role in managing behaviour difficulties, with the inclusion of pupils previously in segregated settings. It has been suggested that in less effective schools the issue of problem behaviour is more significant.

“A school cannot function in an acceptable way while the behaviour of its pupils is poor. A feature of some schools which enter special measures is the unacceptable behaviour of a significant number of their pupils while other schools have a large number of pupils who engage in low level disruption” (Ofsted 1999).

Reynolds (1998) supports the idea that improving behaviour in these schools is an appropriate starting point:

“...a focus upon the school attendance rate or suspension rate (where rapid improvements can be made by altering the behaviour of only small number of pupils) will work much better than choice of ‘medium’ or ‘long-term’ goals such as the school’s level of academic achievement which may take two or three years to influence” (P. 171)

By achieving small targets, staff confidence will rise and the atmosphere in school will facilitate work on more deep-rooted changes, with studies showing that teachers who complain about their students’ behaviour also feel greater futility about their teaching (Rosenholtz, 1989). Even among researchers who emphasise the need to improve the ‘learning’ behaviour of pupils, there is acceptance that a short-term focus on things easy to change, such as graffiti in the corridors, may be the way forward in schools designated as failing (Hopkins et al., 1997). However research has shown there are number of subtle factors involved in improving behaviour in failing schools. A question which merits closer examination in the context of this study is whether teachers in failing schools are less confident of their own capacity to manage behaviour.

Teachers' thinking about behaviour

The ways teachers understand challenging behaviour has important implications for a school's success in managing difficulties. Watkins and Wagner (2000) describe teachers' thinking about complex and ill-defined problems characterised by "knots", as going round in circles, posing questions without resolving them and considering strategies without putting them in to practice. Analysis of these "knots" or issues showed that relationships and behavioural issues produce most "knots" and the subject matter of teaching least. Teachers tend to perceive the problem situation and the conflict resulting from this as irresolvable, and until they alter their thinking about the problem situation, there is unlikely to be any satisfactory resolution (Watkins and Wagner, 2000).

In a number of schools, explicit written behaviour policies (which may be based on to the 'espoused' theories of teachers) were often incompatible with the teachers' prevailing attitudes and assumptions (their 'theories in use' or 'enacted' theories) which made up the dominant but unspoken staff culture (Miller, 1996). This mismatch fed the teachers' sense of isolation and perceived lack of support in dealing with conflict.

Teachers' attributions about behaviour difficulties

Looking at teacher attitudes to special educational needs in a survey of 428 junior class teachers, Croll and Moses (1985), found that teachers firmly believed that behaviour difficulties stemmed from within-child factors (personality, mental illness, low ability or maladjustment) in two-fifths to a third of cases, and in two-thirds of cases because of home factors (deprivation or poor parenting). 31% of behaviour and 39% of discipline problems were rated as due to within-child factors. Only 3% of the difficulties were seen as attributable to school or teacher factors. Since home and child factors are mainly seen to be difficult to modify, teachers who hold this view are likely to feel powerless to intervene in the cycle of behavioural difficulties. This adherence to a model which sees the difficulties as coming from within the child or family rather than from factors in the school system may, however, serve to help teachers to preserve their professional self-esteem (Williams and Daniels, 2000).

The Elton research (1989) also reported this attribution pattern although considered it to be a distorted one. In 1996, Miller elaborated on this finding with a smaller survey of 24

teachers, who had been involved in a successful intervention alongside EPs, and showed that, although teachers continued to see family and community factors as responsible in many instances, as in Croll and Moses' study, the teachers showed '*a greater willingness to explore the possible contributions made by factors within the control of teachers and their schools*'. Examples of these were providing more structure to lessons and classroom life, and trying to be more consistent, firm and positive. Miller concluded that experience of a successful outcome arising from their own intervention can change teachers' attributions about the causes of behaviour problems. It may also increase feelings of efficacy and sense of responsibility as well as enhancing general state of well-being and professional confidence (Miller, 1994). Conversely, Miller suggests that if teachers are ineffective or unsuccessful in applying behavioural strategies then there is a decreased chance that they will then subsequently succeed even with a potentially effective intervention, and teacher support for any further interventions may be less forthcoming. A key conclusion from Miller's study is that, when they feel confident, "*teachers are able to bring about positive changes in the behaviour of some of their most difficult pupils*".

It is suggested, then, that if teachers expect certain patterns of poor behaviour, perhaps because of the limitations they see in pupils' home environments, that these patterns are indeed more likely to occur i.e. the expectation will be a self-fulfilling prophecy (Stoll, 1995). As a result teachers may feel even less in control of the situation and their expectations of their pupils will be lowered further in a negative spiral (Brophy, 1998). With schools in low socio-economic areas the need may be for enforcement of core school rules and consistent teacher behaviours, whereas schools in high socio-economic areas may need more sophisticated programmes. (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001).

Brophy suggests also that for those teachers who also have a personal tendency to over-reactivity, the responses can be even more damaging, with fewer and more de-personalised interactions with their pupils and unsatisfactory social-emotional relationships in school. Conversely, it has been found that secondary teachers who are more optimistic about their pupils' performance engage with their pupils more (Ross, 1998). If teachers perceive themselves as successful and efficacious, they tend to persist more through obstacles with their pupils and to report more mastery experiences in their daily professional life. Efficacy is found to be increased where teachers work in collaboration with other teachers and

receive respect from adults in the school and community (Louis, 1998). Teachers with a high sense of efficacy appeared to enhance student motivation, had increased self-esteem, more pro-social attitudes and more friendly relationships with low-ability students. Teachers with low efficacy made more referrals, removed more students from their classes and needed more inset on working with difficult pupils. To strengthen efficacy, Ross (1998) concludes that there needs to be a change in teacher beliefs and classroom practice. This should be in parallel with developing teacher skills through follow-up of inset programmes and sharing experiences with peers.

Research suggests that teacher efficacy and commitment are positively related to pupil achievement as well as behaviour management, and increasing these intervening variables is key in the improvement of schools (Louis, 1998). Committed, engaged teachers, who feel valued and competent, work with students in a way which is more likely to attach the students to the school successfully. High teacher commitment requires access to sustained professional development opportunities and the chance to try out new ideas. Cohesiveness, defined as the sense of all staff sharing an underlying vision, also affects efficacy, as does the ability to influence school decisions, and opportunities for collaborative working. Therefore, Louis suggests that there are multiple dimensions to take into account when assessing and improving staff culture, without attempting to attend to the psychological predispositions of the individual teacher.

In failing schools therefore, staff culture may militate against the successful application of problem solving techniques for behaviour management (Williams and Daniels, 2000). Strategies which have been used to influence staff culture include school self-evaluation (Stoll, 1996; Reynolds et al. 1996; MacBeath, 1999). A study of self-evaluation relevant to this study on whole-school discipline is described by Boyd et al. (1995). The “culture of talk” was stimulated by the positive feedback from pupils and parents and resulting boost to staff and school morale. Boyd et al. suggest that the process rather than the outcome is the most significant aspect of the model, in the way that it gives stakeholders (pupils, parents and staff) ownership of the issues in their school. Consultation with pupils is increasingly seen as a key part of improvement programmes.

Sharing pupil perceptions

The process of eliciting pupil views has been found to have long-lasting impact (Watkins and Wagner, 2000). Ruddock and Flutter (2000) suggest that “*pupil perceptions have for the most part been missing in discussions concerning strategies for confronting educational problems*”. In the context of behaviour issues, pupils like fairness, respect, security, autonomy and support and being consulted on issues relevant to them (Roffey, 2000). Pupils favour teachers who can maintain order, make work interesting and who consistently and fairly apply the rules of behaviour (Ruddock et al., 1996). In comparing pupil and teacher perceptions, a sample of 107 Year 7 pupils across 13 schools saw teacher factors, particularly teacher unfairness, as the most important factor in their behaviour problems (Miller et al., 2000). Louis (1998) notes “*increasing opportunities to communicate and share significantly reduced the alienation that many have observed among both teachers and students in typical high schools*”.

Research with five English schools to establish pupil understanding of effective school discipline noted the valuable contribution young people can play in developing effective systems (Osler, 2000). Generally the young people were found to be responsible and willing to contribute, and the existence of school and class councils as two of the formal structures which can help achieve pupil agency seems to assure pupils that their school is a listening school, as well as giving the pupils a regular structured opportunity to contribute to school policy. However, school councils do not themselves have a direct impact on the quality of teaching and learning, and may not be relevant for those most disengaged vulnerable pupils (Osler, 2000). This research also noted that pupils in schools with assertive discipline approaches were described as less satisfied than pupils whose schools used a circle time model.

Research on pupil perceptions of their learning environment has shown a consistent correlation between the level of pupil satisfaction and academic achievement (Samdal, 1999). Work by Fraser in the 1980s described how pupil perceptions of the classroom environment (how pupils *see* things) are what determine pupil behaviour, rather than how things actually *are*. One of the factors suggested as key to pupils’ educational productivity is the psychosocial environment of the class and peer group, and the smaller the gap between the pupils’ actual rating of the class environment and their preferred rating (of

their ideal class environment), the higher the pupils' level of satisfaction with school and the greater the likelihood of their achieving academic success (Fraser 1989). The EPSI project described above illustrated the importance of pupil perceptions in capturing teacher attention to the need for change.

Research studies on approaches and interventions

This section has drawn together some studies covering a range of approaches in school improvement with a particular focus on pupil behaviour. Generally there is a lack of systematic reviews on approaches and interventions (Watkins and Wagner, 2000; Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000). School psychology has begun to explore the process of validating interventions, which will, it is hoped, enable EPs to be more proactive in differentiating and disseminating effective practice. Psychologists will increasingly be encouraged to define problems more tightly, and move away from the use of interventions based on tradition and personal preference to those with acceptable research evidence, relevant to practitioners.

A meta-analysis which has informed this current study involved an evaluation of 15 pilot projects, 7 of which were finally chosen for in-depth study using strict methodological criteria (Hallam and Castle, 1999). Findings were that staff commitment was crucial rather than any specific type of implementation, i.e. the issue was quantity not quality of intervention activity, although the evaluation noted how planning between LEA and schools impacted on effectiveness (Vulliamy and Webb, 2003).

In a systematic review of primary EBD interventions Evans and Benefield (2001) found only 11 of 33 studies sound enough to be included, of which a number involved an ABAB design to address methodological concerns and improve generalisability. A common problem was research reported in general terms only, with a lack of robust evidence, although the omissions were said to be mostly lack of detail or style of reporting.

The next section will examine two behaviour intervention programmes, firstly a quasi-experimental behaviour improvement programme particularly commended for measurement of implementation levels (Watkins and Wagner, 2000), and secondly, a longer-term initiative using an environmental audit to set up a whole-school system for managing behaviour, as in the present study.

Managing adolescent behaviour

This 3-year study in 7 primary and 1 secondary schools tested a highly structured programme to improve pupil behaviour (Gottfredson et al., 1993). The initial context of the schools included notable variation in exclusion figures, and a “*crisis of student misconduct*” (p. 182). The 3 level programme was delivered through a team of coordinators, and targeted 4 areas: increased clarity of school rules, consistency of enforcement, improved classroom organization and management, and increased reinforcement of appropriate behaviour. Programme components included a school discipline policy review, a computerized behavior tracking system, improved classroom organization through teacher training and the production of a teacher manual, although each school worked on aspects of these tailored to its own requirements. In addition extra support was set up for individual students. The method of implementation was through school teams, with frequent feedback to measure the rate and strength of progress. The design involved a nonequivalent control group of two non-treatment schools, compared before and after the programme.

Outcomes were measured on the Effective School Battery, teacher ratings, classroom order scales, classroom environment surveys, teacher surveys and school discipline records, and the level of implementation was also measured for fidelity and strength. The treatment schools improved significantly on measures of classroom order and student behaviour. High Implementation schools reported the highest gains. Gottfredson et al. concluded that the programme had beneficial effects on student behaviour when it was well implemented, and that implementation on all 3 levels (school, classroom and individual pupil) was important, although it proved impossible to disentangle classroom and individual pupil approaches. A key finding was that schools which implemented the school level only did not have positive change (Watkins and Wagner, 2000). The finding that level or strength of implementation and commitment is more important to outcomes than the fidelity of implementation is in line with research described above (Hallam and Castle, 1999). Other findings suggested that that there had to be strong leadership within the institution, and that the team approach was key to effectiveness. As with IQEA and EPSI, changes in school climate are suggested as a key determinant, and Gottfredson describe the need for

“respectful, supportive and fair treatment of students” which was a feature of the improved schools (p. 26).

This study describes a systematic approach and analyses interactions which may have contributed to the outcomes. Positive outcomes from low implementation schools suggest the schools may have been changing at different rates to begin with. Gottfredson et al. note that in one of the low implementation schools a major behaviour management programme was underway. This study also makes clear that schools differ in their capacity to implement change. However, it appears that the two non-treatment schools in this study did receive some treatment in as much as their coordinators were part of the team, and both schools were anticipating formally joining the programme “*as top priority*” in the second phase. They therefore did not meet the original design specification for non-treatment comparison schools, which makes it more complex to interpret the processes involved.

The second behaviour improvement study is a long-term programme, developed in Birmingham LEA, using a behaviour environment audit as a starting point, and also working through school-based staff supported by external consultants.

Improving behaviour through the Framework for Intervention (FFI)

The Framework for Intervention Approach was written by educational psychologists in 1996-1997 as a preventative early intervention approach in which problems of behaviour in school are accepted as a product of the complex interaction between pupil, school, community and family (Williams and Daniels, 2000). Although teachers may be part of a solution, the Framework follows a no-blame approach, and this means that there is no search for causes or guilty parties, only solutions. The non-inspectorial framework of FFI, led by school behaviour co-ordinators, supported by an external worker, aims to help the school to get its processes right, to empower students and increase teacher agency.

The Behaviour Environment Checklist, which is the first step of the FFI model, helps teachers to reshape their thinking so that their practices are more congruent with their values. A potential criticism of the FFI model may be that insufficient attention is paid to the formal structures within the school and this will be discussed further in this present study (See Chapter 5). The FFI has a follow-on approach for high-level individual

behaviour difficulties, by detailed individual behaviour planning, although the links to SEN systems are not made explicit.

Early evidence presented by Daniels (1997) suggested that the use of FFI leads to staff being more open in dealing with behaviour. A further evaluation report is optimistic: *The potential is there for FFI to benefit most schools*" although noted that in most schools FFI had not yet reached the institutionalisation stage and remained a "slow fuse" (Cole et al., 2000). The evaluation within the trial schools suggested that teachers were more inclined to believe that their behaviour and actions could affect the conduct of pupils. There was also some evidence of reduced premature upward referral. The partnership and network aspects of FFI are similar to other programmes, where they have been shown to be a key feature (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001). The model has been recommended as appropriate for schools in special measures, and for determining the roles of support services, although the conclusions of the programme research report and website information are more tentative (Cole et al., 2000; DfEE, 2000a; Framework for Intervention).

The report recommends follow up and monitoring of outcomes to establish the long-term effects on schools of adopting the Framework in particular on exclusions, attendance rates, standards and SEN statementing rates, although there was said to be evidence of reduced demand for LEA support services. However this second evaluation included only 6 schools from the 88 involved in using FFI between 1998-1999 (Daniels and Williams, 2000). Of these 6 schools, 2 were secondary and all were said to be in diverse community contexts. No information is given on the overall pre-programme effectiveness of these schools, although the description of pre-existing low exclusion rates and attendance at over 90% in all the schools, suggests problems were not severe. The major evidence for the evaluation comes from 31 staff interviews, although the report notes that there were not sufficient resources to allow checking out of claims made by interviewees, and does not examine the links between outcomes, implementation processes and school context (Cole et al. 2000). It could be suggested that the widespread adoption of this model on the evidence presented might be premature, and reflect some of the criticisms of intervention evaluations noted earlier (Evans and Benefield, 2001).

The next section will summarise findings about key mechanisms highlighted in this review of behaviour improvement programmes, and will set this in the context of the current project.

The function of school partnership work in school improvement

One concern with the process of self-evaluation is that a less effective school might become trapped within its own “*educational jail of poor practice*” (Reynolds, 1998). Working as part of a professional reference group formed from a cluster of schools can help by exposing teachers to new norms, particularly if paired with more effective schools (Dalin, 1983). Such connections help to maintain motivation and momentum and encourage schools to learn synergistically (Galvin et al., 1999). In IQEA, the opportunities for networking and mutual support across groups of schools were seen as key for the project’s success (Jackson, 2000). There are advantages of this network approach for consultants also, as offering a “*different mode of involvement to those who deliver the intervention*” (Kovacs, 1998):

“It is a particular feature of the teaching profession that teachers particularly value the direct opinion of other teachers in similar circumstances” (P. 235)

School “clusters” involve a stable long-term commitment among a group of schools, with some loss of autonomy as well as commitment of resource (Lacey, 2001). Generally such clusters involve co-operation and coordination rather than full collaboration. A peer network drawn from a school cluster can be particularly helpful for teachers looking at behaviour improvement, where there are advantages in making comparisons and forming relationships with other schools (Miller, 1996). The teachers who form these networks may have a range of titles and roles.

Teachers as behaviour co-ordinators

The functions of teachers who take on leadership roles in improvement initiatives are important to the success of the developments (Ainscow and Southworth, 1996). Teachers’ comments on how they exerted influence back in their schools fell into five areas:

1. Dealing with people

2. Taking a whole-school view
3. Keeping up momentum
4. Monitoring developments
5. Establishing a climate

Whilst the focus of the initiative differed in each school, there was a high degree of consistency between the teacher comments on how they exerted their leadership. Teachers commented on the sense of “openness” they saw developing in their schools and on “changes in the school’s atmosphere”.

“The schools had begun to change as organisations: they were becoming more porous and permeable to the outside and to innovation. Indeed they were establishing some of the characteristics associated with learning organisations”. (Ainscow and Southworth, 1996, p.239)

Galvin et al. (1999) suggest that in terms of effective behaviour management schools should be learning organisations with:

- an understanding of school improvement and school effectiveness knowledge.
- a knowledge of national legislation and national and local policy in the area of behaviour and discipline.
- coherent consensus-based values on achieving good behaviour.
- a developmental process which consistently seeks to improve pupil behaviour and examines accepted practices for strengths and weaknesses.
- a mindset which encourages experimentation and project work while ensuring monitoring and evaluation.

1:6 MAIN CONCLUSIONS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will attempt to link together the concepts and approaches discussed in this review and draw out some key points in relation to the present study. Firstly, the management of behaviour problems is more complex than other problems in schools in arousing powerful emotions and responses. Secondly it seems that it is not the most

difficult behaviours which cause teachers the most stress. Finally, it is not clearly established to what extent school context contributes to behaviour difficulties, and to what extent school systems and the curriculum contribute. Teachers will have different views on this, and therefore schools may find it difficult to openly discuss their behaviour management practices.

Organisational consultancy, while a major strategy in school improvement, has not generally been seen by headteachers as a key activity of educational psychologists, although there are more reports of EP systems work on behaviour issues than on any other area. Educational psychologists, while mindful about the need for extended training in consultancy skills, are optimistic about systemic work as a part of their future role.

Lessons from previous school improvement initiatives suggest common features of effective programmes such as networks of support, although there is a lack of evidence for specific approaches. Overall, level of commitment and activity rather than any specific type of intervention appears to be important. Helping teachers to examine their thinking about the management of behaviour, and looking at the perceptions of other groups, pupils, governors, and parents, is an important way forward to encourage school systems to take account of how teacher, class and school factors can contribute to problem behaviour. These processes can help schools deal better with the lower-level behaviour problems of daily school life and may give teachers an increased sense of empowerment. Further study is required however to tease out the specific contribution of underlying mechanisms.

1:7 THE RESEARCH STUDY

In summary, the studies reviewed in this chapter show overall agreement that misbehavior in schools has determinants at 3 levels: some pupils are more likely than others to misbehave, some teachers are more likely than others to produce higher levels of problem behaviour in their classrooms by their management and organization practices, and some schools more often than others fail to manage pupil behaviour (Gottfredson et al., 1993). Behavior management programmes that reduce the risk of misbehaviour at all three of these levels are most likely to be effective. An opportunity to explore some of these mechanisms is afforded in this two-year small-scale school improvement programme, to support schools within a geographically based partnership on a rotational basis to review their concerns

about behaviour management and prioritise for change. The project was commissioned by the head teachers and led by the Educational Psychology Service. (The terms 'programme' and 'project' were used interchangeably throughout the field work, and do not imply particular scale or cost.) The partnership context is a market town, with a high index of socio-economic deprivation. The partnership had a number of schools with serious weaknesses or subject to special measures, poor achievements, and high staff turnover.

The programme aimed to address the complex problems of behaviour through a whole-school developmental process. The partnership network was to be used to encourage the exchange of materials and strategies, and to share successes and challenges. The approach would work on the three levels, whole-school, classroom and individual pupil, and would start with supporting teachers to reflect on possible environmental factors which could be contributing to the problems in managing behaviour.

The research described in this chapter has shown that in ineffective schools, problem pupil problem behaviour is often more frequent, with staff more likely to hold negative beliefs about the causes of problem behaviour, and see themselves as more powerless to intervene. This lack of empowerment can affect levels of implementation of improvement programmes and result in poorer outcomes. The study will examine whether teacher perceptions of behaviour management changed over the 2 year programme. The nature and extent of any changes will be analysed for each school, and related to evidence of the level of implementation. The relationship between the pre-existing effectiveness of the schools and teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour will also be explored, and discussion of the findings will look at links with the level of implementation and the perceived outcomes.

The study will test the following hypotheses:

1. Teachers working in 'failing' schools are more likely to offer explanations for pupil problem behaviour which focus on *unalterable* variables (such as home, community or child factors) as opposed to teachers in 'effective' schools who are more likely to focus on *alterable* variables (such as school and teacher factors).

2. The *level* of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour. Therefore, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both 'failing' and 'effective' schools.

The next chapter will describe how evidence about effective practice from the studies described in this chapter was applied through the programme components and methods of implementation in this study.

Chapter 2 The Programme

2:1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will summarise the programme in which the research for this study took place, describe the school context, the extent of the problem with difficult behaviour in the partnership schools, the programme components and methods of implementation. The intermediate outcomes will be also included for their impact on the strategies of the final phase.

Research studies described in Chapter 1 suggest that there are strategies, processes and components derived from successful school improvement programmes, which if implemented strongly and faithfully, will lead to predictable outcomes. In general terms effective programmes are systematic, sustained, owned by the institutions and reflect the use of “elite” knowledge from the research base (Myers, 1996). Evidence also suggests the importance of linking improvement processes to existing school planning mechanisms. A programme is most likely to succeed and become an integral part of the school system if it incorporates work on different levels, school and classroom (Fullan, 1991). The following sections will describe how these findings, along with the previous experience of the author as specialist educational psychologist in school improvement, informed this study.

The aim of the school partnership programme described in this study was to select and apply good practice to improve pupil behaviour and school ethos. There were secondary issues involved around the need to support the schools out of special measures and discharge a key LEA function. The questions asked about outcomes of the programme overlap with the research questions posed in this study, which examines the links between teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour and school effectiveness, and intervention implementation levels and outcomes. The programme provided the research opportunity to gather outcome data and examine the underlying processes.

Summary of the programme

The aim as described by the Principal Educational Psychologist was to support schools to improve pupil behaviour, and thereby impact on the quality of teaching and pupil achievement (see Appendix 1).

The details of the programme were developed by a steering group consisting of the headteachers of the eight programme schools, LEA officers, advisors and support service representatives. It was planned that the project would work intensively with two primary schools each term and with the secondary school throughout the two-year period. One non-partnership school was included in the project at the request of the Headteacher, with 50% programme team input of the other primary schools. A further primary school in the partnership opted for no involvement. With the exception of the one smaller rural school, the schools are in an urban setting and several serve a notably deprived community (see Chapter 3, Table 2).

The half-time project team, consisting of the Specialist EP for School Improvement, as project manager, and the Deputy Head of the Behaviour Outreach Service, were to work with teachers, teaching assistants, pupils and parents to develop a behaviour improvement programme in each school, and set up systems and structures through which schools would continue to address behaviour issues after the programme. Support was also available from other services, in particular the Advisory and Inspection Service and the Educational Social Work Service. The programme had originally specified that a part-time advisory teacher would join the team to lead on curriculum issues, but this appointment was not taken forward.

The programme was to address positive behaviour management, pupil motivation, school ethos and multi-agency approaches to children causing concern in each school. Interventions were take account of the current priorities within each school and staff resources, energy and commitment. Careful attention was to be paid to integrating the work within the school's own planning, and with other school or partnership initiatives.

One strand of the work was to be the adaptation and implementation of the Framework for Intervention model developed by Birmingham LEA to improve school behaviour systems (Williams and Daniels, 2000) This would also support the programme evaluation through measures of teacher perceptions of the behaviour environment before and after the programme.

Schools taking part were to identify two members of staff, (one from the senior management team but ideally not the head teacher), as behaviour co-ordinators leading the programme in their schools, and a school governor for liaison (West, 2000). Co-ordinators and governors would be offered opportunities to take part in a good practice training forum tailored to the particular needs of the schools.

2.2 THE PROGRAMME NEEDS ANALYSIS

The community context

The programme was implemented between 2000 and 2002 in a school partnership covering 4 council wards in and around a large town. A needs-mapping exercise by the Connexions partnership in 2001 describes the county as having one of the most highly skilled workforces in the country, although 28.9% has a qualification only at level 2 or below.

The county ranks in the top 30% Health Authorities on the Jarman Indicators in terms of relative deprivation, with significant areas of deprivation in the ward containing 4 of the programme schools. In terms of ethnic mix, this town has a non-white population of 4.8%, compared with a county average of 3.3%. The needs analysis shows that teenage conception rates for 5 wards in the district are more than twice the national average at over 10%, and it is the second highest county black spot for offences.

The impact of community issues on school standards in the partnership was summarised by Eaude: *“with schools apparently having to address an embedded culture of low educational levels and aspiration among the parents, at the same time as a pattern of high employment in relatively poorly-paid jobs reinforced that same culture”* (2001).

In the area, the availability of ready employment without real need for educational qualifications is seen as a major contributing factor to low school attainment and pupil disengagement.

The schools' context

In 2000, the county schools had high levels of unauthorised absence, with the partnership secondary school one of the highest figures nationally. The county was a low excluding authority and had reduced permanent exclusions by 25% in 2000-2001, partly through the setting up of the Rapid Response to Exclusions model in city schools (Glenny, 2001). However, in line with national trends there continued to be an increase in the number of fixed term exclusions, and 2 of the partnership schools were high contributors to that figure.

In 2000, a priority of the LEA as reflected in the Education Development Plan, following a joint Ofsted inspection and Audit Commission report 1999, was to improve support to schools deemed as having serious weaknesses or requiring special measures. The exercise of this function by the LEA was said to be inadequate (Ofsted, 2000). In March 2000, there were 8 schools in the LEA subject to special measures and 14 schools with serious weaknesses. Four schools out of these 2 categories were in the programme school partnership, with 2 other partnership schools listed as of long-term concern to the LEA, and one which had come out of special measures in 1998 but remained of short-term concern. In the 2000 Panda reports, attainments in all the partnership schools except the smallest were below or well below average for similar schools (Ofsted, 2000). The partnership secondary school GCSE results of 28% pupils achieving 5A*-C GCSEs were lowest in the county tables.

Low attainment, disattachment and pupil misbehaviour were seen as a long-term consequence of the community context. The increased monitoring of these schools in the drive for higher academic standards was raising the profile of poor behaviour. Teachers concerns were expressed through their trade unions, and community concern in the local media.

2:3 THE PROBLEM

In the partnership, two of the schools had severe ongoing problems with pupil behaviour. The Ofsted report for the secondary school in 1997 had described “*unruly and uncouth behaviour around the school*”, “*examples of bullying, physical violence, fighting, threatening behaviour, foul language, racist comments, spitting and smoking*”. “*creating an unpleasant and uncivilised atmosphere*”. The report for one of the primary schools noted “*very poor behaviour on the part of sizeable minority of pupils has a bad effect on the attainment and progress of all*”.

High exclusion rates for the partnership masked large differences across the schools, with the secondary school accounting for 10% of the LEA fixed-term exclusions in 1999, although with only 1% of county secondary pupils on roll. Although rates of exclusion may not in some cases be a reliable indicator of behaviour problems in schools, days of schooling lost through exclusions contribute directly to lowering of achievement and further disaffection (Vulliamy and Webb, 2003). Pupils often did not turn up for the after school detentions which were a sanction used by many staff, and in the secondary school the support of the SMT was required to manage the unruly behaviour of those pupils who did attend.

A pre-programme questionnaire on teachers’ views of behaviour management within the partnership showed a wide variation in behaviour management practices across and within the schools, and a tendency for staff to refer up the hierarchy to SMT for low-level behaviours. Across the partnership, there seemed a widespread teacher perception that they lacked support in managing poor behaviour, questioning the effectiveness of existing system and strategies, including detention and SEN assessments. A growing number of pupils were perceived as “having EBD”. Most commonly recorded problems were constant interruptions from pupils, poor attitude towards work, and refusal to co-operate, very similar to the low-level irritating behaviour described in Elton (1989). Solutions suggested by teachers were “*outside agencies demonstrating, not just telling us what to do*”, “*improve the climate for education*”, “*having a plan which everyone is aware of and is strictly put in force*”. This gave useful contextual information to the programme team and informed the planning of the various core and additional components of the programme.

2.4 PROGRAMME COMPONENTS

Methods or materials were gathered from a range of sources, for time-efficient and evidence-based practice (Galvin et al., 1999). Key findings which informed the programme from the research base were the importance of processes involving all staff in identifying priority areas for improvement and sharing good practice across schools, with both pupil and parent involvement (Myers, 1996). The core materials and processes were to be similar for each school with a menu of additional interventions depending on the outcome of the staff and pupil audits, the time commitment to that setting, and the pupil age range. The programme components are listed below and described in detail in Appendix 2.

Work at the whole-school level

- Whole-staff meetings
Behaviour Environment Audit and School action planning (See Appendix 3)
- School Behaviour policy reviews
- Resources
- School councils and peer mediation
- Good practice visits to other schools
- Partnership Newsletter
- School Consultation Teams and Rapid Response
- Inspection-related activities

Whole-school programme components unique to the Secondary School

The secondary school menu of interventions was different to other schools not only because of the age of the pupils. The time allocated for the team in the secondary school was twice any other school, the team base was in this school and the coordinators' group larger. The group first completed a mapping exercise of behaviour initiatives underway in the school. Given that the school had been subject to special measures for two years, it was agreed that new activity should focus on aspects amenable to early success, and the first focus of this was on the environment in the corridors, given HMI comment and the view that "*order in the corridors creates a predisposition for order in the classrooms*" (Reynolds, 1996;

Hampton and Jones, 2000) (See Appendix 4). Further work undertaken in the secondary school was on punctuality, and lunchtime arrangements, where the problems were impacting severely on teaching (Hampton and Jones, 2000).

Work at the classroom level

- Behaviour Environment Planning (See Appendix 5)
- Pupil perceptions (See Appendix 6)
- Secondary school class level work (See Appendix 7)

Work at the individual pupil level

- Individual behaviour planning (See Appendix 8)
- Rapid Response to Exclusions
- Statutory assessment procedures

Training and professional development activities

Staff development activities were planned to take account of best practice (Harris and Hopkins, 2000). Each of the training activities therefore involved exposition of theory, demonstration, practice opportunities, feedback and on-site support both from the programme team and peers.

- Training for Coordinators

Issues considered were setting the tone of the programme, the level of participants' prior knowledge and how much input should be given directly. Materials used with coordinators focused on team building and strategies for working with colleagues on change projects (Galvin et al., 1999).

- Training for teaching staff

This training took place in each school, and for all partnership staff. The programme was tailored to work with staff on the concerns expressed through the audit described in the last section, and materials were used to set a positive tone (Galvin et al., 1999).

- Training for Learning Support Assistants
- Training for Lunchtime Supervisors
- Training for governors

Professional development evaluations

Professional development feedback was extensive and central to the planning for the second phase of the programme (see next section, Intermediate outcomes).

The next section will look at the strategies used to ensure effective application of the programme components.

2:5 METHOD OF IMPLEMENTATION

Field research often fails because the intended interventions are not implemented as anticipated (Gottfriedson et al., 1993). The methods described here, and in particular the information feedback strategies, were devised to increase the strength and fidelity of implementation of the programme. They were based on research findings about the strength of collaborative projects, the importance of co-ordinator participation in decision-making, the positive effect of school working groups and the power of early success in developmental projects.

The team tried to ensure:

- clarity of aims among school staff, especially coordinators and Heads
- materials readily available with clear instructions
- timely feedback about progress of interventions and reviews/planning
- goals publicly stated
- regular and realistic assessment of obstacles to implementation with plans developed to overcome these
- tightly delineated responsibilities for each contributor to the programme in school or team.

The steering group

The LEA-schools steering group monitored progress through reports from the project manager and headteachers with termly meetings of all stakeholders. There was added motivation for the headteachers to remain closely involved as the small budget for the programme was managed by this group.

The programme team

The programme team worked to develop an understanding of the local area, through discussions with previous personnel, attending training events, in particular related to the Framework for Intervention, and reviewing materials and methods. The EP project manager led sessions on the psychological aspects of working with school staff on change programmes. In this partnership of several failing schools, it was felt appropriate to start modestly and let participation develop the appetite and energy of the schools for change (Reynolds, 1998). Supervision was through the Principal Educational Psychologist, and through peer support and consultations with the specialist psychologist for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties.

School improvement teams

Two team members from each programme school, more from the secondary school, became members of the partnership coordinators' team with responsibility for leading the programme in their schools. In School C, the Head Teacher volunteered to act as co-ordinator because of a lack of experienced staff. Supply cover costs were added to the schools' budgets to release co-ordinators for work in school, training sessions and meetings with the project team.

Initial meetings with the co-ordinators focused on workload planning and materials for the programme. Coordinators were required to assemble essential school information called the '*entry profile*', to include a staffing list, the behaviour policy, Ofsted and HMI reports etc (see Appendix 9). Mindful of findings from teacher research, a priority was looking at how to ensure appropriate confidentiality while encouraging the dissemination of good practice (Frost, 2000). Guidelines were drawn up by the team and agreed by schools (see Appendix 10).

A number of measures were put in place to encourage and monitor progress and commitment. The coordinators regularly presented their work to partnership staff, governors, LEA officers, advisors and support services. The work of the co-ordinators was further reinforced by the procedure for identifying and managing new resources related to the whole-school audit, and by their lead role in working with other staff on audit activities,

classroom observations and behaviour environment planning. Co-ordinators were also given the option of formal accreditation for their programme work. Some schools had issues with continuity of co-ordinators because of staffing changes, although the coordinators' role was always presented as a staff development opportunity (West, 2000).

Information feedback

Frequent written feedback was used as a way to examine critical programme features, processes and variations both planned and unplanned (King et al., 1987). The following were key:

- School visit records
- Audit records: checklists, plans and pupil surveys
- Termly summaries of work (see Appendix 11).
- Annual feedback survey for coordinators (see Appendix 12).
- Success criteria (see Appendix 13).

Intermediate outcomes and planning

During the first year of the programme, difficulties had been experienced with the programme phasing by the third term, when 3 primary schools were in the active phase of the programme, and 4 other schools ostensibly in a consolidation phase, but because of various factors, needing more active support than had been envisaged. The lack of time for the team to support the co-ordinators led to re-evaluation of each part of the programme prior to commencing the second year, through the following:

- Success criteria review
- Review of the BEA and planning
- Questionnaire survey for co-ordinators
- Evaluations for all training sessions

A summary of the programme involvement in each school is recorded in the Checklist of Involvement (see Appendix 14).

Planning for sustainability

It was envisaged that the continuation of the programme would be through the multi-agency school consultation team model. Continued support from the LEA for the environment audit process would come from the support services working through the school consultation teams. In the secondary school this would also be consistent with the implementation of the Connexions multi-agency initiative.

2:6 SUMMARY

To summarise, the programme was implemented over 2 years in a partnership of 8 schools, with low achievement and perceptions of poor behaviour. The programme had a number of components. All interventions were aimed at reducing inappropriate behaviour and increasing appropriate behaviour, through positive reinforcement, decreasing punitive measures and increasing clarity of expectations. The programme worked on increasing pupil understanding, empowering teachers through involvement in change, increasing consistent follow-through by staff and improving classroom organisation and management. Schools started with the same model and process but the finished product would depend on the time commitment, organisational skills and motivation of the school-based coordinators, as well as the context of the school at the time. Programme planning had to be flexible to take into account changes in school priorities during the programme period, and to build on the different strengths of each school.

The programme was driven through a mix of development activities. It was expected that interventions would work in concert with one another producing a larger effect on student behaviour than if work had been targeted on only one level or aspect i.e. individual, classroom or school. It was not planned to assess the independent effect of any measure or how any of the components facilitated each other, as all schools would continue to have other initiatives underway. Multi agency links were encouraged although not formalised.

The next chapter will describe the method used to examine the study hypotheses, and identify key variables which might have been involved.

Chapter 3 Method

3:1 INTRODUCTION

This research study takes place within a 2-year behaviour improvement programme. The study included a survey component to examine an aspect of the relationship between school effectiveness and pattern of teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour as stated in the first hypothesis, namely, whether teachers in the 'failing' schools would be more likely to offer explanations for pupil problem behaviour which focus on *unalterable* variables (such as home, community or child factors) as opposed to teachers in 'effective' schools who would be more likely to focus on *alterable* variables (such as school and teacher factors). A quasi-experimental design, incorporating a multi-group pretest- post-test measure, was used to test the second hypothesis, that the level of implementation of the programme by staff would be a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and that, if well-implemented, the programme would show positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour in both the 'failing' and 'effective' schools. Given the design limitations, the aim of the study was to generate aspects which would transfer to future school improvement programmes through compensating methodology (Robson, 2000; King et al., 1987).

This chapter first examines common methodological issues arising in research in social science and education, and in field settings in particular, and provides a detailed rationale and description of the method used in this study. Strategies to compensate for the design limitations are described. The chapter then addresses reflexivity issues and potential conflicts arising from the role of researcher as project manager. A needs analysis provides detailed comparisons of the participant schools. The next section describes the measures used to survey teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour, and assess the implementation levels and outcomes in each school, including procedures followed to collect and analyse the data, with further discussion of how these were set up to address the potential methodological weaknesses (Salmon, 2003). Finally, consideration is given to the ethical aspects and limitations of the study, including specific issues which arise from working in schools in difficulties.

The theoretical background to the method

It has been suggested that the randomised experimental design, which permits direct attribution of causality to the impact of the intervention rather than some extraneous variable, may be less frequently utilised than is claimed in the research literature (Robson, 1993; Black, 1999). Research in education and social welfare in particular is less likely to permit control through the established procedures of traditional experimental science, and, although such research may be the only way to solve disputes about educational practice, emphasis is increasingly placed on the realisability of research design (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Cohen et al., 2000). Robson (2003) suggests further that current adherence to traditional research strategies may at times be more from automatic assumption, rather than the outcome of logical choice. Indeed, depending on the question asked, population surveys, cross-sectional studies or qualitative approaches may yield richer evidence (Frederickson, 2002; Miller and Todd, 2002).

In field settings in social sciences, and in studies where usefulness as well as contribution to knowledge is a factor, modified experimental designs may be used. These studies may include a natural control group matched in some way and permit a tighter degree of methodological control (Black, 1999). However pragmatic opportunities, real world choices and ethical issues rule out the use of non-treatment groups in certain populations, and necessitate the use of a study design further down the ‘continuum of quality’, working with groups chosen through self selection or administrative decision (Black, 1999; MacBeath, 1998; Robson, 2003). The literature on the quasi-experimental approach takes into account the restrictions of the setting and the impact of this on the rigour of the design, and provides a well-evidenced framework in which to evaluate the threats to valid inference about causation which are present in each particular design (Campbell and Stanley 1963; Robson 2003). In this situation, researchers are obliged to address these threats, and work on other ways in which they can obtain confirming information, to improve transferability of results.

Increasingly, the use of mixed methodology in social research reflects the view that social research is a “messy process” (Scanlon 2000). By combining an in-depth qualitative approach with a quantitative approach, therefore, it is suggested that it is possible to derive a greater understanding of the variables in a complex environment while also facilitating

efforts at replication (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Robson, 2000). Since qualitative data is gathered in natural settings, often over a sustained period of time, there can be increased groundedness and flexibility of data collection (Miles and Huberman, 1994). It is important, however, that the qualitative processes, especially those of data reduction and drawing of conclusions, are efficient. Conversely, the use of quantitative research methods can address some of the potential drawbacks of qualitative data collection, by supplying wider background data, and assisting the researcher to avoid the bias which can arise when a qualitative study focuses narrowly on a particular strand of respondents (Miles and Huberman, 1994). By combining both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection in one study, the researcher may benefit from fresh insights and the opportunities for analysis and confirmation (Scanlon, 2000).

The two main types of mixed methodology studies are the parallel study, with quantitative and qualitative data gathered either at the same time or in an alternating pattern, and the dominant/ less dominant study where one type of data collection, usually qualitative, supplements the other. Such studies may be a mix of exploratory general questions, often assessing a large number of participants using standardized measures, and open-ended interviews with a smaller sample to gain a richer understanding (Scanlon, 2000). In field studies in particular, where the advantages of the natural setting need to be set against the loss of external validity, a multi- method study may provide a compromise. It is, therefore, increasingly suggested that researchers should apply the methods which make most sense answering the questions (Salmon, 2003; Miles and Huberman, 1994). The next section will describe how such considerations are reflected in the design for this study.

Rationale for this study design

In selecting a research method, there are key questions to consider (Salmon 2003):

- Is the method appropriate to address the research questions?
- Does the method fit the researcher's theoretical standpoints?
- Does the method take account of pragmatic opportunities and limitations?

The nature of the programme and the characteristics of the partnership schools made it impractical to identify a matched non-treatment control group, given that schools subject to

special measures invariably have significant intervention. The comparable county partnership by census data was part of a long-established EAZ, and therefore receiving intensive support and enhanced resourcing. In this context, therefore, the recommendation that researchers aim for a “best possible design” study, within the context of school-based constraints and practitioner involvement, was applied to this study (Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000).

The use of a quasi-experimental design is accepted as restricting the possibility of making causal inferences, and raises serious questions about both internal and external validity to be discussed further below. Nevertheless, hypotheses may be generated and developed, and evidence provided, though use of compensating methodology when a better design is not possible, as in this study (Campbell and Stanley, 1963)). The potential weaknesses of the multi-group pre-test post-test design made it important to look at further ways to strengthen the design, within the given constraints of the setting. Particular strengths of this study included the possibility of sampling selectively and at different levels within the school populations, and across the total intact school populations, over an extended period of time thereby yielding rich data sets (Cohen et al., 2000). Intervention phasing across the schools in this type of study offers opportunities for gathering evidence and increases the possibilities for drawing inferences about effectiveness (Robson 2003). Comparing responses involving the same individuals or school representatives over time is particularly useful for enabling observers to see trends, distinguish real changes from chance occurrences and make reliable inferences (Cohen et al., 2000). A potential disadvantage of an extended period of study, however, is the increased risk of sample mortality, which in this study would be through teacher movement. A sequence of qualitative and quantitative data collection within the phases can expand the study in scope and breadth (Miles and Huberman, 1994). In this type of design, it is suggested that both visual and statistical analysis are commonly employed (Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000). When combined with selective sampling of different levels and at different stages, this study design offers the possibility of providing evidence to partially compensate for the lack of a comparison group, and address the threats to validity described below (Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000; Evans and Benefield, 2001; Black, 1999).

Potential threats to validity

The quasi-experimental design must account for a number of potential problems, to do with external validity or the extent to which the findings can be generalised from the study sample to other target populations, that is the transferability, as well as internal validity, or whether the treatment actually caused the effect found (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Campbell and Russo, 1999; Robson 2003). The quasi-experimental approach involves conscientiously teasing out each of these threats in the design and evaluating to what extent they can be discounted by specific compensating features of the study, and the pattern of results obtained (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Robson 2003). The three types of threat discussed in detail in school improvement studies by Gottfredson et al. (2000) are firstly, the maturation threat to validity, where the schools may have been in a process of changing at different rates regardless of the intervention, including the possibility of spontaneous remission or improvement; secondly, the treatment interaction, where the programme may have interacted with other pre-existing conditions in the school. The third possibility is the history factor, in that factors other than the programme may have produced the change, and particularly relevant if the time lapse between pre and post-test is considerable. Other reasons for confounding findings may include the effect of testing, from the pre-test and measurement process itself, on the participants, factors arising from testee and tester familiarity with the instrumentation on the post-test, and statistical regression (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Campbell and Russo, 1999). It is important therefore that data collection aims to include some assessment of the pre-programme context, and the trajectory of pre-programme change within the school. Real world settings in particular offer the possibility of ‘saturation’ or extended exposure to the setting, achieved in school improvement research through time spent in the schools, and along with multiple data sources can help corroborate that change is due to the intervention, rather than other factors (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Gottfredson et al., 2000). Campbell and Stanley (1963) suggest that the more numerous and independent the ways in which the experimental effect is demonstrated, the less numerous and less plausible are the rival hypotheses. The next section will describe in detail the design used, and note the steps put in place to address the methodological limitations described above.

3:2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

A survey approach was also used to examine the first hypothesis, whether teacher explanations of pupil behaviour were different depending on the school effectiveness prior to the programme (Robson 2003). The study then involved a quasi-experimental pre-test post-test design to examine the second hypotheses, about the relationship in each school between level of implementation of the programme and outcomes in terms of teacher views of improved pupil behaviour. The multi-group pre-test post-test study design had a number of drawbacks, of the type described above, and therefore the steps taken to address these, and thereby increase the usefulness of the study, will next be described.

A multi-method approach was utilised with quantitative measure of teacher perceptions at the start and end of the programme, supplemented with qualitative measures from cohort, stage and selective sampling of different groups throughout (see Figure 1 below for a time line of school interventions and data collection).

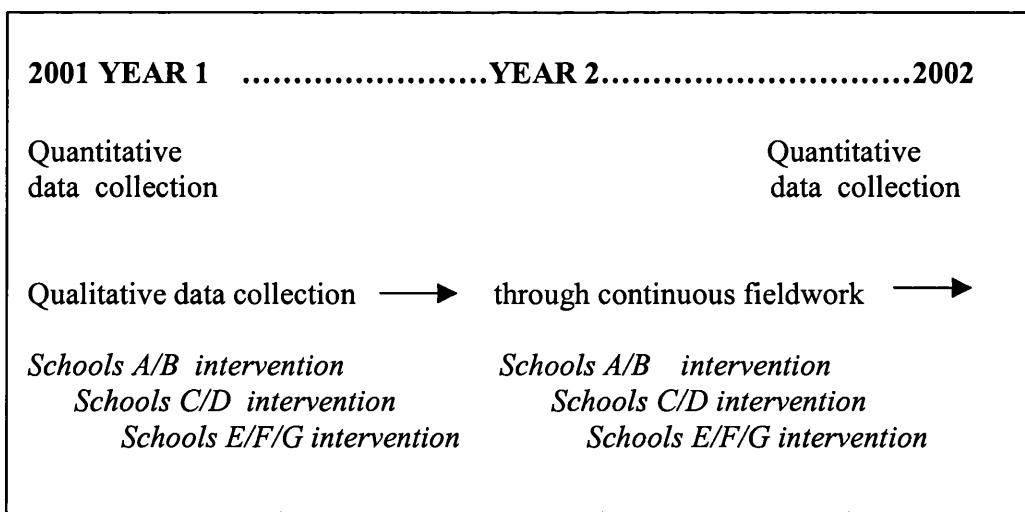


Figure 1 The *project data collection phases*

Multiple sources of data were employed to obviate subjectivity, and triangulation both of data collection and data analysis provided added corroboration (Evans and Benefield, 2001; Miles and Huberman, 1994). The allocation of schools into the rolling programme took into account school commitments, particularly Ofsted inspections. Although the schools were in effect non-equivalent groups in different settings, the addition of corroborative evidence

from questionnaires, observations and interviews would contribute to the generalisability of the findings (Black 1999). The intervention phasing, which in part resembled a time series design, combined with continuous assessment throughout offered additional opportunity for evidence-gathering about implementation and impact, and increased the possibilities for drawing inferences about effectiveness (Black, 1999). The design for each school across the 2-year span is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1 *The programme phasing for each participating school*

(I= Intervention phase)

Year		School								
		H	NI	WM	SJ	C	Q	NJ	D	
2000	Term 1	I	I	-	-	-	-	-	I	
	Term 2	-	-	I	I	I	-	-	I	
	Term 3	-	-	-	-	-	I	I	-	
2001	Term 1	-	I	-	-	I	-	^a	I	
	Term 2	I	-	I	I	-	-	^a	I	
	Term 3	-	-	-	-	-	I	^a	-	

a. School withdrew from the programme

Real world research as in this study, in contrast to research conducted under more clinical conditions, brings both constraints, in that contamination may arise from personal knowledge and participation, and rich benefits in the form of insider access and rich knowledge of the context (Robson, 1993). Impartial measurement may be problematic in field studies and action research (Kratochwill and Stoiber, 2000). With this type of ethnomethodology therefore, it is important to report on the reflexivity issues in this study, and any implications arising from how the researcher carried out their role (Miller and Todd, 2002).

Reflexivity issues

In this study, the skeleton of the programme was set up by the steering group, and the programme team was not directly involved either in the initial identification of the problem or in the pre-programme strategic planning (Elliot, 1991). Part of the project manager's remit was to foster enquiry and reflection among stakeholders, as well as being an observer

and evaluator for the LEA, and researcher for this study. Through these interdependent roles, albeit that they were temporary and only part of professional life, the project manager could be suggested to have both personal and professional investment in the outcomes (Kratochwill and Stoiber, 2000; Myers, 1996).

However, the team remained largely outside the social world of the study, and were at no point regarded as insiders. The research role of the project manager in relation to this study was known but not dominant, as the analysis of the data was to take place at the end of the field phase. The participative element of the team role enabled a relationship with school staff, headteachers and coordinators, and advantageous access to people and information. The team was aware of the potential for conflict and bias in their evaluation (Miles and Huberman, 1994). To reduce “Bias A”, when the wish to please the research team may induce people to behave differently, various strategies were used, increasing the time spent in the setting so that the team were no longer noticed, in aiming to be unobtrusive, and to work with participants off-site when possible. “Bias B” is the effect of the field on the researcher, who may begin to absorb some of the culture and priorities of the setting, and develop inappropriate allegiances (Kratochwill and Stoiber, 2000). The team guarded against this by spacing out site visits, ensuring that dissident colleagues were involved and not excluded, using indirect sources rather than direct involvement at times, and by working to triangulate data collection. In this programme, supervision was a key part of ensuring that the project team remained alert to these potential biases, and to the experiences of the participants, in their interventions and data collection.

In conclusion, this type of more narrowly-focused field research may be more likely to lead to changed practice than large-scale empirical evaluations using traditional research technologies (Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000). It has been argued that the advantages of working within a research base in the real world of social practice outweigh the disadvantages, and that a realistic setting, if supported by sufficient methodological rigour in procedures and data analysis, may even ensure greater external validity (Garard, 2001; McTaggart, 1991).

3.3 PARTICIPANTS

The 7 primary schools and 1 secondary school formed a partnership or cluster within the LEA (Cohen et al., 2000; Lacey, 2001). School Q was officially part of a different adjacent cluster, but staff and coordinators had full access to the training programmes, although the team visits were at a reduced frequency.

School and community context

The diverse context of each school at the start of the programme is illustrated in Table 2 below, catchment areas of schools as reported in 2000 Panda report (Office for Standards in Education)

Table 2 *School/ Community Contexts: census of population information (1991)*

% in ward	School Q ^a	Schools WM/ SJ/NI/ NJ/ D	School H	School C	<u>National Average</u>	<u>Comparison School P^b</u>
Adults with higher education qualifications	13.7	4.0	7.3	17.4	13.5	3.8
Children in high social class households	27.6	5.0	12.6	57.5	31.0	4.3
Minority ethnic children	1.5	10.5	4.7	0.4	10.1	14.4
Children in overcrowded households	2.2	15.2	8.2	2.8	10.5	17.1

- a. school with reduced programme input
- b. LEA EAZ primary school in county ward of greatest potential educational disadvantage
- c. Faith school drawing pupils from a wider catchment area

Recent data from the 2001 census shows a largely similar pattern. The national average is included for comparison, and data given for a comparable primary school. It can be seen that the profile of the electoral ward in which five of the programme schools were situated matched more closely, in terms of indices of deprivation, this comparison school ward, than the communities around the other partnership Schools Q, H or C.

Table 3 *School Contexts*

Schools			Q	WM	SJ	C	NI	NJ	D	National av.	LEA av.
Number on roll		267	322	211	205	126	216	260	560	-	-
% pupils on SEN Index		38	31	27.3	28	19.8	31	50	41	19	-
Exclusions	Permanent/ Fixed Term	0 7	0 12	0 0	0 1	0 0	0 9	1 54	13 250	-	-
Deprivation: Free School Meals		17	13.7	38	26	9	26	40	19	9	-
Key Stage 2 results	E all schools	E	C	E	C	B	-	E	-	-	-
	E sim	E	D	E	B	A	-	E	-	-	-
	M all	E	C	E	E	C	-	E	-	-	-
	M sim	E	C	E	E	B	-	E	-	-	-
	S all	E	C	D	E	C	-	E	-	-	-
	S sim	E*	C	C	D	B	-	E	-	-	-
LEA status ^a (2000)		LTC	LTC	-	STC	-	-	-	-	-	-
DfES Status b (2000)		-	-	SM	SM 1998	SW	-	SM	SM	-	-
Attendance %	Autho rised	6.3	N/r c	6.4	7.09	4.7	7.09	4.7	N/r	5.6	5.4
	Unaut.	0.3	0.98	1.6	0.95	0.15	N/r	3.5	N/r	0.5	0.3
	Total	N/r	93.9	92	91.9	N/r	89	85	N/r	93.9	94.3

- a. LTC= of long-term concern to the LEA; STC= of short-term concern to the LEA
- b. SM= Special Measures; SW= Serious Weaknesses
- c. N/r= not received in school entry profile

Table 3 above shows the profile of the participating schools at the start of the programme, collected through analysis of Ofsted reports including “Panda” data for year 1999-2000, LEA documentation, school prospecti, school annual reports and behaviour monitoring reports. The allocation of the schools to the broad categories ‘failing’ and ‘effective’ was based on the most recent Ofsted judgment, also cross-checked with the school improvement experience of the team as to whether the schools were typical of their categories (Black 1999). Figures not quoted indicate that the school and LEA were unable or chose not to

submit these to the programme team. The national average is included for comparison and comparative data also given for the county attendance figures. Two sets of exclusions figures are quoted, for fixed-term and permanent exclusions, one from school records and one from LEA records. The figure for fixed-term exclusions indicates the number of instances of exclusion. All schools except School C were recording above average numbers of pupils with Special Educational Needs. Attendance figures are from school records and show that 3 of the schools had significant problems with attendance, with high rates of unauthorised absence. In attainments, only school C had KS2 results which were above the average for schools in similar circumstances.

Sampling strategies

For the teacher survey used to examine the first hypothesis, it was feasible to deal with the whole intact teacher population of the partnership, and no sampling plan was necessary. The permanent teacher population in the partnership was therefore required to complete both the initial teacher survey (Hypothesis 1) and initial and final Behaviour Environment Checklists (Hypothesis 2). For further evidence gathering for the second hypotheses, a range of sampling strategies was used to obtain other data about outcomes and implementation levels from levels and subsets within each stakeholder population, and at different stages of the field study, to increase representativeness and confidence in the findings (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The data collection procedures were largely pre-specified and negotiated at the outset of the programme with headteachers, to improve participation rates. The major subset was the group of school coordinators. Selective sampling for other outcomes and implementation measures involved teachers, headteachers, non-teaching staff, governors and members of support services, with data often collected from small total populations within these subsets. Pupil data was collected from groups sampled within classes, from whole-classes, from Key Stage groups and from whole-school pupil surveys, to provide corroboration for findings from other sources.

Several elements were important in determining response rates throughout the study, of which one, the issues arising from working in schools in difficulties was predicted. The proposal to close one of the schools and merge another was not foreseen. The closing school was withdrawn from the study in January 2002, and data collection from the

merging school was greatly reduced also. The diminished coordinators' group continued although response rates for several measures were reduced in the second year of the programme because of competing school commitments. Out of the original partnership group of headteachers, only 4 schools were firmly committed to finish the programme, and 2 of these had new headteachers. The rural primary school also reduced involvement, and the participation of a further primary school was affected by illness. Within schools the staff turnover rate was well above the county average. All permanent teaching staff in the primary schools were involved in the evaluation of changes in the behaviour environment although the response rate was lower than for the baseline measure. The design of the study involved frequent intermediate qualitative measures to compensate for the predicted attrition of the original subsets (Stoiber and Kratchowill, 2000). This next section will examine how the procedures for data collection and analysis were planned to take account of predicted sample mortality.

3:4 DATA COLLECTION AND SCORING

To examine the first hypothesis, data was collected through a survey approach taking in the total teacher population of the partnership. To compensate for design limitations, data collection to address the second hypothesis followed the multi-method approach known as triangulation, defined as "*the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour*" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.112). The more methods contrast with each other, the greater the confidence there can be in the findings.

Different data sources and measures were used to assess the processes (the level of implementation of the programme components) and the ultimate programme outcomes. Data about programme activities is important in understanding how and why a programme may have been successful or unsuccessful (Robson, 2000). Secondary data from official datasets was used to show the nature and extent of problem to be addressed (Garard, 2001). The programme gathered a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data from 2 years of intensive fieldwork, with qualitative data-gathering running steadily throughout the programme and quantitative data collection focused at the beginning and end.

The teacher survey (Hypothesis 1)

A 6-subscale teacher survey was administered to all the teachers in the partnership within the first 2 weeks of their school entering the intervention phase of the programme (see Appendix 15). This 5-point Likert scale was designed to measure teacher attributions for pupil problem behaviour, incorporating items from Croll and Moses (1985) and Miller (1996) (See Chapter 1). The survey also asked teachers to comment on the support which they received within their schools and from training, to support behaviour management. Further items sampled teacher commitment, quality of work life, sense of efficacy, behaviour management skills, goal congruence, collegial support and perceived influence in the workplace (Louis, 1998). Louis' study examined which quality of work variables were related to commitment and sense of efficacy, and how differences in teachers' responses related to the degree of change in schools with a high proportion of at-risk students. Reliability coefficients ranged from 0.71 for goal congruence to 0.85 for sense of respect. The present survey combined sample items from previous studies and was designed to examine the relationship between teacher explanations or pupil problem behaviour focusing on alterable and unalterable factors and school effectiveness. This systematic approach for teachers' self-reflection was also to lend corroboration for other pre-programme assessments in terms of school ethos, but was not envisaged as attending to psychological predispositions of individual teachers (Louis, 1998). A validation question was included.

Baseline measures: Pupil perceptions

Assessing the learning environment through a pupil questionnaire rather than by direct observation has the advantage that the results will be based on pupil experience over many lessons, and can be give a mean score of the pooled judgement of all pupils in the class. In contrast classroom observations may be restricted to some sessions by a single (though trained) observer which may yield atypical data.

In the first phase schools, pupil perceptions were sampled using My Class Inventory short-form (Fraser and O'Brien, 1985). This is a 25 item classroom environment questionnaire, which requires primary or lower secondary pupils to read a simple statement and record their agreement by circling Yes or No, to give a measure of the psychosocial environments of their classrooms. In addition both pupils and teachers can complete a questionnaire on

their preferred (ideal) class environment, e.g. the item “*My class is fun*” becomes “*My class would be fun*”. Pupil choices are analysed into five categories, two of which (competitiveness and difficulty of work) are to do with pupils’ personal development and three (satisfaction, friction and cohesiveness) are to do with relationships within the class. For pupils with special needs and for Year 2 pupils, the questionnaire was printed on A3 paper or read out, depending on the teacher’s advice, compatible with the original administration arrangements described in Fraser and O’Brien (1985). The completed questionnaires are hand scored using a stencil, with Yes responses scoring 3 points and No responses 1 point. Omissions and errors are scored 2 points. Scores are obtained for each of the 5 categories and a total score for each pupil. Total scores can be compared for pupil actual-ideal, teacher-pupil actual, teacher-pupil ideal and teacher-actual-ideal classroom environments, providing information which can inform interventions (Fraser, 1989). Wide use of this measure has been reported for a range of educational settings, as well as the science and maths classrooms which were the original focus of the research, and quoted reliability measures range between 0.58 and 0.81 for the Actual form and 0.60. and 0.82 for the Preferred form. These pupil perception measures were introduced to enable cross-checking and corroboration of teacher reports, and team observations in the initial programme phase.

The pupil survey was completed under supervision of the programme team for 4 classes in 2 schools, and comparisons made with classroom observations by the team and coordinators to assess inter-rater reliability. Prolonged engagement in the schools by the team over the 2 years after this initial phase made further use of this measure redundant, particularly as administration and scoring were time-consuming with younger groups, and given the high number of pupils with special needs in the partnership schools (partnership average 33%, national average 19%). As research evidence is available to suggest that pupil-determined measures can also be powerful, informal pupil questionnaires were devised by coordinators in 3 of the programme schools to elicit pupil perceptions of particular aspects of school life, commonly lunchtime and playground routines (Dudley 1998) (See Appendix 6). All context measures were supplemented by the school-based observations and field notes made by the team who spent 2 days in each school observing activities and classes.

Secondary data

Secondary data was collected from schools and LEA on pupil exclusions, both fixed-term and permanent (see this chapter, *Participants*). However it has been suggested that the concept of exclusion is a social construction, with major implications for the validity of any exclusion data, such that some previous studies have discarded this measure (Gottfredson et al., 1993; Vulliamy and Webb, 2003).

The team also undertook detailed analysis of documentation, in the form of prospecti, behaviour and SEN policies, Ofsted inspection reports, Panda and HMI reports and records of recent in-service training on EBD issues, as previous Educational Psychology interventions in failing schools had shown this to be essential to understand the school contexts (See Appendix 9).

Outcome measures (Hypothesis 2)

The main baseline and outcome measure used was the Behaviour Environment Audit, as described in Chapter 1 (Williams and Daniels, 2000). This is an 85-item 5 sub scale self-report inventory which asks respondents to scale the severity of their concerns about environmental factors, from 1 which is “*no real room for improvement*” to 5 which means “*very significant need for action*”. The checklist is subdivided into 5 subscales: Whole-School Policies (including rules and implications, support for staff, parents and governors), Classroom Organization, Classroom Management, Classroom Rules and Routines (including rules, routines, rewards and sanctions), and Out of the Classroom. Staff checklists can be totaled to give a school profile of staff perceptions of the behaviour environment in school (Williams and Daniels, 2000). A preliminary evaluation study concluded this was a useful tool to set a context for a behaviour improvement programme (See Chapter 1) (Cole et al., 2000)

The baseline checklist had to be completed before the programme team spent significant time in school. Procedures for this were run as in the manual (Stoiber and Kratchowill, 2000). In July 2002, the follow-up post-test was sent to coordinators to complete with colleagues in order to reduce the effect of personal contact with the team. The team crosschecked a sample of the returns, and a further crosscheck of all other returns was undertaken by a paid student.

Headteacher interviews

The project manager undertook 4 pre-arranged semi-structured one-hour interviews with four primary headteachers, using a short structured questionnaire to obtain evidence of the headteachers' perceptions of the programme process and outcomes, approximately 2 weeks into the first term following the project (See Appendix 16). 2 changes of Headteacher through illness resulted in only 2 of the interviews being fully completed. Analysis is by effects matrix display.

Success criteria

Headteachers, coordinators and LEA representatives drew up a 32-item Agree/ Disagree inventory as a working measure of the response in schools to the programme (Elliot, 1991). 22 items were outcome-related and 10 output-related. Outcome items are designed to measure changes in behaviour management practices, changes in staff practices and attitudes, and coordinators' achievements as well as providing evidence of staff involvement. The scoring analysis is a qualitative to quantitative by numerical count (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Scores over 12 were rated as high outcome, 8-12 were medium and 7 or below were low outcome. Key items for this measure were: "*Staff report changes in behaviour and attitudes*" and "*Pupils of concern have more effective practices and provision in place*" (See Appendix 13).

The success criteria inventory was scored by coordinators in May 2001, and repeated with all coordinators again in May 2002 two months before project was due to finish.

Feedback Coordinators Year 2

A 4-item questionnaire was devised for coordinators to complete in July 2002 to measure their final perceptions of their programme work (See Appendix 12). Key items for this measure were: "*On a scale of 1-5 how pleased are you with the work you have done in your school?*" and "*Do you feel your work has helped your professional development?*" Returns were collated thematically for each question.

Secondary data

Secondary data gathered at the end of the programme included HMI and Ofsted judgments as published in reports. Data was gathered on pupil exclusions, both fixed-term and permanent. Concerns around the validity of such information suggest that this data should continue to have at best a corroborative function (Vulliamy and Webb, 2003).

School discipline records were initially provided by schools but were found to be anecdotal, to reflect senior management team disciplinary styles and these could therefore not be taken as a reliable index of pupil behaviour (Gottfredson et al., 1993).

Level of Implementation measures (Hypothesis 2)

Implementation measures were collected regularly during 2001/ 2 to explore how the interventions were working and capture evidence from the non-intervention phase (Frederickson, 2002). Formative evaluation while a programme is running and developing in this way assists the exploration of the critical characteristics of the programme (King et al., 1987).

The Checklist of Involvement

The Checklist of Involvement was a 59 item checklist developed by the programme team to record participation in all possible programme components. Some were simple records of attendance and others checked that work was completed or returned (see Appendix 14). After discussion with the team and other support services, a grading scale was set up with scores of 40 or more were ranked as high implementation, 30-40 as medium and below 30 as low.

Success criteria

(See Outcome measures) 10 items were output-related and scored similarly to outcome items. Key output items in this measure were: "*Pupils have been actively involved in reviewing behaviour*" and "*Increased number of rewards*". The inventory was completed by coordinators at end year 1 and 2. Output scores of 7 or more 10 were rated as high implementation, 4-7 as medium level implementation, and below 4 as low implementation.

Year 1 feedback on BEAs

Teachers completed a 6-item questionnaire devised by the team to check teacher perceptions of the value of the BEA planning process, and gauge commitment and spread within school at the end of Year 1. Key questions were “*What have been the effects of using the Behaviour Environment Checklist and writing Behavior Environment Plans in your school on an individual class level?*” and “*Would you recommend their use to other schools?*” This provided implementation information for 3 schools.

Feedback Coordinators Year 1 and 2

This 4-item questionnaire adapted from the Educational Psychology Service annual review of service delivery was also used for coordinators in July 2001 to measure perceptions of programme work at the end of Year 1 (See Appendix 12). Key items for this measure were: “*On a scale of 1-5 how pleased are you with the work you have done in your school?*” and “*What would you like to do differently next year?*”

Headteacher interviews

3 questions in this post-programme measure were designed to check levels of implementation. Headteacher responses are displayed in an effects matrix.

Coordinator termly feedback

A 4-item termly survey was adapted from the Educational Psychology Service annual review of service delivery for use with the coordinators’ team, . This was designed to probe successes, problems, enthusiasm and commitment. Key items for this measure were: “*What went well?*” and “*What might we have done differently?*”. A matrix analysis was completed for these.

Attendance and evaluations for professional development sessions were gathered for all levels of staff to give implementation information. Evaluation sheets were similar for all training sessions. To summarise the data collection procedures, a similar core programme was implemented in each primary school, and the timetable below (in Table 4) shows the range of data collected each term.

Table 4 *Timetable of data collection*

<i>Timing</i>	<i>Name of measure</i>	<i>Source</i>
Start of term 1	Survey (Hypothesis 1) Census and Ofsted /Panda LEA and Schools Exclusion data School entry profiles	All teachers Secondary data Secondary data Schools
<i>Termly for 5 terms:</i>	BEA (1) Summary of work Training evaluations Checklist of Involvement (team) Coordinators' feedback BEA feedback Success criteria	All teachers Coordinators All participants Project team Coordinators All teachers Coordinators+ headteachers
End of Year 1:		
End of Year 2:	BEA (2) Head teacher interviews (4) Coordinators' feedback Success criteria Coordinators' presentation Research conference presentation Exclusion figures (LEA) Ofsted	All teachers Headteachers Coordinators Coordinators+ headteachers Coordinators Coordinators Secondary data Secondary data

To summarise the data collection procedures, a similar core programme was implemented in each primary school, and the timetable above (in Table 4) shows the range of data collected each term.

A number of strategies were used to ensure high response rates for all measures. Personal contact was used to encourage returns of completed surveys, with pre-stamped return envelopes for mailing to coordinators which required responses for data collection. Incentives, discussions at staff meetings and exerting pressure through headteachers were also used as required.

3:5 DATA ANALYSIS

It is suggested that the use of statistical analyses for single-case data should supplement rather than replace visual inspection in applied research, particularly where visual effects are dramatic (Kazdin, 1982). Since, because of their greater stringency, the use of visual

criteria may overlook weak effects or subtle differences and mean that interventions are discarded prematurely. Descriptive and inferential statistics were therefore also calculated for the quantitative results, using the statistical software SPSS where appropriate. It was envisaged that nonparametric tests would be used given that the sets of data obtained would not meet the criteria for parametric analysis (interval/ ratio scale and normal distribution).

The statistical analyses to be carried out were as follows:

Hypotheses 1. To investigate if there were any differences in the explanations offered by teachers in effective and failing schools for pupil problem behaviour; then to investigate if there were any differences in teachers' use of explanations focusing on *unalterable* variables (such as home, community or child factors) as opposed to *alterable* variables (such as school and teacher factors).

Hypothesis 2. To investigate if there was any difference between the teacher perceptions pre- and post -programme in each school, as measured on the BEA. Further analysis of context information would examine the actual and ideal ratings of the classroom environment by pupils and teachers in each school, measured on the MCI.

The selection of scores for analysis was carried out keeping in mind potential methodological or statistical "bugs" such as the "Unit bug" Species 2, which requires that when participants are treated as groups, then the groups not participants are the proper unit of analysis for statistical testing of effects (Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000).

Qualitative data was organised into categories, depending on whether it dealt with output (implementation levels) or outcomes. The qualitative implementation measures were then compared with both quantitative and qualitative outcome findings for each school. Data quality issues were addressed by setting up a number of crosschecking measures to mitigate the effect of the small sample sizes and to address issues around the trustworthiness of the data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Consistency of rating across the members of the programme team and other support services was established early, through comparing observations of the same classes and teachers, and records of joint visits which had been independently completed.

Data was also triangulated through checking multiple data sources, including records of other support services, diaries, field notes etc (Fuller, 2001; Patton, 1990). A complete programme audit trail is available in the form of a record of documentation so that steps taken by the programme team can be recaptured and conclusions verified. Other support services were used to provide external auditing and assess consistency. Common changes were for transcription or calculation errors or for differences in meaning. Records (school visit sheets, feedbacks and termly summaries) were copied back to headteachers and all coordinators for checking also.

Feedback from other partnership staff was also valuable in revealing areas of difficulty in the schools not apparent to the team. Any unexpected findings were carefully integrated into the planning and evaluation (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Data reduction processes were carried out carefully to ensure that no data was overlooked (King et al., 1987).

The next section will consider some ethical issues and how they were addressed by the programme, in particular looking dilemmas for ethical practice which arise in a research design of this type.

3:6 ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethical issues require to be addressed to ensure that research practice is consistent with the well-being and protection of all participants. Researchers working within a traditional experimental design have approached the issues of recruitment, fieldwork and reporting through three principles; informed consent, the avoidance of harm and the protection of confidentiality (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Ethical issues arising from a multi-method study such as this present research study require a more extended analysis to take account of the mixed methodology as well as the field setting (Myers, 1996; Robson 2003).

In change projects in field settings, the researcher's goal of detached inquiry is complicated by the contract through which the researchers, in this case the project team, take on the shared goal of bringing about change and improvement. In this context, providing effective support may conflict with ensuring validity in research findings, as noted in the discussion earlier in this chapter on reflexivity issues. The goal of this programme was to support the

improvement of behavior management in a cluster of schools, while allowing the researcher to gather data in course of the programme.

Informed consent

The research sponsor in this project was the Local Education Authority. In the design and fieldwork phases of the project, the schools were equal partners, with consultation and direction through the project steering group. Governors, through their headteachers, had given agreement for the LEA to undertake data collection and analysis in their school community. With any school improvement work, sensitivity and discretion are important, and Educational Psychologists work within a well-defined code of conduct which includes guidelines on ethical principles for conducting research with human participants (British Psychological Society, 2000). During the programme, Headteachers and the LEA officers and advisors continued to operate through their usual reporting channels for sensitive information, with the programme team involved on a “need to know” basis.

In regard to the work of the programme, the team addressed the issues of informed consent openly at an early stage with school staff and governors. This explicit contracting accompanied by documentary evidence of the process and agreement was followed by regular checking and renegotiation (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Frost, 2000). The programme team circulated the resulting Guidelines on Confidentiality to all stakeholders (see Appendix 10). Reassurance about anonymity for teachers was raised as a concern by one school during the programme in connection with the collated BEA results. It appeared that staff in this school were unwilling for the headteacher to see their responses, and this was discussed and agreed with the headteacher. Pupil awareness and agreement for involvement was addressed by teaching staff with their classes prior to any direct pupil involvement, and through School Council discussions. Parents were also informed by each school about the wider partnership programme, and the particular focus planned in their school through letters, parents’ meetings and newsheets.

Research relations and data dissemination

The research role of the programme manager was not seen as a primary role during programme, although it was agreed that data might be further analysed by the LEA at the end of the fieldwork phase in July 2002. Field notes during the programme were written for

wide circulation for agreement, action and dissemination, as were all records of co-coordinator work and involvement. Confidential issues were recorded by the project team and agreed between team members at time of writing.

Data dissemination was potentially more problematic as the programme team had, as part of their brief, to act in the role of public champion of the partnership improvement process within the LEA, and around the community. This conflict did not in the end arise during the field phase of the programme, and speculation that schools may not be unduly worried about publicity when things are going well might offer one explanation (Myers, 1996). The coordinators tended to be very public about setbacks in the programme work in their schools, which emphasised the collegiality and trust which appeared to exist in the partnership (Lovey, 2000). One might also speculate that, with every partnership school either in difficulty or at the early recovery stage in 2000, staff may have felt that the situation was so bad, therefore there was everything to be gained from openness (Myers, 1996). The one exception in this was the school which closed and reopened after merger. There were sensitive issues around this, and the team tried to assess the potential for improvement, then negotiate withdrawal in an open and fair manner, and with respect for pupils and staff. Thereafter, in the research phase of this study, the identities of the schools were fully anonymised (BPS, 2000).

In summary, the ethical framework of the programme addressed issues around the fieldwork and reporting through ensuring informed consent, the avoidance of negative consequences for participants and the protection of confidentiality. The design of the programme, however, also involved other key aspects of the ethical framework discussed by Miles and Huberman (1994), namely, reciprocity, in that the researcher and participants both were to gain from the research programme, and fair reporting that was responsible and appropriately detached. In this dissertation, anonymity is used to protect identities by using letters of alphabet to signify each school.

The final section summarises predicted and unpredicted methodological issues arising in the course of the study.

3:7 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

For educational psychologists, positive aspects of supporting schools in difficulties come from working at the hard edge, where there can be greater freedom for innovation and creativity in interventions. This project offered the EPS the opportunity to undertake a study of the impact and processes of a real world programme, and within the remit to aim for a “best-possible design” (Robson, 2003; Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000). In longer-term field studies, advantages of familiarisation and context knowledge need to be set against the disadvantage of sample mortality over the projected time span. Quasi-experimental research in a practical setting raises the questions of external validity discussed in this chapter and does not necessarily imply ecological validity, but has been suggested to have greater internal validity (Garard, 2001; Hammersley, 1992). The previous school improvement work of the service gave the programme team substantial background experience against which to compare their observations and findings, and the use of well-evidenced methodological strategies during the programme, such as prolonged engagement in the field, persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, and member checking enabled a range of comparisons, and increased the credibility of the findings (Cohen et al., 2000). The aim was to develop deeper understanding of strategies and principles, which the service might draw upon in further school recovery or improvement activities. External translatability can then be decided in the context of the prospective user (Robson, 2003).

The findings are presented in the next two chapters through quantitative and qualitative data analysis and extended discussion, with results presented first in Chapter 4, followed by a comprehensive examination of these in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4 Results

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the findings will be presented in two main sections, corresponding to the study hypotheses. The first section will report the findings on teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour, to examine whether teachers working in ‘failing’ schools are more likely to offer explanations for pupil problem behaviour which focus on *unalterable* variables (such as home, community or child factors) as opposed to teachers in ‘effective’ schools who are more likely to focus on *alterable* variables (such as school and teacher factors). Additional findings described will include teacher perceptions of quality of work life, sense of efficacy, perceived collegiality and goal congruence. The second section will report further baseline measures such as pupil and teacher perceptions of classroom environment, to corroborate pre-programme Behaviour Environment Checklist findings. This section will then report on the levels of implementation in each school, measured on a number of dimensions, which are analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Finally, post-programme outcomes, including the Behaviour Environment Checklist results for each school, are reported through a range of measures, and linked to the implementation levels for both the ‘failing’ and ‘effective’ schools, to examine the evidence for the second hypothesis, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and therefore, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both ‘failing’ and ‘effective’ schools.

The presentation of inferential results will follow the convention of citing the exact probability levels for statistically significant findings, and certain non-significant findings as described in Rudestam and Newton (2000), with other non-significant findings described as NS. Qualitative data will be presented using a variety of displays as described in Miles and Huberman (1994), and the effect of small sample sizes particularly post-programme will be addressed by the inclusion of a range of information from different data sources.

4.2 TEACHER EXPLANATIONS FOR PUPIL PROBLEM BEHAVIOUR

A pre-programme survey along with a range of secondary data sources was used to examine the first hypothesis that, in failing schools, teacher explanations for problem behaviour will focus more on unalterable variables such as home, community or within-child factors, whereas in effective schools, teacher explanations for problem behaviour will focus more on alterable variables such as school and teacher factors.

School effectiveness

At the start of the programme, 3 schools (D, NJ and WM) were subject to special measures. School C had serious weaknesses, School H was on the LEA list of schools of concern, and School SJ had been removed from special measures in 1999 (See Chapter 3 for detailed data). National census information showed that on all criteria the ward containing Schools D, NI, NJ, WM and SJ was above the national average index of deprivation. Wards containing Schools H, Q and C were under the national average indices for deprivation, although School Q was not in the category of failing school. Therefore, the schools all had very different profiles, in size, urbanicity, attainments and deprivation.

Teacher explanations

In the teacher survey there were 58 teacher returns from 6 schools in the programme, a response rate of around 95% of the total teacher partnership population. Table 5 below presents the median scores for teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour, which show high agreement across all the schools.

Table 5 *Median scores for schools by category of teacher explanation*

Category	Schools					
	C	D	Q	N	SJ	WM
Reading problems/dyslexia	3	3	1	1.5	2.5	1
General learning problems	1	3	3	3	4	2.5
Relationships with teachers	1	3	1	3	1	1
Family factors	4	4	5	4.5	5	4.5
Community factors	2	4	4	4	5	4
Health, sensory or physical problems	2	2	2	1	4	2.5
Poor attendance	2	4	3	2	4	3.5
Level of ability	3.5	2.5	3	3.5	4	3
Don't know	0	0	0	0	0.5	1
EAL issues	0	1	0.5	1.5	1	1

Previous schooling	1	3	2	1	1.5	1.5
Personality factors	4	3.5	3	2	3.5	4
School and teacher factors	2	3	2	3	1	2
Attitude and motivation	4	5	4	4	5	4
Peer relationships	4	4	2.5	4	4	4
Attention and concentration factors	4	4	5	4	4	4
Teachers use of specific pupil management strategies/techniques	3	2	1.5	3	0.5	2

Inferential analysis indicated there was no significant difference among the schools on the Median Test ($x^2=2.95$, $df=5$, $p=0.70$). As there were few extreme values in the data, the Kruskal Wallis test was used on the mean scores, and also showed no significant difference among the schools ($x^2=6.84$, $df=5$, $p=0.23$). These results therefore show that there was no difference between the explanations for problem behaviour given by teachers in the 'failing' schools and those given by teachers in the 'effective' schools.

Further analysis was undertaken out to see if there was any significant difference in teachers' use of 'alterable' or 'unalterable' variables as explanations for pupil problem behaviour. Table 6 below presents the percentage of teacher responses for each explanation.

Table 6 *Percentage of teacher responses for each category in descending order*

FACTOR ^a	SUM of SCORES	MEAN SCORE	PERCENTAGE
D	296.00	5.10	85.06
N	290.00	5.00	83.33
E	281.00	4.84	80.75
Q	281.00	4.84	80.75
O	280.00	4.83	80.46
L	245.00	4.22	70.40
G	237.00	4.09	68.10
H	227.00	3.91	65.23
B	210.00	3.62	60.34
P	196.00	3.38	56.32
M	182.00	3.14	52.30
C	179.00	3.09	51.44
F	171.00	2.95	49.14
R	171.00	2.95	49.14
A	168.00	2.90	48.28
K	162.00	2.79	46.55
J	105.00	1.81	30.17
I	63.00	1.09	18.10

a. See key below for factor labels for teacher explanations in Table 6 above and Figure 2 below

A ^a	Reading problems/dyslexia
B	General learning problems
C	Relationships with teachers
D	Family factors
E	Community factors
F	Health, sensory or physical problems
G	Poor attendance
H	Level of ability
I	Don't know
J	EAL issues
K	Previous schooling
L	Personality factors
M	School and teacher factors
N	Attitude and motivation
O	Peer relationships
P	Attention and concentration factors
Q	Teachers' use of specific pupil management strategies/techniques

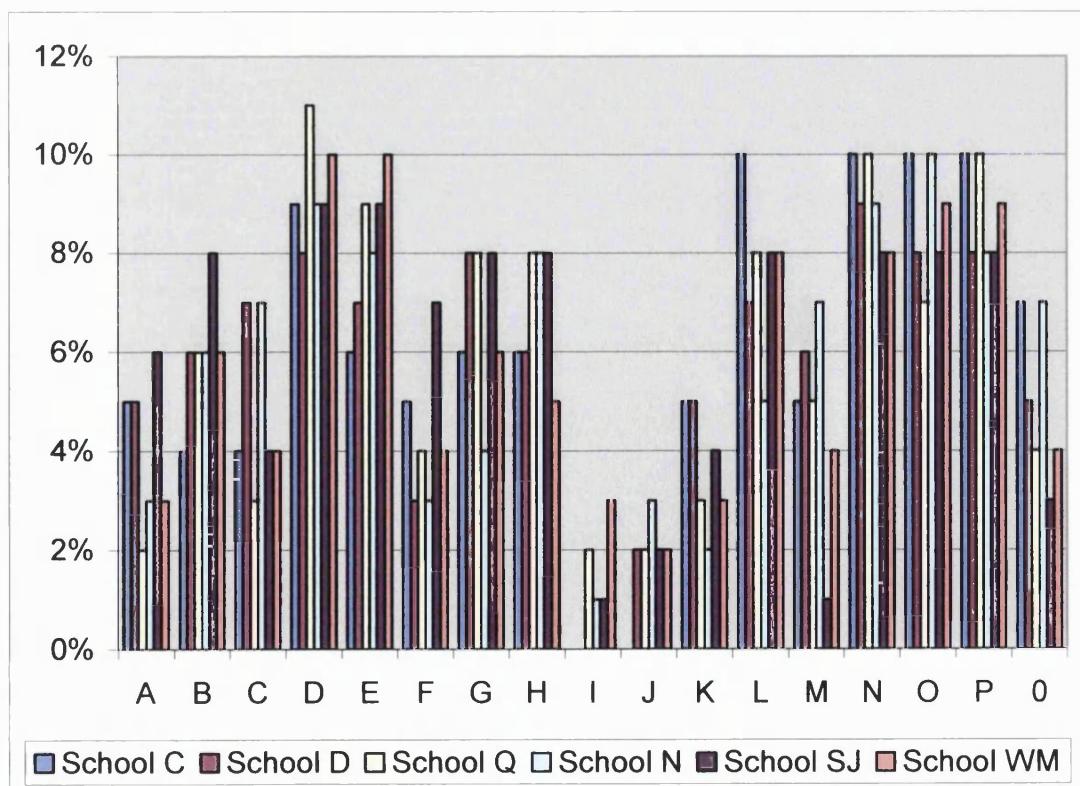


Figure 2 Percentage teacher explanations for problem behaviour in each school

As can be seen in Figure 2 above, there was a wide commonality across the schools. The category to which teachers most attributed pupil problem behaviour was Category D, *Family factors*.

Analysis of mean scores using the Kruskal Wallis test showed that differences between teacher use of the attributional categories were highly significant ($\chi^2=385.30$, $df=17$, $p<0.000$). Analysis of results by the Median test was also highly significant ($\chi^2=315.18$, $df=17$, $p<0.000$). Analysis of responses to the validation question showed no significant difference, confirming the consistency of teacher responses in the survey (Mann-Whitney $U=1494.5$, $z=-1.05$, $p=0.293$). Further analysis using a Mann-Whitney test applied to the median scores revealed significant difference in the number of teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour using the first category, *Family factors*, an unalterable variable, ($U=1$, corrected for ties, $z=-3.4$, $p=0.003$).

The second highest category chosen by teachers was an unalterable within-child factor, *Attitude and motivation*. The third category was again an unalterable variable, *Community factors*, followed by an alterable variable, *Teacher use of specific pupil management techniques or strategies*. *Teacher and school factors* were rated lower in causing problem behaviour than attendance and relationships with peers. The category least frequently chosen by teachers after *Don't know* was *EAL issues*.

In summary, agreement across the partnership schools was highly significant, despite the wide variation in the school effectiveness, as shown in the Panda data. There were other anomalies in the findings. In Schools WM, NI, SJ and D, where the community ethnic population was 10.5%, above the national average, only average 2% of problem behaviour was said by the teachers to arise from EAL issues. Further, teachers in School C attributed 15% problem behaviour to family and community factors, although the census data shows 57.5% School C children living in high social class households, compared to only 5% children living in high social class households in the wards for Schools D, WM, SJ and NI, where teachers attributed 17% problem behaviour to family and community factors, only 2% higher than School C.

Further items in the survey which provided broader insight into teachers' perceptions of school behaviour management practices showed that in Schools SJ and C, teachers thought they had more influence over school behaviour policy and the content of in-service training and school priorities, compared to teachers in Schools D and NJ (at the time both subject to special measures). In Schools Q, NJ and D teachers felt that they were less respected by the LEA than in Schools C and SJ and across all schools, teachers felt less respected by the LEA, than by other teachers, parents and pupils.

A similar pattern emerged for perceived level of support from colleagues. All teachers in School SJ gave the maximum rating here, and teachers in Schools C, WM and Q were also very satisfied with staff support. Teachers in failing School NJ were less satisfied. Teachers' responses were mixed on the extent to which they were involved and trained in behaviour management. In Schools D and NJ, where recent inspections had been highly critical of behaviour, teachers expressed less support for the disciplinary standards at the schools, for the social and moral values promoted, and were in less agreement that they had enough authority to do the work expected of them, in comparison to Schools C and SJ, where teacher and school goal congruence was higher. In Schools D and NJ, teachers perceived that they talked about problems rather than solving them and that their influence in the workplace was lower than they would wish. A very high proportion of teachers across all schools were in agreement that the reputation and performance of their school was important to them (median =5, signifying high agreement), that they tried hard to show their pupils that they cared about them (median =5), and that they felt that it was important for staff to know about pupils' families (median =5).

In summary, the findings from the teacher survey do not bear out the first hypothesis. No link was found between teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour and school effectiveness in this partnership. Teachers working in the 'failing' schools showed no difference in the explanations they offered for pupil problem behaviour from teachers in the 'effective' schools. Across all schools teachers showed a significantly higher use of the explanation *Family factors (an unalterable variable)* as a cause for pupil problem behaviour, than any alterable variables. There were, however, some differences between teachers in the effective and failing schools on other factors, namely, teachers' perceived

respect, sense of efficacy and collegial support, with teachers in the less effective schools appearing less satisfied.

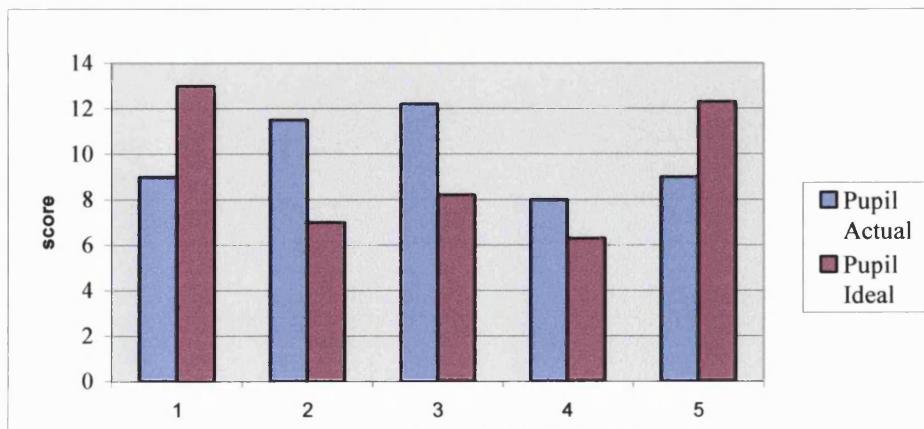
4:3 FURTHER BASELINE MEASURES

The following sections will report on findings which address the second hypothesis, namely, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and therefore, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both 'failing' and 'effective' schools. This section will first describe further baseline measures such as pupil and teacher perceptions of classroom environment, sampled in classes in the first phase schools. This will be linked to the findings of the teacher survey described in the previous section, classroom observations and pre-programme behaviour environment checklists, to provide a full account of existing perceptions of pupil problem behaviour.

Pupil perceptions

In the first phase Schools H and NI, pupil perceptions were sampled using My Class Inventory Short-form (Fraser and O'Brien, 1985). For School H Key Stage 2 class, the mean MCI scores presented graphically in Figure 3 below show the difference in what pupils experienced and what they would prefer to experience in classroom environment, total 28 pupils.

Figure 3 *School H Pupil Actual/ Pupil Ideal mean scores on My Class Inventory*



Note: 1=satisfaction, 2=friction, 3=competitiveness, 4=difficulty, 5=cohesiveness

The discrepancy between the mean pupil ratings for actual and preferred (or ideal) classroom environment was highly significant on all 5 subscales, $p=0.035$ or greater (see Table 7 below).

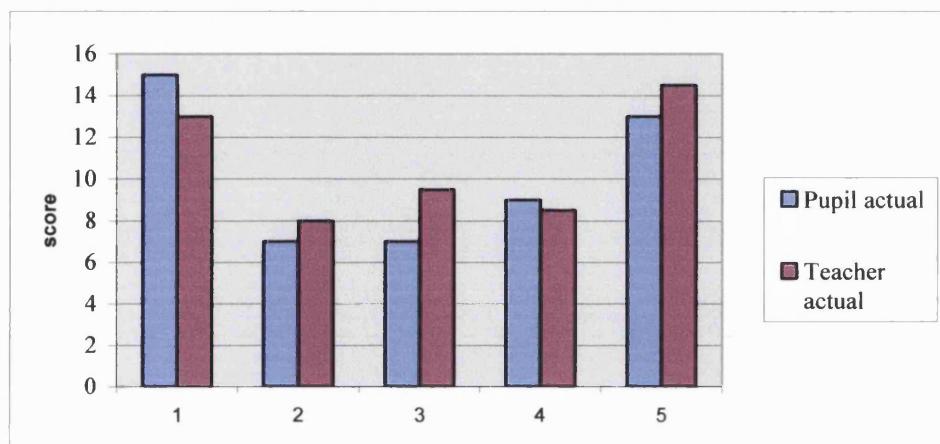
Table 7 Descriptive statistics and significance levels for School H Pupil actual and Pupil preferred (ideal) scores on My Class Inventory

Wilcoxon Ranks Test	Signed	Preferred satisfaction/ Actual Satisfaction	Preferred Friction/ Actual Friction	Preferred Competition/ Actual Competition	Preferred Difficulty/ Actual Difficulty	Preferred Cohesiveness / Actual Cohesiveness
School H Pupil actual-Pupil preferred scores						
Value of Z	-4.155	-4.132	-3.317	-2.114	-3.888	
Significance (2-tailed)	<.000	<.000	.001	.035	<.000	
Median (Actual)	9	11.5	13	9	9	
Medial (Ideal)	13	6.5	7	7	13	
Std. Deviation (Actual)	2.34	2.83	3.19	2.27	2.82	
Std. Deviation (Ideal)	2.37	1.86	3.43	1.90	3.08	
Percentiles (actual) 25	7	9	11	5	9	
Percentiles (actual) 75	11	15	15	9	11	
Percentiles (ideal) 25	11	5	5	5	9	
Percentiles (ideal) 75	15	8	11	8	15	

The KS2 teacher rating of actual classroom environment was not significantly different from the mean pupil actual rating, but was significantly different from the teacher ideal rating ($p=0.05$). There was no significant difference between actual and ideal rating for the KS1 teacher, but a significant difference between the actual ratings for the KS1 and KS2 teachers ($p=0.05$). For corroboration, the coordinator's key stage 2 class was observed using an FFI Behaviour Frequency record. The findings of classroom observation and pupil perceptions were consistent.

In School NI there was a small non-significant discrepancy between the teacher –pupil actual scores in 3 classes sampled, total 31 pupils (see Figure 4 below for Class L data) and high agreement between teachers about the ideal classroom environment.

Figure 4 *School NI Pupil mean Actual and Teacher Actual scores on My Class Inventory*



Note: 1=satisfaction, 2=friction, 3=competitiveness, 4=difficulty, 5=cohesiveness

Although visual inspection of the scores indicated small differences across teacher actual scores in School NI (see Table 8 below), these were not statistically significant (see Table 9 below for summary of significance levels for both schools).

Table 8 *My Class Inventory; Pupil mean and teacher scores for Schools H and NI*

School H	Satisfaction	Friction	Competitiveness	Difficulty	Cohesiveness
KS2 Teacher actual	9	6	9	7	5
KS2 Teacher ideal	15	5	5	7	15
KS2 Pupil actual mean n=28	8.9	11.8	12.3	7.9	9.3
KS2 Pupil ideal	13	6.7	8.4	6.6	12.3
KS1 Teacher actual	15	7	11	5	15
KS1 Teacher ideal	15	5	5	5	15
School NI					
Classes actual mean (3 classes) n=11, 9,11	13, 13,12.5	8, 8, 8	9.5,12.5, 11	8.5, 9, 9	14.5,13, 13
Teachers actual	15, 13, 15	7, 7, 7	7, 8, 11	9, 6, 7	13, 15, 15
Teachers ideal	15, 15, 15	5, 5, 5	5, 5, 7	7, 5, 5	15, 15, 15

Table 9 *Significance levels for teacher and pupil scores on My Class Inventory*

<i>School H</i>		<i>Significance level (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Test</i>
KS2 Teacher actual	KS2 Teacher ideal	p=0.05	$\chi^2=10.66$, df=4
KS2 Teacher actual	KS2 Pupil actual	NS	MW U=5
KS1 Teacher actual	KS1 Teacher ideal	NS	$\chi^2=8$ df=4
KS1 Teacher actual	KS2 Teacher actual	p=0.05	$\chi^2=11.25$, df=4
<i>School NI</i>			
Teacher actual (3 classes)	Pupil actual	NS (p=0.57, 0.42, 0.27(corrected for ties 0.37)	MW U=13, 15, 9.5 (z =.33)
Teacher actual	Teacher ideal	NS	$\chi^2=2.36, 3.88$, 3.06, df=4
<i>School H / NI</i>			
School H KS1 Teacher actual	School NI Teacher actual	NS	$\chi^2=5.24$, df=4
School H KS1 Pupil actual	School NI Pupil actual	NS	MW U=10

There were some small but non-significant differences between School NI and School H KS1 scores. Findings from analysis of the data from KS1 pupils need to be interpreted cautiously, given the difficulty found with younger pupils following instructions and maintaining concentration throughout the administration of the survey.

Results from school-devised pupil questionnaires in 4 schools elicited pupil perceptions of aspects of the school day, most commonly lunchtime and playground (See Appendix 6). In School H, an 8 item questionnaire devised by Year 7 showed consistent differences between the responses for pupils in Key Stages 1 and 2, the most marked being that 56% of KS1 pupils but only 22% of KS 2 pupils said they had enough to do at wet lunchtimes. This key stage difference is also found in the My Class Inventory scores for School H teachers at Key Stages 1 and 2 (see Table 9 above), and in teachers' perceptions of the behaviour environment, as shown on the BEA scores for the 2 key stages at School H, where 3% KS1 but 9% KS2 teachers felt there was a significant need for action pre-programme. In School WM 75% pupils said that the most common lunchtime sanction of "sitting beside the wall" did not work, and 64% reported not enough to do at lunchtimes, with 62% bored at wet

lunchtimes. Corroboration of this findings from the pre-programme Behaviour Environment Checklist showed 96% teacher responses were that this aspect of school required action. A majority of pupils in School SJ also reported “little to do” outside and found wet playtimes “boring” in their survey, with 50% teachers reporting a need for action pre-programme. The results from this range of measures act as corroboration for the validity of the pre-programme teacher ratings. The next section will report on the measures taken to establish the level of programme implementation for each school, in order to relate this to programme outcomes.

4:4 LEVELS OF IMPLEMENTATION

General findings by school

This section will report on the levels of implementation measured for each school over the 2-year intervention period. A similar core programme was implemented in each primary school, however as the programme gathered momentum in each school at a different rate, slippage in the intervention phases impacted differentially with higher implementing schools progressing more quickly. The activities of and support for the coordinators varied from school to school, also reflecting personnel changes, and the variation for each school is described below and summarised in Table 10.

The first two phase one schools, Schools H and NI, both experienced a project “starter” effect, with strong coordinator leadership and backing from Headteachers, although in term 5 implementation in both reduced. School NI maintained some momentum throughout year/ Phase 2 despite imminent merger, finishing with the highest number of interventions and training events completed of all the schools consistently throughout the 2-year period.

In School H the work of the programme and the coordinators was well received over Phase 1. In Year 2, a new headteacher elected to rotate the coordinators’ role. The impetus for the programme work therefore dropped, and some of the final measures were not completed in Phase 2, although the team recorded through observations that other activities instigated by the headteacher around behaviour management compensated.

As a secondary school, School D received a more intensive although more reactive pattern of programme input until the school was removed from special measures although the enhanced input was not reflected in the implementation levels. The overall programme was one of a number of potentially conflicting interventions. However, the programme team work at the whole-school, classroom and individual pupil level was commended both in verbal and written feedback from HMI, and by the Headteacher in writing on the school's removal from special measures. Thereafter, the implementation in School D decreased further throughout year 2, and returns and overall implementation were low.

School C had a different context because of its smaller size and rural location, and because there were no reported or observed pre-programme behaviour issues. Implementation in Phase 1 was difficult to measure, partly because of low attendance at training events, however interventions such as the setting up of a School Council were accomplished with efficiency, giving an overall rating of medium implementation.

School WM was also removed from special measures during phase 1, but implementation levels did not drop thereafter as with School D, but stayed high throughout Phase 2, reflecting strong programme leadership in school. This school undertook a number of extra development activities around behaviour management also in phase 2.

School NJ was unable to maintain even low-level implementation after the premature retirement of both coordinators. The appointment of a new headteacher saw brief renewed involvement into phase 1, but this was not sustained, and the headteacher's priorities were crisis-driven through staffing illness, further turnover and immediate behaviour issues which were reflected in rising exclusions and the withdrawal of the school from the programme.

School SJ started the programme with a medium level of implementation although the low availability of one of the coordinators impacted heavily. The appointment of a new headteacher, subsequent illness and staff turnover impacted strongly on the levels of implementation and coordinator satisfaction in Phase 2, and the school was rated therefore as low implementation.

School Q was a partial input school, with 50% of time allocated to other primary schools, but the internal activity levels of School Q, as observed by the team, appeared to compensate for the reduced team involvement. Returns from School Q were high.

Table 10 *Levels of Implementation for each school*

School	Checklist 2002 Possible max=60		Success criteria (output) Possible max=10				Coordinator feedback Possible max=5			Overall rating	
	No. items completed	Level	2001	Level	2002	Level	2001	2002	2002		
H	44	H	7	H	7 ^a	H	3	Q+	3	Q	H
Q	33	M	2	L	2	L	4	V#	4	V	M
WM	46	H	4	M	8	H	3/5	Q/V	4	V	H
S J	34	M	1	L	1*	L	3	Q	2	V	L
C	38	M	5	M	5	M	-	-	-	-	M
NI	47	H	10	H	9	H	4	V	4	V	H
NJ	16	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	W
D	34	M	2	L	2*	L	-	-	-	-	M

a. No update was completed by this school in 2002

+= Coordinators rating of progress: “Quite pleased” or # “Very pleased”

Note: School Q was a reduced programme input school

The final checklist of involvement and the success criteria inventory which led to the placement of the schools into implementation levels are shown in Appendices 13 and 14.

There were also pressures from staff turnover and school inspections which impacted on stability and implementation, as summarised for each school in Table 11 below.

Table 11 *Stability of each school during the programme, and key milestones*

School	Coordinator stability		Headteacher stability		Removed from SM/SW	Partship pres.	BEA follow-up done	Research presented	Overall
	Year 1	Year 2	Year 1	Year 2					
H	Yes	No	Yes	No	-	Yes	Yes	No	
Q	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
WM	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
S J	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	-	No	Yes	No	No
C	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	Yes	No	No	Yes
NI	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	No	Yes	No	Yes
NJ	No	No	No	No	-	No	No	No	No
D	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No

Findings for each measure

Checklist of Involvement

A summary of the strategy involvement in each school is recorded in the *Checklist of Involvement* (See Appendix 14). At the start of the programme, Schools Q, H, WM and NI submitted almost the full range of school information requested, with Schools C and D the least. Of the high implementation schools, Schools NI and WM completed 47 and 46 out of 60 possible interventions, and coordinators from School NI attended 100% of the coordinator team meetings and training events. School H scored 44, despite low participation by coordinators in Phase 2.

Success criteria inventory (output items)

Schools D, H and SJ did not rescore the success criteria inventory at the end of Year 2 (See Appendix 13). For whole-school items, looking at total scores over the 2-year period, all schools reported that they had systematically identified priorities, and measured the existing baseline situation in their schools before developing procedures and practices to improve behaviour. All schools reported that their schools had involved all the staff in reviewing the behaviour policy. Schools H, WM, NI and Q said that non-teaching staff had also participated and contributed. Schools H and WM said that pupils had also been actively involved in reviewing behaviour. All schools except School Q had used the Behaviour Environment Checklist and Planning procedures.

A number of items measured coordinator engagement. On these all coordinators except Schools D and SJ said they had sampled a range of materials and strategies for behaviour improvement and had increased knowledge of school improvement processes. School NI noted that support had been greater in Phase 1. The total output scores ranged from 9 for School NI to 1 for School SJ. Schools NI, WM and H were rated as high implementation on this measure.

Headteacher interviews (output)

Headteachers in Schools H and Q reported that the programme had been implemented with high strength and fidelity in their schools, that coordinators and teachers had begun to behave differently and they attributed this to the impact of the programme. All headteachers interviewed described the level of implementation as higher for the coordinators in each school than other staff.

Training attendance and evaluations

100% LSAs evaluated their training useful, 65% as ‘very useful’, with comments such as “*It reinforced my confidence in my abilities*”. 100% LTS found their training useful, with 68% rating sessions as ‘very useful’. Evaluations were not analysed for each school but they can be linked to the success criteria inventory in which Schools H, NI, WM and Q reported that non-teaching staff had been effectively involved in the programme work.

Coordinator termly summaries

These showed the fidelity of programme implementation for each school, describe difficulties faced by coordinators, and corroborate findings from other measures (See Appendix 12). Coordinators from School H commented at the end of phase 1 on the need to generate more staff enthusiasm for the programme, particularly from non-teaching staff and later summaries show greater depth of implementation with LSAs involved through assemblies and starting to run lunchtime clubs alongside teachers. School WM likewise commented during phase 1 on the need for wide staff involvement through targets for whole-school behaviour, with later summaries illustrating how the coordinators achieved this. There is further evidence of the implementation problems in phase 2 in School SJ, with coordinator comments on “*staff fluctuations and lack of release*”. Coordinators in

School Q commented on the ambitiousness of their plan for change. This school paid all non-teaching staff to attend an after school meeting to identify difficulties around school and plan for change. Comments from phase 2 summaries for school Q showed also that this school was working on the individual pupil level. In Schools H and Q, coordinators took over responsibility for briefings to non-teaching staff. These summaries track the responses of schools in the non-intervention phases, provide corroboration for the rating of Schools WM and H as high implementation, and illustrate further some of the discrepant findings around School Q, with the level of improvement activity in school appearing disproportionate to the reduced programme team input. No summaries were received from Schools D or NJ at any point despite follow-up.

Coordinator year feedback

Findings from this are presented in Appendix 12. At the end of both the first and second years of the project, coordinators from Schools Q and NI perceived their work had gone very well in their schools in relation both to changes in their school practices, the involvement of their colleagues and their own professional development, and rated this as 4 on a scale of 1 to 5. School SJ expressed themselves as less satisfied with their own input in Year 2, but nevertheless that staff in their school had responded “very well”. Key concepts mentioned in reports from Schools WM, NI, Q and H are “*awareness*”, “*responsibility*”, “*leadership*”, “*status*”, and “*teamwork*”.

Levels of implementation and survey findings

Of the high implementation schools, School WM was a school of low effectiveness during phase 1, but where staff perceived good collegial support from the teacher survey results reported in the last section. Teachers in all high implementation schools had expressed support for the disciplinary standards at the schools, for the social and moral values promoted, and felt that they had enough authority to do the work expected of them, although not as highly as teachers in Schools C and SJ, where implementation levels were lower.

In the 3 high implementation schools teachers felt that they were respected, again not as highly as in Schools C and SJ. Teachers in high implementation School WM felt they had

more influence over school behaviour policy, the content of in-service training and school priorities, than teachers in other low effectiveness schools. A similar pattern emerged for perceived level of support from colleagues, and solving problems. In contrast, the 2 more effective schools, both with high perceived teacher efficacy and support, achieved only medium level of implementation. These findings suggest a range of factors linking teacher perceptions, school effectiveness and implementation levels.

Summary

The analysis of the implementation measures shows that there were 3 high implementation schools overall, all primary, Schools NI, WM and H. Of the schools in the medium implementation band, School Q had received only 50% team input yet still achieved a medium rating in implementation. This suggests that the school was changing at a faster rate to begin with or that the changes instigated by the programme interacted with other conditions in school to produce an accelerated effect. School SJ was badly affected by staffing difficulties which impacted heavily on the coordinators work. From headteacher comments in the post programme interviews in Schools H, Q, WM and SJ, the level of implementation was higher for the coordinators in each of these schools than for other staff, although this and teacher variation in use of programme strategies cannot be confirmed directly in this study. In relation to school effectiveness, of the 3 failing schools (subject to special measures at the start of the programme, Schools D, NJ, WM), only School WM achieved a high level of implementation. All schools reported difficulties in sustaining momentum during the non-intervention phase, although high implementation schools actively renegotiated interim support.

4:5 PROGRAMME OUTCOMES

This section will report the findings on school outcomes, which will then be linked to implementation levels and school effectiveness, to examine the second hypothesis, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and that therefore, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both 'failing' and 'effective' schools. The first findings reported here are on the primary outcome measure, the BEA.

Teacher perceptions of the behaviour environment

The percentage teacher responses for each section the Behaviour Environment Checklist pre and post-programme are summarised for each school in Appendix 17. Median scores are reported for each of the 10 subscales of the 5 Sections of the BEA, showing number of teachers completing the audit (see Table 12 below).

Table 12 Median scores for the pre- and post-programme Behaviour Audits

MEDIAN SCORES	BEA Section	A^a			B	C	D				E
SCHOOL		1/RP ^a	2/SS	3/PG	4/CO	5/CM	6/Ru	7/Re	8/S	9/Ro	10/OOC
School H	2000 N=10	3	3	3	3	4	5	4	4	4	2
	2002 N=7	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4
School Q	2000 N=14	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
	2002 N=14	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
School WM	2000 N=7	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	5	4	3
	2002 N=3	4	4	3	4	4	4	3.5	5	4.5	4
School SJ	2000 N=8	5	4	4.5	4	5	5	4	5	4	4
	2002 N=7	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
School NI	2000 N=7	4	4	2	4	5	5	5	4	5	4
	2002 N=3	4.5	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	4
School NJ	2000 N=11	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3

a. For description of each section and sub-section see next page.

Because the data were categorical, non-parametric statistics were used to test for significance for each section of the BEA, using the Mann-Whitney test (Siegel, 1956).

Section A: Whole-school policies

Rules and Implications: All schools showed significant changes.

Support for staff: Schools H and NI showed significant changes.

Parents and governors: Schools H and NI showed significant changes.

Section B: Classroom organisation

All schools showed significant changes from the pre-programme ratings.

Section C: Classroom management

Significant changes were reported for all Schools except School SJ.

Section D: Classroom rules and routines

Rules: Schools Q, WM and NI showed significant changes.

Rewards: Schools Q, SJ and NI showed significant changes.

Sanctions: School NI showed significant change.

Routines: Significant changes were reported for all schools.

Section E: Out of the Classroom

Significant changes were reported for all schools except School NI.

Table 13 below summarizes significant post-programme changes on each BEA subscale.

Table 13 *Significant changes for each school on BEA post-programme scores*

BEA section	School	Significant change p=	Value of U	Value of Z
A: Whole-school policies:				
Rules and Implications	H	0.000	1234.00	-4.69
	Q	0.004	4896.00	-2.84
	WM ^a	0.043	546.50	-2.02
	SJ	0.009	1311.00	-2.62
	NI ^a	0.004	435.00	-2.86
Support for staff	H	0.000	1288.50	-5.19
	NI ^a	0.001	262.50	-3.43
Parents and governors	H	0.049	407.50	-1.96
	NI ^a	0.000	16.00	-4.59
B: Classroom organisation	H	0.001	9846.00	-3.26
	Q	0.030	21305.00	-2.16
	WM ^a	0.050	2684.00	-1.96
	SJ	0.029	6561.00	-2.18
	NI ^a	0.001	1244.50	-3.18

BEA section	School	Significant change p=	Value of U	Value of Z
C: Classroom management	H	0.000	5942.30	-4.08
	Q	0.000	13282.50	-5.06
	WM ^a	0.000	2184.00	-3.94
	NI ^a	0.021	1749.50	-2.31
D: Classroom rules and routines				
Rules	Q	0.016	1830.00	-2.40
	WM ^a	0.032	295.50	-2.14
	NI ^a	0.006	234.00	-2.76
Rewards	Q	0.001	1563.00	-3.19
	SJ	0.001	475.50	-3.27
	NI ^a	0.005	157.50	-2.82
Sanctions	NI ^a	0.043	176.00	-2.02
Routines	H	0.036	1155.00	-1.91
	Q	0.000	1700.50	-5.52
	WM ^a	0.008	257.50	-2.64
	SJ	0.035	754.50	-2.11
	NI ^a	0.001	207.00	-3.25
E: Out of the Classroom	H	0.000	2034.00	-6.32
	Q	0.000	5716.00	-7.09
	WM ^a	0.021	598.00	-2.30
	SJ	0.000	1841.50	-5.73

a. In Schools WM and NI, the number in the post-programme response group was less than 50% pre-programme level.

Summary

Section D: “*Sanctions*” showed least shift across all schools. Across all schools 18.5% teachers felt there was a “ very significant need for action” pre-programme, but no teachers post-programme. The schools rated as high implementation (H, NI, WM) showed the greatest movement in teachers’ perceptions, although the results for Schools WM and NI need to be interpreted with caution as the number of completed post-programme BEAs was low. School Q which was formally a low input school showed changes in teacher perceptions as great, or greater, than the high implementation schools.

The next section will describe results from other outcome measures to corroborate the BEA results. Table 14 below summarises these findings from other outcome measures, with success criteria inventory scores rated L=low, M= Medium or H=high.

Table 14: *Summary of other programme outcome measures for each school in 2002*

School	Exclusions 2000-2002 Permanent / Fixed term	Changes in DfES status	Success criteria inventory (outcome items) Possible max=22				Headteacher view of improvement (interview 2002)
			2001	Level	2002	Level	
H	0 / 5	Improved school award	9	M	9	M	Yes
Q ^a	0 / 20	-	3	L	15	H	Yes
WM	0 / 16	Removed from SM	9	M	17	H	Yes
S J	0 / 8	-	2	L	2	L	Yes
C	0 / 0	-	10	M	14	H	-
NI	0 / 8	-	17	H	18	H	-
NJ	2 / 70	Fresh start school	1	L	-	-	-
D	7 / 294	Removed from SM	8	M	-	M	-

a. Low programme input school

Exclusion figures

LEA records of exclusions show a small decrease in exclusions, both permanent and fixed term, for the schools from the 1998-2000 figures, but senior management team changes and differences of style led the team to conclude that any inferences from these figures would be unreliable as a key measure of post-programme pupil behaviour.

Ofsted judgments/ DfES status

Evidence for effectiveness of whole-school interventions comes from the HMI reports and the changed DfES status of schools over the programme. For School D in 2001, the inspection report noted “*Standards of behaviour have improved.*” “*The school has worked hard on pupils’ movement around the building and this has resulted in considerable improved behaviour*”. “*The school has placed great emphasis on pupils’ behaviour in and*

out of lessons. It has made good progress..." In classroom level work, outcomes were mentioned positively in HMI reports for Schools D and WM.

Success criteria inventory (outcome items)

In Schools H, NI, WM, Q and C, coordinators indicated that they saw improvements in pupil behaviour and attitudes. In all programme schools except School SJ, coordinators reported an increase in positive comments about behaviour from other staff. All school coordinators reported increased knowledge about practices across the partnership. School coordinators in Schools Q, NI and WM said that staff in their schools showed increased confidence and skills in dealing with behaviour, and along with School D, reported decreased use of sanctions. Schools C and SJ said staff noted more positive contacts with parents concerning behaviour. The schools which reported the greatest number of success criteria achieved were also those which had implemented the programme most strongly as recorded on the Checklist of Interventions.

Headteacher Views (interviews: outcome items)

Four interviews were conducted with the Headteachers of schools where the project had worked most intensively, and their responses categorised in relation to the programme objectives (See Table 15 below). Although the temporary headteachers in Schools SJ and WM were unable to draw comparisons with the baseline situation, one reported comment from the Senior LTS that behaviour was "*completely different at lunchtimes*". Headteachers of the two high implementation schools commented on the professional development of the coordinators, as they had begun to see the "*bigger picture*". Part of the success was suggested by the headteacher of School H as "*schools were encouraged to take responsibility for their own challenges*". Time spent in school by the project team was said to have been crucial, and the sharing across the partnership was mentioned as an important feature of the programme. In Schools Q and H headteachers noted a number of other initiatives which were successfully underway. In School D there was no formal headteacher evaluation, but in the EPS Annual review of service delivery, the work of the EPS including the programme was rated 7 on a scale of 1-7 with the headteacher comment "*we couldn't have got out of special measures without the EPS*".

Programme objectives	School H	School Q	School WM	School SJ
Improved behaviour/management	YES Concern now is low-level irritant behaviour	YES	YES "obvious improvement"	YES Completely different now
Effects on pupils	Like whole-school reward system. Better sense of pride. More articulate and aware of shortcomings. More insight and reflection	Behaviour is good	Systems work for most children"	
Effects on coordinators	Improved Volunteer now: "we'll sort it"	More positive than teachers, more like headteacher in some views, see bigger picture Confidence and standing increased		
Effects on teachers	Attitudes changed Calmer, less shouting, agree issues are smaller, still have unrealistic expectations, worry over normal behaviour	(Teachers say ...) behaviour better, not as positive as coordinators or headteacher. Focus on problems here and now		
Effects on others		Parents say behavior is good. on school trip; "best-behaved school all year" from one site visited. Supply teachers come back now		Improved behaviour, now "boring at lunchtimes" (report from SENIOR LTS)
Effects on organization	Teamwork, collegial support School encouraged to take responsibility	Ethos grown Teachers as a group		

Table 15 *Headteacher interview responses for programme objectives*

Coordinator termly summaries

The narrative evidence from these termly developmental summaries corroborates findings from other outcome measures as to which major initiatives were pursued in each school.

School WM submitted the most regular and detailed summaries. However non-returns appeared also to be a matter of coordinator style as well as an indication of lack of progress.

Coordinator feedback

While this was reported primarily as an output measure in the last section, there were certain key outcomes also in final reports. Coordinators in School Q described how they had “*developed leadership skills*” through supporting staff. In the high implementation schools, coordinators in School H said “*leading meetings*” had contributed to professional development, and coordinators in School NI described their work as part of their “*professional portfolio*”.

4:6 SUMMARY

In relation to the first hypothesis, the findings from the teacher survey showed no link between teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour and school effectiveness. Teachers in ‘failing’ and ‘effective’ schools all showed a significantly higher use of the explanation *Family factors (an unalterable variable)* as a cause for pupil problem behaviour. There were, however, some differences between teachers in the effective and failing schools on other factors, namely, teachers’ perceived respect, sense of efficacy and collegial support, with teachers in the less effective schools appearing less satisfied.

To address the second hypothesis, findings reported in this chapter show that the programme was implemented at some level in all but one of the schools. Measures of implementation levels indicate that three schools were in a high implementation group, and one further school, although with reduced team input, showed many of the characteristics of the high implementation group.

Post-programme findings from every school showed improvements in teacher perceptions of the behaviour environment as measured on the 5 subscales of the BEA, albeit to a different extent on different subscales. A number of the changes were highly significant.

Ratings from teachers in the high implementation schools showed greater significant change, but positive changes were found in all but one programme school.

Other measures described here corroborate the findings for implementation levels and outcomes, in that high implementation schools showed greater staff commitment, involvement and change. Teachers, coordinators and headteachers in the 3 high implementation schools and in School Q were generally more favourable to the programme, and reported that it had been more effective than teachers in low implementation schools. Coordinator and school responses during the non-intervention phases are further evidence for the implementation and impact of the programme. In contrast, the 2 more effective schools, both with high perceived teacher efficacy and support, achieved only medium level of implementation and less positive outcomes.

The relationship between outcomes and level of implementation, and how these are affected by school effectiveness and teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour is therefore more complex than had been proposed in the hypothesis. In this study, results do not support the first hypothesis, that teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour in the 3 failing schools would focus more on unalterable variables such as home and pupil factors than teachers in the effective schools, who would focus more on alterable variables, such as teacher and school factors. However findings do provide support the second hypothesis, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour. Results indicate that, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both 'failing' and 'effective' schools.

The key factor overall in improvement of pupil problem behaviour appears to be level of implementation of programme. The next chapter will examine the findings in relation to past research and, taking into account the design limitations, relate their usefulness to future school improvement programmes.

Chapter 5 Discussion

5:1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter will start with an overview of the findings in relation to the two study hypotheses. Results did not bear out the first hypothesis, in that teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour were no different in the failing schools, than in the more effective schools. Teachers working in the 'failing' schools and teachers in the 'effective' schools all showed a significantly higher use of the explanation *Family factors (an unalterable variable)* as a cause for pupil problem behaviour.

The second hypothesis was confirmed by the study findings, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and that, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both the 'failing' and 'effective' schools. This chapter will explore further the processes and outcomes in the programme schools, examine these in the light of past research findings and consider the usefulness of the research base of school effectiveness and improvement. Particular aspects which will be addressed are the impact of the planned and unplanned elements of the intervention, and other contributory external factors. Given the design limitations, this chapter will look in detail at alternative explanations for the findings, and consider the evidence for and against these. Finally, some suggestions will be made about the key mediating variables linking implementation, school effectiveness, teacher explanations and outcomes, and thought given to whether the similar outcomes could be achieved in future school improvement programmes.

5:2 OVERVIEW OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

In relation to the first hypothesis, no link was found between teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour and school effectiveness, as teachers working in the schools classified as failing showed no difference in the explanations they offered for pupil problem

behaviour from teachers in the more effective schools, which meant that the programme interventions were laid across a similar range of teacher beliefs in each school. Across all the partnership, teachers showed a significantly higher use of the explanation *Family factors* as a cause for pupil problem behaviour, than any alterable variables, in line with previous research (Croll and Moses, 1985, Miller 1996). Since family factors are seen to be difficult to modify, teachers with this view may feel disempowered to intervene in the cycle of behavioural difficulties. This suggests that improvement programmes involving staff holding these views will require to be more powerful to succeed. In addition, the experience of a successful intervention may lead these teachers to change their explanation patterns for pupil problem behaviour, as found in the 'Successful strategies' study (Miller 1996). Some differences were found, however, between teachers in the effective and failing schools on other factors, such as perceived respect, sense of efficacy and collegial support, with teachers in the less effective schools appearing less satisfied on each of these. Again participation in successful interventions may also increase sense of efficacy as well as improving well-being and professional confidence (Miller, 1994).

To look next at the outcome findings, by comparing the observed results from the post-programme BEAs for all schools, it can be seen that there were significant positive outcomes for all but one school in terms of teacher perceptions of improvements in the behaviour environment. The strength of the changes were variable across schools and within schools for different subscales of the BEA. In relating the process of improvement for Hammersmith School, Whatford comments that defining the problem was not the issue, as teachers knew the problems (1998). It seems from coordinator feedback and the success criteria inventory that school staff in this programme had also been well aware of the areas of difficulty in their schools, and that the arrival of the project team as critical friends was the catalyst for these concerns to be expressed more openly and firmly, as similarly reported by Southworth and Lincoln (1999). Coordinator feedback suggested that the BEA was more a mechanism to drive the classroom audits rather than the whole-school level improvements, although this is not noted in the FFI evaluation (Cole et al., 2000).

The choice by all schools to focus on out of class times is also consistent with findings from previous school improvement projects, such as SMAD, where environmental improvements chosen by teachers as their action research focus were found to be not only

morale-raising but to have a profound effect on behaviour and atmosphere (Myers, 1996). Pupils in the SMAD schools said that environmental improvements encouraged them to adopt more mature behaviour, especially when they were involved in consultation, a finding echoed in those primary schools in this programme where pupil surveys, peer mediation and playground peacemakers were undertaken (Riddell et al., 1998). Some examples of the changed Out of Class practices in the programme schools were very obvious, such as in School H where packed lunches were now eaten in class family groups and 13 different clubs were on offer to pupils, although comments about pupil behaviour and school climate recorded at the initial staff meeting the previous year had been experienced by both the programme team and coordinators as negative and pessimistic. LTS in this school became highly involved through regular meetings set up by the coordinators to review the changes.

In an analysis of 20 school inspection reports from 1995 to 1999, poor physical provision had contributed to 6 of these being placed in special measures (Visser, 2001). Whole school environment issues are very potent for pupils whom previous studies have shown to be very concerned by physical characteristics of school such as litter (Boyd et al., 1993; MacBeath, 1999).

Whole-school level change

A number of school improvement projects have focussed first on school level changes, such as teacher and pupil punctuality to lessons, to derive “*order from chaos*” and set an environment for improvement (Freeman, 2000). HMI feedback for the secondary school in this study was that the focus on corridor behaviour was a key factor in overall behaviour improvement and in supporting the school out of special measures, (Whatford, 1998). Freeman has suggested that initial focus on whole-school issues may serve to reduce the perceived threat to teachers by exploring communal problems, although past school improvement reviews caution that a school level focus should only set the context for multi-level change required to be effective (Riddell et al., 1998; Stoll, 1999; Watkins and Wagner, 2000).

The findings from the success criteria inventory show that teachers in all the programme schools had begun a greater dialogue about behaviour management and problem behaviour,

consistent with the EPSI findings that the programme led to greater teacher openness (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999). Teachers may find it easier to start to talk about whole school issues initially in their search for a shared meaning (Hopkins et al. 1994; Fullan, 1991; Sarason, 1990). Studies have suggested, however, that increased dialogue needs to focus on solving problems and implementing solutions, to ensure changes are effective (Robinson, 1993; Argyris, 1992). The drawing up of whole-school action plans and teacher classroom plans worked well to ensure that the impetus from the increased staff focus on behaviour was translated into change.

Classroom level change

There is some evidence in the post-programme BEAs of significant changes at the classroom level, although systematic data was not collected on teacher use of the behaviour environment plans or on the individual pupil systems. Levels of implementation were higher for coordinators, as reported in headteacher interview data, but there was no corroboration of this possible through other measures. Teacher use of the strategies and systems in the new school behaviour policies were explored only through the headteacher interviews and the success criteria inventory.

As with Gottfredson et al. (1993) it was not feasible to incorporate a within-school analysis of implementation to outcomes. Anecdotal evidence from the classroom observations, staff meetings and behaviour environment plans suggested that poor learning resources and classroom layout, lighting, heating and acoustics which are also noted by Visser (2000) as an issue in teaching pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, figured highly in teachers' concerns. Other successful aspects of the classroom level work were the class challenges and class of the week, commented on in HMI feedback, coordinators feedback and the research presentations.

The perceptions of pupils from the MCI and informal surveys gave corroboration to the findings from the teacher audits and surveys about both whole-schools and classroom issues (Dudley, 1998). As with the EPSI study, pupil perceptions were powerful in showing teachers the problems with daily school life. In school H, the disparity between the experiences of Key Stages 1 and 2 pupils led to teachers organising to try to achieve more similar experiences for pupils in each Key Stage (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999). The

programme team found the use of MCI time-consuming given the high number of pupils with SEN and low reading ability in the programme schools. In the small groups sampled in School NI, pupils perceived their classrooms very favourably, and this was highly consistent with teacher ratings on the survey and BEA. Despite a highly deprived catchment, School NI was a high implementation school, which carried out programme work thoroughly and consistently, despite a deprived catchment. School-determined measures for pupil perceptions in the other schools were found to have high impact, as found also in the EPSI programme (Dudley, 1999).

Individual pupil-level change

Although most of the schools had intended to set up mechanisms for reviewing their work with individual pupils with problem behaviour, this element appeared least secure and therefore more disrupted by the non-intervention phase, and only 2 schools used the FFI Individual Behaviour Planning framework for pupils. The observations of the programme team were that despite claims by Williams and Daniels (2000), this component was not easily compatible with Code of Practice work, perhaps because in this study the behaviour coordinator were seldom also the SENCo as in the FFI evaluation schools (Cole et al., 2000; DfES, 2001).

Variability of outcome

Some variability among the schools in implementation and outcomes was anticipated given the different staff involved, different pre-existing conditions in all schools and that the aim for each school was to embed the programme action plan within the individual School Development Plan (Poster, 1999; Reynolds et al., 1993). The core programme in each school was to be implemented consistently, however as the coordinator feedbacks, success criteria inventory and headteacher interviews show, the presentation was in effect quite different in each institution. The work in School WM reflected strong leadership in school, despite one coordinator's absence on maternity leave. School Q, after a delayed start, began to show all the characteristics of a high implementation school, with strong coordinators and firm backing from the headteacher. Despite the lower implementation rating as measured by formal returns and attendance, this school demanded high levels of support from the programme team in time and expertise. Harris and Hopkins (2000) and Stoll (1996) among others, note evidence for such local implementation effects on outcomes.

Some alternative explanations for this variability, linked to the methodological weaknesses of the research design, will be discussed later in this chapter.

5.3 HOW THE PROGRAMME DETERMINED IMPLEMENTATION

This section will suggest elements of the programme which were key to implementation, and relate these to findings from previous studies.

The co-ordinator role

The coordinators assumed a different role in each school, partly because of different levels of personal commitment and different levels of support from school leadership. The coordinators in the high implementation schools appeared to find the role highly satisfying, both personally and professionally, and achieved a balance between the project activities and ensuring that disruption to the learning of their classes was minimal. In some of the schools, negotiating formal supply cover gave status to the work in school, and release from their classes helped to maintain energy, as in the IQEA programme (Ainscow et al., 1994).

Coordinator feedback also indicated issues in how they had been identified within the schools. Lack of transparency emerged as an issue in one school, and continuity was a potential problem. One headteacher suggested has been that it might be a positive step to change co-ordinators for the second phase of work in schools, and it has also been suggested that the involvement of the head teacher as one of the co-coordinators may have had more advantages than the predicted disadvantages, as in IQEA (Ainscow et al., 1994). However, in School C this did not appear to facilitate the work of the programme.

What had not been adequately recognized was the complexity of the coordinator's role, although the targeted training was reported as helpful (Galvin et al., 1999). Some coordinators were, for various reasons, unable to provide the leadership required despite training and support. One coordinator from School SJ, where staffing problems impacted heavily, felt the programme team should have worked more with the school staff than the coordinators' team, a suggestion also made by coordinators in SMAD (Myers 1996). There were competing pressures for coordinators, and it could be argued that holding to fairly rigid requirements for coordinators reporting work may have been essential, although experienced by them as unhelpful at times (Myers, 1996; Williams and Daniels, 2000).

Different levels of commitment are also inevitable in the second year of a programme of this nature. It can be very difficult joining an established programme at the mid point, although new ideas and input can be energising for the remaining participants.

During the project planning there was some concern as to how to maintain coordinators' motivation since there was to be no formal recognition through enhanced salary (Myers, 1996). As with FFI, the team aimed to ensure that the inset sessions and regular meetings gave the co-ordinators experiences of high quality training (Cole et al., 2000). Some of the coordinators opted to build their programme work into their performance management targets. The project team also tried to ensure that the work of the co-ordinators was publicly acknowledged. As with the IQEA programme, even small issues such as expenses have implications for achieving a good balance of pressure and support (Hopkins et al., 1994). Coordinators in the high implementation schools rated their experiences of the programme and their professional development as better than in the low implementation schools. Co-ordinators welcomed having had the opportunity to develop leadership skills and indicated an increased feeling of collegiality. During the programme, the coordinators were active collaborators, identified issues, planned school level interventions, and monitored and reviewed these (Cohen et al., 2000; Frost, 2000; Myers, 1996). The coordinators also increased their knowledge base, learnt new skills and enhanced their existing skills, in a similar way to that described in the SMAD project (Myers, 1996). Indeed Hargreaves (1972) suggests that all school improvement strategies need to empower teachers in this way.

To summarise, the role was challenging for co-ordinators who needed interpersonal skills to motivate others, organizational skills, the ability to think strategically, and credibility if not status. In particular, if the general school conditions were poor, with high staff turnover and poor leadership the coordinator role was still more complex, consistent with Myers (1996). The role worked best when the coordinator was co-opted onto the school SMT and this also acted as a springboard to promotion.

Communication and planning

It was clear to the team that in some schools the programme had been poorly communicated to staff, as in other studies (Gottfredson et al., 1993). Mindful of recommendations from previous studies, the team tried to find the right balance between careful recording of the work done, and overloading both co-ordinators and headteachers with paperwork (Myers, 1996). Inevitably there are different practices within each school and both quality and quantity of reporting was lower in the schools which were rated as less effective. These issues impacted on the implementation of the programme and in the next chapter recommendations will be made to take account of these in future programmes. The next section will explore factors which were supportive.

Factors in the programme supporting school improvement

Certain aspects of practice appeared important to both implementation and outcomes. The partnership was well-established under the leadership of the secondary headteacher, and the work of the project team benefited through the strategic position of the PEP as chair of the programme Steering Group. Whatford (1998) comments on the importance of the LEA-school relationship in school improvement activities, and it is suggested that one of the key roles of the LEA is to support teacher collaborative networks (Harris, 2001). Of 13 out of 21 schools which showed improvement after inspection, all had external support (Fullan, 1993). The school partnership in this study was a strength and the headteachers worked closely together to a common agenda of raising standards and the reputation of the partnership. Early work by the programme team established trust that data sharing would preserve confidentiality and encourage dissemination of good practice both within and outside the partnership (Frost, 2000).

Teamwork was important at two further levels, the programme team and the coordinators team. The programme team worked in a way which involved both support and challenge, and each member tended to take a different role in each school and developed a style of working where professional boundaries became less relevant. The need for openness in working in this way means that project work in these circumstances may not be suited to all EPs. The high visibility of the team in the schools during the intervention phases was noted as an advantage by one headteacher as in past research (Freeman, 2000).

The coordinators' network was one of the most successful aspects of the programme, as also described by Fullan (2000). With confidentiality guidelines agreed at the outset, there was a pooling of ideas across the partnership. This gradually began to happen without the facilitation of the programme team, giving coordinators a professional reference group and exposing them to new norms from other schools (Fraser and Greenhalgh, 2001; Miller, 1996). It is widely acknowledged that teachers prefer to learn and learn more effectively from other teachers rather than from advisors or consultants (Kovaacs, 1998; Jackson, 2000). The network model in this study facilitated the delivery of tailored training to all levels of staff in the partnership in response to an audit of need, unlike the traditional deficit model of teacher training (Brown and McIntyre, 1993). Training which is embedded in organisational structures is more likely to impact on school development (Roffey, 2000).

The final level of teamwork in this project was the formation of working groups in each school (Hampton and Jones, 2000; Galvin et al., 1999; Ainscow et al., 1995). Freeman describes how such problem solving teams work well when flexible and problem- focussed (2000). Cross-institutional pairings, trios, inner cadres, working groups are all positive ways for schools to tackle issues (Jackson, 2000; Stoll and Fink 1994).

From the beginning of the programme there was a great deal of commitment shown by the schools and in particular the co-ordinators. Part of this may have been "the project effect", through which participants in projects often feel special and rewarded despite extra work, and discussed later with other alternative explanations (Myers, 1996). At the least, their views are seen to inform developments in their schools, and teachers taking part in such projects feel renewed and, as in this case, develop a particular commitment to the initiative. This "project effect" also appeared to release a disproportionate amount of energy in the participants, and this continued throughout the start of the second year of the programme. Overall, as in other projects such as SMAD and IQEA, the efforts of middle managers are striking when they are given opportunity to carry out initiatives (Myers, 1996; Ainscow et al., 1996). As described in SMAD there is no doubt that extra resources encourage schools to participate in projects of this nature (Myers, 1996). In this study the co-ordinators gained status by being able to introduce these unexpected resources into their schools.

Factors in the programme hindering school improvement

Despite the advantage of a common school and LEA agenda, the geographical isolation of the partnership meant that this programme was very different from previous school improvement projects taken on by the EPS. The schools were disparate in size, age grouping and urbanicity, all factors in effective school improvement networks (Leeson, 1996). The programme was planned to impact on the 3 levels deemed to be necessary for successful behaviour improvement: the whole-school level, the classroom level, and the individual pupil level (Gottfredson et al., 1993). As described above, all schools worked on whole-school interventions, but not at the classroom and individual pupil level, and this appeared to depend on teacher choice and SENCo involvement. However Louis (1998) points out that implementation problems are difficult to anticipate. What the results suggest is some expected variability was exacerbated by lack of mechanisms for ensuring the precise definition of problem behaviour and specificity of and completion of core components (Miller, 1996). This was particularly the case during the absence of the programme team between phases unlike the FFI programme with permanent Behaviour Coordinators to monitor the work (Cole et al., 2000). There was no consistency as to whether the coordinators were involved in the formal school review structures (Bennett, et al., 1994).

The 2-year duration of the programme meant that it was essentially a pump-priming project. Previous studies showed that school improvement shows need 3-5 years for changes to impact inside classrooms, although there are different views on the ideal time span of a developmental project (Ainscow and Southworth, 1996; Myers, 1996). Fullan (2000) suggests that 6 years is needed to impact on pupil achievement in a secondary school, whereas other writers suggest more rapid variation can take place (Reynolds, 1998). Fullan (1991) also describes need to support the consolidation from implementation to institutionalisation if changes are to be effective in the long-term.

The original programme timetable became unworkable for a number of reasons. The time allocated to each school was not sufficient in the first phase, and it was difficult to ensure there were no clashes with other training. A further aspect was that the team tried to respond positively to requests which were made for support at short notice, particularly

during HMI visits. These factors meant there was difficulty in sustaining momentum into the second phase. Overall the issues were exacerbated by the ambitious nature of the programme.

To summarise, in the high implementation schools, the findings showed that the programme worked on more than one level, but it appeared that it was the range and scale of the work which impacted on pupil behaviour and management rather than any single powerful intervention or strategy i.e. how much was done rather than what was done, as in a number of other studies (Gottfredson et al., 1993; Myers, 1996; Southworth and Lincoln, 1999; Cole et al., 2000). As well as less activity in the low implementation schools, there appeared to be less commitment to partnership working. Staff from the high implementation schools had high attendance at all the training sessions and a range of personnel were involved in the changes. It appears that staff commitment was key to the process (Hallam and Castle, 1999). In the high implementation schools, the coordinators' activities were monitored closely by the headteachers, and effective links were made to the school development plan.

External factors which affected implementation and outcomes

The attributional patterns of teachers across the partnership, shown in the survey results did not confirm the first hypothesis. Irrespective of school effectiveness, family factors were seen by all teachers as the prime explanation for of pupil problem behaviour before teacher or school factors, and this suggested that work with parents would be an important component. Community involvement including working with governors had been planned in order to draw in all stakeholders, building on evidence from previous work such as the EPSI study (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999).

Some school improvement studies recommended temporary co-option of additional governors from professionals within the LEA and local businesses as one strategy of a school improvement plan (Whatford, 1998; Fisher, 1999). Identifying interested governors who were able to commit time was difficult for most of the schools. It was ironic that a governor representative from one of the special measures schools who committed significant time did not link directly into the behaviour management subcommittee of that

governing body, and disappointing given evidence that governor participation in working groups is effective (Hampton and Jones, 2000).

Parent involvement was also planned into the project but this became dependent on the efforts of individual schools because of the constraints of time. This was not particularly successful in any school, even in School SJ, which as a faith school could be anticipated to have greater parent involvement (MacBeath, 1999). In SMAD, lack of time was the main reason for failure to engage parents, although the diversity in catchment areas in terms of geographic situation, socio-economic indices and ethnicity may also have been a factor (Myers, 1996). The problems with both parent and governor involvement in this study were not specific to schools in the more deprived context. The debate around school improvement strategies for schools in low SES contexts has included suggestions that different policies and systems may be needed to motivate pupils and engage parents (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001).

Effect of teacher perceptions

The survey results from the 58 teachers returns do not take account of psychological predispositions of individual teachers or classroom level factors (Fisher and Grady, 1998). The high return rate across the partnership teacher population increased the reliability of the survey findings, and the confidence in rejecting the first hypothesis (Robson, 2003). The agreement across the 6 partnership schools was highly significant, in which a factor may have been the history of close partnership working. The number of positive comments made by staff in all the schools were seen as very encouraging by the headteachers. Support for the disciplinary standards of the schools, however, did appear linked to school effectiveness. In two less effective schools, teachers also felt that they were better at talking about the problems than solving them, and there were differences linked to school effectiveness again in how teachers rated their influence over setting behaviour policy and whether training met their needs.

As with previous studies, teachers were found to have explanations in most cases for pupil problem behaviour. *Attitude and motivation* was seen as the major within-child factor, and might be suggested as closely linked to *Family factors*, as affected by familial attitude to education. Family factors were seen as more important than school and teacher factors in

explaining problem behaviour. A similar pattern has emerged in other research, which has suggested that these attribution patterns may help to preserve professional self-esteem and release teacher stress, but are disempowering (Elton, 1989; Miller, 1996; Watkins and Wagner, 2000).

The impact of school effectiveness

The study findings support the view that well-implemented improvement programmes in less effective schools can have a positive impact on pupil problem behaviour. For the 3 schools in special measures at the start of the programme, HMI monitoring meant reduced access to staff, and the implementation of the core components was seriously affected by this. In effect, therefore, the work within these schools focused on short-term issues picked out by HMI, with brief windows of opportunity between inspections in which staff had time and energy for the preventative aspects of the programme. The role of the team in the failing schools was more like that described by Whatford (1998) as an extra pair of hands and as role models rather than the systems role as planned.

Three of the schools had SM/SW status removed during Phase 1. These outcomes were attributed in part to the programme team interventions by the HMI feedback and contributed to a rise in morale across the partnership and changes in school priorities, but there were difficulties in generating energy and impetus thereafter to focus on longer term planning. Stoll and Myers (1998) suggest that this type of role should be regarded as school recovery rather than school improvement (Ainscow et al., 1994).

With any failing school there are a number of initiatives at any time, and if staff have become cynical because of poor experiences in these, then engendering further commitment may be more problematic (Fullan, 2000, Miller 1996). The list of initiatives in School D at the outset suggests this may have been an issue. Effective schools are selective about initiatives (Fullan, 2000); although Gray et al. (1999) note that rapidly improving schools straddle different approaches at the same time, as appeared the pattern with Schools Q and H. The initiative overload appeared heavy in the partnership overall and it would have required very coherent management to sustain all the activities (MacBeath, 1998; Learmonth and Lowers, 1998).

A further problem of non-effectiveness is related to instability and turnover of staff, and how this impacts on implementation. The headteachers worked hard to prevent staffing turbulence and recruitment difficulties from impinging on the project work, but these were a constant issue, as described by the coordinators from School SJ. Several of the schools had significant changes in their management teams and programme planning had to take into account changed priorities.

In summary, the low effectiveness of three of the schools was linked to problems with implementation, in which school recovery and school improvement became confused. As is suggested in the research literature, there may in fact be a cut-off point for this kind of programme, which may not suit schools where the difficulties are severe and wide-ranging (Myers, 1996). There were some instances where staff were unable to be optimistic about the potential for change in their school, with one example, (later to be designated a closing school) at the start of year 2, when the Headteacher began the staff briefing with the message: "*OK We all know it's going to be a c... day...*". Attributions for pupil problem behaviour to family factors may relieve staff of responsibility for the change, until teachers are able to see that there can be positive impact from the initiatives.

However, one school with a poor entrenched Ofsted record was able to use the school improvement programme well, both before and after coming out of special measures, and became one of the high implementation schools. Work there was characterised from the beginning by focused meetings, and coordinators who attended all training sessions. Schools' reactions to Ofsted judgments of inadequacy may be different, from resigned acceptance in some cases to determination to fight and prove them wrong (Gray and Wilcox, 1995). Conversely, two of the more initially effective schools participated more selectively.

Fisher (1999) suggests the terminology used by Ofsted is not adequate to describe complex organizations, given that there are some strengths in all schools, and that all failing schools are different in their own ways. When planning interventions, more sophisticated organization analysis is needed to determine the developmental capacity in the school, including aspects of leadership, strengths, values, and weakness, the way tasks are

organized, relationships and communications, perceptions, values and attitudes (Roffey, 2000). Southworth and Lincoln (1999) concluded that consultants need to find out “*where schools are on their improvement journey*”.

How useful is the research base of school effectiveness and school improvement for schools in difficulties?

In this study two of the failing schools improved significantly although this was only in part due to the programme. The third failing school not only did not improve but moved to closure. The research literature on educational interventions is increasingly promoting systematic reviews on what works and why (Evans and Benefield, 2001). In a study of EBD interventions, Evans and Benefield found only 11 out of 33 studies passed their quality criteria.

National guidance, such as in Improving City Schools (Ofsted, 2000a), and studies from school effectiveness research, while useful in profiling effective schools, appear less relevant in providing a recipe for school improvement. It has been suggested that in school improvement schools facing severe difficulties may require an amount of structure more in keeping with the ‘table d’hote’ rather than the ‘a la carte’ menu of school improvement (Hopkins et al., 1994). School improvement studies may be at too high a level of generalization to suggest more than broad strategies, with some useful exceptions (Gottfredson et al., 1993; Myers, 1996). Failing schools require school recovery programmes, depending on their state of readiness, with a limited focus and a limited number of strategies (Hoy et al., 1991; Myers, 1996; Harris, 2000). At a partnership level the research base suggests useful strategies to support school improvement across networks of schools, and the coordinator network was one of the most successful aspects of this study.

At a teacher level, there may be difficult relationships around the behaviour of particular pupils, as with the schools in this study, and issues between teachers and management over inclusion policies (Reynolds, 1996). Programme components require to fit the situation and the first activities of the programme in the failing schools were to update the pupil SEN data to reassure staff that the correct procedures were in place.

If staff in turbulent schools have low expectations of students and their families as suggested in the teacher survey, and feel neglected by the authorities, the potential for cultural change is limited (Dalin, 1993). In these cases Myers (1996) suggests that interventions need tailored to the organisational health of the school. Dysfunctional schools often have inadequate leadership and poor staff relationships, and there is evidence for this from the teacher survey again, where the teachers in the failing schools felt less supported by colleagues, less involved in decision-making, and responded well to innovations focused on nurture for staff. Stoll (1995) suggests that external helpers try to unfreeze the culture through incrementalism, and through small practical changes, such as reviewing the behaviour policy and improving attendance so that the climate for change is established.

Some research suggests that the way forward in such schools is by using the skills and knowledge of psychologists to create a “window of opportunity” for safe change (Gray et al., 1996; Newton and Tarrant, 1992). The comparison between failing schools and dysfunctional families is taken further by Myers (1996) among others, and in how both schools and families respond to problems. The need to be fully aware of the relationship patterns within the school as in the family, the need to supply reinforcement for desired behaviour, and checking what is happening compared to what is being said can be illustrative in seeking an understanding of the organizational problems of schools in difficulties (1996). As part of a quasi-therapeutic programme (Stoll et al., 1996) it may be that one of the roles which the external consultant can take on in failing schools is to act as a container for the anxieties stirred up by staff, and to hold these projected feelings while the group is able to stand back and reflect (Obholzer and Roberts, 1994). On a more optimistic note, recent research also suggests that after traumatic experiences involving shock, denial, adjustment and adaptation, such as staff may undergo during the identification and improvement of a failing school, there may be growth in terms of personal resilience and self-knowledge (Linley and Joseph, 2002).

5:4 ALTERNATIVE EXPLANATIONS FOR STUDY FINDINGS

This section will address some evidence about unexpected outcomes in the study, and how these can be relate to the hypothesis that level of implementation was key in improvement.

Alternative explanations for findings will be discussed, and will consider the extent the richness of the evidence described can compensate for the weaknesses inherent in the study methodology.

Unexpected findings

Exploration of outlying findings appears to help to confirm the hypothesis, that if well implemented the programme produced positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour in both failing and effective schools (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The failure of the programme to impact on School NJ, although similar in catchment to School WM, can be linked to the delayed start to allow for a new Headteacher appointment, followed by the retirement of both coordinators, and a number of teachers. Schools SJ and Q were less satisfied with the process and the outcome of the programme in their school, in comparison to the feedback from the high implementation schools. Coordinators from School SJ complained that the release from class which they required was not carried through in the second year. The rural school C which was selective throughout in its activities, but satisfied with the input, continued to implement parts of the programme alongside other systems. As this school had no issues over behaviour from the start, outcome analysis does not contribute to the evidence.

School Q, which was the partial input school, reported in headteacher and coordinator feedback, that more time from the programme team would have allowed the coordinators to move changes forward faster and to cover more aspects. However, the question is why this school still performed better than other full programme schools. From observations and headteacher reports, School Q was clearly engaged in a major behaviour management programme, which resembled in many ways the programme followed in the high implementation schools, and had considerable success according to comment from pupils. Both coordinators at this school have since been promoted. This Headteacher was the most demanding in terms of discussions with the team about different elements of behaviour programme and links to other initiatives. As with School WM, response to letters and attendance at meetings was very thorough, and proactive. These differences help to explain the results and lend credibility to the evidence for the implementation effect, in which improvement in pupil behaviour was linked to activity in schools, either with or outwith the

programme, and that school effectiveness is not in itself predictive of implementation. The key factor overall in improvement of pupil problem behaviour in the schools appears to be level of implementation of programme. Exploration of these outlying findings helps to confirm the hypothesis, that if well implemented the programme produced positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour in both failing and effective schools (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The next section will look for alternative explanations for results from the study, linked to weaknesses in the study methodology.

Threats to validity

The methodological issues were anticipated in this study as discussed in the Method chapter, where it was noted that that quasi-experimental designs do not permit researchers to draw valid inferences from pre to post-testing because of issues of history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, and regression, any of which may lead to post-programme change (Campbell and Russo, 1999). The high survey return, combined with the corroborating evidence from observations and discussions in each school, suggested that the reliability of the survey was high, and, combined with the high significance levels, and the strong corroborating evidence, that the survey results were a valid reflection of the teachers' attitudes (Robson 2003). This section will explore further to what extent the intervention outcomes were attributable to the level of implementation, and to what extent other factors may have confounded the findings, both before and during the programme period. Campbell and Stanley (1963) suggest that the more numerous and independent the ways in which the experimental effect is demonstrated, the less plausible become any possible rival hypotheses. In this study, the opportunity to study findings from 8 participating schools or groups, although these can in no way be regarded as equivalent, will be shown to add evidence for the validity of the study conclusions. In addition, the implementation level measures and the significant results of the BEA for each school (which were both visually and statistically significant) are buttressed through numerous output and outcome records, such as the success criteria inventory, headteacher interviews and coordinator feedback (Miles and Huberman, 1994). In the high output or implementation schools the outcomes were very clearly better on every measure. However, there are a number of alternative explanations which require to be fully addressed (Gottfredson et al., 1993; Campbell and Russo, 1999). The first of these is to explore whether another major event or intervention may have occurred in the programme schools (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Did programme coincide with another major event?

This proposition can be rejected for a number of reasons. The schools' action plans, LEA records, school records, Steering Group meetings, partnership meetings, and multi-agency team meetings recorded no other major intervention at that time, nor was any observed or discussed during the prolonged engagement of the team in the schools, with the exception of a small initiative concerned with Restorative Justice in the secondary school, and some minor initiatives in one primary school.

It can be argued, however, that the initiative of the project may have inspired schools to renewed efforts in other aspects of school life, and this "project effect" rather than the specific content at least partially affected outcomes (Myers, 1996). As there was no detailed exploration of the effectiveness of the different parts of the programme, this remains a possibility, as with all small-scale interventions, although the comments of staff and headteachers contradict this as a major factor. Likewise the possibility that the schools would have spontaneously improved to the extent shown in the findings, is unlikely, given the evidence above, as well as the previous school improvement experiences of the researcher and evidence from the literature.

There are two other plausible explanations for the findings to consider, that (a) the programme interacted with some existing precondition in the schools in such a way that the programme was facilitated by these conditions: or (b) that the high implementation schools were on a steeper change trajectory to begin with and their schools would have improved at a faster rate in the absence of a treatment (Gottfredson et al., 1993). This has already been suggested as a contributing factor in the differential response of the low effectiveness schools.

(a) The treatment interaction effect

As suggested by Gottfredson et al. (1993), the setting up of a programme implies a readiness to change on the part of the schools involved. The comments in the headteacher interviews suggest this was a possibility for several schools although the school

observations, staff meetings and discussions showed staff much less positive, and the results of the teacher survey indicated teacher pessimism about the possibilities for change.

As there was no equivalent control group in this study, it is not possible to reject this suggestion that there were different contexts on which the programme was laid. Certainly systems activity was different in every school according to the requirements for and impetus from Ofsted, and different styles of leadership. These unmeasured preexisting contextual conditions may have interacted selectively with the programme in some schools. It seems that in the high implementation schools, and school Q, there was a greater readiness for change on the part of the coordinators and headteachers which may have contributed to the high implementation and outcomes.

(b) Maturation interaction effect

The next proposition is that the observed outcomes in the high implementation schools would have occurred in the absence of the programme interventions because these schools, prior to the programme, were improving at a faster rate, and this also cannot be ruled out completely. In the case of School H which drew away from programme in the second year with a new Headteacher and new priorities, this may have been a factor. However School SJ which started as a higher implementation school was unable to sustain the implementation without the close involvement of coordinators suggesting that it was the programme which was key to the process, and the headteacher of School D stated that his school would not have got out of special measures without the contribution of the programme. In School Q both headteacher and coordinators said that more time from the programme team would have ensured faster and broader improvement. Performance from an improving baseline may be more difficult to assess, in the case of several of the schools. However, if varied assessments are made, as in this study, on multiple occasions and in different settings both pre and post- programme, and changes are relatively marked, then the inferences which can be drawn are vastly improved. The evidence is therefore that the level of utilisation of programme was linked to outcomes.

Implementation and outcome levels were analysed only at whole-school level because the programme primarily involved school-level interventions. Individual teachers were supported to change their classroom management practices, but these interventions were

coordinated by the school coordinators team, and implementation data only collected the activities of the coordinators rather than individual teachers. This makes within-school analysis relating the outcomes to implementation difficult. However, from evidence in the headteacher interviews, coordinators' feedback and termly summaries of work, it is reported that the coordinators used the strategies more faithfully in their practices than other teachers and changed their perspective on behaviour management to be more in line with headteachers. Given that the coordinators had been more exposed to the programme than other teachers, this evidence strengthens the argument for the programme as instrumental in improving outcomes (Gottfredson et al., 1993).

5:5 OTHER METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS

Further limitations of the study

Issues in data collection arose from of lack of anticipation as well as practical issues. The quantitative data involved unexpectedly small numbers on the post-test, leading to possibly spurious findings of significance, and could have been supplemented by fuller qualitative analysis. In particular, it was decided that teachers would not be asked to complete the survey after the programme, in part because the survey was not seen as robust enough to be readministered given the much higher than predicted staff turnover, although the BEA was judged to be suitable for post-programme use with a smaller and partially different sample, with statistical analysis taking this into account.

Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) suggest that pragmatic programmes require more reliability and fidelity in their implementation than strategies with a track record of effectiveness. Although the FFI model had been evaluated in detail, its implementation in ineffective schools had not been fully addressed, therefore the intervention-client match was potentially a weakness in this programme. There were also issues around the use of different coordinators in each school, raising the potential for mediator incompetence (Cole et al., 2000; Daniels and Williams, 2000). Although elements of the study did permit the conclusion that the outcomes were attributable in part to the programme, systematic data was not collected on teacher use of each of the programme strategies (Freeman, 2000).

Although this study was not primarily an evaluation, it was subject to the same limitations, including the possibility that undue weight may have been given to the positive views of programme participants, and that as a result change may have been over reported (Cohen et al., 2000). The role of the programme manager as researcher may also have resulted in some censorship of divergent views, or findings of unwarranted significance. It is suggested, however, that appropriate measures were put in place to address this concern, namely, that retrospective analysis of the processes was undertaken as an independent element of the project manager's professional life, and that the data-checking procedures were thorough (Cohen et al., 2000). In addition, a wide range of steps was taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Potential weaknesses were addressed by the prolonged engagement of the programme team, from different professional backgrounds, in the school settings, and the continuous checks provided between the team and other support service members and coordinators, as detailed in Chapter 3 (Salmon, 2003). Data was rejected where there was lack of corroboration, as in one school where the pre-programme BEA perceptions were independently assessed by different professionals as not reflecting any reality of life in the school at that time. However, the robustness of the peer- checking procedures would have benefited from a more systematic moderation process.

In school improvement research specifically, Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) recommend a mixed methodological orientation to measure the quality of the improvement and variations in this, and they suggest that more work should be done on evaluating the impact on different groups of pupils. Because of time problems in this study, it was not possible to carry through with the lengthy comparative pupil perception measures across classes and schools. In retrospect, a simpler and quicker measure might have been substituted such as the use of photographs or card sorting techniques, described in Boyd et al. (1995) and Wragg (1993).

Problems over lack of clarity of the role of the LEA also became apparent during the implementation of this project (Teddrie and Reynolds, 2000). Leadership and management in the schools likewise were not explored yet evidence suggests this impacts strongly on the level of implementation and the outcomes. Neither was there systematic information obtained about staff decision-making prior to participation in the programme, or about staff

state of readiness to work on behaviour improvement. Looking separately at the perceptions of the different groups in school, coordinators, teachers, headteachers and senior management at the outset and at the end of the project, would have given valuable extra information. Time-economical ways of obtaining this kind information may have been helpful (Fisher and Grady, 1998).

In terms of outcomes, analysis of data about pupil progress through the SEN Code of Practice would have contributed to measurement of pupil outcomes, given the difficulties with exclusion figures (Vulliamy and Webb, 2003). Obtaining data from the LEA and the schools was generally a problem, and access to the annual Monitoring Quality Review would have been useful both during the programme and retrospectively for corroborative data on impact and integration.

In conclusion, the EPSI programme described in Chapter 1 was noted by Southworth and Lincoln (1999) as good research in that it provided multiple perspectives, was grounded in the work of practitioners, involved the user community and involved an element of research and development. It is suggested that, despite the limitations discussed above, this study can also meet these conditions.

5:6 CONCLUSIONS

This research study took place within a 2 year LEA-sponsored initiative to support a partnership of 8 schools to intervene to improve pupil behaviour. The variation in effectiveness of the schools was assessed at the commencement of the programme. No evidence was found for the first hypothesis, in that teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour were found to be highly consistent across the schools overall, and focused more on unalterable variables such as family factors than alterable variables, such as teacher and school factors. The programme delivery was complicated by the failing status of some of the schools involved, and was diluted through staffing turbulence, which also impacted on levels of implementation, and measurements of impact. The programme took on a role of school recovery within the schools in special measures with some success, although was less successful at engaging two of these schools in the longer-term. The second hypothesis was confirmed by the findings, in that positive outcomes for schools were shown to be related to the high levels of implementation across the programme components, irrespective

of pre-existing school effectiveness, although the FFI was not found to be the major strand of these. The evidence shows that first whole-school issues were tackled, alongside some classroom level interventions, and in the high implementation schools work was also taken forward through the SEN systems at an individual pupil level. The features which were shown to impact most were the network of coordinators, the tailored professional development activities for all levels of staff, and the mix of pressure and organisational support from the programme team to help the schools to identify their own priorities, and link these to their School Development Plans (Myers, 1996).

Findings provided support for the second hypothesis, therefore, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and that, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both 'failing' and 'effective' schools. The key factor overall in improvement of pupil problem behaviour appears to be level of implementation of programme, in both failing and effective schools. It is suggested that in the high implementation schools, early experience of success through improved skills, workplace conditions and organisation increased teacher efficacy, confidence and sense of empowerment in dealing with behaviour, resulting in a positive spiral of change in school ethos and culture.

Sustainability and replicability

It was planned that the network of coordinators would continue given available funding, and that the programme plans would be integrated into the school development plans (Myers, 1996). The school consultation teams, all involving an EP, would take forward the role of school consultancy carried out by the project team as well as enhancing links in to special educational needs procedures. The immediate future for 2 of the schools was merger. One other school appeared to slide in the year after the programme again, after unsuccessful engagement by the programme on coming out of special measures status. The individual pupil level work at this school also appeared to slip back with a poor SEN moderation review. Fullan (2000) suggests that even despite successful adoption and implementation, the third institutionalisation phase of school improvement projects can falter, if the time allowed is insufficient. The time span of other projects such as the FFI

programme and SMAD has also suggested that some programmes, such as the highly structured programme of Gottfredson et al. (1993), may be better suited to school recovery than school improvement.

Whatford (1998) pointed out that it is “*not difficult*” to sort out pupil behaviour in failing schools, although the literature suggests that implementation problems are difficult to anticipate, and that the scale of effort does not always determine success. Quality rather than quantity of change agent support is key (Fullan, 1991). Because schools differ in their ability to implement changes, some programmes such as IQEA, have insisted on specific contracts between programme team and schools. (Poster, 1999; Hopkins et al., 1994; Reynolds et al., 1996). It has been suggested that an initial audit cover the schools’ processes including leadership and management, which can impact negatively on programmes. The emphasis on supporting schools to identify and then work on their individual priorities makes the issue of replicability more complex.

Dissemination and cost effectiveness

The modest improvements in behaviour in the programme schools need weighed against the total cost of the project, bearing in mind that ongoing support to failing schools has been described by Fisher (1999) as “*a very costly business*”. Kratochwill and Stoiber (2000) recommend school psychologists are aware of the importance of carrying out cost-benefit analysis on alternative interventions in different settings. The effort applied locally to the project was high, but no different from numerous other previous local and national initiatives in deprived areas, although the specific input from the project team was unusually high. In regard to the coordinators’ network, the “wave effect” from partnership working is suggested by Kovaacs (1998) as a cost effective model. The planned system of multiagency working was only partially implemented at the end of this project, although the Rapid Response to exclusions programme was running successfully. Lack of continued progress reported in some of the schools however suggest that the interventions may not have been thoroughly embedded in the longer-term, and the concern that the programme team may have served more in the role of “traffic cops” as described by Argyris (1992), and noted as a risk of educational “projectitis” (Gray, 1998; Robson, 2000; Fullan, 1993).

Small- scale studies which increase incrementally the knowledge of how interventions operate in real world settings are important building blocks in applied social research (Campbell and Russo 1999). Stoiber and Kratchowill (2000) note the importance for school EPs to initiate, explore and evaluate research methodologies, which translate into evidence-based interventions, with direct practical value both for individual pupil level work and school systems interventions. In this present study, more has been learnt about the process of managing change within schools, by the project team and the school staff, in addition to beneficial outcomes for the partnership. The next chapter will summarise the learning points from this study and consider their implications for the role of educational psychology services in work of this kind.

Chapter 6 Evaluation and implications of the study

6.1 SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS FROM THE STUDY

Outcomes for all schools but one were positive in different degrees. Level of programme implementation was shown to be the key to improvement in pupil problem behaviour, and it is suggested that the impact of a well implemented programme, lies in the changes and early successes experienced by staff in terms of increased confidence, sense of efficacy and empowerment. Some lessons from this programme involved the effectiveness of collaboration between schools, the value of organisational developmental opportunities planned across a partnership, and the importance of targeting pupil behaviour on multiple levels. The role of EP as project manager, evaluator and multi-agency team leader was viewed by stakeholders as effective.

There were considerable differences in the schools' capacity to implement the programme, which were only partly linked to school effectiveness, such as state of readiness, capacity for change, and pre-existing trajectory of improvement. In two of the schools experiencing failure, the programme took on a more immediate emphasis of school recovery and it was difficult in these schools to move forward from this into longer-term school improvement.

Reservations about the validity of the study findings were attributable both to inherent methodological limitations from working in a field setting, combined with additional difficulties from the specific context of failing schools, which were in part addressed through compensating methodology. The ultimate question of the usefulness of the research can be addressed by considering to what extent the study met the following criteria suggested by Salmon (2003), namely that it should not mislead, should be rigorous, should include analytic work, should matter to others, have a clear impact and be accessible to its audience. The researcher would suggest that these criteria have indeed been fulfilled in this case, and that some useful lessons can be drawn from this study about how educational psychologists can approach school improvement projects (Fuller and Fisher, 1999).

Short-term outcomes

One of the most effective strands of the programme was the coordinators' group, therefore it was disappointing that their future role lacked clarity partly through uncertainty over funding for further external facilitation. It had been planned that the school consultation teams would take forward the role of school consultancy, and enhance links to special educational needs procedures, with behaviour issues for individual schools to be taken forward within their school action plans or development plans as appropriate. However the teams were not in place at the end of the programme, and although a modified model of the Rapid Response to Exclusions project had been set up, this was not to build on the expertise of the coordinators.

There had been an improvement in teacher and community morale over the course of the programme, with special measures status lifted from three of the schools. This was of course attributable to numerous factors other than the programme interventions. At the beginning of the academic year after the programme completion, however, LEA monitoring indicated the secondary school was again experiencing extreme pupil behaviour, and because of lack of time and success in embedding the programme changes there were concerns about longer-term outcomes in all the schools (Fullan, 2000). There were none remaining of the original LEA personnel who had instigated and directly supported the project, with changes also in over half the original seven headteachers, increasing the uncertainty.

Longer-term outcomes

In 2003 with an imminent Ofsted inspection, there was a proposal to close the secondary school, although it was interesting that this roused the community to fight publicly to retain the school. It has been since suggested by the headteacher, that the withdrawal of the on-site multi-agency team had been precipitate (Fullan, 2000). This short-term thinking, which does not learn the lessons of experience, appears one of the paradoxes in education today.

Nationally the Key Stage 3 behaviour initiative has led to a review of support for secondary school behaviour management and a proposal for a network of in-school behaviour coordinators, as in the programme (DfES, 2003). These coordinators will work in their

schools on the proposed national behaviour audit, which is a development of work by Galvin et al. (1999) and will, it is suggested, provide in-depth analysis and quantitative data to enable cross-LEA comparisons, and may facilitate cross-curriculum links. The Connexions programme has also brought fresh impetus locally to setting up multi-agency teams working on difficult behaviour at secondary level in Key Stage 4 (DfEE, 2000). The next section will draw together some lessons from this study which might usefully be incorporated into these initiatives.

6.2 SIGNIFICANCE FOR EP KNOWLEDGE BASE

The following summarises findings from this study about key elements in behaviour improvement programmes, building on previous research (Ainscow and Southworth, 1996; Myers, 1996; Southworth and Lincoln, 1999; Gottfredson et al., 1993). The suggestions are a mixture of process and content, divided into project phases. References are given where these issues have been discussed in depth in other research studies.

Initial audit and planning

- Planning should include sustainability, funding, and link clearly to school targets for attendance, behaviour etc.
- Detailed agreements with schools are required, with separate strategic and operational project steering groups, linked to governor discipline committees.
- Rigour is required in planning and implementation, accompanied by systematic recording, to a greater degree than might be usual practice for EP work in schools.
- Principles of data-led evidence-based practice should be established, using SEN and internal records for pupils with behaviour difficulties, exclusion figures etc (Stoiber and Kratchowill, 2000; Whatford, 1998).
- Initial organisation analysis should include the school context, and assess the current improvement trajectory of the school, taking into account motivation for change, perceived efficacy, and institutional capacity (Roffey, 2000).
- Audit of key personnel should include skills, commitment, training required in behaviour management.
- The role of LEA requires to be clarified, at a strategic level and in the field.
- Resources and administration support should be planned in.

- Individual contracts with schools should detail headteacher and staff commitment, and other institutional commitments broadly around behaviour, ethos etc.
- Planning should take account of possible personnel changes.

The teams

- The coordinators'/ teachers' commitment, consistency, enthusiasm, perceived efficacy are all powerful predictors of change (Miller, 1996).
- Regular non-contact time is essential for each school coordinator/ team, with secure access to rotating supply cover as the preferred model.
- Recognition of coordinators' work should be negotiated, and may be through status, improved promotional prospects, financial reward etc.

Interventions

- Improvement work should impinge at all levels, and particularly at classroom level, for longer-term impact on pupil outcomes (Gottfredson et al., 1993).
- Curriculum expertise as part of the team is an advantage to ensure "*improved learning outcomes for individual pupils and not just changes to school processes*" (Kerfoot and Imich, 2001, p. 81).
- Ethos, values, expectations, and efficacy require to be taken account of in the interventions.
- Experiences of early success are powerful reinforcers (Reynolds, 1998).
- Parent and community engagement is a key element requiring longer-term planning (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999).
- Links with the governing body and clarification of the governors' role are important.
- The programme should incorporate mechanisms for pupil views, pupil involvement and pupil agency.
- Support for pupils with chronic behaviour problems should be tackled at the same time.
- Auditing EBD SEN provision should be a simultaneous but separate focus.
- Collaboration across schools is very powerful.

- Professional development is most effective when tailored, embedded and specific across all levels.

Data collection and analysis

- Simple data should be collected with rigour.
- Working groups expedite data collection and analysis in school, and educational psychology expertise can be key to using this fully and creatively (Galvin et al., 1999).
- Evaluation should be formative, summative and long-term, leading to clear, visible goals, with regular planned milestone monitoring.
- Assessments should be planned for the impact of each component.
- Pupil perceptions provide a powerful impetus for teacher change, but simplicity is required (Southworth and Lincoln, 1999).
- Different subsets of the population (coordinators, teachers, non-teaching staff and headteachers) may require separate data collection, analysis and feedback.

Transferability

- The emphasis on supporting schools to identify and then work on their individual priorities makes the issue of replicability more complex.
- Planning for maintenance, sustainability and dissemination should link with school self-review and school development planning (MacBeath, 1999).

This study itself has shown the importance of meticulous planning, rigour, consistency and simplicity of data collection to make the findings of small-scale field research useful and accessible. Experience of designing, monitoring and evaluating interventions is key to bridging the gap between research and practice, through EP skills and knowledge (Miller and Todd, 2002; Miller and Leyden, 1999). The systematic promotion of evidence-based practice in educational psychology often runs against the intuitive use of familiar materials and skills in situations where resources are limited (Kratchowill and Stoiber, 2000). The next section will consider to what extent it is appropriate for educational psychologists to undertake this type of systems-level behaviour improvement.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR EPS

The unique aspect of this project was the commissioning by the schools, using pooled funding, of the project team from LEA staff, and the jointly-agreed appointment of an educational psychologist as project manager. This was in a context where schools across the county, through headteacher representative bodies, continued to request an increase in the allocation of EP school visits, with the focus largely on individual casework. Tensions continue between providing services which schools want to have, and those which LEAs believe are needed and will be effective (Fuller and Fisher, 1999). The freedom to innovate in this programme may have been an indication of headteacher far-sightedness, and of the good relationship between LEA (and the Educational Psychology Service in particular) and schools, but also suggests how concerned both schools and LEA were at the level of disruptive behaviour in the partnership.

The implications for EP training are considerable, given the skills which were required to deliver the programme (DfEE, 2000b). Experience from the ongoing involvement in the doctoral programme was invaluable for the project manager, in practitioner research, multi-disciplinary team building, project management skills, experience of data collection and analysis, models of organisational change and a broad knowledge of intervention and efficacy issues.

In particular, in the current LEA context, EPs should be prepared, given their training in research methodology, to take an active role in systems-level behaviour improvement and the promotion of empirically-supported interventions (Stoiber and Kratchowill, 2000). EPs require to move easily across the boundary between educational and psychological research in order to retain their place in what is an increasingly crowded market. The proliferation of educational consultancies and outsourcing, provide a feasible and increasingly highly-marketed alternative to statutory services such as educational psychology, as exemplified by Connexions and Children's Fund experiences.

6:4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study findings illustrate the complexities of working at different levels within schools and across partnerships. Further research is indicated on key aspects of effective components, in particular to determine the relative impact of approaches which target the individual pupil with behaviour difficulties, as against those which work at the classroom and school level, and to look at the effectiveness of different styles of individual support, such as behavioural or counselling approaches, which are designed to alter pupil behaviour (Stoiber and Kratochwill, 2000; Evans and Benefield, 2001). Demonstrating improvements quantitatively in reductions in exclusions and statements remains a challenge for programmes such as Framework for Intervention (Kerfoot and Imich (2001); Daniels and Williams, 2000).

The study described here was designed to empower the teachers in each school in auditing the behaviour environment, and in working with their school and programme team to achieve an improvement in pupil behaviour. While this was achieved in part, there is need for closer examination of implementation aspects, and in particular, clearer identification of the nature and levels of the teacher activities which produced the changes. In particular further exploration might usefully focus on whether it was the total level of activity or the focus of that activity which was most potent (Hallam and Castle, 1999). Do schools get what they work for or is the amount of activity not necessarily the best indicator of the vital changes (Louis, 1998)?

Lastly, the role played by the school-based coordinators was shown to be key to the nature and the pace of change. The coordinators were encouraged to work through collective staff development, with the aim of opening up the organisational culture in respect of pupil behaviour (Miller, 1996). Increasing opportunities for staff to share and communicate in this way has been shown to reduce teacher and pupil alienation (Louis, 1998). Further study of how the work of the coordinators was experienced in schools would assist in identifying what were the important activities which empowered other staff. Part of this might be to look more closely at the relationship between coordinators and the school leadership team, to identify what was key in their support.

Conclusion

This study has described some of the mechanisms and processes which contributed to improved pupil behaviour in the programme schools, and has explored the roles and principles which were seen to have been key in this. Some reservations about the validity of the study findings were attributable to the research design, and difficulties from working in failing schools, but balanced against this was the spread of evidence from privileged access and opportunities for data collection across the partnership. To summarise, results in this study did not support the first hypothesis, that teacher explanations for pupil problem behaviour in failing schools would focus more on unalterable variables (such as home and pupil factors) than teachers in the effective schools who would focus more on alterable variables (such as teacher and school factors). Teachers working in the 'failing' schools and teachers in the 'effective' schools all showed a significantly higher use of the explanation *Family factors* as a cause for pupil problem behaviour. However findings did provide support for the second hypothesis, that the level of implementation of school improvement programmes by staff is a strong predictor of degree of improvement in pupil problem behaviour. Results indicated that, in the case of well-implemented programmes, positive outcomes in terms of pupil behaviour can be obtained in both 'failing' and 'effective' schools. A number of useful lessons can be drawn from this study, to illustrate the unique skills and experience which educational psychologists can bring to operationalise behaviour improvement.

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Appendix 1

One strand of the work is to adapt and implement the Framework for Intervention model from Birmingham LEA. This aims to bring clarity and consistency to school systems for encouraging positive behaviour and in dealing with poor behaviour. This model takes account of possible environmental factors affecting teachers and pupils such as classroom organisation, classroom management, rules, routines, rewards and sanctions. It encourages problem-solving and professional development in the classroom as well as early intervention.

Schools taking part in the programme have identified two members of staff, (one from the senior management team) who are the behaviour co-ordinators leading the programme in their schools. Involvement of a school governor is an additional advantage. Co-ordinators and interested governors are offered regular opportunities to take part in a forum where training opportunities will be tailored to the particular needs of the schools in the programme and where good practices developed by the schools for improving behaviour are disseminated. Partnership training and development opportunities are also offered to non-teaching staff.

The aims and principles of the programme were developed jointly by a steering group consisting of Headteachers of the programme schools, LEA officers and advisors and Support Service representatives. This group meets regularly to monitor the progress of the work through reports from the project manager and the Headteachers. The success criteria for the programme are devised and agreed individually with each school and across the partnership as a whole.

Behaviour Strategy

Tel/Fax
e-mail
or

BEHAVIOUR STRATEGY

Behaviour Strategy

With the involvement of teachers, teaching assistants, pupils and parents the project team are working to develop a tailored behaviour improvement programme in each partnership school. The team is working intensively with two primary schools each term and with the secondary school throughout the two-year period from September 2000 to July 2002. Schools involved in the programme are:

- ◆ Secondary School
- ◆ Primary School
Autumn Term 2000 / Spring Term 2002
- ◆ School
Autumn Term 2000 / Autumn Term 2001
- ◆ Primary School and Primary School
Spring Term 2001 / Spring Term 2002
- ◆ Primary School and Primary School
Summer Term 2001 / Summer Term 2002
- ◆ School
Autumn Term 2001 / Summer Term 2002

The aim of the programme is to assist schools to improve behaviour and ethos and to make an impact on the quality of teaching and learning in classrooms thereby to contribute to raising achievement across the partnership. The project team do this in ways which are supportive and empowering to teachers, Learning Support Assistants and other adults working in the schools.

The project team is:

Educational Psychologist

Outreach Service for Pupils with
Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties

Support is also available from other services, in particular, the Advisory and Inspection Service and the Education Social Work Service.

The programme works to develop strategies to address positive behaviour management, appropriate learning behaviour, pupil motivation, school ethos, and approaches to children causing concern and the co-ordination of agency support to pupils in need. A major aim is to develop consistency of support systems among the schools.

Interventions are planned with reference to school phase as well as existing school policy and practice. They take account of current priorities in each school and available staff resources, energy and commitment. Careful attention is paid to integrating this work within the school's own development plan or action plan and with other initiatives already under way.

The project team supports schools by activities such as setting up and delivering training, working with teaching staff through mentoring and coaching, establishing effective practice and provision for children causing high levels of concern and working alongside LSAs and lunchtime supervisors.

Appendix 2 PROGRAMME COMPONENTS

1. WORK AT THE WHOLE-SCHOOL LEVEL

Whole-staff meetings

As a first priority in every school, staff meetings were used to discuss the role of the team, to introduce the environment audit and materials. These meetings enabled the team to feedback on good practice gathered through preliminary observations in school, and to take informal soundings from staff about their priorities for improving behaviour. A programme teacher survey was also used to provide a systematic approach for teachers' self-reflection and to give information about teachers' attributions for pupil problem behaviour.

Behaviour Environment Audit

One non-negotiable core intervention decided by the Steering Group was the Framework for Intervention model developed by Birmingham LEA, and described in Chapter 1 (Williams and Daniels, 2000). The audit model was introduced to coordinators by the team who worked through the checklist individually with each. Following this, the co-ordinators in each school worked with other teachers either individually or in key stage groups or at staff meetings to complete the checklist. Some coordinators used their programme cover budget to take time out of their class to observe colleagues' classroom practice and to support colleagues writing the behaviour environment plans which arose from their completion of the checklist and observations. These plans were then used to monitor progress by individual teachers. The checklists were collated anonymously by the team to feedback to co-ordinators and the Head Teacher. This enabled co-ordinators to check staff perceptions of the whole-school priorities suggested at staff meetings with the results of the audit.

Whole school action plans

Action plans were written with the co-ordinators so that identified priorities would be taken forward in school on a week-by-week basis, with planned outcomes. Lunchtime and playground issues and pupil movement were commonly seen as causing significant staff concern in every school, and planning to improve these problems was a major focus of the work with the co-ordinators and at whole-school staff meetings, in some cases using the FFI Behaviour Environment plan whole-school format. Co-ordinators were encouraged to co-opt further staff onto working groups to tackle parts of the action plan.

School Behaviour policy reviews

All schools were encouraged to review their behaviour policy, and to remind staff of the consequences appropriate for each offence, with the aim of increasing consistency and reducing premature upward referral (Elton, 1989). Preliminary discussions took place at staff meetings with support from the team, following which a draft policy was produced for further consultation with staff and governors.

A review of positive reward systems was the final element of this process. Schools were encouraged to look at how they rewarded success, and communicated this to parents, and this process lent itself to creative adaptation by coordinators and staff in each school. The Friday afternoon "Oscars" ceremony at one school involved presentations to the class of the week and to the staff member of the week. "Attendance Ted" was a further example of this, awarded to the class each week with the best attendance. Whole-school 'challenges' were

also set up in two schools for specific aspects of the school day which were causing great concern, 'lining-up' routines in one school and quietness at carpet time in another.

Resources

All schools were able to identify from their audits of lunch, wet and dry play and pupil movement equipment and facilities to improve these. A small amount of funding was given for new equipment, dependent on the submission of an audit of need, and plans for the use and management of the resources.

School councils and peer mediation

The team worked with the Advanced Skills Teacher to help the schools to audit class circle time procedures prior to electing pupil representatives for a school council and peer mediation system. Two of the schools already had a school council. This was identified as a second-year priority by the other schools. The project team arranged for the feedback of the circle time audit to the PHSE co-ordinators within the schools as well as contributing to staff meetings looking at good circle time practice.

A 10-session conflict resolution programme, delivered as a 'Circle Time' curriculum was introduced as a pilot project at one of the primary schools. The aim was to enable pupils to identify how conflict spiraled and then to look at ways of avoiding conflict. Alongside this a group of 24 year 5 and 6 pupils volunteered to be trained as 'Peacemakers' able to act as mediators in the playground and be proactive in resolving playground disputes.

Good practice visits to other schools

Initially all coordinators were facilitated to make one visit each to schools with similar profiles and evidence of good practice. In the second round of programme work in schools, visits to other schools in the partnership looked at good practice to transfer, e.g. play leading at break, "family" lunches.

Partnership Newsletter

With the help of two coordinators, a team of pupils nominated from each of the schools worked for 6 weeks on a partnership newsletter about the changes in school environments, with tuition in the use of publishing and photographic software. Co-ordinators took responsibility for pupil nominations, parental consent, travel arrangements, resources, publication and circulation.

School Consultation Teams and Rapid Response

As a key part of the continuation of the programme work after the second year, the project team, introduced the model of School Consultation Teams, and in particular the system of Rapid Response to Exclusions to the staff in the partnership and support services (Glenny, 2001). In the secondary school, the existing multi-agency school consultation team acted as the Connexions team (DfEE, 2000).

Inspection-related activities

These varied depending on the priorities for each school after HMI monitoring visits. The team worked closely with the school senior management, and the school-LEA task group on aspects of behaviour management which were noted in the school action plan as a priority, and often gave extra sessions during the HMI visits.

Whole-school programme components unique to the Secondary School

Initial difficulties over the membership of the working group revealed that teachers had felt excluded from the nomination process and therefore the group was opened to all interested staff (Hampton and Jones, 2000; Jackson, 2000). Targeted invitations were given to staff who were felt to have particular issues which the team thought required open discussion, for example the union representative. The remit was clearly stated at the beginning of every meeting, i.e. all views would be valued and that the group was an advisory and problem-solving group, but not decision-making.

The working group opted to look first at the environment in the corridors, given HMI comment and the view that "*order in the corridors creates a predisposition for order in the classrooms*" (Reynolds, 1996; Hampton and Jones, 2000). A whole-staff scaling exercise looked at the extent of concern about corridor behaviour. With 0 as zero concern and maximum concern 10, the staff average score in September 2000 was 8.7. The group also arranged for tutors to gain student perceptions at form class sessions. The group then circulated detailed weekly plans for agreed changes. These included teacher responsibility for 'zones' around school, new signs reminding pupils of the rules, made by pupils in Design and Technology classes with prizes for the designs chosen, tutor group sessions on rule reminders, special assemblies, brief scripted reminders by all staff at the end of every lesson, weekly rewards for pupils and classes moving well and a weekly prize for staff contributions to the 'campaign'. The project team also took a staff role in the initial stages of this work, when enhanced adult presence on the corridors was required to enforce and supervise the changes of practice. The group also had support of a governor representative.

Further work undertaken by the working group in the secondary school focussed on a similar style campaign on punctuality, again in response to comment from further HMI monitoring visits. Strategies used were similar to those for corridor work.

The third priority for the working group was to try to improve the lunchtime arrangements, where the problems were impacting on afternoon classes (Hampton and Jones, 2000). New strategies increased staff presence at lunchtimes and arrangements were set up for separating year groups by timing and location.

Communication processes were agreed by staff to be a focus for improvement in the secondary school. The project team also joined the staff for the twice-weekly staff briefings from the SMT to ensure that they were informed about school priorities, and supported planning for staff insets on behaviour management.

The team worked with the learning centre manager in developing criteria for pupils re-integrated into mainstream classes and explored links between EBD outreach and PRU staff for pupils at risk of permanent exclusion. The team also undertook a review of teaching assistant procedures, an aspect of HMI concern in one the monitoring visits.

As time constraints made it impractical for the team to undertake individual teacher environment audits in the secondary school and it has been suggested that the variation between departments can be as great as that between schools in some cases, behaviour environment checklists and plans were done on a departmental level (West 2000). The team then undertook a review of the school behaviour policy for each department.

2. WORK AT THE CLASSROOM LEVEL

Behaviour Environment Planning

The project team and the co-ordinators worked with teachers on their classroom practices which had emerged through the checklists as causing concern, and wrote Behaviour Environment Plans, the teachers' own action plans for changing the behavioural environment in their classes. Teachers were encouraged to set realistic targets for improvement and review dates. Some plans required the cooperation of colleagues, as, for example, lining up to enter the classroom may involve more than one class. The BEPs were to be personally meaningful to teachers therefore although a set format was provided, no supervision was set up by the programme team unless staff requested help.

If there were serious concerns about classes, the team were involved in direct observation and in setting up class behaviour programmes, to include parental involvement. A booklet of strategies for managing behaviour was compiled from successful interventions made by staff in the partnership schools.

Pupil perceptions

Coordinators were also encouraged to undertake surveys of pupil perceptions in their schools, using school-devised surveys or standard measures, depending on the focus of the concern. Three schools devised with Year 7 pupils brief surveys for pupil feedback on arrangements at lunchtimes and in the playground. Two schools were supported in their investigation of pupil perceptions using My Class Inventory (Fraser and O'Brien 1985. Results were fed back to teachers, then incorporated into their personal behaviour environment plans.

Secondary school class level work

The programme in this was focused around support for newly qualified teachers (NQTs) and strategies for managing specific classes. Each NQT completed the Behaviour Environment Checklist and identified areas of concern for their most challenging class. Personal action plans were written, high-level pupils were identified with support from Heads of Year and additional strategies were put in place to support them. Lunchtime meetings were held fortnightly for peer support for these new teachers.

The second part of the secondary school class level work was in staff sharing meetings, for teachers and teaching assistants involved with the class causing concern (Gill and Monsen, 1996; Watkins and Wagner, 2000). Staff worked on analysing the class into subgroups then devising different approaches for each subgroup in terms of target-setting, rewards, and individual education plans group. Information compiled in this way and the ensuing interventions by staff facilitated SEN provision and recording.

3. WORK AT THE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL LEVEL

At the individual pupil level, coordinators worked with the Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators to look at the impact of the behaviour audits and planning on pupils with high-level behaviour problems. For pupils where there was no reduction in concern after class level planning and review, the coordinator, supported by the programme team, could opt to work with the SENCo on an individual behaviour plan.

The model of Rapid Response to Exclusions, imported from a successful pilot in the EAZ, was set up in the partnership schools to address the growing number of repeat fixed-term and permanent exclusions. This model is an intervention, not a provision, and seeks to avoid permanent exclusion by offering staff, pupil, parents and support services the opportunity to review their options using a problem-solving format in a practical and positive context (West 2002).

Parallel to this was work on helping the Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCo) with statutory assessment procedures (see Appendix 18). Delays with annual reviews had led to a backlog of unaddressed special educational needs, which added to the high exclusion rate and the negative impact on staff morale. Induction sessions were run to look at special needs procedures, and the team completed the necessary SEN recording for needy 'fast-track' pupils as a model for school staff. Heads of Year were coached in ways to assess behaviour problems which would support the system in place in school by the use of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997). The team also contributed to the school multi-agency meetings working towards increased effectiveness by clearer links to the SEN procedures and action-focused minutiae.

As well as these informal training and coaching activities, a substantial component of the programme was the formal training sessions offered to all levels of staff.

4. TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

Training for Coordinators

School coordinators attended quarterly meetings to share their experiences with coordinators from other schools, receive feedback, and identify and solve problems. Training sessions included presentations from county head teachers to talk about improving behaviour, following a briefing about the partnership issues. Partnership Headteachers and governors were invited to some sessions. Following the speakers' presentations, co-ordinators of the programme schools described the work they had been doing in their schools. This forum was developed as a regular supportive network for all coordinators, and worked on teamwork in schools, writing effective plans for change, sustaining momentum and managing resistance. Key reference materials were provided for the co-ordinators as additions to their staffroom libraries.

The final sharing of good practice meeting involved all staff from the secondary school, senior management from the primary schools, governors and representatives from LEA support services. Four coordinators also presented their work at the national Primary Research Conference in June 2002.

Training for Learning Support Assistants

The partnership Learning Support Assistants came together in two waves for training in behaviour management from the EBD Outreach Service. These addressed the nature of behaviour difficulties and strategies.

Training for Lunchtime Supervisors

Two sessions took place in school-based groups working with coordinators on strategies for managing difficult behaviour at lunchtimes and in the playground.

Training for teaching staff

This training took place both for each school staff, and for all partnership staff. The programme at staff meetings was tailored to work with staff on the concerns they expressed through the audit system described in the last section. An exercise “*What we do well*” was used to set a positive tone (Galvin et al., 1999).

Further staff development workshops were also planned in each school looking at priorities, strategies, feedback and support for colleagues. These also addressed review of the behaviour policy review, strategies for pupils with high-level emotional and behavioural difficulties, with video copies made available to the partnership schools for use with absent and new staff in further in-school staff training.

Training for governors

Both members of the project team served as governors during the project which gave valuable insights to the role of school governance on the management of behaviour in schools (the project manager as special needs governor in an EAZ City first school which had moved forward successfully from a failed Ofsted inspection). Presentations were made to 3 governing bodies. Governors attended regular training sessions and meetings of the secondary school behaviour working group.

Appendix 3 ACTIVITY: To improve our lunchtimes ACTION PLAN SCHOOL

Date	Task	What we need to do	Who	By when	Outcome
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review systems at lunchtimes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observe lunchtime 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observation taken place
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review lunchtimes with all staff to discuss concerns and possible Solutions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Staff meeting 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Staff meeting taken place and discussion with solutions written up.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Find out children's perspectives on lunchtimes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Devise a questionnaire for both KS1 and KS2 children. Results to be tallied by year 6 pupils. Collate questionnaires 	Year 6	Weds 1.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaire collated to show children's responses and comments This used to inform planning of the review of lunchtimes.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Find out types/cost of equipment available for lunchtimes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Produce a questionnaire for staff Produce a 'visit list' for wet lunchtime play for children to choose type of equipment they would like. 		18.10.00 29.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Know what equipment School already has. Produce list and costing of equipment to be purchased.
3.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organise staff review of lunchtimes into weekly actions. 	<u>Week 1</u> 3.11.00 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Children to inform staff 5 minutes prior to the end of break, lunchtimes. <u>Week 2</u> 10.11.00 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> All classes to discuss rules for 'wet' lunchtimes and to advise a set of rules. 	All class teachers	21.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Each class discussed rules and agreed a set of rules.
		<u>Week 3</u> 21.11.00 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Whole school assembly to formulate a set of school rules for 'wet' playtimes. 		24.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rules agreed and in place in each classroom, displayed and referred to.
8.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Find out LTS perspective on lunchtimes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To meet with senior LTS, share observations and discuss concerns. 		24.11.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meeting taken place Concerns listed

Appendix 3b

School Staff Review of Lunch times/Playground

Points Discussed	Our Solutions/Actions and Who
All pupils wash hands. Wandering around.	Different entry class to hall. Table monitors; numbered tables; named places A specific role; rules revised, publicised, posted in hall (all classes). Rules recapped with LTS.
Late entering hall.	Teachers check time to stop teaching (all teachers), LTS always on time (to discuss with LTS).
Tipping up benches. Etiquette.	Review entry to hall arrangements/teachers take pupils (all teachers decide). A specific rule: recap with classes (all teachers).
Children sit for a long time when finished. Bad manners/rudeness.	Do lunch time facilities encourage etiquette? Community project? Set places at table every day? Family groups? (All teachers decide.) Conversation time that is led by ? See sanctions and rewards. Are children taught manners – parents/community project.
Two classes in one room. Throwing and running, balls in class. Use of whistle.	Stress to LTS this is a last resort () A specific rule: recap with classes and LTS. If noise level appropriate will not be necessary.
Writing on board, broken equipment, waste of large paper.	Need more activities and equipment for wet play eg lego. Children consulted on what to get (and all teachers). Audit wet and dry equipment/apparatus (). Class packs made up (all teachers).
Sanctions and rewards/privileges.	Look at where difficult children go at wet and dry lunch times. Tablecloth table as privilege? Table Tennis table taken out and used as reward plus ? Ask LTS to use system of 5 minutes/2 minutes warnings/with large signs ().
Tidying up.	

Points Discussed	Our Solutions/Actions and Who
<u>General</u>	
Atmosphere "miserable" and "institutional"	to look at ways of checking children's views. Need for more positive adult presence. Teachers meeting in hall; rota; tablecloth and flowers; Year 6 lay table.
Food/menus	Survey of menus/children's views, children work on producing menus and publicising.
Hall noisy	Can't fix it. Music not effective.
<u>For Longer-term Consideration</u>	<u>For Discussion with Lunch Time Supervisor</u>
Meals in classrooms	Rules negotiated and recapped for wet/dry days.
Breakfast Club	and lunch in hall.
Grouping of pupils in hall	Check timing of regular meetings with LTS.
Work on the whole of the lunch setting	Timing the entry of pupils to hall.
School council	Menus.
Parent community project on lunch time and equipment	Specific concerns eg grouping classes together as a last resort.
System of guests for lunch (Christmas)?	<u>Timescale</u> Aim to decide immediate changes for mid November.

Appendix 4 JANUARY 2001 CORRIDOR CAMPAIGN REVIEW

Strategy	Who	Implementation
Check current corridor guidelines in draft behaviour policy		Yes
Corridor plan up: ...in staffroom ...in corridors ...in all classrooms.	All teachers	Yes To be put up Yes
Governors involved	(Gov)	Yes
Staff to remind pupils at end of lessons (positive revision as per Bill Rogers eg <i>“Darren, remind me of rules for moving to next class; “the “broken record”.</i>)	Briefings: to remind staff: “ Go straight to your next class please”	Needs to be revisited Jan 01/ link with punctuality blitz
Assemblies; takers to remind pupils.	SMT/HoY	Needs to be revisited January 01.
Rewards for extra staff efforts: nominations.		Done
Pupil rewards.		Maintain
Adult presence in corridors between classes/ during classes: zoning in place.	SMT/ HoD/ HoY / new role	Re-establish to max possible

Strategy	Who	Implementation
Pupils photographs so staff can effectively use names.		As can be done
Checking other schools for ideas/visits to see good practice/check with governors with other schools involvement.	Input from new staff	HW to BCC
Parent involvement / newsletters		Nov 00.
Lining up to be discontinued (exceptions for Health and Safety reasons).	HoD.	Nov 00.
Lates recorded in planners	All staff: to remind at briefing	Jan 01
Staff greeting at classroom doors.	All staff	Nov 00.
Max 5 mins time-out of class	All staff: to remind at briefing	Jan 01

Corridor issues are tied up with toilets/break/lunch queues/dining hall concerns therefore working groups to look at :

Toilets:

Lunch/ break:

Appendix 5

FRAMEWORK FOR INTERVENTION

DATE ...1/3/01

Behavioural Environment Plan

NUMBER ...1

NAME OF TEACHER.....

CLASS/FORM x

Behaviour causing concern

Carpet-time behaviour : e.g. calling out, not listening

Children not always responding to routines

Environmental concerns (identified from review/checklist)

1. 78 Lunchtimes

25 Glare

62 Whole school reward system

Actions	By whom	By when
1. Review carpet time rules with class	xx	12.3
Introduce "GIVE ME FIVE"	xx	12.3
2. Glare : curtains to be fitted to carpet area		
Develop school routine of the week challenge with all staff		
3. Review lunchtime practice; first observation by xx then staff meeting		Observation 8/3
		Staff meeting 28/3

Aim of intervention:

Better carpet-timer behaviour, more attention. Better start to day.

Review date beg. May

Appendix 6 LUNCHTIME QUESTIONNAIRE

Summary of comments made by children at

Autumn Term 2000

Question		Yes	Some times	No
Do you like to sit with the same people?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	65% 63% 63%	27% 16% 19%	8% 21% 18%
Would you like a chance to sit with people in other classes?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	41% 50% 47%	30% 19% 22%	29% 31% 31%
Do you feel happy eating your lunch?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	78% 63% 67%	13% 20% 18%	9% 17% 15%
Do you enjoy playing outside?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	77% 67% 69%	18% 19% 18%	5% 14% 13%
Do you think the red card system works?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	44% 36% 39%	31% 15% 20%	25% 49% 41%
Do you think there is enough to do at lunchtimes?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	42% 25% 30%	29% 14% 17%	29% 61% 53%
Do you enjoy wet lunchtimes?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	38% 33% 35%	26% 26% 26%	36% 41% 39%
Do you think there is enough to do at wet lunchtimes?	KS1 KS2 Whole School	56% 22% 32%	28% 19% 22%	16% 59% 46%

Appendix 7

Managing the Difficult Class

Grouping	Teachers' Strategy	Practical interventions that staff know work
<i>The top 3</i>	<p>At least one positive comment each lesson about their performance eg <i>“Another good lesson Jemma, it’s a pleasure to have you in the group.”</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Praise to reprimand ratio needs to be 8 praises to each reprimand!! • Some of the group find accepting praise difficult so easier to praise their work, behaviour by <u>writing</u> a positive comment.etc • Use practical drama activities subject - based. • When asking for writing ensure you have a structure for them to work to, keywords, starts of paragraphs, prompt sheets.etc • Rewards need to be available for both behaviour and effort.
<i>The average majority</i>	<p>Aim to ensure this group feel involved and motivated eg <i>“Good, I like the way you.....”</i> <i>“That’s impressive work.....”</i></p>	
<i>The Lower Middle 5</i>	<p>It's important to get to know this grouping. You need to know how they tackle work, cope with failure, respond to success.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each child to have an adult mentor who they see regularly to receive positive feedback. • Good Book strategy to be put in place by 	<p>Eg Work stamps saying <i>Brilliant, Well Done Fantastic</i>, etc. So many stamps = a reward</p> <p>Best 3 pupils at the end of the week = chocolate bar. (Give the children what they want, its amazing what they'll do for chocolate.!!)</p> <p>Try John's positive behaviour system.</p> <p>5 minutes free time at the end of the lesson.</p> <p>5 minute quiz based on the lesson.</p>
<i>The Desperate 3</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure children at the correct stage on the Code of Practice and have an IEP. • Referral and support from EBDOT. • On behaviour report with relevant targets • Class teachers follow agreed management plan • Head of Year monitors success daily. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Start the lesson with a quiz, number crunch something the children can start as soon as they arrive. Allow 5 mins and then mark. Those with the most points <u>reward</u>.

Appendix 8

FRAMEWORK FOR INTERVENTION

DATE

7 February 2001

Individual Behaviour Plan for **NUMBER**

1

NAME OF TEACHER: CLASS/FORM

Behaviours causing concern

- Hurting other children (prodding, pinching, tripping)
- Inappropriate noises
- Impulsive movements at change of activities
- Inappropriate play, shouting at the association
-

Target behaviour:

Relevant Environmental Action:

- Change of class group

<u>Actions</u>	<u>By whom</u>	<u>By when</u>
• Change of class at half term Change of peer relationships More space	Senco	Half term
• Daily target sheet to monitor carpet time behaviour Carpet <input type="checkbox"/> square LSA within physical touch Stress ball to play with		IN place at half-term
• LSA to coach through sequence of change of Situations.		Throughout summer
• Playground detective		after half term
• Checklist to use with him to identify sound communication difficulties and possible referral to Orchard Health.		a.s.a.p.
• Mum to have hearing checked	Mum	asap

Method of recording progress

Daily target sheets
Weekly meetings with Mrs to review weekly targets
Baseline target behaviour week commencing 26/3.

Review date 2.04.01

Fof I BBP

Signed Position

Appendix 9 School Entry Profile : Information as required/ received from Schools 2000

	D*	H	WM*	NI	Q	SJ	C	NJ*
E mail contact address	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes			
Staff list (DPBS members of staff highlighted with times most available or not available)		Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School prospectus	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Governors' annual report to parents		Yes			Yes	Yes		Yes
Name of link governor for DPBS	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes			Yes
School Behaviour Policy		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes
Details of EBD-related inset 1999-00		Yes						
Details of other school initiatives in Behaviour Management		—						
SEN Policy		Yes		Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes
Attendance figures 1999-00 (prov.)		Yes						
Exclusion figures 1999-2000			Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes
School discipline records 1999-2000					Yes	Yes		
School development plan		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		
School self-evaluation material								
<i>If applicable</i>								
OFSTED reports		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes
HMI reports*	Yes		Yes					++
Action plans*	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes		Yes	Yes
LEA commentaries*	Yes		Yes					

++Team told this was confidential

Appendix 10

Guidelines on Confidentiality

These will ensure:

- Scope for project/school teams to address the issues
- Confidence in teachers about any data gathering
- Security and sensitivity around information from schools

The project/school teams will make a clear and firm commitment to the strictest confidentiality concerning the sharing of evidence and experiences from the schools taking part.

Procedural Guidelines

1. Where evidence is gathered through observation, those observed will be invited to discuss and agree the accuracy and validity of the evidence.
2. Where evidence is gathered through interview, individuals will be invited to agree to the inclusion of the evidence gathered. Where an individual request it, items will be deleted from transcripts.
3. No member of staff will be identified beyond the confines of the project work in each school.
4. All evidence gathering strategies and opportunities will be made known to all parties concerned and their agreement will be sought.

Reporting Guidelines

1. Headteachers will have the right to see and discuss any case study reports prior to dissemination beyond the confines of the project team.
2. No reports will be released until all relevant parties (the headteachers and participating staff) have been consulted.
3. Reports will only report on issues in a general and anonymous form and all reasonable efforts will be made to ensure the anonymity of both schools and individual members of staff.

We hope that these arrangements will ensure appropriate confidentiality as well as ownership of the project work and its evaluation.

Appendix 11

SUMMARY OF WORK

Term...Spring Term 2002

School ... Date24/4/02

Behaviour Co-ordinators :

1. Work completed:

- Ordered some more playground equipment.
- Some school clubs in place
- Meetings and senior lunchtime supervisor – added to responsibilities.
- Monitored one lunchtime (behaviour management)
- Play ground peacemakers circle time umpletmeted
- Draft behaviour policy.

2. Work continuing/ planned:

- Intend to write to Banbury Charities and local organisations for more funding towards big playground equipment and outdoor seating etc.
- Trying to encourage school clubs
- Circle time programme continuing.

3. What went well?

- Lunchtime supervisor training
- Senior lunchtime supervisor.
- Circle time- due to whole school approach.
- Indoor playtime boxes.
- Use of indoor play equipment.

4. What we might have done differently?

- More consistent use of lunchtime tokens.
- A new whole school 'target'

Appendix 12

Co-ordinators' feedback July 2002

On a scale of 1 to 5 how pleased are you with the work you have done in your school as part of the DPBS? Please circle.

1	2	3	4	5
Displeased	Quite Pleased	Pleased	Very Pleased	Delighted
	1	1	4	

How do you feel other staff / your colleagues have responded? Please circle.

Not well	Quite Well	Very Well
	1	5

Is there anything you would have done differently?

Stood back more at the start and let things run, problems and all, for longer before intervening.

Academic year 2001/2002, we have had no permanent 'deputy' or HT and a series of supply teachers in Yr6 & Yr4 & Yr3 -

TIME has been a serious issue

Ensure co-ordinators are asked not volunteered in their absence. More time!!!

Do you feel that your role in this has helped your professional development?

Yes	No
4	2

If yes, In what way?

Helped put systems in place to aid all staff to give us all a common approach

Developing leadership skills

Being involved in the project

Leading meetings/contributing to meetings

Something to put in professional portfolio

If no, what would have helped?

We appreciate the availability of supply cover time – but little 'supply' available

Too detached in Nursery – impossible to follow through properly

Any further comments?

This academic year has not been conducive in developing fully the BS

Thanks for all your help! X

Co-ordinator colleague is brilliant

Appendix 13

Project Success Indicators May 2002: Co-ordinators' Perceptions

<u>Indicator</u>	<u>Measured By:</u>	<u>SCHOOLS</u>	D	H	NI	WM	C	SJ	Q
1. Increased number of rewards	Review of data / sampling school records		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
2. Decreased use of sanctions/ referral slips/ rate of referral to tutors and head of years	Collating and reviewing data / interview with HoYs / sampling		✓		✓	✓ probably			✓
3. Staff report changes/improvements in behaviour and attitude	Questionnaire / interview	Mixed	✓ Comment from HT	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓ at lunch time
4. Aims and specific objectives in behaviour policy achieved	Interview staff / staff questionnaire / parent questionnaire, pupil interviews / survey			✓ in the main	✓	✓	✓	✓	
5. Staff report increased confidence and skills in dealing with behaviour	Questionnaire / interview			✓	✓	✓			✓
6. Increase in positive comments in the staff room	Sample by behaviour Co-ordinators	✓	✓ Change in attitude to Lunch Club	✓ we will never be satisfied	✓	✓	✓?		✓ at lunch & play
7. Teachers perceptions / staff ratings shift to show behaviour improved	My Class Inventory / Behaviour Environment Checklist: compare scores before and after / Teacher Survey	Partly		not recently	✓	✓	✓		
8.* All staff individually have had individual interview to complete BEC and BEP	Behaviour Co-ordinators record	Not all	✓		✓	✓	✓	½	

<u>Indicator</u>	<u>Measured By:</u>
9. All staff report that they have been actively involved in reviewing the behaviour policy and now use it.	Interview / questionnaire
10. An increase in staff dialogue reflection and debate on behaviour	Teacher / Headteacher interview
11. Greater sense of staff collaboration	Interview with teachers, Becos and Headteachers; survey
12*. There has been a process for enquiring planning and developing behaviour	Behaviour Co-ordinators / project team report
13*. Worked on school to find priorities through from baseline measure to developing procedures and practices to improve behaviour e.g playground, corridors, lunchtime	Behaviour Co-ordinators / project team / Headteacher / governor report
14*. Non teaching staff participate /contribute (LSAs, secretary, caretaker, LTS)	Headteacher / Behaviour Co-ordinators report
15. Pupils of high level concern have more effective practices and provision are in place	Headteacher / Behaviour Co-ordinators report
16*. Pupils actively involved in reviewing behaviour	My Class Inventory completed; pupil interviews
17. Staff report more positive effective contacts with parents concerning behaviour	Headteacher / Governor feedback
18*. Governors have had the opportunity to be involved in review	Governor feedback / named governor invited and attended meetings / Behaviour Co-ordinators report

D	H	NI	WM	C	SJ	Q
No	✓ Staff Mtg	✓✓✓ ✓ always talked about behaviour	✓	✓	½	pending
✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
?		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Some		✓ LSA only	✓	✓ not effective	✓	
Some		✓	✓			
HoY			✓ no change	✓	✓	✓
	✓	Not yet				

<u>Indicator</u>	<u>Measured By:</u>	Dr	H	N	WM	C	SJ	Q
19. HMI reports improved behaviour	HMI feedback	✓		Not yet	?	✓		
20. Staff attributions i.e. causes of behaviour difficulties in classrooms shift	Questionnaire before and after			✓	✓	✓		
21. School HTs/SMT report increasing confidence in staff's ability to manage pupil behaviour	Interview			✓	✓	✓		
22. Quality of teaching improves	Monitoring of teaching in classrooms by SMT / Heads of Department	✓		✓	✓	✓		
23. Co-ordinators feel supported in sharing difficulties	Co-ordinator interview		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
24*. Co-ordinators have had support in the administration side of reviewing behaviour	Co-ordinator interview / Headteacher report		✓	✓				✓
25*. Co-ordinators have had access to evidence based practice	Co-ordinator interview			✓	✓			
26*. Co-ordinators have sampled a range of materials and strategies to support improved behaviour	Co-ordinators interview / plans and reports of work completed	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
27. Co-ordinators have increased knowledge in school improvement strategies and procedures	Co-ordinator interview	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
28. Co-ordinators have employed a new role of co-ordinating enquiry planning and developing improved behaviour	Co-ordinator interview / Headteacher			✓	?			
29*. Co-ordinators have shared good practice and challenges in the partnership forum	Attendance at forum meetings / evaluations	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓

Indicator

30. Schools have shared greater knowledge about partnership school practices

31. Co-ordinators have felt stimulated by and enjoyed the process

32. Co-ordinators have been supported in influencing practice in their schools

Measured By:

Attendance at group meetings / Behaviour Co-ordinators report

Co-ordinator feedback / interview / report

Co-ordinator feedback / interview / report

TOTAL

OUTPUT ITEMS TOTAL

OUTCOME ITEMS TOTAL

D	H	NI	WM	C	SJ	Q
✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	✓	✓ was good FAB	✓			✓
	✓	✓ 1 st time round	✓ By	✓ by		✓
8	16	25	25	18	3	17
2	7	9	8	5	1	2
6	9	18	17	14	2	15

Maximum Total 32

Note

1 Schools D,H and SJ did not update in May 2002

2 *Nos 8, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 24, 25, 26, 29 are output measures

	D	H	NI	C	WM	SJ	Q	NJ
Initial discussion with Headteacher	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Entry profile information		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Presentation at staff meeting 1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Presentation at governors' meeting	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
AUDIT:								
Behaviour policy revised	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Teacher questionnaires (July 00) expectations and values/ rules + routines/ rewards and consequences (in levels)	✓	✓	✓	-				
Teacher perceptions (actual /ideal)			✓	✓				
Pupil perceptions (questionnaires, actual /ideal)			✓	✓				
Co-ordinators devised tasks e.g. "What we do well"			✓	✓		✓		
DPBS observations (baselining behaviour)	✓	✓		✓	✓			
Peer/ co-ordinator/ LSA observations		✓	✓		✓			
Teacher survey March 2001	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Pupil tracking								
BEHAVIOUR ENVIRONMENT CHECK LISTS:								
Completed with co-ordinators 2000-01	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Completed with staff 2000-01	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Completed by staff July 2002	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
Behaviour environment plans written	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
BEPs reviewed		✓	✓		✓			
BEPs/2 nd phase written	✓	✓			✓			
BEPs 2 nd phase reviewed								
Questionnaire about BEA July 2001		✓	✓		✓			
Individual Behaviour Plans written/ reviewed	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Supporting school in Stage 4 applications/ BECs		✓						✓
redone Year 2						✓		
PRIORITISATION AND SUPPORT FOR WHOLE SCHOOL ISSUES:								
Work on lunchtime/break review	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Work on playground review	✓	✓					✓	
Work on circle time	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Work on setting up School Council				✓				
Work on Peer Mediation scheme	✓		(✓)		✓			
Staff support:-Staff sharing sessions	✓							
Training with teachers	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Training with LSAs	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Training with LTS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Liaison with interested governor(s)	✓	✓	✓		✓			
Links made with other agencies e.g. Family Links				✓				

	D	H	NI	C	WM	SJ	Q	NJ
SCHOOL CO-ORDINATORS:								
Attendance at partnership meeting October 2000	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Attendance at partnership meeting December 2000	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Attendance at partnership meeting February 2001	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	
Attendance at partnership meeting March 2001	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Attendance at partnership meeting May 2001	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Attendance at partnership meeting Autumn 2001	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Attendance at partnership meeting Spring 2002	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Presentation of work completed to partnership	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Visits to other partnership schools		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Follow-up contribution to staff meetings	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Feedback to governor/governors meetings	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Summary of work completed :TERM1		✓	✓					
TERM 2		✓	✓	✓				
TERM 3		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
TERM 4					✓	✓	✓	
TERM 5	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
(Newsletter Contribution)								
TERM 6					✓		✓	
Action plans in place for DPBS work		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Co-ordinators Feedback Year 1 completed		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Success indicators for school reviewed with co-ordinators May 2001	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Success indicators for school reviewed with co-ordinators May 2002				✓	✓	✓		✓
OTHER								
Follow-up discussion with Headteacher	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Multi agency work with school consultation team and school co-ordinators	✓							
Rapid Response to exclusion program in place	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Newsletter team	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
TOTAL	34	44	47	38	45	34	32*	6

*Low programme input school

Appendix 15**PARTNERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STRATEGY**

We would like to explore some of your perceptions to help us in the behaviour improvement programme in your school. We would be grateful if you would complete this questionnaire. It should require about 10 minutes.

This questionnaire is anonymous.

Please post the completed questionnaire in the DPBS pigeonhole in the staff room.

1 Please rate the extent to which you feel respected by :
(0 is not respected; 5 is highly respected)

**For office
use only**

	0	1	2	3	4	5	
a Other teachers	<input type="checkbox"/>						
b Parents	<input type="checkbox"/>						
c Pupils	<input type="checkbox"/>						
d The community	<input type="checkbox"/>						
e The LEA	<input type="checkbox"/>						

2 Please rate extent of your influence over
(0 is no influence; 5 is high influence)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	
a Pupil behaviour policy	<input type="checkbox"/>						
b The content of Inservice training	<input type="checkbox"/>						
c The school's priorities	<input type="checkbox"/>						

3 Please rate the extent to which staff members support and encourage each other
(0 is no support.;5 is high support)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	
	<input type="checkbox"/>						

4. How often during the last term did you:
(5 is never; 0 is very frequently/ daily)

For office use only

5 4 3 2 1 0

a Receive useful suggestions for teaching techniques from colleague

b Receive useful suggestions about how to deal with a problem student

5 Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following
(0 is totally disagree; 5 is high agreement)

a In-service programmes I attended in the last school year at Drayton dealt with issues specific to the needs and concerns of this school's students and staff

0 1 2 3 4 5

b I have an opportunity to develop my special talents in managing behaviour

0 1 2 3 4 5

c Staff training programmes in this school help me to acquire new knowledge and skills in behaviour management

0 1 2 3 4 5

d Teachers in this school are continually learning seeking new ideas in managing behaviour for learning

0 1 2 3 4 5

e I support the disciplinary standards in practice at this school

0 1 2 3 4 5

f This school promotes social and moral values I think are important

0 1 2 3 4 5

Remember 0 is totally disagree, 5 is high agreement

g The way I conduct my class is consistent with the objectives of my school **For office use only**

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

h Most of my colleagues share my beliefs and values about what the central mission of this school should be

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

i The reputation and performance of this school is important to me

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

j I try very hard to show my students I care about them

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

k It is important for me to know something about my pupils' families

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

l Teachers in my school have enough authority to do the work that is expected of them

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

m In my school we solve problems; we don't just talk about them

0	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>						

6 Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following:
(5 is high agreement; 0 is totally disagree.)

For office
use only

I believe that the problem behaviour of pupils in this school is due to

	0	1	2	3	4	5	
a Reading problems/dyslexia	<input type="checkbox"/>						
b General learning problems	<input type="checkbox"/>						
c Relationships with teachers	<input type="checkbox"/>						
d Family factors	<input type="checkbox"/>						
e Community factors	<input type="checkbox"/>						
f Health, sensory or physical problems	<input type="checkbox"/>						
g Poor attendance	<input type="checkbox"/>						
h Level of ability	<input type="checkbox"/>						
i Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/>						
j EAL issues	<input type="checkbox"/>						
k Previous schooling	<input type="checkbox"/>						
l Personality factors	<input type="checkbox"/>						
m School and teacher factors	<input type="checkbox"/>						
n Attitude and motivation	<input type="checkbox"/>						
o Peer relationships	<input type="checkbox"/>						
p Relationships with teachers	<input type="checkbox"/>						
q Attention and concentration factors	<input type="checkbox"/>						
r Teachers use of specific pupil management strategies/techniques	<input type="checkbox"/>						

Thankyou very much for completing this survey.

Appendix 16 Questions for Heads: September 2002

Date: School:.....

Look at figures> Are the exclusion figures for your school for 98-00 and 00-02 accurate in your view?

Did they reflect behaviour in school at these periods?

How would you describe the staffing position from 2000-2 on the scale 1-5 where 5 is very stable:

Using a rating scale of 1 – 10 where 1= poor and 10 excellent, what score would you give behaviour in 2000? And behaviour in 2002?

Did behaviour improve between 2000 and 2002?

What do you think teachers would say about behaviour now compared to 2000?

What do you think co-ordinators would say about behaviour now compared to 2000?

What do you think pupils would say?

How could we confirm this?

Do you think that teacher attitudes changed?

Do you think that coordinators attitudes changed?

Do you think teachers behaved differently?

Did co-ordinators behave differently?

Did xx contribute to the improvement in behaviour?

If so, what did xx contribute?

What do you think describes the level of implementation in your school in terms of:

	Low	Medium	High
Strength			
Fidelity			

There is evidence effective programmes work on all or many levels.

Which part of the programme had or led to the greatest impact in this school:

- partnership level
- school level
- classroom level
- individual pupil level
- increased rewards
- increased consequences
-

Which factors led to difficulty for xxx work in your school?

Which factors led to difficulty in the partnership?

Appendix 17

Behaviour Environment Checklist

Summary of Teachers Responses in percentages

1 = disagree - very significant need for action

5 = strongly agree - no real room for improvement

WMSchool

	2002					2000				
Section A -Whole School Policies	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and Implications	0	0	4	54	42	11	5	18	34	32
Support for Staff	0	9	19	38	33	5	14	26	21	33
Parents and Governors	0	20	50	10	20	9	9	35	48	0
Section B - Classroom Organisation										
Classroom Organisation	6	4	8	40	42	5	11	21	31	32
Section C - Classroom Management										
Classroom Management	0	2	24	45	29	1	3	7	27	38
Section D - Classroom Rules and Routines										
Rules	0	0	28	44	28	0	0	15	27	58
Rewards	40	10	0	0	50	0	0	10	125	65
Sanctions	0	0	7	27	66	0	6	17	20	57
Routines	0	6	17	28	50	10	8	21	48	12
Section E - Out of the Classroom										
Out of the Classroom	0	19	19	48	14	9	17	28	23	4

SJ School

	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Section A -Whole School Policies	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and Implications	0	0	0	18	82	0	3	11	29	57
Support for Staff	0	0	22	18	60	0	2	9	46	44
Parents and Governors	9	0	0	40	51	0	4	33	12	50
Section B - Classroom Organisation										
Classroom Organisation	0	5	24	31	40	0	2	14	33	49
Section C - Classroom Management										
Classroom Management	0	0	4	22	74	0	0	3	26	72
Section D - Classroom Rules and Routines										
Rules	0	2	0	26	71	0	0	0	23	77
Rewards	0	0	0	6	94	0	0	5	32	62
Sanctions	0	0	3	34	62	0	5	15	15	64
Routines	0	0	2	34	63	6	2	10	35	46
Section E - Out of the Classroom										
Out of the Classroom	0	0	8	30	62	8	8	22	28	22

Q School**Section A -Whole School Policies**

	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and Implications	0	1	27	53	18	0	8	28	57	6
Support for Staff	0	0	27	64	9	3	3	39	43	12
Parents and Governors	0	2	44	44	2	2	15	35	37	11
Section B - Classroom Organisation										
Classroom Organisation	0	8	33	39	19	5	7	29	53	5
Section C - Classroom Management										
Classroom Management	0	0.5	13	55	32	0	3	24	73	12
Section D - Classroom Rules and Routines										
Rules	0	0	16	49	35	1	6	14	64	14
Rewards	0	0	2	35	63	0	3	11	71	14
Sanctions	0	0	18	66	15	0	7	24	59	10
Routines	0		6	55	38	0	3	19	75	3
Section E - Out of the Classroom										
Out of the Classroom	0	4	27	59	9	16	15	36	32	1

H School**Section A -Whole School Policies**

	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and Implications	0	3	25	45	26	4	19	41	31	5
Support for Staff	2	7	30	39	21	0	33	31	29	7
Parents and Governors	0	14	32	46	7	14	21	31	14	19
Section B - Classroom Organisation										
Classroom Organisation	7	17	17	32	26	15	17	30	24	15
Section C - Classroom Management										
Classroom Management	0	1	4	40	55	0	23	19	40	36
Section D - Classroom Rules and Routines										
Rules	0	0	7	37	56	2	2	12	23	61
Rewards	0	3	0	52	45	0	4	12	37	47
Sanctions	0	3	24	42	31	4	8	20	40	28
Routines	0	0	4	54	42	2	5	20	37	35
Section E - Out of the Classroom										
Out of the Classroom	0	18	16	36	30	33	21	19	20	8

NI School**Section A -Whole School Policies**

	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and Implications	0	0	0	50	50	2	2	24	44	29
Support for Staff	0	0	0	57	43	2	8	33	37	19
Parents and Governors	0	0	8	25	66	39	18	25	18	0
Section B - Classroom Organisation										
Classroom Organisation	0	0	3	44	53	7	12	12	39	31
Section C - Classroom Management										
Classroom Management	0	0	2	31	66	0	2	9	39	50
Section D - Classroom Rules and Routines										
Rules	0	5	11	44	39	2	0	2	19	76
Rewards	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	17	23	60
Sanctions	0	0	0	33	67	0	11	9	40	40
Routines	0	0	0	0	100	0	2	5	38	55
Section E - Out of the Classroom										
Out of the Classroom	0	0	6	55	40	8	4	22	30	36



University College London

VOLUME 2

PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE ASSIGNMENTS

**Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the Continuing Professional Development
Doctorate in Educational Psychology (DEdPsy)**

Patricia Matheson

Assignment No: 1

**An Account of Educational Psychology Involvement in a Middle School
subject to Special Measures**

Assignment No: 2

**The Usefulness of the Behaviour Environment Audit (BEA) in Teachers'
Action Planning**

Assignment No: 3

**Connecting Services: Providing joined-up working for schools, pupils
and families**

Assignment No: 4

**Changing Roles in Educational Psychology: Experiences of professional
development**

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University College London

PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE ASSIGNMENT

Submission Form

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the Continuing Professional Development Doctorate in Educational Psychology (DEdPsy)

Name: Patricia Matheson

Assignment No: 1

Assignment Title: An Account of Educational Psychology Involvement in a Middle School subject to Special Measures

Submission: 1st 2nd Examination

Word count: (Excluding references and appendices) 12552 words

Section of the Core curriculum for Professional Training in Educational Psychology to which this assignment relates:

Core Curriculum area I: Assessment and Intervention

Submission Statement

I confirm that:

1. This submitted assignment is my own work; and
2. I have read and acted upon the guidelines for avoiding plagiarism contained in the DEdPsy Handbook
3. The content of this Assignment has not been published in similar form elsewhere, or offered in respect of any other degree, diploma or other academic award.

Course Members Signature: Patricia Matheson **Date:** Oct 2001

1. INTRODUCTION

Dee (as it will be referred to in this study to ensure appropriate confidentiality) is a large urban middle school for pupils aged 9-13, with a high ethnic minority population, situated in the east side of Oxford city. It forms part of a partnership of seven first, middle and upper schools. The initial inspection report by inspectors from the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) in February 1997 described the school context as "having many children with special educational needs in a population of diverse ethnic origin, from a community with high levels of deprivation" (Ofsted ref. 123254). The proportion of pupils gaining the expected levels in core subjects was half the national average. There was also said to be "a high proportion of unsatisfactory teaching...and unsatisfactory behaviour at Key Stage 3".

In December of 1997 the school was re-inspected by four of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools (HMI) and judged to require special measures because of the lack of progress since the February inspection.

When a school is placed under special measures, an immediate action plan is required showing how the school means to address the key issues found in the inspection. A copy of this action plan must be sent to Ofsted and also to the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) for the attention of the Secretary of State. The school will be monitored about once a term by inspectors from Her Majesty's Inspectorate. The school governing body is also required to monitor the progress of the action plan. The regular visits from HMI continue until they deem the school is providing an acceptable standard of education, when special measures are removed (Ofsted, 1999).

The Dee re-inspection highlighted a number of areas of concern; the standards of attainment, the quality of teaching and the progress made by pupils. Behaviour and attendance were identified by Ofsted and HMI as a key issue for improvement and co-ordination of learning support was also said to be a weakness. The Senior Management team of the school drew up a detailed action plan to meet these concerns with assistance from governors and representatives of the Local Education Authority (LEA).

The Headteacher accepted the LEA proposal of extra support which was to come from the branch of the LEA called Family Services (during the project renamed Pupil Services). A Principal Education Officer, whose responsibilities covered educational psychology, educational social work and pre-school work, led this branch. The branch operated separately from the Advisory and Inspection Service (AIS) whose remit was primarily for curriculum advice but also for immediate post-Ofsted support for school action planning.

The school educational psychologist (EP) was involved in the initial planning with the Principal Educational Psychologist/ Head of Family Services and the school adviser. Support was specifically requested for sections of the action plan concerning behaviour, attendance and the organisation of learning support. Extra Educational Psychology time was allocated to the school, shared for the first term between the school educational psychologist and a city team colleague with specialist responsibility for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD). A small budget was allocated for resources, under the management of the EPs.

A case can be made for a change of personnel when a school is judged as failing. The need to be realistic in assessing if staff have the ability to develop and assist in the often-harrowing process of emerging from special measures is highlighted by MacBeath (1998) whose tough advice is "Don't water the rocks". There were to be substantial staff changes in Dee School. The LEA task group which was co-ordinating the support was aware of this. They also recognised that the school EP had been proactive in recognising and flagging up the school's difficulties prior to the inspection, therefore, the plan was for the current school EP to play a significant role in the forthcoming school improvement process.

The Headteacher of Dee moved to a different post in May 1998 by negotiation with the LEA. Temporary and consultant headteachers covered the gap of two terms pending the appointment of the new permanent Headteacher who then worked closely with the LEA support and supervised the process of removal of the school from special measures in March 2000.

This paper describes the development of the role of the educational psychologist in the school during the 2 years of special measures status and the contribution made by the Educational Psychology Service to the school's improvement programme. Newton and Tarrant (1992) have been critical of the limited use made by Headteachers of their educational psychologists. There has continued to be wide debate within the profession about alternative or additional roles for EPs including working with schools as organisations (Roffey, 2000). Despite this debate, there had been no widespread change and therefore the role described for the educational psychologists in this study was a new development in their LEA. Indications that this type of role was still generally seen as innovative came from discussions at the South of England Group for Educational psychologists in School Improvement which met termly at Swindon between 1997 and 1999.

This study is therefore intended as a preliminary description of a potentially enhanced role for psychologists supporting schools in difficulties, and suggestions are made as to how this role might be developed and evaluated. Difficulties faced during this type of organisational work are discussed and recommendations made for EP colleagues undertaking similar future roles.

2. BACKGROUND

Several weeks before the project starting date of 1st April 1998 the educational psychologists began gathering detailed information about educational psychologists' experience of systems work and of special measures schools. There proved little about this type of role for EPs in journal articles, books or through Internet links. A relevant study however had been carried out in by the Educational Psychology Service in Nottingham describing their recent research and development work in schools in difficulties (Newton et al., 1998). This study sampled the views of headteachers, inspectors, LEA officers and educational psychologists on how the Educational Psychology Services could contribute best to school improvement work.

Work undertaken by Nottingham EPS in 8 schools subject to special measures included Code of Practice development work, work on stress management, personal support for staff, training in behavioural management and writing Individual Education Plans. The

report noted the problems of managing time to permit these extra commitments and problems of liaison within the LEA, notably with the advisory branch. Implications were raised about the quality of previous support service work to a school which then goes into special measures. Problems of organisational instability, such as staffing turbulence, and poor leadership were suggested as possible causes for work to be less effective in such schools. The perception of schools that educational psychologists are not directly concerned with management meant that the staff and in particular Headteachers reported that they would feel more inclined to discuss certain problems with their psychologist than with their officer or advisor.

The results of the survey showed encouragement for the EPS to draw on the broader world of applied psychology when intervening in schools with serious concerns. The comments of Headteachers and Inspectors in particular highlighted EPs knowledge of the psychology of group processes, of behavioural interventions and of learning. Clarity of focus, thorough audit of the school's position and enhanced multi-disciplinary links were key recommendations, but the findings did not detail specific replicable patterns of work which had been successful and well received. There were, however, some examples of consultancy models for educational settings not written specifically for educational psychologists.

The role of external consultants

A general description of external consultancy in school improvement activities is given by Marsh (1994). He analyses the role under 4 main aspects:

1. Assisting in the development of supportive organisational arrangements
2. Providing training in knowledge, skills and positive attitudes
3. Offering consultation and reinforcement, in particular encouraging and assisting individual teachers
4. Monitoring and evaluation, by stimulating the gathering, analysing and reporting of data

Marsh describes the role of the consultant as potentially crucial in holding the balance of power within a school and in providing the dynamism needed to set up and maintain change.

The fourth aspect, that of monitoring and evaluation, is often described as the process of audit, by which the school is helped to establish more effective ways of collecting and examining evidence about how it is functioning. This method of gathering data to diagnose the current state of a school is mentioned positively in previous school improvement programmes such as Newton and Tarrant (1992), Mortimore (1994), and MacBeath (1998). The collection of data is said to help raise morale and capture interest. This in turn stimulates staff energy and enthusiasm for starting the improvement process.

Marsh concludes that if all 4 components are in place the chance of positive change is high. Marsh's analysis was helpful in increasing the understanding of the project workers about their role as external consultants within this school improvement project. The next focus was on examining ways in which special measures schools might respond to change initiatives and how this would inform the project work.

Understanding failing schools

Lodge (1998) has suggested all schools lie somewhere on a continuum from 'effective' through 'ineffective' to the few schools, at the extreme end, described as 'failing' (the term later changed to 'requiring special measures'). A failing school is one where one or several of the following are found: poor standards of pupil achievement, poor quality of educational provision, inefficiency in the running of the school and poor provision for pupils' spiritual, moral, social and cultural development (DfEE/ Ofsted, 1995)

There have been many lists drawn up of the characteristics of ineffective schools, for example, Learmonth and Lowers (1998) and Reynolds (1998). Many of the factors in these were similar to previous EP experiences of working in Dee School: the staff blaming external factors for the school's failure, the reluctance of the staff to try new approaches, and their apparent belief that outsiders had little to offer in helping the school forward. There was already evidence of the school's underachievement, poor attendance and poor behaviour. HMI wrote after a visit in December 1997 that the number of pupils with EBD had increased (Ofsted, Ref. 34/98/P). "Exclusions of pupils from the school...were high". Attendance was described as "unsatisfactory", "in Year 6

and Year 8...the attendance rate fell below 90%" with "unauthorised absence well above the national average." There was a high rate of staff turnover and a high teacher absence record. Some of the latter was for serious and long-term illness and staff were therefore additionally burdened with sadness and worry for their colleagues over the school's time in special measures. Recruitment of new staff was problematic, and became more so when the LEA began consultations in Oxford City on changing from a Middle school system to a primary/ secondary model. Fears over job security added to recruitment problems.

The community reaction seemed negative especially following media coverage of the longserving Headteacher's transfer with the suggestion of lack of LEA backing. Families were opting for neighbouring schools as their first choices. As a result pupil numbers dropped and the school had to cope with a disproportionate number of difficult pupils entering. (This problem was subsequently the subject of guidance from the DfEE which set restrictions for schools in special measures taking in pupils excluded from other schools). Staff room talk was of how teachers and non-teaching staff felt stigmatised in the local area, and they were alert to the inevitable rumours of teacher incompetence, their own as well as other people's, which follow Ofsted/ HMI visits. All of these factors seem, unfortunately, all too common in the case study literature of schools in difficulties (Reynolds, 1998).

In the literature on ineffective schools there is strong use of metaphor by researchers; failing schools are 'sick' (Learmonth & Lowers, 1998), 'stuck' (Rosenholtz, 1989), 'with learning difficulties' (MacBeath, 1998) and 'fragmented' (Dalin, 1993). Many of the descriptions focus on the effects of perceived failure of the school on the staff, both as individuals and collectively. Lodge's research in 1998 lead him to add a reminder to those whose sympathies might tend to lie with staff that from the pupils' viewpoint there is urgency in the timescale for improvement: since for the pupils involved there is only one chance of a satisfactory standard of education. This message was given again strongly in 'Lessons Learned' (Ofsted, 1999).

The change process in failing schools

This need for speedy change in failing schools was one of the factors behind the Ofsted inspection system which may seem to involve unnecessary public humiliation for some teachers. The media continue to focus on the negative impact ascribed to Ofsted and HMI in increasing teacher stress. At the time of this study opponents to the Chief Inspector of Schools, Chris Woodhead, maintained that this stress is raised to an unacceptable level because of the intolerable demands of the process of the re-inspection and monitoring procedures for Special Measures schools.

Staff in failing schools seldom have any positive comment to make on this system, with the possible exception of those few Headteachers and trouble-shooter consultants who have been offered the opportunity to come in to some failing schools and put things right. The inspection system is seen by its detractors as a politically rather than educationally motivated process:

‘the enemy out there’ as described by Myers and Goldstein (1998).

However it is important to consider another view, which is that for some schools in difficulties, entry to the Special Measures category has been the necessary trigger for the need for change to be taken seriously. In this view, support without the Ofsted pressure is not often effective in such settings (Fullan, 1993). Schools, which are usually ‘well-defended’ organisations, need to avoid denial and accept the findings of the reports however damning (Reynolds, 1998). Adopting an appropriate problem-solving orientation is said to be the key to a school’s responding effectively to an inspection or monitoring, ‘hard on the problem but soft on people’ (Newton & Tarrant, 1992)

What is also described in the research is the limited capacity of failing schools to renew themselves. Much teacher education and development rests on the assumption that teachers will regularly recognise their weaknesses and both want and be able to implement changes in their practice through rational planning (Marsh, 1994). In failing schools, however, it seems that early and intensive outside support matched to the state and context of the school is needed to help the school begin the process (Watling,

Hopkins, Harris & Beresford, 1998). The school's way forward at this stage seems to be largely determined by external agencies (Barber, 1998).

Stark (1998) describes how the processes used in school *recovery* and in school *improvement* may be quite different. Gray and Wilcox (1995) emphasise the need for a constructive analysis of the school situation which leaves the school with a 'modicum of dignity intact' and a 'mutual comfort zone' in which to work with external supporters.

However, the picture is not all bleak. Studies such as those by Dalin (1993) and Gray (1997) suggest that even in failing schools there will be pockets of effective practice, with some teachers ready and able to move forward. In short, there will be a greater range of teacher behaviour across the ineffective school than the effective one. Choosing where to start in the improvement process and which teachers to work with is important for external consultants, who might be guided by MacBeath's findings (1998) including his pragmatic advice: 'Don't water the rocks'.

Ways of working in failing schools

Two other general principles put forward by MacBeath (1998) are that planning should ensure some experience of early success for the school and that there should be regular rewards for staff for their extra efforts in the school development work. Applying psychological knowledge about ways of gaining commitment and reinforcement models to the planning of strategies for change in schools increases the chance of improvements being assimilated into the school systems in the longer term and of creating a learning culture (Newton and Tarrant, 1992).

What was not available at the commencement of this study was any kind of blueprint for what would be the effective start for EPs in working intensively in a failing school. Clearly such a protocol or blueprint would ensure that essential elements of planned change were not ignored.

Educational psychologists and school recovery

Remembering the comments from the Nottingham report about the need for good LEA liaison (Newton et al., 1998), planning began with a consideration of how the EP work in Dee School would mesh with the LEA support already in place. There is evidence

that EPs are seen differently by school staff from LEA officers or advisers (Mortimore, 1994). Teachers may confide in psychologists or ask advice as they see the EP role in the LEA as more peripheral and not as part of management or inspection. To use their extra time effectively the EPs working on the Dee project needed to emphasise their move away from their previous role as caseworker for individual pupils with problems. The Headteacher's request to work to specific sections of the school action plan to do with behaviour management and learning support meant that the EP role could therefore be developed in a different direction.

In her case study of Phoenix High School, Whatford (1998) wrote that it is relatively easy to identify the problems in failing schools, and also 'not difficult' to know what should be done and to make a list of practical and sensible measures. Many of these measures may be quite mundane, such as 'consistently implementing the school behaviour policy'. The real issue, according to Whatford, is the difficulty of ensuring that things are done both regularly and consistently: this is what is needed for success. So, in terms of contributing to Dee School's behaviour management review, the EPs felt reassured that the tasks of identifying and prescribing as described by Whatford were within their capabilities.

One incentive to working intensively in a school system is the opportunity to be more regularly involved in the life of the school. (MacBeath (1998) describes this as one of the rewards for external consultants.) His advice is to be available around the school, to listen and collect information initially, to consider the options, support initiatives, and help to develop structures and procedures for long-term growth and to identify achievements.

Collecting data by interviews and questionnaires with teachers, pupils and parents is one approach recommended by MacBeath (1998). He also advocates the powerful effect of the role modelling of appropriate behaviours and attitudes by project consultants. This is likewise described by Learmonth and Lowers (1998) who advocate an approach which is methodical, where staff see things getting done and which is supportive of the Headteacher and Senior staff in implementing plans and following tasks to completion.

With this background and mindful of the words of educational change guru Michael Fullan (in Stoll and Fink, 1998) “If you’re going to start, start someplace”, the project workers planned to be in school one half day each week from April 1998, with other regular weekly times at the EP base for planning and review.

3. THE PROGRAMME OF WORK

The planning and project work of the Dee School study can be broken down into two sections. The first of these details the time allocated to the project and how this was divided. The planning and consultation phases of the project are also described. The different foci of the EP work in Dee School are described in Section 2.

Section 1. Preparatory activities

- Time commitment
- *Initial Preparation and Information-gathering*

Section 2. Planning and consultation

- *Support (Services) Group*
- *Task Group*
- *City Liaison Meetings*
- *Behaviour management and Behaviour Policy*
- *Learning Support Group*
- *Family Links Work*
- *Peer Support Group*
- *SEN Consultation*

Section 1. Preparatory activities

Time commitment

The revised time allocation to Dee school for April to August 1998 was 0.2 fte EP, that is one full day per week. (The previous allocation was 12 sessions per year which is a standard EP time allocation model for many English shire counties: source AEP Bulletin 1997). From August 98 to April 1999 the enhanced allocation was reduced to

0.1fte EP and in May 1999 further reduced to 17 EP sessions per year. Subsequent staff changes, some involving the Special Needs Co-ordinator (SENCo), meant that at one point quite far on in the school's move through special measures there appeared to be a backlog of pupils whose needs had not been assessed or met adequately.

In reality, the time given to the school after the initial full day a week commitment of the first term was considerably in excess of the official allocation. For the first full academic year (September 98-July 99) records show the school had 36 visits with a total of 83 hours EP on site and from September 99 to April 2000 the figure was 16 visits, 49 hours on site. This was one of the reasons that subsequent to the work in Dee the EPS moved to a flexible partnership time allocation model.

Initial preparation and information-gathering

There were detailed discussions with the PEP/ Head of Family Services, the Headteacher and Senior Management team (SMT), Advisory and Inspection Service (AIS), the EBD Outreach Service, Advisory Teachers for Special Educational needs (ATSENs), Educational Social Workers (ESWs) and Family Links Circle Time workers. These meetings looked at how the psychologists would integrate with the other Services and be able to inform and influence planning. Also considered were transfer and induction issues. Contact was made with the Occupational Health section of the County Council who ran a well received session for staff on managing the stress associated with working in a school in special measures.

It was decided to look first at any substantial interventions or training done previously in the school or partnership to examine what had worked and more importantly in this case what had not worked and why. There was no encouragement within the LEA to use time in this way. The advisors and officers and teachers who had previously done substantial work in the school were keen when consulted for their experiences to be taken into account and used constructively. Because of poor communication about past change efforts within failing schools there is a danger of reinventing strategies already tried with even less chance of success on the second attempt, leading to a damaging loss of credibility for the consultant among staff. This is one pitfall that dogs school improvement work (Reynolds, 1998). For this project, useful information which helped to avoid this came particularly from contacts with the school adviser prior to the

97 Ofsted inspection and with the seconded head of the Pupil Referral Unit who had worked in the partnership on transition arrangements. (See Appendix 1 for written school documentation also consulted).

Frequent formal and informal meetings were held between the project EPs and colleagues on devising survey materials, delegating different areas of work and drawing up plans for the Dee work to link with similar EP work in a first school to provide the project workers with shared opportunities for supervision and exchange.

As a result of these discussions and findings and from a careful study of the research literature it was decided that the following principles should govern the project work given the short timescale available and the need for early and obvious positive results to justify the extra resources and the continuation of the work:

- reasonable risk-taking
- making work evidence-based by linking to research and literature wherever possible
- securing encouragement from line management to take the initiative where necessary
- expecting reliability and responsibility from colleagues in carrying out work as promised and meeting deadlines as agreed
- taking a 'hands-on' approach

Section 2. Planning and consultation

Support (services) group

This was convened by the school link adviser in June 1998 to include members of all support services, the school SENCo, workers from Family Links with occasional attendance from other professionals going into school to work in any significant way. The main focus was initially in co-ordinating and monitoring the behaviour support review. The group was chaired by the link adviser with brief minutes circulated quickly following each meeting. Issues addressed over the two years were bullying, attendance, learning support assistant (LSA) training, lunch time supervision, time-out, anger management for pupils, assertive discipline, SEN provision, transfers and exclusions.

Some of these issues re-surfaced throughout the time of the work, sometimes because of staff changes which meant that the original thinking and implementation were lost.

The group was set up also to give particular support for the new SENCos and Headteacher in school (the temporary Heads chose not to work with the group directly). It was agreed that it served as an effective way to determine priorities and keep all support services informed. This was demonstrated by the good ongoing attendance. The group also allocated tasks and heard reports on work which members had done in school. Following a problem of communication between the school and the local Pupil Referral Unit (PRU) in September 1999, the inclusion of the PRU teacher in the group this led to increased success with the part-time attendance arrangements for several pupils who spent several sessions weekly in the PRU.

The Oxford Hamilton Education Action Zone (EAZ) Integrated Support Services Co-ordinator joined the group to look at the similarities between the Dee model and the models set up in the EAZ (called School Consultation teams or SCTs). One of the key tasks of the EAZ is to streamline the work of Support services and these multi-agency meetings are planned as one of the major strands to achieve this. The LEA has plans to expand the model across the county after an evaluation by researchers from Oxford Brookes University. The format for minute taking devised for the EAZ has also been used for the Dee group with positive feedback from group members. The key features of this format are its clear identification of actions agreed, by whom, in what time scale and lastly how these actions will be monitored.

The Headteacher, Deputy Head and Chair of Governors of Dee School made a strong request when the school was removed from special measures that this group continued its pattern of meetings. They felt that it gave a valuable opportunity to raise concerns at an early stage and that such a forum would have been useful at the time of the original inspection.

Task Group

The Educational Psychology Service became involved in the strategic planning at Dee School when the EP was invited to join the school Task group in April 99 initially to discuss pupil behaviour. (Task groups composed of the Headteacher, Chair of

Governors, Officer, Adviser and EP now run in most LEA schools subject to special measures and formally monitor the progress of the school on behalf of the LEA.) Involvement in the task group ensured a clearer overall picture of the school situation including staff and financial issues, often of a confidential nature. Having taken part in task group discussions there was less danger of giving time in school to inappropriate issues as had happened previously, in the case of devoting time to working with a teacher whose plan to leave was known only within the Task Group. In addition, attending the group gave a clearer understanding of the stresses and issues prior to each HMI monitoring visit and of how best to target support. Issues could also be raised in this group about arrangements which might be causing difficulties within the school but which could not be resolved solely by discussion with the Headteacher. One example of this was that for a time the SENCo was heavily timetabled for supply cover and not fulfilling her special needs commitments in assessment and recording prior to each EP visit. This meant that pupils were not placed at the appropriate stages of the Code of Practice and therefore were not receiving adequate provision. The SEN work in the school was becoming more and more delayed and in a school with a higher than average percentage of pupils on the SEN register, the effects of this on the class teachers were substantial.

Near the end of the second year in special measures and as a result of discussions at the task group, the EP and the adviser led a workshop for staff on "*Coming Out Of Special Measures and Meeting the City Reorganisation*". This was based on good practice in school closure experiences from other authorities and was set up to address the difficulties for staff in facing reorganisation and closure of the school so soon after working their way out of special measures. The aim was to provide a facilitating environment to explore the issues and to help teachers find and use their own authority (Obholzer and Roberts, 1994). The focus was on what the training and development opportunities staff felt they would like to see available. Staff comments were fed back to officers and governors and school staff used the opportunity to express their negative feelings about inspection and re-organisation with some using the workshop positively to reflect on their professional development needs.

City Liaison meetings

These meetings (involving LEA Officer, Advisor, Educational Psychologist, EBD Outreach teacher and Educational Social Worker) have run in this partnership of schools on a termly basis. Although it has not been necessary to include any substantial discussion on Dee School in this setting given that the Task Group and Support Services Group were running effectively, this would have been an additional forum to discuss any issues within the LEA. There are no school representatives at these meetings and the issues are shared confidentially. At a meeting of the South of England group of educational psychologists working in school improvement in May 1999, some psychologists commented on possible ethical issues in discussing a school without a school representative there (personal communication). However, in the LEA there is a high priority placed on attending these meetings both to get information, give information and share early concerns.

Behaviour management and the behaviour policy

This was initially led through a Behaviour Action Group whose membership consisted of 3 teachers, EP, ESW, EBD Outreach Teacher, Parent Governor chaired by the Year 6 Co-ordinator, with agenda and minutes prepared by the EP. The commitment and hard work of this co-ordinator was significant in determining the subsequent success of this working party. The initial phase of the group involved allocating different data collection tasks; for example the EP analysing break-time and after-school detention figures, a teacher collating details of the reward systems in school, the ESW looking at attendance and lateness in school and teachers analysing call-out and incident slips.

In the analysis it was noticeable that there was an overlap between reasons given for break-time detentions and after-school detentions. This appeared related to apparent staff confusion about which consequences should follow which misdemeanours. This confusion was reiterated in informal comments from pupil discussions. It was also clear that a substantial number of detentions were not attended at all by pupils suggesting that the use of detention as a consequence had limited effectiveness.

Sampling the views of the stakeholders in an organisation, in this case pupils, staff and parents, is a commonly used model in reviewing a school behaviour policy (Galvin, Miller and Nash, 1999; Clarke and Murray, 1996 and Rogers, 1995). As the staff

seemed to be unsure as to how the present system was operating and yet were aware that there were contradictions in it, the group asked the psychologists to produce further information.

Pupil Consultation

With an increasing focus on the rights of children to be consulted in matters relating to their development and well being, there have been a number of studies looking at pupil perceptions of discipline. Ruddock et al. (1996) found that pupils appreciate teachers who work to soundly-based rules for behaviour which are consistently and fairly applied.

The EPs devised a structured questionnaire to look specifically at pupil perceptions of school rewards and sanctions as this seemed a particular area of conflicting practices (See appendix 2 for pupil questionnaire). Three pupils from each year group were interviewed, selected by teachers at their suggestion to sample the low, average and high ability bands in their classes. Responses were collated by the EP and fed back to the working party and then to all staff. Points emerging from this were:

- All pupils were polite and co-operative.
- In Year 5 pupils were seen to be more likely to misbehave.
- No one complained of bullying.
- Children did not like having their work interrupted by other misbehaving children.
- There was vast variation in pupils' understanding of particular sanctions and rewards to follow specific behaviours
- Lunchtime was an issue. Pupils felt it was too short and there were not enough organised activities. (Further evidence for this came from conversations between the EPs and pupils on a lunchtime walk about).
- There was not a clear sense of the school's policy on any particular issue relating to behaviour. There was no sense of "whole schoolness".
- Some pupils mentioned quite specifically that they knew the school was viewed poorly in the community. They wanted to convince the community that in fact things were not like that.
- Several pupils showed disaffection with the physical conditions and facilities of the school.

- Good work awards and house points motivated some pupils. It seemed important to have a range of rewards available.

Pupils did not see bullying as an issue. Indeed there were some positive comments about how the school handled bullying. This was in accord with several parent comments, both spontaneous and in response to specific questions. A third validation of this view came from the staff who seemed surer about the school's functioning in this area than many others. One comment was to the effect that with potentially strong community pressure from a high ethnic population the school had needed to make certain that bullying was well dealt with and an effective equal opportunities policy put in place. The success of the school in this was drawn to the attention of staff and this was set aside as a policy to leave intact.

Parent Consultation

Parent attitudes were randomly sampled by structured telephone interviews over 9 days following a letter sent out by the Headteacher informing parents about this consultation process (See Appendix 3 for interview questions). The questionnaire was devised by the EPs who also made the calls. No parent declined to talk when contacted. The responses were collated and fed back to the Behaviour Action Group. Since parents' comments were of a very positive nature this summary was also mounted in the staff room on a large display by the EPs as a further way to help raise staff morale. Complimentary comments about the previous Headteacher were also passed on to her (some staff had spontaneously expressed a view that she had been treated as a scapegoat).

Staff Consultation

Staff views on the behaviour of pupils in school were also sampled through a questionnaire (See Appendix 4). To encourage a good response among teachers, many of whom clearly perceived their current workload to be unmanageable, a raffle was built into the process. All teachers who returned the questionnaires had the chance of winning 2 bottles of wine. This achieved a high return of 90%. Points of note in staff comments included:

- Several teachers thought things were "on the up".

- There were concerns about pupil movement around the school.
- The call out system had been working well.
- There were a number of positive strategies already in place, which were working well and needed to continue.
- There were concerns about low-level disruption in class, inconsistency and a general feeling that the detention system was not working.

EPs collated and fed back responses to the working party. The working party considered the data and decided to introduce a system of categorising different behaviours, aiming at consistency across the school in terms of what sanctions (if any) followed what behaviours. The system built upon the notion of levels of consequences described by Clarke & Murray (1996) and successfully practised in the local EBD special school.

In this model, a staged set of staff responses is incorporated into the consequences or sanctions section of the school behaviour policy. This range of increasingly serious responses to misbehaviour is grouped by level so that for example interrupting a teacher might elicit a Level One teacher response (minimal interaction aimed at refocusing the pupil by e.g. by rule reminder) and directed swearing at a teacher might require a Level three response (involvement of senior colleagues and parents, possibly leading to exclusion). Within each level there are graded steps of seriousness.

Using the hierarchy of the levels system in Dee school aimed to eliminate excessive premature upward referral which was leading to a queue of pupils outside the Headteacher's door waiting for his involvement in deciding the consequences of their misbehaviour. In addition,

Managing consequences with the levels model

The benefits of the levels system include:

- Clarity of understanding as well as consistency and predictability about the school's behaviour policy both for staff and pupils, who can gauge the seriousness of their misbehaviour by the staff response

- A simple format for collecting data to help staff to evaluate what is and is not working well.
- Ease of use in target setting e.g. by aiming to reduce the number of points at each level scored by members of a particular class or year group over a period of time.
- Effective contributions to records on individual children to help in deciding on which stage a pupil should be registered in the Code of Practice procedures and identifying areas of particular difficulty for that pupil and possible provision.
- A means of saving time for teachers as the action/ record forms are carbonated, easy to complete and the collection process can be simple and quick.

The levels were introduced at a whole staff workshop. Staff were presented with envelopes which had small cards with different misbehaviours printed on them. These were the problem behaviours which the staff had described in the questionnaires they had completed. In pairs, staff were invited to place each behaviour at a level from 1 (low-key behaviours requiring low level action) to Level 4b (severe behaviours which staff felt required exclusion).

On the basis of the workshop responses a draft levels policy was produced at a meeting of the EPs with the working party chair at the LEA offices. (This afternoon session was deliberately set out of school to provide a quiet work situation. It had the incidental benefit of offering some small reward to the chair who commented on how she appreciated the chance to see the LEA central office and to have expenses-paid access to city centre shopping. The draft was then revised by the school before being finalised and launched by the Headteacher at a staff meeting.

The Framework for Intervention

Other work on behaviour management involved introducing the school through the SENCo to the Birmingham work on 'Framework for Intervention' including the 'Behaviour Environment Audit' (Williams and Daniels, 2000). In this approach staff look first at anything in the class or school setting which might be adversely affecting the behaviour of their class or a group of pupils or an individual pupil. Working with a behaviour co-ordinator they plan how to improve any of these school or teacher factors before looking outside the classroom for possible causes and support. This approach

was not fully implemented because of the illness and then lack of continuity in the SENCo post and is planned for late 2000.

The November 1998 HMI visit raised further issues about the time-out procedure, which was re-reviewed at a senior management team attended by the EP at the school's request. Staff were seen to be moving up the levels too quickly although recording was found to be sound and helpful particularly when a pupil was coming up to exclusion. A further review of procedures for minor behaviour problems was set up and the behaviour policy was re-circulated as an additional reminder of the steps to take before upward referral.

Learning Support Group

In April 1998 the EP was asked by the Headteacher to give support to a working party made up of teachers, governors, staff from the English as an Additional Language (EAL) Service and the Sensory Impairment Service to work on points from the school action plan involving co-ordination of learning support. This involved:

- attending the group planning meetings
- taking minutes
- writing up the first draft of the policy
- writing a summary of questionnaire responses from Learning Support Assistants
- consulting other school SENCos for examples of good practice and feeding this back to the group
- joining a whole staff meeting at which the policy was confirmed.

Educational psychology support was requested by school for a further review of this policy in November 1999 following a monitoring visit where HMI had asked the school to look again at learning support line management, at differentiation and at the underachievement of lower ability SEN pupils. At this point it seemed that through changes of staff the school appeared to have lost track of the previous work on reviewing learning support. The EP re-circulated the materials to the senior management team and planned possible ways forward with the Deputy Head. It

transpired that much of the material had been mislaid with the departure of the previous SENCo and staff were reassured that the HMI comment was due to this slippage rather than to the perception that their new system was flawed.

There was a further request from the Headteacher in June 2000 for support in a review of LSA effectiveness and job descriptions to ensure well-targeted support in September 2000. A structured pro-forma was drawn up. This was to be used by the Headteacher or EP when observing LSAs in class and then completed afterwards in joint discussion with the LSA and class teacher. The collated responses included many examples of good practice and the staff suggestions for improvement. This was to be followed by a workshop on this topic for staff led by the EP with the new SENCo in September 2000.

Family Links Work

As an Adviser to the Family Links project and therefore with some knowledge of how this circle-time approach can be set up in schools, the EP supported Family Links work with additional funding from the EPS project in June 1998. The Family Links Director initially joined the Support Services Group. A whole staff workshop was held to reinforce the programme and the EP worked closely with teachers as the programme was introduced to Years 5 and 6.

In late 1999 the Headteacher decided that this programme should be formally discontinued. Some of its value had undoubtedly been (as in other schools of concern) in personal support for staff as well as the provision of a structured programme of circle time sessions based on the work of Bavolek and Comstock (1992). There are now a number of similar programmes available. The experience in this setting suggests that schools should be encouraged to proceed cautiously in order to select a programme which fits their own situation. It seems particularly important that the staff and in particular the Headteacher feel comfortable with the language and procedures. The basic assumption of the Family Links programme is that bad behaviour stems from low self-esteem. The aim is to raise the child's self-esteem and thereby eradicate the problem behaviours. It is uncertain if this approach without a strong behaviourally oriented regime alongside could have delivered the rapid improvement in behaviour at Dee.

Peer support group

This group was chaired by the Special Needs Co-ordinator and built on some in-service training, which she had attended for staff working with Key Stage 3 pupils. The term 'peer support' has been used to identify ways in which school staff can provide more informal support for each other in looking at difficult pupils and issues where a sharing of concerns and strategies is likely to be fruitful (Elton- 1989). Some recommendations from the initial meeting were circulated to the Behaviour Working Party. These focused on the advantages of introducing permanent seating plans, on timetable issues and on pupil induction procedures. The temporary Headteacher then 'suspended' work on the action plan which meant that all meetings after school time were cancelled and then at the end of term the SENCo left.

This group had lacked a clear remit to ensure its continuance. Reflection suggests the concept might have been more effective with closer support from the Advisory Teacher for SEN who had led the SENCo training course. However the SENCo had been reluctant to pursue this and the demise of this group may have been another example of the over-ambitiousness of the mechanisms initially set up when the school went into special measures.

SEN Consultation

The work on special needs assessment and provision in school was greatly held back by the part-time term then departure of the original SENCo and restricted working and illness of the next SENCo in late 1999/early 2000. The Educational Psychology Service meantime formally moved to a consultation model of working. Because of the volume of work in Dee school there had been no other viable way of working for some time and therefore no real change was required in practice or from the viewpoint of staff. The staff were particular keen to have easy informal access to the EP for consultation although it was important to feedback the information and outcomes from individual pupil consultations back to the SENCo to ensure the Code of Practice procedures were followed.

The Special Needs Register was regularly reviewed with the SENCo. Other work included consultations with classteachers, joint home-school consultations, observations of pupils in class and individual work with pupils. Statutory assessment reports were

completed and submitted within the time limits. These all involved individual work with pupils, discussion with staff and parents, classroom observations of pupils and discussions about how they saw their learning. As part of these pupils were assisted to complete 'My class Inventory' (Fraser and O'Brien, 1985) and it was heartening for class teachers to see that mostly pupils felt well supported in their classes and satisfied with their class environment. The main types of difficulty for pupils at Stage 3 and 4 of the Code were general learning difficulties, specific learning difficulties and emotional and behavioural difficulties. Reviews were attended by the EP according to previous consultations.

Plans for more sophisticated EBD screening of groups of pupils was not possible because of the lack of support from the SENCo to co-ordinate this. Each appointment of a new SENCo meant that a good deal of the project time had to be spent going through procedures. The project workers were also involved in working with the original SENCo to bring the Reading Quest programme into the school. This Reading Recovery type programme provided pupils with intensive structured and regular individual sessions on literacy with a specially trained learning support assistant.

The frequent classroom observations that the SEN work entailed provided many opportunities to see class teachers working with their classes. Sharing good practice and concerns with the Headteacher after observations was an important part of using this information sensitively.

4. DISCUSSION

Dee School was no different in many ways to the schools described in the literature on ineffectiveness. Working with high teacher anxiety levels and frequent HMI monitoring in a failing school, as MacBeath (1998) and Reynolds (1998) have shown, requires a sensitive and considerate approach. It is possible to surmise the pressures that the staff are feeling and how they experience those pressures professionally and in their personal lives. For some teachers a lifetime's career is threatening to end in failure. For others the moment is coming when they may need to recognise or will be helped to recognise that teaching is not for them. Even effective teachers must feel resentment when their practice is tainted with those words "special measures". There was a sense in Dee

however that a few staff were invigorated by the challenges of special measures and they became key figures in the project working groups.

Consultants have written about the daunting prospect of coming to work intensively in the negative atmosphere of a failing school and the importance of having a clear brief (MacBeath, 1998). Project workers may desperately wish to be helpful but initially it can be difficult to know how to achieve this best if one of the weaknesses in the school is in prioritisation and planning Freeman (2000) summarises some research findings with advice for consultants to ‘think big but start small’ (p. 51). He suggests engaging in a meaningful and manageable task such as an aspect of attendance or behaviour, before moving on more complex initiatives directly focussed on teaching and learning.

Consultancy in a failing school

Reynolds (1991) has described schools in difficulties as full of “irrationality” and “insecurities”. These labels seemed applicable to Dee School because of the diminished sense among the staff and indeed the pupils of what the school was about. The school seemed fragmented and the initial response of the LEA support, including this project, at times inadvertently compounded this with overlapping and confusing initiatives. Even before the initial Ofsted, but especially at the beginning of the period of special measures status, a range of people from different branches of the LEA were asked to provide training or support; for example staff from one of the Pupil Referral Units had run a project examining pupil views on transition about which the school EP was not informed. It seems that one of the paradoxes of working with a school in difficulty is that there is a tendency when in the school to behave in a way which makes things more complicated but in fact what is needed is much greater clarity and simplification (Reynolds, 1998). Attending the task group meetings (not an onerous commitment) and the support services groups helped achieve good awareness and communication and ensured project time in school was better focused.

It is important that any project has ways for its members to receive support so that they can continue to be positive, focused and optimistic. It is important also to keep a sense of humour (MacBeath, 1998). The project workers tried to model this in their professional relationships in school and to let the pupils see examples of adults

communicating in a confident, relaxed and cheerful way (Learmonth and Lowers, 1998).

Various other recommendations gleaned from pre-programme research about general principles of school improvement work were found relevant. Although the psychologists could claim no credit in setting up the membership of the various school working parties to include teaching and non-teaching staff, governors and members of support services, this teamwork approach was an effective way of improving communication and ensuring commitment and action (Southworth & Lincoln, 1999; Watkins and Wagner, 2000). The psychologist's part here was in adding to the 'critical mass' needed for the success of such groups in promoting change (Reynolds, 1998).

Joining the school community

The policy of high visibility around school advocated by a previous consultant in whom the staff expressed great confidence and also recommended by MacBeath (1998) felt appropriate in practice. The project workers developed the habit of calling into the staff room after school to share in informal debriefings and discussions over tea, when most of the senior management team were also present. They paid tea money in the manner of all part-time members of staff. Several visits were changed into whole day sessions to include lunch times and breaks and some teachers commented that it was good to be able to get a word with the EP. However, informal approaches in the staff room could also hold difficulties in terms of the need to keep referring back teachers' concerns over individual pupils to the SENCo and working within the Code of Practice.

Building in rewards and treats for staff was also effective in encouraging them to work with the project team. Gray and Wilcox (1995) point out the importance of motivating teachers by capturing their enthusiasm and commitment for the project activities and trying to include some element of personal benefit for them. Applying this in its simplest form, the return on the staff questionnaire using a raffle was much higher than might have been anticipated otherwise. Afternoon tea was established as a feature of after-school working parties and the senior management staff was encouraged to make similar arrangements for meetings they initiated. This certainly set a positive tone and attendance at meetings was good. The scented candles given out by Family Links workers on their training session were delightfully received: the atmosphere in that

workshop was extremely warm and the evaluations highly positive. Every opportunity was taken to feed back publicly within school any positive comments made by pupils, parents and from other agencies or community members in other settings. The project team also acted as public champions of the school's early successes throughout the LEA and around the local area. This role of school advocate became so automatic that at one point the team found themselves in danger of developing inappropriate allegiance to the school and defending the omissions of school staff to other colleagues from the LEA.

Underpinning principles

The principles underpinning the Family Services work at the beginning of the project turned out to be sound. Speed is crucial and therefore some mistakes inevitable. Failing schools are often subject to a "development paralysis" (Reynolds, 1998). One of the functions of a consultant is to help staff to overcome this and develop good habits of working to deadlines, here set by the expectations of HMI. In this case the quest for perfection in data-gathering techniques and analysis would certainly have been an enemy of progress. The team was fortunate in having a good deal of leeway from line managers and likewise from the Headteacher to move forward using their professional judgement and to try to produce good-enough outcomes.

Concrete signs of progress were particularly welcomed by staff, such as the arrival of the new tear-off carbonated detention pads which the team had commissioned and had printed, and then later a draft of the new behaviour policy which was circulated to every member of staff in school at the time promised.

One function of external consultants may be to act as a 'Trojan horse', and to bring in ideas from the wider educational environment (MacBeath, 1998). There is a danger that this process may initially destabilise a school as happened with the levels of the new behaviour policy at Dee. After the well-received training session some anxiety began to surface among staff at implementing such a radical change in the system, but enthusiastic support from the Headteacher and SMT ensured that the new system was given a fair try until staff felt comfortable with the procedures and began to see the benefits for them of the consistency of the levels. A termly HMI monitoring visit reinforced for school the value of their new approach with positive comments on improved pupil behaviour as well as on the policy itself. In his final visit, Mr Reid noted

the positive effect of the improved behaviour on 'the pace of learning and the progress (pupils) are making' (Ofsted, Ref 112/00/52).

Criticism has been directed at the 'levels' system by Watkins and Wagner (2000), who describe it as a 'reactive' approach which downgrades teachers' professional judgement and leads to inflexibility. Watkins and Wagner suggest that the aim should be coherence rather than consistency. The experience in Dee School, however, might suggest that in schools where staff are heavily under pressure and where discipline issues are perceived to have run out of control that the security of the levels system may initially at least provide a welcome and effective structure for the recovery of adequate discipline. In addition the process of drawing up the levels system and staff reaching consensus on allocating consequences to behaviours may provide a useful forum for teachers to make public some uncertainties and check out the views of colleagues.

Bringing in research findings and relevant evidence of good practice was again a useful technique in the review of the learning support arrangements. Through SENCo contacts the project team was able to produce several variations of learning support arrangements for discussion at the working group and then continued to put staff in contact with staff from other schools who might have useful information or advice from their experience of successfully resolving similar situations. The value of giving encouragement to teachers to reach out and make links with colleagues in other schools to explore ideas and exchange information is described by Ainsow (1994).

The use of data

Watkins and Wagner (2000) note that schools have become increasingly adept at collecting data on themselves, almost to the point of overload, but that the data is often underused. The data from the parent, pupil and teacher questionnaires and surveys in this study was probably under-analysed in retrospect. In school improvement literature data gathering is increasingly seen as a key way of priming successful school change programmes (Southworth & Lincoln, 1999). Some EP time and replication of effort could have been avoided by using existing survey materials with a sound research track record such as those of Beresford (1998). Some of the more sophisticated of these materials ask teachers, pupils and parents to distinguish between their perceptions of their actual learning environments and what they would find ideal. The information

about any discrepancies between the actual and ideal ratings is then used as a basis for staff development work. The argument here is that perceptions however justified or otherwise are the determinants of behaviour and therefore are important evidence (Samdal 1999). Southworth & Lincoln (1999) describe how data on pupil perceptions captured teacher attention in their Essex programme and set a climate for cultural change within schools. Increasingly this type of evidence forms part of school self-evaluation processes and development planning and can lead to a more rigorous approach to change in schools acting as a baseline for measuring improvement.

Looking at data from teacher surveys and interviews is one way of tapping into teachers' implicit theories of their teaching, to try to unpack the differences between what teachers say they do (their espoused theories) and what they actually do (their theories in use) based on work by Argyris (1992). Southworth and Lincoln (1999) advocate a role for EPs in helping explore these 'folk' theories of teachers as without this they claim that there will be change but perhaps no resolution of the problems (Robinson, 1993).

A further useful analysis in this study could have looked at inset undertaken by the school staff over the year previous to the project start, as it emerged over the course of discussions and planning that many of the staff had been on courses which in theory should have equipped them with many effective skills for behaviour management, circle time work and giving effective peer support. The question as to how effective off-site one-off inservice training sessions are in overcoming teachers' weaknesses is raised by Brown and McIntyre (1993). They are critical of what they see as a deficit model of professional development and advocate a more practical school or class-based approach which takes into account and builds on teachers' actual daily experience.

As well as making better use of existing techniques and materials for sampling stakeholder perceptions, an area to be further developed in similar work might be to look for a system to make more use of information gained in classroom observations. One reason for avoiding the implications of this issue may be that questions of allegiance and confidentiality of the observer are raised, with the potential conflict between the interests of the individual teacher and those of the institution. An informal system of sharing concerns with the headteacher or deputy head, and then with the task

group, if serious and continuing concern, worked at one level. However without a role for EPs at present in the formal system of school monitoring and feedback, there remains a risk of losing potentially valuable information and opportunities. The question of allegiance runs through much of educational psychology work generally, whether primarily to the individual child, whether to the teacher or to the LEA. There was some danger in Dee of the project workers trying to be all things to all people and this was illustrated by the way the learning support review in April 2000 was set up with staff following initial planning between the Headteacher and EP. From the announcement of this process by the Headteacher at a staff meeting, teachers and learning support assistants appeared to see a hidden agenda behind the review, of reducing and reallocating learning support. The EP needed to work hard to retrieve a sound professional basis for participating in this.

Supporting staff

Once staff saw that one of the prime concerns of the EPs was to be helpful, a good deal of minor administration was passed to the team who had to be firm but sensitive in asking staff to take their appropriate role in this such as minuting a meeting or amending a draft. It was important to help the staff develop skills in recording their decisions and monitoring their new systems for the time when the intensive external support was withdrawn.

The ambitiousness of the original school action plan was one factor which doubtless led to staff feeling overwhelmed: it contained seven key points each with more than ten subsections requiring an action. The timescale was overrun almost as soon as the plan was typed. This was an inauspicious start to the process for the school. The project team was aware of the need to concentrate on the sections they had been allotted to work to.

The team was fortunate with the good attendance at the key working party meetings initially despite the staff being worn down by illness and family problems and the cover they had to do for absent colleagues. The project workers had no formal part to play in these issues, although they offered and were approached for informal emotional support, such as talking things through in the staffroom or giving advice on problems with children of staff. The project work was significantly affected by staffing turbulence and lack of continuity, as well as by a gradually increasing lack of commitment by a few

staff over the time on special measures. Competence proceedings are also stressful for all members of the school albeit necessary in some cases. This instability of the school as an organisation may be a key factor militating against a successful school improvement programme. This can be more serious than might be anticipated, and may account in this school for the perceived lack of timely progress over the first year – a case of two steps forward and one back.

As well as pressures of over-work there were financial difficulties for the school to contend with, despite extra LEA support. At the request of the LEA advisor, a whole day was spent on what emerged to be a futile “bidding” exercise for a school counsellor, a bid later changed for an extra teacher. The fabric of the school building and the facilities were poor. The EPs perhaps somewhat facetiously suggested early in 1998 that the serious attendance problems could be quickly helped by putting in a comfortable desk, chair and telephone for tutors to call families: in the event a complex and expensive ‘rapid response’ project was initiated over the next year as part of a county strategy for attendance through ESW management and the LEA. Attendance problems have continued in 2000. Frost (2000) suggests that such strategies operating at LEA level may be less than successful because they fail to take into account the individual characteristics and situation of each school.

During late 1999 it became clear that the LEA would officially put forward to the County Council and the Secretary of State plans to amalgamate all middle schools into a primary/ secondary system. This hit Dee school badly as it was trying to emerge from special measures. Difficulties over the merging of the school were compounded by lack of information from the LEA over the reorganisation procedures for staff and for LEA personnel working in the school. Despite the ever-optimistic attitude of the headteacher and some staff, and seeing the deputy head promoted to a substantial local headship, the negativity and bitterness of the staff became apparent and surfaced at a workshop run with a school adviser. This looked at the implications of special measures and the organisation in terms of teachers’ professional development needs. The workshop leaders were aware of trying to ensure that the session was not used to process problems of ineffective LEA management and communication (Obholzer and Roberts, 1994).

Evaluating outcomes

The annual reviews of educational psychology service delivery with the headteachers were consistently positive and parent questionnaires sampling their experiences of EP work in the school showed a high level of satisfaction. The Headteachers made significant mention of the EP support in comments relayed in school and within the LEA. The HMI monitoring visit reports included increasingly specific mentions of EP involvement in school throughout special measures. In the final report Mr Reid described the LEA support as “well coordinated, a tribute to the structures set up over time which allowed effective work to take place as part of a co-ordinated package of support”. The support services group model as piloted in Dee School, among other settings, continues to roll out throughout the EAZ and reflects well on the school.

More objective evaluation of the impact of the project might have included repeating the initial surveys of staff, pupil and parent perceptions; structured interviews with the Headteacher and other staff as described by Southworth and Lincoln (1999) as well as gathering data on numbers of detentions and exclusions. Clarke and Murray (1996) recommend agreeing objectives and defining success indicators at the beginning of a development project not only as a way of clarifying objectives but also of highlighting current issues and concerns.

No plan for EP disengagement was made at the outset of this work and no ‘exit strategy’ envisaged, although a change of EP in September 2000 was made necessary by secondment to manage a school improvement project in a group of schools in the north of the county. The 0.6fte North post involves work on a behaviour improvement project, with EBD Outreach and adviser colleagues in a large and overall failing partnership. It is reasonable to suggest that the perceived positive outcomes of the work in Dee School contributed to this appointment. The LEA continues to restructure its role in school improvement and school recovery and the profile of the Educational Psychology Service in school improvement in the LEA continues to rise. There is now a 0.4-fte post specifically for school improvement work and this post-holder has contributed support to five schools experiencing difficulties in the past year and advice about particular issues for others.

Mindful that studies have shown that it is the quality and not quantity of consultancy which is the key (McLaughlin, 1990) it has been agreed that there will be greater provision for training built into the Project, in particular looking at skills needed for working on improvement programmes with whole school systems.

Using educational psychology expertise in school improvement

Newton and Tarrant (1992) are critical of the psychologist in the school system for taking 'a limited role in promoting the process of change' (p.74). The techniques used to influence individual children could equally be used to influence organisations. They suggest that headteachers should see educational psychologists as consultants for the change process at an organisational level.

Dalin (1993) analyses the functions needed in school improvement activities as those of teacher, trainer, data-gatherer, model, third party, pusher, ombudsman, supporter, designer, researcher and facilitator. Throughout all of these the school needs to feel assisted. In addition the consultant should work within an accepted professional and ethical code, in which 'clarity about role expectations, openness about limitations, mutual understanding of the contract and norms of confidentiality are essential' (p.74). Skills of diagnosis and intervention and the ability to work with complex data are also required. Many of these concepts, if not all, are involved in the routine work of educational psychology practice.

Psychological processes are involved in much of the literature on organisational change: perception, attribution, values, attitudes, interactions and communication (Roffey, 2000). Roffey points out that organisational consultancy in educational psychology is 'extremely challenging and maybe this is why it continues to still be in its infancy' (p18). She recommends that EPs develop the competence and confidence to apply psychological knowledge and skills necessary for schools to become learning cultures.

The DfEE Research Report (2000) on the Current Role and Practices of Educational Psychology Services describes how EPs have an understanding of school organisations and how schools work, as well as knowledge about child development, learning and behaviour. The response of some EPs to the survey was that they did not feel that they had the necessary skills or training to adopt a wider role. The recommendations of the

Working Party were that EPs would develop their work at the whole-school level applying their knowledge of systems and organisational psychology to support schools. The report commends the use of consultation with school staff to help them to clarify problems as a good use of EP time.

Tentative guidelines for educational psychologists in school improvement projects

Experience gained in the work described in this study suggests that the following points be kept in mind when a substantial intervention is planned with a school subject to special measures:

- A clear remit negotiated with the LEA and school for the support work, with involvement in writing sections of the action plan relevant to the EPS support.
- Planning and devising interventions should be thorough and not too ambitious. Work relating to behaviour should be to be undertaken as part of a behaviour policy review. Clarity where EPs can take the initiative is important and the aim should be to keep work at the simplest effective level. Issues and needs particular to the individual school or community should be considered carefully for any impact they may have on implementing interventions.
- Background reading of relevant school documents (OFSTED reports, HMI monitoring reports, action plans, special needs policy, behaviour policy etc) will provide a map to the current school situation. Checking with EP colleagues particularly those with specialist school improvement briefs can give useful references, resources for carrying out screening and audit, and valuable information about work from other LEAs.
- Contact with other professionals who have been involved in the school is recommended as schools in difficulties may be on the receiving end of a range of support initiatives from the LEA. Attendance at Education Officer/Adviser/EP/ESW/EBD Meetings, Task Groups and Support Service Groups (School Consultation Teams) affords regular support to share problems and solutions and involve a wide range of partners.
- Initial visibility and availability in school spending time in the staff room and in the playground on an informal basis.
- Bringing in relevant examples of work from other schools and other LEAs helps staff connect with the wider educational environment.

- Encouragement for schools to get a picture of themselves by gathering data about how they are functioning and helping them analyse this can provide energy and impetus (the EP work in the EPSI project in Essex is a good example).
- Teamwork in working parties is an effective way of achieving this. Modelling good practice in chairing and planning meetings is important as well as clarity about what the tasks of the group are and the deadlines to work to.
- Active involvement in hands-on work may be a good use of time and help to break down unhelpful professional boundaries.
- Communication is facilitated by effective secretarial support, particularly during the collation of information from an audit.
- Regular support even if only an informal discussion with colleagues is vital to avoid being isolated and sucked into the often-ineffective school systems. There will at times be a need for reassurance when some aspect of the school needs challenging.
- Working quickly and keeping to time deadlines (the ‘tatty’ model) is important and may require an element of reasonable risktaking
- Planning should build in opportunities for early successes in small tasks to boost morale and commitment to the improvement processes.
- Detailed ongoing records of work should be written and circulated as appropriate.
- It is important to remain optimistic, to maintain professional good humour and not be swayed by the inevitable crises of school life.
- Schools of concern are like the curate’s egg; there will be good bits and less good bits. It is useful to name the good practice you see and the improvements which take place both around school and outside in the LEA, often acting as the school’s advocate.

Plans to monitor and evaluate the work should be built in from the beginning, while remembering that good practice can take time to develop. Clear success criteria should be agreed with the school and lea, and while these should ideally have an impact on learning, early achievements in ethos and order can eventually lead to this.

5. CONCLUSION

The work described in Dee School has indicated the different ways an educational psychologist can contribute to the school improvement process in the formal sense of

leading policy reviews and running training and development sessions. Informal work of general staff support, in particular headteacher and senior management support, is less easily set down in writing and evaluated, yet over the two years became a major part of the role. Necessarily, to be effective in this way, there needs to be an awareness of discretion and confidentiality which some may find at odds with the current preoccupation in psychology services with measuring, quantifying and publicising the profession's value to schools.

The commitment of substantial time to one school offered major rewards to the project workers in terms of increased collegiality, improved relationships with school staff, and apparent positive outcomes. From the feedback described in the previous section the project work could in this instance be suggested to have made a contribution to the school's movement through and out of special measures.

This study puts forward some tentative implications for a future role of educational psychologists. The experiences of this project suggest this type of role might become a key element of EP work for the future with the caveat that the professional development of educational psychologists offers specific training in systems interventions as well as wider opportunities for EPs to broaden their understanding of curriculum issues. This could put the profession in a good position to take a key role in school recovery and school improvement processes in the future, whether as part of a LEA or as individual consultants.

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Appendix 1: Pupil Questionnaire

Introduction: we are here to help the school. We want to listen to your ideas about how you think you can get on best with your learning.

1. What is it about school that you enjoy the most?
2. What do you worry about most at school?
3. What happens if you behave really well?
4. What would someone have done to get a break-time detention? an after-school detention?
5. Why are pupils sent to another teacher?
6. What happens when you work really hard?
7. What happens if a pupil arrives really late at school? swears? hits/ hurts someone else? says something racist? leaves the class without permission?
8. What 3 things would you most like to change about your school?
9. What happens at home if you get a detention?
10. Which first school did you go to?

Appendix 2: Parent/ Carer Telephone Interview

1. What encourages your child to behave well and enjoy learning in school?
2. What discourages your child from behaving appropriately and enjoying learning?
3. What else could be done in school to encourage good behaviour?
4. What do you do at home to encourage your child to behave well and enjoy learning?

Appendix 3: Staff Questionnaire

The Behaviour Action Group want to find out your views about what is working well and what could be improved about managing children's behaviour in Dee school. Your answers however brief will be greatly appreciated.

This is anonymous- you do not need to put your name.

Remember your number! The raffle will be drawn later this term

- What is working well?
- What is causing the most difficulty?
- What improvements could you suggest?
- What is your role in the school (e.g. teacher, LSA etc)?

Appendix 4: School Documents Consulted

OFSTED 34/98/P - A Report from the Officers of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools

Inspection Reports

Monitoring Report

Action Plan

School Prospectus

Special Needs Policy

A Policy Statement - English as an Additional Language

The Home/School Partnership

Equal Opportunities Policy

Child Protection Procedures

Health and Safety Policy

Behaviour Policy



University College London

PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE ASSIGNMENT

Submission Form

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the Continuing Professional Development Doctorate in Educational Psychology (DEdPsy)

Name: Patricia Matheson

Assignment No: 2

Assignment Title: The Usefulness of the Behaviour Environment Audit (BEA) in Teachers' Action Planning

Submission: 1st 2nd Examination X

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Section of the Core curriculum for Professional Training in Educational Psychology to which this assignment relates:

Core Curriculum area 1: Assessment and Intervention

Submission Statement

I confirm that:

1. This submitted assignment is my own work; and
2. I have read and acted upon the guidelines for avoiding plagiarism contained in the DEdPsy Handbook
3. The content of this Assignment has not been published in similar form elsewhere, or offered in respect of any other degree, diploma or other academic award.

Course Members Signature: Patricia Matheson **Date:** 21st Feb 02

1. INTRODUCTION

The Behaviour Environment Audit (BEA) is part of the Framework for Intervention model (FFI) developed by Birmingham LEA. It proposes a structure for managing behaviour in schools, which the authors suggest is complementary to the Code of Practice for the Identification and Assessment of Special Educational Needs (DfE, 1994). A full description of the FFI is given in Williams and Daniel (2000), who record that the model was devised in response to findings that many teachers felt unsupported in dealing with behaviour problems. The extreme tension that this situation can create in schools has been documented by Miller (1996).

The causes of many human problems can be viewed in three main ways: as arising either within the person, or within their environment, or from a combination and interaction of these. Miller's work suggests that teachers generally take the first of these perspectives on behaviour problems, and focus on within-pupil factors while tending to neglect possible classroom and school factors. Embedding the problem in the pupil is one way teachers may deal with the tensions created in schools by challenging pupils, and thereby get support from colleagues and services. Daniels and Williams (2000) suggest that by so defining the problem, as one of emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) lodged within the pupil, teachers' stress can be reduced in three different ways. The first is the implication is that outside intervention is required. Secondly there can be a call for extra resources for that pupil, perhaps in the form of a non-teaching assistant or time in an internal school unit. Finally there may be a case made for an alternative (eg special school) placement.

The Framework is a 3 level approach (whole school, class and individual pupil) which aims to bring clarity and consistency to the environment in which schools are asked to deal with behavior problems. The model is said to encourage professional development and problem solving in the classroom. The underlying assumption is interactionist, viewing problems in behavior in educational settings as a product of a complex interaction between the individual, school, family, community and wider society (DES, 1989; Daniels and Williams, 2000). Although teachers may be part of a solution, the Framework follows a no-blame approach.

Early evidence presented by Daniels (1997) suggests that the use of FFI may facilitate beneficial changes in school culture, and results in staff being more open in dealing with behaviour. A further evaluation report is likewise optimistic: *The potential is there for FFI to benefit most schools*” (Cole et al., 2000, P. 40).

The recent reports of the Working Group on Educational Psychology Services (England) on the role, practices and future directions of educational psychologists describe systemic work by educational psychologists as one of the profession’s core functions:

“Educational psychologists will work at the whole school level, applying their knowledge of systems and organizational psychology to support schools...in their overall approach to learning and development.” (P.10) (DfEE, 2000a)

In these reports, the Birmingham Framework is described as an example of good and best practice (DfEE, 2000a). With this in mind, the current study was therefore planned by representatives from the Educational Psychology Service, working with a partnership group of headteachers, to look in a structured way at how auditing the behavioural environment could benefit the schools in their behaviour management practices.

In preliminary use of the BEC in this project, teachers appeared to find the checklist and planning process useful. This study will investigate these perceptions in detail and will also attempt to look at the impact on schools over one year of using the Behaviour Environment Checklist (BEC) and the resulting Behavior Environment Plans (BEPs), to establish if extending the use of this model is justified.

Some key issues which will be explored in this study are:

- The use of the BEC in auditing the school environment including the identification of areas for improvement and drawing up plans of action
- The perceived usefulness of BEPs in helping to instigate changed practice in classrooms, and the effect of the BEP review cycle in maintaining this
- Teachers’ perceptions of the Behavior Environment Checklist and the planning process, including any impact on performance management processes in school
- Short-term outcomes for teachers and pupils from the use of the BEC and BEPs

- Changes at a whole school level as a result of whole school BEPs

It is hoped that this study will afford a more detailed examination of this model and will contribute to the evaluation of its potential usefulness for this LEA.

2. THE CONTEXT

The local context for implementation

The Drayton Partnership Behaviour Strategy (DPBS) team works in the partnership schools to develop a behaviour improvement programme, through staff development and establishing effective provision for children causing high levels of concern. A major strand of the work is to implement the Framework for Intervention model evolved in Birmingham LEA. This model aims to take careful account of possible environmental factors affecting teachers and pupils, and to encourage problem-solving and professional development in the classroom. The DPBS team members work intensively with each partnership primary school for two terms. The work focuses around the current priorities in each school, takes into account staff resources, energy and commitment, and aims to integrate through the School Development Plan or Action Plan with other initiatives under way. A key objective is to develop consistency of support systems between the schools. The schools identify two members of staff, (one from the senior management team) as DPBS behaviour co-coordinators who work closely with the team. The success criteria for the programme are devised and agreed individually with each school and across the partnership as a whole through a steering group of headteachers and LEA officers and advisors.

Reasons for auditing the behavioural environment

It has for some time been recognized that creating the best possible learning environment contributes significantly to encouraging positive behaviour (DES, 1989). Likewise the revised Code of Practice suggests “*improved management or alternative arrangements may reduce special educational needs*” (DfES, 2001, Section 5:58). This viewpoint takes much pupil behaviour to be situation-specific, and emphasises prevention and early intervention. Moreover, since no classroom is perfect, it is always possible for even the most skilled teachers to plan ways of improvement (Watkins and Wagner, 2000). The LEA Behaviour Support Plan has commended the use of behavioural environment audits in schools, and

further stimulus has been given to this by the citing of the Birmingham initiative as good practice in recent publications from the DfEE (2000a, 2000b).

The auditing procedure

One infant and three primary schools were chosen to work on the Behaviour Environment Checklist first. One school was in a relatively affluent rural area; the others were large and in an urban setting with a high index of deprivation. Teachers carried out the environmental audit with the support of their behaviour co-coordinators. Examples of what had been achieved in other schools and LEAs were studied (See Appendices 1 and 5) and project workers discussed with staff and made observations of the behaviours described as causing concern in lessons and around the school site.

Observations of the behaviours of concern

Arrangements were also set up for observations of behaviours of concern by co-coordinators. These took into account known effects of observers on classroom interaction, as documented in previous studies such as Wragg (1999): an increase in praise, in teacher questioning and in general acceptance of pupils by the teacher. In some cases in this study, the availability of learning support assistants to record frequency and severity of behaviours meant that records of a series of lessons rather than one isolated lesson could be used, giving more accurate and valid observations (Wragg, 1999). (See appendix 3 for specimen observation schedule)

Behaviour Environment Checklists

Behaviour Environment Checklists were completed by teachers. (See Appendices 2, 9 and 10 for examples.) The six main sections in the checklist cover:

- Classroom physical environment, organization and equipment
- Classroom management
- Classroom rules and routines
- Environment, rules and routines outside class
- Whole-school policies and support for staff
- Roles of parents and governors

The immediate reaction of teachers was that the process was interesting and thought-provoking. (The project team was aware of the possibility that teachers' views may have been coloured by having time out of class to complete the checklist.) It is important to note that at this point the responsibility for acting to reduce the problem behaviours rests clearly with the teacher expressing concern, not with the co-coordinator or consultant.

Behavior Environment Plans

The project team returned to schools to help with drawing up of the BEPs, which were the teachers' own action plans about changing some aspects of the behavioural environment in their classes (See appendices 4 and 8). A scaling exercise was carried out to increase the likelihood of the co-ordinators writing feasible plans and this exercise was to be repeated in turn by the co-coordinators with other teachers. The plans included methods for effecting changes, named those responsible, set a date for completion and to review the effects of changes. The BEPs produced varied greatly in scope and complexity.

Staff were told that they could work with colleagues in making any changes in their practice as, for example, lining up to enter the classroom may involve more than one class. Sometimes the changes planned were not in the power of the teacher to effect so needed careful negotiation with other staff. Teachers were asked to try to implement their plans immediately and then review them every week in informal discussion with colleagues. This teachers found to be difficult in their busy school environments. Collated, anonymised findings from the completed BECs were presented to headteachers to share with governors, to contribute to the school self-evaluation and performance management systems. (See Appendices 9, 10 and 12 for examples of collated checklist responses for Infant School X, and for Primary School Y, to illustrate the differences in teacher concerns at Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2).

Reviewing the Behavior Environment Plans

The reviews looked at whether there had been a change in the target behaviours, or in general pupil behaviour, and then considered future actions. In some cases a positive outcome had been obvious immediately the plan was implemented. In most cases there were less marked effects.

Possible outcomes from BEP reviews are that interventions may continue (where there have been changes in the right direction), or stop (if the behaviours are all changed and in this case the strong recommendation is to share this with colleagues). A third possible outcome is that the school SENCo may need to be consulted if the behaviour environment is now optimal but with little effect on the target behaviour. The FFI model has a further procedure for pupils with challenging behaviour if there has been no success through adjusting the behavioural environment; however this aspect is outwith the scope of this preliminary study.

Initial observations of the project team were that some teachers felt more comfortable focusing on whole-school issues to start. Other teachers were using the procedure as an impetus to help them act, as in tidying their classroom cupboards, rearranging furniture or instigating a purge on forgotten equipment such as pencils and gym kit. Some also used it as leverage with their headteacher for improvements to their classrooms, such as blinds or more storage. On a termly monitoring visit to one of the partnership schools, further information on the BECs was requested by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) whose reported view was that the process was indeed having an impact on the life of the school.

Quality of data issues

Evaluation of the BEC process took the form of a questionnaire survey to look at the perceptions of the teachers in the case study schools after one year of the model (See Appendix 7). It was not feasible to look for potentially meaningful quantitative data, such as a reduction in pupils at the higher stages of the SEN recording systems, or in the number of exclusions, after such a short time. Additionally, the team was aware that teacher responses may have been biased by the provision to the schools of supply cover to enable the audit to take place during the school day, although the shortage of supply teachers and the disinclination of some of the permanent teachers to leave their classrooms may have made this a less key factor than it had appeared in the setting up of the project. In the case of the school behaviour co-coordinators, responses may also have been coloured by involvement in their new roles for DPBS.

The converse, however, might be that the completion of the BEC, and writing and reviewing BEPs, entailed extra work and commitment for all staff, much of which could

not be covered by supply teacher time. Teachers also had ongoing work to meet the targets they had set themselves in their BEPs, and some teachers had asked their headteachers to write these targets into their formal performance management plans. Issues of validity will be discussed further in Section 4.

Responses

(For collated responses see Appendix 13)

In all, 15 teachers completed the survey evaluation. At an individual class level, many teachers described a key effect of the audit and planning process as awareness raising. It seemed that they were helped to identify aspects of their classroom organisation and environment, which were potentially impeding learning, and that writing action plans stimulated them to make changes. At a whole-school level, the effects were again to raise the level of staff awareness of problem areas and times of the day, commonly lunchtime arrangements, and to provide an impetus for change.

The aspects of the procedures which teachers said worked well were the initial checklist completion (12 out of 14 teachers), writing the first plan (13 out of 14 teachers) and reviewing the first plan (9 out of 14 teachers). There was 100% agreement that observations in class prior to writing the plan were useful. The pressures on the time of the project team may be reflected in the teachers' less favourable ratings of the second round of behaviour environment planning. Discussions with the project team and the school co-ordinators were said to have worked well by almost all respondents. The focus on whole school issues was rated as a mixed success.

Teacher comments on the difficulties in the process show that, although the audit is effective in assisting teachers to identify environmental problem aspects, support to remedy these will then depend on the commitment of senior management and governors, and on resource availability. Some teachers indicated frustration that the process for them was not ultimately successful in changing aspects of their working day because of a perceived lack of such support. Finally, a majority of teachers said that they would recommend the use of the process to colleagues in other schools.

Discussion

One consequence of the audit has been increased sharing of staff views, and behaviour management is seen to have been pushed up the school agenda. The drawing up of teacher plans fosters a 'can-do' culture and can lead to a widening of teaching approaches, as well as to specific alterations to classroom practices and the physical environment. The model also appears capable of facilitating, or at least kick-starting, whole-school reforms.

Further comments suggest that the audit fosters more collaborative approaches, with increased opportunities for support services to be involved through consultation, both to do with organisational issues and individual pupils. Specific comments from staff in one school were that collaboration across key stages 1 and 2 led them to compare and exchange ideas. In another school with a close and united staff, the teachers opted to write and follow a group BEP. In a third school, senior teachers found that going over the checklist and planning with newly qualified teachers gave a renewed understanding of the less experienced teachers' difficulties. Mutual peer observations were compared favourably to the standard SMT monitoring procedures by many teachers in the survey.

Overall, it can be concluded that the model was an impetus for change within the schools. The results of this survey also indicate some potential to expand and refine the use of this behaviour environment audit and planning system. The next section will examine in detail some key research studies in this field.

3. THE RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Several factors have been suggested as influencing national approaches to managing behaviour problems in schools. The first of these is the perceived need to try to cap the special educational needs statementing rate and cut the expenditure associated with this procedure (Housden, 1993). A second factor was the view that this might be achieved by distinguishing pupils with SEN in the sense of EBD, from those pupils who were simply behaving badly (DfEE, 1992). This is restated, albeit not with any great succinctness, in the revised Code of Practice: "*Effective management, school ethos and the learning*

environment, curricular, disciplinary and pastoral arrangements can help prevent some special needs arising, and minimize others" (DfES, 2001, Section 6:18).

A third factor to influence the thinking around this topic was the increase in the national permanent exclusion rate from 2,900 in 1990-1991 to 12,298 in 1997-1998, with the sharpest rise in 1994-1995 (Harris and Eden, 2000). Research findings such as these raised awareness of the potentially damaging social effects of exclusion, with links at the extremes into crime and child prostitution. Concerns about such wider issues of social exclusion were the basis of government initiatives such as the Social Exclusion Unit (Social Exclusion Unit, 1998), and, with a more specifically educational focus, Education Action Zones (National Audit Office, 2001) and stimulated the debate about the nature of EBD. It is appropriate to look at this debate in more detail at this point.

Three views of emotional and behavioural difficulties

As noted briefly in Section 1, there are several conflicting views on the nature of EBD. Ofsted (1999), for example, recorded that some pupils have temporary behavioural needs, perhaps provoked by sudden traumas in family, while others may have a long history of disturbed or delinquent behaviour, along with pupils with Tourette's Syndrome, Asperger's Syndrome, or other psychiatric disorders. Some pupils were described as casualties of the Child Protection procedures, and the breakdown of placements in children's homes. There was perceived to be an increasingly wide variety of pupils in mainstream and in EBD special schools. These special schools often provided placements for a high number of excluded pupils and non-attenders, many with levels of attainments below average for their age and with this particularly reflected in their poor basic skills.

'Principles into Practice' (Ofsted, 1999) encouraged the notion of a continuum of difficulty, ranging from pupils whose behaviour stems from a deep-seated emotional or psychiatric disturbance through to pupils whose behaviour is more commonly a reaction to outward circumstances. The latter group of pupils was those seen by headteachers as "well-adjusted sub-cultural delinquents" (Ofsted 1999, P. 7). Pupils with EBD on the middle area of this continuum of behaviour were perceived to be challenging to teachers but as showing normal albeit unacceptable behaviour, not indicative of serious mental illness (DHLAC, 1994).

Many who work in EBD specialist settings tend to oppose the notion that aberrant behaviour is the fault of the child or parents. They often prefer the viewpoint that maladjustment, the term first used in Underwood (1955), then replaced by Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties (EBD) in the Warnock report (1978), is the individual's response at a particular time to the people and circumstances which make up his environment. This view often accompanies a political agenda. Educationally the implication might be that schools need to look to their own organisation, curriculum, procedures and teacher support systems to ensure that all possible is done to prevent pupils becoming disaffected, summarised in government guidance on Social Inclusion: Pupil Support (DfEE, 1999).

A differing viewpoint is that a small minority of pupils is inherently troublemakers, and that often this is a characteristic of the family itself (Daniels and Williams, 2000). The Code of Practice for the Assessment and Identification of Special Educational Needs (DfE, 1994) encouraged this approach to EBD by restating this as one type of Special Educational Need (SEN), and as such, a disability, which might be responsive to support services or therapeutic involvement. However problems with this approach have come from the difficulties with accessing adequate support, and in some cases, separate provision, compounded recently by the diminishing number of special school places as the inclusion movement gains momentum. The emphasis of the Code was also to concentrate the focus of Support Services at Stage 3. This tended to discourage early intervention work and by Stage 3 the problem was often deeply entrenched. Daniels and Williams (2000) found in their Birmingham research that the distinction between pupils with SEN and 'naughty' pupils was seen by schools to be meaningless.

The third approach focuses on prevention, as reflected in guidance to LEAs on drawing up Behaviour Support Plans (Daniels and Williams, 2000). The Audit Commission (1999) in 'Missing Out', a paper on the LEA management of school attendance and exclusion, commented:

"LEAs can have a far greater effect on attendance and exclusion rates by promoting improvements in schools' management of absence and behaviour than by individual casework with pupils." (P. 24)

It has also been suggested that teachers may develop fixed patterns of teaching laid down at the training stage, and may not necessarily find it easy to change these in line with new curricula and organisational practices. Teacher 'busyness' has increased to such an extent that there appears little time for even a leisurely scrutiny of classroom practices (Wragg, 1993). There is evidence from studies (Mortimore et al., 1988) that factors in the school environment do contribute to poor pupil responses. Conversely, evidence seems to show that positive experiences in schooling, along with educational achievements, can make a significant difference to long-term outcomes for pupils who experience deprivation and difficulty in their homes and communities, by increasing their capacity for resilience (Jackson and Martin, 1998). Mortimore has also shown evidence that effective schools tend to be effective for all their pupils including those with potential behaviour problems. The next section will consider how the Birmingham framework might contribute to maximizing the potential of such in-school variables on long-term pupil outcomes.

The Birmingham approach

Williams and Daniels (2000) claim to move away from models of managing behaviour involving blame and post-hoc analysis of problems towards an 'ecological, systemic and humanistic approach' (p.229). The concepts on which the Birmingham approach is said to be based are:

- applicability to all settings
- involving maximum inclusion and mutual respect,
- facilitating effective multi-agency work
- looking at managing behaviour in a new way
- always begin by looking at environment

Daniels and Williams (2000) say that their model does not need schools to spend time trying to decide if identified problems are '*disciplinary, EBD or psychiatric*' and to whom school should make a referral requesting support (P.224). The teacher with the problem keeps responsibility. This model aims to get away from some commonly held assumptions, such as that there are some pupils whose needs cannot be met in mainstream, that behaviour caused outside school cannot be changed and managed in school and that behaviour problems can only be solved with help from experts. The underpinning belief is that

behaviour is determined by a combination of environmental conditions and the interaction with these of an individual's personal characteristics. Problem behaviour is an outcome of incongruence between these, a mismatch between personal characteristics and environment. Examples of variables which affect the learning environment are:

- The quality and quantity of effective instructional practices
- The effectiveness of the programme
- Relationship factors
- Staff values and skills
- Classroom management
- Classroom organization
- The physical setting

FFI is, therefore, a preventative approach which sets out to change school and staffroom culture. It has adopted concepts from the approach called 'Total Quality Management' and one of these is the notion that most of the variation in output in any system is a problem of a faulty process. rather than arising from the actions of any one individual. (Williams and Daniels, 2000).

Principles of the model

The first principle is that children's behaviour is central to the learning process. This is why the authors have not limited the BEC to items on behaviour but have included the whole learning environment. The second principle is described by Williams and Daniels (2000): "*Problems in behaviour in educational settings are usually a product of a complex interaction between the individual, school, family, community and wider society*" (P. 230). Additionally there is the recognition that even if there is change in the behavior of the child, this change is much less likely to be maintained if the child returns to the same environment. In fact it is very likely that the problem behaviour will recur. This view is in line with Rutter et al. (1979) and DES (1989).

Mutual respect is the third principle; therefore while poor behaviour is the concern of all teachers, no fault is implied. The responsibility for seeking a solution does not imply involvement in the cause. The model suggests that the no blame approach is also extended

to the pupil, and presupposes that there is a valid reason for the pupil's difficult behaviour. It is not hard to see why this might be an uncomfortable concept for some teachers.

Effects of the model

Before evaluating the model, it is useful to look at one key aspect of how the Framework procedures might contribute to the empowerment of teachers. It is suggested that the presence in school of a dedicated behaviour specialist colleague (called in the Birmingham context a BECO) is particularly helpful, modeling good practice in attitudes and processes. In particular there was evidence that the BECOs supported by being interested in the problems of their colleagues, but in not assuming ownership of the problems (Greenwood and Gaunt, 1994). A further comparison is drawn with Total Quality Management where there is emphasis on how workers with problems need to be encouraged to use their own initiative, to become problem solvers, and not to rely on '*donated solutions*' (Williams and Daniels 2000, P.232).

The Birmingham model began trials in 1997 but experienced delay because of initial scepticism from teacher associations about the paperwork. There are further structures for working with pupils who do not respond to the BEC/ BEP process, but this is outwith the scope of the present study.

The evaluation

The first University of Birmingham evaluation (Visser et al 1999) suggested that the effectiveness of the system depended on how long it had been part of school life.

In the second phase, the introduction of the BEC was described as "*almost universally...greeted with praise*" despite worries over its extensive range of items (Daniels and Williams, 2000, P. 225). 70% of teachers thought BEPs were useful and had opened up staff debate on pupil behaviour. In the third phase, the model was introduced to a further 160 schools in Birmingham and is now claimed to be the "*most comprehensive and systemic in the country*" (Daniels and Williams, 2000, P. 226).

School senior managers felt their school to have a calmer atmosphere. The system had seemed to enhance the school's existing behaviour policy yet had stimulated the schools to look particularly again at their reward systems. Several schools said that lunchtime

behaviour had improved, and several that there was greater consistency across partnerships. Newly qualified teachers were seen to benefit from a ready-made system and there were reduced rates of upward referral. Completion of the BEC was felt to be particularly useful when taking on a new class. The system was seen to help support staff through improved communications within school. Minor alterations in teacher practice had ripple effects to the benefits of whole classes. Senior management support was said to be most important for the system to take root, and time was needed for teachers in drawing up BEPs and reviews.

On closer examination there are several aspects of the model which require closer examination. Firstly, the research team noted that it had not possible to triangulate and check out the claims of the teachers interviewed, in the time available. There is, additionally, some mention of seeking pupil views in the framework as a further means of corroboration but this is not followed up. This present study has therefore attempted to address this need to validate teacher perceptions (See Section 4).

Secondly, links with certain other key school planning tools such as self-evaluation processes and performance management are not directly specified, although there would seem to be some overlap. Thirdly, the framework is claimed to run parallel with the Code of Practice, yet at seminars attended by staff from Birmingham schools in January 2001 it became apparent that the lack of overt links to the Code had left some teachers and SENCos confused, and the potential was there for pupils with EBD to be outwith the SEN system, with consequent implications for provision and funding (personal communication).

Concluding comments on the Birmingham model

This model would seem to afford a potentially useful means of assessing and improving the school and classroom environment. It relies heavily on a structured format for obtaining teacher perceptions along with some direct observation of behaviours. Some concerns are raised over its integration with other existing school processes. The next section will evaluate the extent to which the format of the checklists and plans was effective in this study in giving a clear picture of the behaviour environment, and then will look at whether the process can help to bring about beneficial changes within schools. Finally, comparisons will be drawn between the outcomes from this study and those from the work in Birmingham.

4. INTEGRATING THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Key elements of behaviour management programmes

Watkins and Wagner (2000) provide a comprehensive description of a number of approaches to improving the management of behaviour in schools. It is interesting to compare these with the Framework to try to identify what might be important factors in any successful approach. It appears, on closer examination, that several elements of the Framework as described in Section 3 above, are included, albeit using different terminology.

A first step in many of these approaches is to help the staff build a picture of what is actually happening in school, a process sometimes referred to as ‘mapping’ or ‘audit’. Looking at a sample of classroom observations and then analysing teacher perceptions from completed BECs might be one way of helping a school to get a picture of itself. This kind of careful approach to information gathering can offer a useful multi-level view of the school system. Watson and Wagner particularly emphasise the importance of looking at what is working well already. The next stage, which is to identify problems, then reflect on possible causes and solutions, would seem to be similar to the action planning or BEP process. “*Good diagnosis leads to good interventions*” (P. 19).

However, Watkins and Wagner advocate caution in this, in that the problem-solving model can work well but ‘*if over-used there is a danger of exhaustion*’ (P.42). It is interesting that the present study might seem to afford some backing for this view, in that there were several teachers who commented that the BEC/BEP process was not one which they would want to repeat on a regular basis, but rather as need arises. The exercise carried out by the project team and co-ordinators in each school, involving the whole staff identifying and restating what they did well, was one of the highest rated activities in the project programme.

There are further elements of the Birmingham model similar to those described by Watkins and Wagner as integral to a successful change project. Firstly, teachers who are part of a team approach programme are often those who take on new practices and processes more

effectively. The feedback in this study suggests that teacher collaboration effects were particularly potent for the DPBS co-ordinators who found their enhanced role in paired/peer observations and joint plan writing with the other teachers of great personal benefit.

Secondly, the system was said to be helpful in bringing about improved communication between teachers and support assistants throughout the schools, and increasing collaboration. Data from paired observations likewise afforded a chance to share with colleagues, and seemed to be a powerful tool of professional learning for the teachers, similar to evidence from mentoring pairs projects (Watkins and Wagner 2000). Everyone in the schools was involved with the system in some way and therefore there was no opportunity for cliques to be formed. Teachers were able to use whole-school responses to generate change more easily in issues which in some cases had become sticking points in school or which had previously been brought up informally but without result. On occasions this afforded a subtle but effective means of pressure on headteachers and governors. The impact of the Framework on the individual teachers is the next area to be considered.

Teacher behaviour

Watkins and Wagner (2000) describe the current pattern in schools of teacher busyness, and how teachers develop new routines to help them to cope in the multi-dimensional, simultaneous and unpredictable classrooms of today. The way teachers feel about their work will be related to the mental images they have of their schools. Fisher and Grady (1998) developed the Images of School through Metaphor to map teacher images of their schools. Teachers were asked to consider which, out of a range of situations, was most like their school. They found that those who rated their schools as, for example, 'Herd', 'Creche', 'Museum', or 'Military Camp' tended to be negative in their classrooms. Positive, effective teachers saw themselves as part of a 'Family', 'Orchestra,' or 'Team'. Fisher and Grady then linked these responses to the School Level Environment Questionnaire, and showed that schools where teachers were positive were distinctive in terms of good opportunities for professional development and high levels of teacher participation in decision-making. In this study, at staff meetings where the whole-school priorities were identified, there were several teachers who, at the outset, rated the atmosphere in their schools negatively, and yet who then appeared highly motivated by

their participation in the BEC process, and in professional development sessions, to plan together to make changes.

Ways of validating teachers perceptions

As a further check on the validity of the teachers' ratings on the BECs and the classroom observations in this study, it was decided to ask a sample of pupils and their teachers to complete a questionnaire rating the psychosocial environments of their classrooms. The measure chosen was *My Class Inventory* (Fraser 1989). This process of triangulation helps to validate perceptions or observations, ideally to give an account of a teaching situation from the three different points of view, teacher, pupil, and observer (Hopkins, 1994). If this is not done, it is difficult to be confident that the teacher perceptions are valid and largely shared by the pupils.

One advantage of looking at the psychosocial environment of the classroom through a pupil questionnaire is that the results will be based on pupil experience over many lessons as the actual inhabitants of the environment being studied. In comparison, classroom observation, as described in Section 2, may be restricted to one or two sessions by a single (albeit trained) observer, which may yield atypical results and may be prone to individual bias (Wragg, 1999). An example of pupil feedback from MCI is given in Appendix 11. In this present sample, from comparing the data from the BECs and MCI, it did appear that the teachers' ratings of the behaviour environment in their schools and classrooms was closely in line with both the teacher and pupil perceptions reported through MCI, and also with the observations made by the project team and school staff. Therefore, the BEC appears to have been a valid process of assessing the learning environment. The next section will consider how a further important element, consultation, may have contributed to this project.

The framework as consultation

The use of the term 'consultation' in education is commonly used to describe a peer-based relationship in which expertise is pooled to address a difficulty, unlike the more traditional medical consultation where the consultant mostly retains the 'expert' role (Watkins and Wagner 2000). Of the different models in education, it seems that 'peer professional consultation' might best describe the BECO role where the teacher who is working with the pupils in the problem situation, or who is experiencing the difficulties, also retains

responsibility for pupil progress. Wagner's model of consultation was developed primarily for educational psychology services but the principles may equally apply to other consultation arrangements. The BEC is, in this case, a tool used to explore the situation and help define the targets for change. It is inherent in this model that the BECO or consultant does not give advice or solutions.

A comprehensive review by Gutkin and Curtis (1990) showed that, through consultation, teachers' problem-solving skills are enhanced, teachers find problems to be less serious, they report increased professional skills and their attributions change. Additional to the within-school consultations built into this model, the regular visits of the project team for consultations about progress and difficulties, over and above the standard support service input, were said in the evaluation to have offered invaluable support both to Headteachers and co-ordinators. These consultation visits, which were to listen and encourage the identification of solutions by the staff, also helped to ensure that the timetable for change was maintained and were said to motivate staff to meet deadlines. That these joint school/support service consultations were delivered by two agencies (the Educational Psychology Service and the Outreach Service for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties) working interchangeably in a transdisciplinary model of service delivery, was noted to enhance their impact (Lacey, 2001).

In summary, successful school processes to work on the behaviour and learning environment are likely to display many of the following characteristics (Watkins and Wagner, 2000):

- Internal problem-solving as opposed to external referral
- Teamwork as opposed to hierarchy
- Classroom as opposed to individual pupil focus
- Multi-level, multi-causal as opposed to individual intra-psychic thinking

This model as developed in the Framework and replicated in this study also pays close attention to the question of teacher morale and how to maintain and enhance this within a new approach. At times, there appears to be an assumption, in introducing new educational practices, that change will happen through the distribution to schools and LEAs of new

guidance or policies or materials. However the importance of taking account of teacher agency and morale in planning effective educational change is summarised by Frost et al (2000) as: “*the human capacity to ‘make a difference’ through the application of bottom-up power*” (P. 11). Teachers remain largely in charge of their own auditing and planning in the Framework and this emerged in the evaluation as one of the factors which increased the attractiveness of the model for many staff.

In this study the time committed by the support services (both Educational Psychology and Behaviour Outreach), to the project was considerable. However, teacher comments indicated that this was still not sufficient in itself to ensure that by July 2001, that the model became a fully integrated part of the schools’ self-review systems. Indeed, several comments were made to suggest that lack of time available from the project team as further schools came into project was a significant factor. Fullan (2000) describes some of the difficulties in ensuring that innovations become embedded in the school system, and he notes certain stages to this process. In the present case it was apparent that although the first stage of implementation had gone to plan, there was no evidence that after the first year that the model was becoming significantly embedded or ‘institutionalised’ as would require to happen to ensure continuance in the longer-term. The arrival of a new Headteacher to one of the project schools and his initial perceptions of the status of the BEC/BEP process among the staff confirmed this.

As a systematic method of in-school professional development, however, it had been well received, at a time when the efficacy of one-off in-service training sessions out of school is increasingly questioned (e.g. Gill and Monsen, 1996). The work within schools on the BEC and BEPs did appear to offer an alternate route for teachers to review their skills. The risk of developing a monoculture, if staff have less contact through away-days with other teachers, can be obviated by adopting a school partnership approach as in this present study (Saunders, 1999). This model might therefore seem to cater well for certain aspects of the professional development of teachers, although schools and governors will require to review the structures needed to facilitate this and ensure these are built in.

Links with special educational needs

One concern arising from the Birmingham model as applied in this study is the potential for gaps in communication with the school SEN systems. In the schools in this study it has been recognised that behaviour problems need to be monitored through the SEN system as well as the pastoral system, so that the needs of pupils at the more severe end of the EBD continuum are fully identified and appropriate provision made. The SENCos in the partnership expressed concern that, in splitting the role of monitoring behaviour from that of monitoring SEN, there were potential difficulties with communication about pupil needs in school, and implications for their role in setting aside the necessary time for liaison to address these.

5. CONCLUSION

This study has examined the use of the Behaviour Environment Audit as a way of managing pupil behaviour, with a particular focus on reducing problem behaviour. It has been suggested that the processes outlined here might form a useful part of school systems, while pointing up the need for them to be fully integrated with other school practices and priorities, and have the full support of senior management. One suggested way forward is to adapt the Birmingham model as a starting point in an extended trial of the system, again within a partnership of schools. Using school-generated priorities to serve as items in a revised checklist would enable each school to explore its own criteria for a satisfactory learning environment. These priorities might valuably be generated through staff discussions (MacBeath, 1999).

It would seem, from the findings of this present study, that it is feasible for the process of auditing, planning and review to go ahead without adopting also the more complex levels of the Birmingham framework, which address individual pupil issues but raise as yet unanswered questions about links with SEN. It is suggested that thought also needs to be given to making more explicit links with school self-evaluation, performance management, professional development and training issues, school development planning and Code of Practice work. The time commitment and support required for the model to be put in place and the momentum maintained is considerable, requiring both named in-school facilitators and significant external support for the partnership, at least in the initial cycles. The results

of this preliminary study might question the necessity for this intensive support to come from educational psychology.

Teacher evaluations indicate that some positive changes in pupil behaviour, both within classrooms and on a whole-school level, did take place as a result of the process. The question as to whether these will be maintained, and whether the advantages of this system will work to the end of the line to enhance pupil learning outcomes is still to be addressed. Studies such as that of Fraser and O'Brien (1985) suggest that pupil achievement is indeed higher when pupils are satisfied with their classroom environment.

The model described here of auditing and planning with teachers to improve the learning and behaviour environment of their classrooms and schools has been initially well received by teachers and would appear to warrant further investigation of its potential contribution to raising achievement.

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Appendix 1 Introducing the Behaviour Environment Checklist to schools

Reasons for using the Behaviour Environment Checklist:

Sharing good practice

Supporting staff

Widening teachers' repertoire

- Producing practical simple plans
- Working systematically to minimise disruption in schools
- Moving to proactive practice

Comments from staff involved in the programme:

"This helped me with a difficult class"

"It gives you a picture of the type and frequency of behaviours"

"...we feel comfortable with it"

"It's like your personal audit of the learning environment"

The *Behaviour Environment Checklist* is one part of the programme called **FRAMEWORK FOR INTERVENTION**. This has been developed by Birmingham LEA and its use is gradually being extended to all Birmingham schools both primary and secondary. A number of other authorities and schools are beginning to trial the material.

Researchers from Birmingham University have begun to evaluate the programme. They concluded that at this point the programme showed clear benefits for the schools taking part, particularly in helping teachers tackle the problem of daily low-level disruptive behaviour.

HOW TEACHERS ACCESS THE PROCESS AT LEVEL 1

- You have a concern about behaviour(s) in your class
- Using the system as outlined by your B.Co arrange a time for a discussion (the B.Co will listen in a non-judgmental way to your concerns – often just talking about your concerns will remove some of the stress)
- You complete a Behaviour Environment Checklist with the behaviours causing concern in mind (you can do this on your own, with the B.Co or with another colleague with whom you feel comfortable).
- Baseline the behaviours you have identified. (Again, anyone you feel comfortable with can do this – remember they will only be tallying the incidences of behaviour, not observing your teaching.)
- You meet with the B.Co again to talk through the BEC and the baselining and together you draw up a plan. The plan should be simple and achievable.
- You run the plan for 6 weeks.
- At the end of the 6 weeks you do a further classroom observation to measure the incidences of the behaviour – hopefully now reduced!
- A review meeting will take place to decide the next step – continue with the original plan, run another plan or discontinue the process as the plan has achieved its desired effect.

Appendix 2 Behavioural Environment Checklist

Notes for guidance:

This checklist is not focused upon individual pupils

It is designed to help you to identify the areas within the environment(s) in which the problem is happening (eg Classroom, playground etc)

It is best to complete this checklist with a colleague, for example the school's behaviour co-ordinator (or equivalent). You may find observation by a colleague helpful

Do not feel obliged to consider every statement – some may not apply to your situation

Indicate where there are problems even if it seems that change is unlikely or impractical

Once the checklist is completed it can give the basis for a Behavioural Environment Plan

Key 5 = strongly agree – no real room for improvement

1 = disagree – very significant need for action

SECTION A Whole School Policies

Rules and implications:	5	4	3	2	1
A behaviour policy exists and is effective					
Staff have clear understanding of the policy					
Rules are communicated frequently and effectively to pupils, staff (including non-teaching), parents and governors					
Staff have a clear idea of the range of rewards available to pupils					
Staff have a clear idea of the range of sanctions that can and cannot be used					
Staff are aware of a good range of techniques that can be used to deal with behaviour problems					
Pupils, as far as they are able, know the reasons behind the rules in school					
Behaviour problems are dealt with effectively in the light of equal opportunity Issues					
Total number of teacher responses					

Support for staff:	5	4	3	2	1
9 There is collective responsibility for behaviour management in school					
10 Staff feel confident to acknowledge difficulties					
11 Staff have clear means of gaining help					
12 Staff have effective guidance on dealing with conflict					
13 Behaviour problems are recorded fairly and efficiently					
14 Staff roles are clearly defined					
15 Support services are used systematically, efficiently and effectively					
Total number of teacher responses					

Parents and Governors	5	4	3	2	1
Parents are involved to best effect in helping with problems					
Parents are routinely told of pupil's good behaviour					
Governors have agreed written principles					
Governors are appropriately involved in issues relating to behaviour					
Total number of teacher responses					

SECTION B Classroom Organisation

Classroom organisation	5	4	3	2	1
Equipment is easily accessible					
Furniture arranged to best effect					
Appropriate ambient temperature					
Sufficient ventilation					
Lighting sufficient					
No glare					
Materials well labelled and located					
Ease of movement in room					
Appropriate storage of pupils' belongings					
Pupils are grouped appropriately					
Pupils are placed reflecting social relationships					
31 Room organisation meets differing curriculum demands					
Chalk board/white board etc easily seen					
Furniture suitable					
34 Classroom looks like a good work environment					
Sufficient space					
Quiet external environment					
Total number of teacher responses					

SECTION C Classroom management

Classroom management	5	4	3	2	1
Teacher arrives at lesson/classroom before pupils					
Teacher's voice is clear					
Instructions are clear					
Good behaviour is noticed and acknowledged					
Small achievements recognised					
A pupil's behaviour is 'named' and reflected back					
The teacher acts as a role model for desired behaviour					
Materials and equipment are prepared					
Pupils bring correct equipment					
Lessons well prepared					
Curriculum delivery is varied					
Curriculum is appropriate and delivery is differentiated					
Timetable is arranged to best effect					
Peer support is used to best effect					
Adult support is used to best effect					
Total number of teacher responses					

SECTION D Classroom rules and routines

Rules:	5	4	3	2	1
Are few in number and clearly phrased					
Are negotiated with, and understood, by pupils					
Are regularly referred to and reinforced					
Are positively framed					
Are clearly displayed in the classroom					

Behaviour to meet rules is taught					
Total number of teacher responses					

Rewards:	5	4	3	2	1
Are valued by pupils					
Are awarded fairly and consistently					
Are clearly related to positive behaviour					
Are small and readily achievable					
Link with school reward system					
Total number of teacher responses					

Sanctions:	5	4	3	2	1
Are related to behaviour					
Are administered fairly and consistently					
Are understood by pupils					
Are understood by parents and carers					
Are within a clear hierarchy of severity					
Total number of teacher responses					

Routines are established for:	5	4	3	2	1
Entering or leaving the room/lining up					
Distribution and collection of materials/equipment					
Gaining teacher's attention and help					
Changing activities					
Gaining quiet/silence/attention					
Clearing up					
Total number of teacher responses					

SECTION E Out of the Classroom

Out of the classroom	5	4	3	2	1
74 Routines for movement around school site clear					
75 Break time rules understood by pupils					
76 Break time systems adopted by all staff					
Lunchtime rules understood by pupils					
Lunchtime systems adopted by all staff					
Break times rewards/sanctions system clea					
80 Behaviour policy adopted by non-teaching staff					
Corridors and social areas (including playgrounds) are well designed and monitored					
Problem site areas identified and overcome					
Suitable activities/equipment available for break time					
84 There is an effective system for resolution of pils conflicts					
TOTAL					

Appendix 3 Behaviour Frequency Record

Observer's name

Pupil's initials Class Sheet No

Session 1: / /
Time: to

Session 2: / /
Time:to

Session 3: / /
Time:to.....

Behaviour 1:

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Behaviour 2:

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Behaviour 3:

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Tally	
Total	<input type="text"/>

Discussed with teacher Y/N

Appendix 4 Behavioural Environment Plan

DATE

Behavioural Environment Plan	NUMBER
NAME OF TEACHER	CLASS/FORM

Behaviour(s) causing concern :

Environmental concerns (identified from review/checklist)

1.

2.

Actions	By whom	By when
----------------	----------------	----------------

1.

2.

3.

4.

Aim of intervention

Review date

Appendix 5 The process of auditing the behaviour environment

Teacher has concerns about behaviours, discusses with strategy co-ordinator

Baseline assessment of behaviour causing concern

Consider any external factors and take action as needed

Continue using usual behaviour procedures with pupils

Audit behavior environment

Determine areas for action

Create Behaviour Environment Plan

Implement Behaviour Environment Plan (BEP)

Monitor implementation of BEP

Monitor behaviours of concern

Review BEP (check implementation, general pupil behaviour, target behaviour and any other information)

ACTION AT REVIEW:

- **EITHER** BEP not completed or partially successful and needs more time
- **OR** Different BEP needed
- **OR** Successful outcome and finish

Appendix 6 Review of BEP/IBP

FRAMEWORK FOR INTERVENTION	DATE	
Review of BEP/IBP	NUMBER	
NAME OF PUPIL(S)/	DOB	CLASS/FORM

Contributors to this review

Progress in relation to aims and steps for each plan

Any other information including views of pupil(s), parent/carer

Outcome of review:further plans

Signed	Position
---------------	-----------------

Appendix 7 Teacher questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE TO ASSESS TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPACT OF THE PROCESS OF AUDITING THE BEHAVIOUR ENVIRONMENT AND PLANNING / REVIEWING

Please tick your role(s): Teacher/ DPBS Coordinator/ Headteacher

What have been the effects of using the Behaviour Environment Checklist and writing Behavior Environment Plans in your school on:

- (1) An individual class level?
- (2) A whole-school level?

What aspects of these procedures have worked well? Please circle.

• Behavior Environment Checklist (completed at outset)	YES/ NO
• Writing the first Behavior Environment Plan	YES/ NO
• Reviewing the first Behavior Environment Plan	YES/ NO
• Writing the second Behavior Environment Plan	YES/ NO
• Observations in class prior to these	YES/ NO
• Discussions with the Strategy co-ordinators in school	YES/ NO
• Discussions with the Behavior Strategy team in school	YES/ NO
• Working on the whole-school issues	YES/ NO

What difficulties (if any) have you encountered using the Behavior Environment Checklist and Behavior Environment Plans?

How would you improve the use of these?

Would you recommend their use to other schools?

Have you any other comments you would like to make?

Once again thank you for your time and patience in helping us to review the procedures we have been using to ensure that we make the very best use of teachers' time and effort in this school improvement work.

Adapted from Interview Guidelines Cole et al. 2000

Appendix 8 Behavioural Environment Plan

DATE 29-03-01

Behavioural Environment Plan NUMBER 1

School: CLASS/FORM Whole school

ISSUE: LUNCHTIMES

Environmental concerns (identified from review/checklist):

77/78 LUNCHTIME RULES AND SYSTEMS

Actions:	By whom	By when
Appoint Senior LTS	x	
Purchase aeroplane meal trays	x	
Equipment audit	d,j	
Pupil questionnaire	f,k	
Rules revised/ rewards	Whole staff	
Changes to school day	x to govs	
Certificates and tokens to be made	m	

Aim of intervention:

To improve the quality of lunchtimes for staff and pupils

Review date May 01.

DPBS FofI IBP

Appendix 9 Responses from School X Dec 2000

Behavioural Environment Checklist Responses from School X Dec 2000

Key 5 = strongly agree – no real room for improvement
 1 = disagree – very significant need for action

SECTION A Whole School Policies

Rules and implications:	5	4	3	2	1
1 A behaviour policy exists and is effective	1	5	1		
2 Staff have clear understanding of the policy	2	3	2		
Rules are communicated frequently and effectively to pupils, staff (including non-teaching), parents and governors	1	2	3		1
Staff have a clear idea of the range of rewards available to pupils	3	4			
Staff have a clear idea of the range of sanctions that can and cannot be used	2	4		1	
Staff are aware of a good range of techniques that can be used to deal with behaviour problems	3	4			
Pupils, as far as they are able, know the reasons behind the rules in school	3	2	2		
Behaviour problems are dealt with effectively in the light of equal opportunity issues	1		6		
Total number of teacher responses	16	24	14	1	1

Support for staff:	5	4	3	2	1
There is collective responsibility for behaviour management in school	1	5			
Staff feel confident to acknowledge Difficulties	3	3	1		
11 Staff have clear means of gaining help	1	4	2		
Staff have effective guidance on dealing with conflict	1	2	2	2	
Behaviour problems are recorded fairly and Efficiently			6	1	
14 Staff roles are clearly defined	3	3	1		
Support services are used systematically, efficiently and effectively		1	4	1	1
Total number of teacher responses	9	18	16	4	1

Parents and Governors	5	4	3	2	1
16 Parents are involved to best effect in helping with problems		2	4	1	
17 Parents are routinely told of pupil's good behaviour		1	1	4	1
18 Governors have agreed written principles		1	1		5
19 Governors are appropriately involved in issues relating to behaviour		1	1		5
Total number of teacher responses	0	5	7	5	11

SECTION B Classroom Organisation

Classroom organisation	5	4	3	2	1
20 Equipment is easily accessible	4	2	1		
21 Furniture arranged to best effect	4	2	1		
22 Appropriate ambient temperature		1	2	4	
23 Sufficient ventilation		2	3	2	
24 Lighting sufficient	3	3		1	
25 No glare	1	2	1	2	1
26 Materials well labelled and located	3	2		2	
27 Ease of movement in room	3	2			2
28 Appropriate storage of pupils' belongings	4	2			1
29 Pupils are grouped appropriately	4	3			
30 Pupils are paced reflecting social relationships		5		1	1
Room organisation meets differing Curriculum demands	2	4			1
32 Chalk board/white board etc easily seen	2	5			
33 Furniture suitable	1	3	2	1	
Classroom looks like a good work Environment	3	2	2		
35 Sufficient space	2	1	1	1	2
36 Quiet external environment	1	5	1		
Total number of teacher responses	37	46	14	14	8

SECTION C Classroom management

Classroom management	5	4	3	2	1
Teacher arrives at lesson/classroom before Pupils	5	2			
38 Teacher's voice is clear	5	2			
39 Instructions are clear	5	1	1		
40 Good behaviour is noticed and acknowledged	3	3	1		
41 Small achievements recognised	3	3	1		
42 A pupil's behaviour is 'named' and reflected back	3	3	1		
43 The teacher acts as a role model for desired behaviour	4	3			
44 Materials and equipment are prepared	3	2	2		
*45 Pupils bring correct equipment			1		
46 Lessons well prepared	3	3	1		
47 Curriculum delivery is varied	3	3	1		
48 Curriculum is appropriate and delivery is differentiated	3	3		1	
49 Timetable is arranged to best effect	3	3		1	
50 Peer support is used to best effect	2	3	2		
51 Adult support is used to best effect	3	4			
Total number of teacher responses	48	38	11	2	0

SECTION D Classroom rules and routines

Rules:	5	4	3	2	1
52 Are few in number and clearly phrased	6	1			
53 Are negotiated with, and understood, by pupils	5	2			
54 Are regularly referred to and reinforced	5	2			
55 Are positively framed	6	1			
56 Are clearly displayed in the classroom	6				1
57 Behaviour to meet rules is taught	4	2	1		
Total number of teacher responses	32	8	1	0	1

Rewards:	5	4	3	2	1
58 Are valued by pupils	5		2		
59 Are awarded fairly and consistently	1	4	2		
60 Are clearly related to positive behaviour	5	2			
61 Are small and readily achievable	6	1			
62 Link with school reward system	4	1	2		
Total number of teacher responses	21	8	6	0	0

Sanctions:	5	4	3	2	1
63 Are related to behaviour	4	3			
64 Are administered fairly and consistently	3	4			
65 Are understood by pupils	4	3			
66 Are understood by parents and carers		3	2	2	
67 Are within a clear hierarchy of severity	3	1	1	2	
Total number of teacher responses	14	14	3	4	0

Routines are established for:	5	4	3	2	1
68 Entering or leaving the room/lining up	5*	2			
Distribution and collection of materials/ Equipment	4	2	1		
70 Gaining teacher's attention and help	4	2		1	
71 Changing activities	3	3	1		
72 Gaining quiet/silence/attention	4	3			
73 Clearing up	3	4			
Total number of teacher responses	23	16	2	1	0

* = routines established but not always followed

SECTION E Out of the Classroom

Out of the classroom	5	4	3	2	1
74 Routines for movement around school site clear	4	3			
75 Short break time rules understood by pupils	4	2	1		
76 Short break time systems adopted by all staff	4	2	1		
77 Lunchtime rules understood by pupils	3	2	1		1
78 Lunchtime systems adopted by all staff	4	2			1
79 Break times rewards/sanctions system clear	4	3			
80 Behaviour policy adopted by ancillary staff	4	1	2		
81 Corridors and social areas (including playgrounds) are well designed and monitored		2	2	2	1
82 Problem site areas identified and overcome		1	5	1	
Suitable activities/equipment available for Break times	1	2	2		1bt 1
84 There is an effective system for resolution of pupils conflicts		3	3		1
TOTAL	28	23	17	3	6

Appendix 10 Summary of Teacher Responses

Summary of Teacher Responses
 Behavioural Environment Checklist
 School Y Key Stage 2 Autumn Term 2000

Key 5 = strongly agree – no real room for improvement
 0 = disagree – very significant need for action

SECTION A Whole School Policies

Rules and implications:	5	4	3	2	1	0
1 A behaviour policy exists and is effective	1		4	1		
2 Staff have clear understanding of the policy	1	1	3	1		
Rules are communicated frequently and effectively to pupils, staff (including non-teaching), parents and governors		1	2	3		
Staff have a clear idea of the range of rewards available to pupils		6				
Staff have a clear idea of the range of sanctions that can and cannot be used		4	1	1		
Staff are aware of a good range of techniques that can be used to deal with behaviour problems	1	2	2	1		
Pupils, as far as they are able, know the reasons behind the rules in school		5		1		
Behaviour problems are dealt with effectively in the light of equal opportunity issues		2	4			
Total number of teacher responses	3	21	16	8	0	0

Support for staff:	5	4	3	2	1	0
There is collective responsibility for behaviour management in school	1	1	3	1		
Staff feel confident to acknowledge difficulties		3	2	1		
11 Staff have clear means of gaining help		1	3	2		
Staff have effective guidance on dealing with conflict		2	2	2		
Behaviour problems are recorded fairly and Efficiently		2		4		
14 Staff roles are clearly defined		2	2	2		
Support services are used systematically, efficiently and effectively			2	4		
Total number of teacher responses	1	11	14	16	0	0

Parents and Governors	5	4	3	2	1	0
16 Parents are involved to best effect in helping with problems			1	5		
17 Parents are routinely told of pupil's good behaviour			3	2	1	
18 Governors have agreed written principles	1	1	1	1	1	1
19 Governors are appropriately involved in						

issues relating to behaviour	1	2			2	1
Total number of teacher responses	2	3	5	8	4	2

SECTION B Classroom Organisation

Classroom organisation	5	4	3	2	1	0
20 Equipment is easily accessible	1	1	1	3		
21 Furniture arranged to best effect	1	1	2	2		
22 Appropriate ambient temperature		1	2		3	
23 Sufficient ventilation		1	2	2	1	
24 Lighting sufficient			1	1	4	
25 No glare		1	3	1	1	
26 Materials well labelled and located	1	1	2	2		
27 Ease of movement in room		1	2	1	2	
28 Appropriate storage of pupils' belongings	1		2	1	2	
29 Pupils are grouped appropriately		1	3	2		
30 Pupils are paced reflecting social relationships	1	1	3			1
Room organisation meets differing Curriculum demands		2		3	1	
32 Chalk board/white board etc easily seen		1		2	3	
33 Furniture suitable		2	4			
Classroom looks like a good work Environment		2	3	1		
35 Sufficient space		1	3		2	
36 Quiet external environment		2	2		1	1
Total number of teacher responses	5	19	35	21	20	2

SECTION C Classroom management

Classroom management	5	4	3	2	1	0
Teacher arrives at lesson/classroom before Pupils	2	2	1	1		
38 Teacher's voice is clear	3	1	1	1		
39 Instructions are clear		3	3			
40 Good behaviour is noticed and acknowledged	3	2	1			
41 Small achievements recognised	1	3	2			
42 A pupil's behaviour is 'named' and reflected back	1	2	3			
43 The teacher acts as a role model for desired behaviour	1	4	1			
44 Materials and equipment are prepared	2	4				
45 Pupils bring correct equipment		2	2	2		
46 Lessons well prepared	2	3	1			
47 Curriculum delivery is varied	3	1	2			
48 Curriculum is appropriate and delivery is differentiated	2	2	2			
49 Timetable is arranged to best effect		3	2	1		
50 Peer support is used to best effect	1	3	2			
51 Adult support is used to best effect	2	2	2			
Total number of teacher responses	23	37	25	5	0	0

SECTION D Classroom rules and routines

Rules:	5	4	3	2	1	0
52 Are few in number and clearly phrased	3	1	2			
53 Are negotiated with, and understood, by pupils	4	2				
54 Are regularly referred to and reinforced	3	1	2			
55 Are positively framed	4	1	1			
56 Are clearly displayed in the classroom	4	2				
57 Behaviour to meet rules is taught	2	2	1	1		
Total number of teacher responses	20	9	6	1	0	0

Rewards:	5	4	3	2	1	0
58 Are valued by pupils	2	3	1			
59 Are awarded fairly and consistently	3	2	1			
60 Are clearly related to positive behaviour	3	2		1		
61 Are small and readily achievable	2	3	1			
62 Link with school reward system	2	1	3	1		
Total number of teacher responses	12	11	5	2	0	0

Sanctions:	5	4	3	2	1	0
63 Are related to behaviour		5	1			
64 Are administered fairly and consistently	1	4	1			
65 Are understood by pupils	1	3	2			
66 Are understood by parents and carers			3	2	1	
67 Are within a clear hierarchy of severity			3		2	1
Total number of teacher responses	2	15	7	4	2	0

Routines are established for:	5	4	3	2	1	0
68 Entering or leaving the room/lining up	1	3		2		
Distribution and collection of materials/Equipment	1	2	3			
70 Gaining teacher's attention and help	3	2	1			
71 Changing activities	2	2	1			1
72 Gaining quiet/silence/attention	1	3	1	1		
73 Clearing up	2	3	1			
Total number of teacher responses	10	15	7	3	1	0

SECTION E Out of the Classroom

Out of the classroom	5	4	3	2	1	0
74 Routines for movement around school site clear	2	1	1	2		
75 Short break time rules understood by pupils	2	2		1	1	
76 Short break time systems adopted by all staff		4		2		
77 Lunchtime rules understood by pupils			2		1	
78 Lunchtime systems adopted by all staff				1	2	
79 Break times rewards/sanctions system clear			1		4	1
80 Behaviour policy adopted by ancillary staff		1	2	1	2	
81 Corridors and social areas (including playgrounds) are well designed and monitored					3	
82 Problem site areas identified and overcome			2	1	1	2
Suitable activities/equipment available for Break times	1				2	3
84 There is an effective system for resolution of pupils conflicts	1			1	1	3
TOTAL	6	9	7	13	13	9

Appendix 11 My Class Inventory

Twelve pupils worked in groups of four on *My Class Inventory*. (Please see separate sheet describing the background of *My Class Inventory*). Pupils were selected at random by the teacher. It took about 20 minutes to work through 25 questions, which were read out to pupils while they circled either 'yes' or 'no'. Three pupils were unable to cope with the structure of the questionnaire or with the concentration required. Nine successfully completed the questionnaire, appeared to enjoy the process and find the questions interesting. Their concentration and co-operation were excellent. The pupils seemed to be immediately sure of how they would want to answer the question. They required little deliberation. The questions they all answered positively were *The pupils enjoy their schoolwork in my class, Pupils in my class like each other as friends, All pupils in my class are close friends* and *My class is fun*.

- A striking pattern was the high level of **satisfaction** felt by the children with being part of their class (class L mean or average was 13, possible range of scores 5-15, average 10). Questions which tapped into this were "*Pupils enjoy their schoolwork in my class, Some pupils are not happy in my class, Pupils seem to like my class, Some pupils don't like my class and My class is fun*". What emerged also was a feeling that there were in one or two pupils who were having problems. The staff may already know these pupils. **Teacher L** rated the **ideal** satisfaction level of the classroom environment at 15, with the **actual** level for this class at 15.
- The fifth measure is called **cohesiveness** and questions which sample this are "*In my class everybody is my friend, Some pupils in my class are not my friend, All pupils in my class are close friends, All pupils in my class like one another and Pupils in my class like one another as friends*." The scores on this aspect were again extremely high (class mean 14.5) and reflect great credit again on the teacher and class. **Teacher L** rated the **ideal** cohesiveness level of the classroom environment at 15, with the **actual** level for this class at 13.

The three other measures on which *My Class Inventory* gives information are **friction, competitiveness and difficulty of work**.

- The **friction** score for the class was 8 (again range 5 – 15 average 10 and a lower score shows less friction). Questions which tapped into this are '*Pupils are always fighting with each other, Some pupils in my class are mean, Many pupils in my class like to fight, Certain pupils always want to*

have their own way, Pupils in my class fight a lot'. A superficial impression of the pupils while answering these questions was a difference in the way the boys and girls answered in that the boys felt there was more friction. but this cannot be substantiated this as it is not possible to analyse the questionnaires by sex. **Teacher L** rated the **ideal** friction level of the classroom environment at 5, with the **actual** level for this class at 7.

- **Competitiveness** questions are *Pupils often race to see who can finish first, Most pupils want their work to be better than their friends work, Some pupils feel bad when they don't do as well as others, Some pupils always try to do their work better than the others, A few pupils in my class want to be first all of the time*'. The class score on this was 9.5, just below average. I am sure that the staff can identify which pupils were in everyone's minds when they completed these questions! **Teacher L** rated the **ideal** competitiveness level of the classroom environment at 5, with the **actual** level for this class at 7.
- The level of **difficulty** of the work was rated at 8.5, tapped into by questions such as *In my class the work is hard to do, Most pupils can do their school work without help, Only the smart pupils can do their work, Schoolwork is hard to do and Most pupils in my class no how to do their work*'. **Teacher L** rated the **ideal** difficulty level of the classroom at 9, with the **actual** level for this class at 7.

From our experiences of this questionnaire in other schools it is not uncommon for the scores on **satisfaction** and **cohesiveness** to be **higher** than the scores on friction, competitiveness and work difficulty. However the satisfaction and cohesiveness scores in this class seem commendably high.

It would be interesting to see if at the end of this academic year, when Family Links work will have been implemented for two terms, the pupil scores are different. If any intervention is planned by the teacher to work on aspects of the classroom environment arising from this survey, then this can be linked to the **Behaviour Environment Plan**. It may be possible to re-administer the questionnaires at the beginning of July 2001.

Appendix 12 BEC Section A / B responses for Schools X and Y

Behaviour Environment Checklist

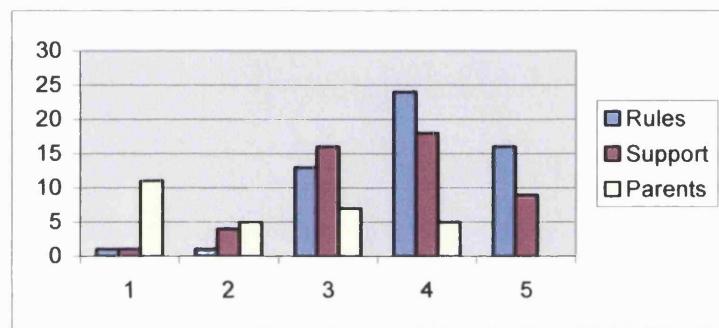
School

7 Teachers

5 = no real room for improvement 1 = very significant need for action

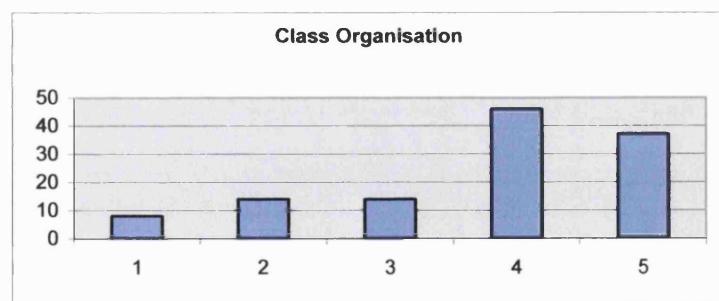
Section A Whole School Policies

	1	2	3	4	5
Rules and implications	1	1	13	24	16
Support for staff	1	4	16	18	9
Parents and Governors	11	5	7	5	0



Section B Classroom Organisation

	1	2	3	4	5
Classroom Organisation	8	14	14	46	37



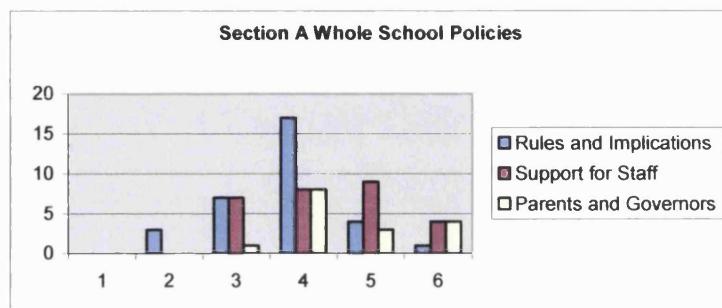
Summary for Teacher Responses
Behavioural Environment Checklist
School Key Stage 1 Autumn Term 2000

Key : 1 = Disagree - Very significant need for action
 6 = Strongly agree - No real room for improvement

Section A

Whole School Policies

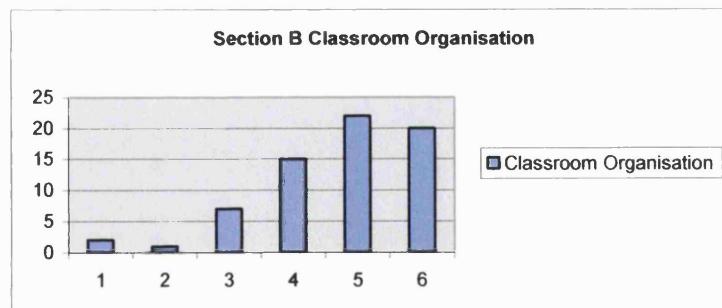
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Rules and implications	0	3	7	17	4	1
Support for staff	0	0	7	8	9	4
Parents and Governors	0	0	1	8	3	4



Section B

Classroom Organisation

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Classroom Organisation	2	1	7	15	22	20



Appendix 13 Collated Teacher Perceptions

COLLATED TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPACT OF THE BEHAVIOUR ENVIRONMENT AUDIT AND PLANNING

Teachers 12

DPBS Coordinators 3

What have been the effects of using the Behaviour Environment Checklist and writing Behavior Environment Plans in your school on:

(1) An individual class level?

Made me think about what could be improved, even though behaviour in my class is generally very good.

Made me look at specific results/desired outcomes/some limitations over which I have no control.

More aware of resources and where they are located in the class.

None yet – involved expenditure.

Focus.

Worked well at first – enthusiasm waned over the year.

Short-term.

Good short-term effects

Support for more severe SEN children.

Made teachers more aware of things they could change.

Useful in identifying and changing certain routines and getting equipment, e.g. blinds.

More aware of the classroom environments, thinking about things I usually take for granted.

Good as it made me more aware but getting things done was out of my hands; everything required external input.

(2) A whole-school level?

Made us look at children's position/resources/LTS role/Staff role.

Made teachers talk more to each other about behaviour problems.

I still think there is a huge amount to sort out here.

Staff are aware of where behaviour causing concern is.

Support and extended lunchtime initiation.

Satisfying that we are all on the same wavelength – not sure about on a more practical level.

Reassuring, as it showed we were all very consistent and needed similar input .

Becoming more aware of the whole environment.

What aspects of these procedures have worked well?

Behavior Environment Checklist (completed at outset)	12 YES/ NO 2
Writing the first Behavior Environment Plan	13 YES/ NO 1
Reviewing the first Behavior Environment Plan	9 YES/ NO 3
Writing the second Behavior Environment Plan	6 YES/ NO 6*
Observations in class prior to these	13 YES/ NO 0
Discussions with the Strategy co-ordinators in school	12 YES/ NO 1
Discussions with the Behavior Strategy team in school	13 YES/ NO 1
Working on the whole-school issues	8 YES/ NO 5

* *I don't think we've done it
as nothing changed*

What difficulties (if any) have you encountered using the Behavior Environment Checklist and Behavior Environment Plans?

Insoluble problems due to nature of building and inappropriate furniture etc.

School ethos/attitudes are difficult to overcome – or perhaps I am just feeling negative today!

Problems in the environment could not be changed greatly.

Finding appropriate issues that needed to be addressed.

Only in terms of identifying building problems you can do little about. Otherwise great!

Some aspects of class environment such as outside noise/environment etc. Ugly buildings etc. can't be altered.

Finding issues relevant to my class.

Finding immediate relevance to the class I was running.

None.

Too much paperwork – good idea, but didn't work in practise. I wasn't able to keep on top of it.

Finding time to keep on top of plan. Started off OK but with other things admit to letting them slip!

Had little impact on my classroom: no tangible outcomes.

Some things eg walls and toilets cannot be changed despite being identified as difficult areas

How would you improve the use of these?

Concentrate more on aspects that can be changed.

I think we need to take these on board more seriously – use them more over a longer period – did I detect a slight lack of support from management?

Make sure.

Other people to observe classes and see if any problems are being overlooked.

Once problems are identified, there were some issues regarding taking it forward as whole scale.

Action taken by school on longer cost items that need to be taken into consideration.

Tie noted items to prioritised money.

Respond to requests where appropriate and manageable.

Only include things you can practically change. Resources (money) needed.

Only include aspects on plans which can change.

Would you recommend their use to other schools?

Yes it can help outline and share problem areas even if they can't be dealt with

Yes.

Definitely.

Yes. It makes you more aware of specific problems and makes you focus on small steps/improvements that can be made.

Only include what its possible to change e.g. buildings can't be an item.

Have you any other comments you would like to make?

I thought the meeting at Drayton with the Head of Northern House was extremely stimulating/helpful.

A very positive worthwhile experience which can only help the children providing all staff/LTS etc are fully behind it.

This school should have either some drastic alteration on limited users in KS2 classrooms.

I think BEC's took a back seat while working on lunchtime issues. The 2 DPBS Co-ordinators didn't have enough time or energy to enthuse on both.



University College London

PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE ASSIGNMENT

Submission Form

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the Continuing Professional Development Doctorate in Educational Psychology (DEdPsy)

Name: Patricia Matheson

Assignment No: 3

Assignment Title: Connecting Services: Providing joined-up working for schools, pupils and families

Submission: 1st 2nd Examination X

Word count: (Excluding references and appendices) 7650 words

Section of the Core curriculum for Professional Training in Educational Psychology to which this assignment relates:

Core Curriculum area : 3: The Profession and its Context

Submission Statement

I confirm that:

1. This submitted assignment is my own work; and
2. I have read and acted upon the guidelines for avoiding plagiarism contained in the DEdPsy Handbook
3. The content of this Assignment has not been published in similar form elsewhere, or offered in respect of any other degree, diploma or other academic award.

Course Members Signature: Patricia Matheson **Date:** 31st Jan 03

1: INTRODUCTION

Many children and young people are said to need more support than can be provided by any one agency or service (CSNU, 2001a). These young people's needs arise from a combination of difficulties and may lead them to become involved with a wide range of professionals, such as educational psychologists, educational social workers, outreach teachers, youth workers, social workers, and health professionals, in addition to school-based personnel. If well supported to reach their educational potential, there can be good long-term outcomes for young people in need (Jackson and Martin, 1998).

This study will examine the process of implementing Connexions, a government initiative to address the problem of young people who fall through the gaps of agency support (DfEE, 2000a). The Local Education Authority (LEA) was contracted to provide Connexions Specialist Personal Advisers to secondary schools through a programme which is led by a Senior Educational Psychologist and involves 12 educational psychologists and 20 outreach teachers, educational social workers and youth workers.

In Section 2, some educational and social movements responding to the needs of young people in difficulty are described briefly. An examination of the research literature in Section 3 will propose that successful inter-agency projects follow a characteristic pattern, of seeming desirable but being hard to achieve, and will draw on studies from occupational psychology, business management and social psychology, as well as educational research, to suggest strategies and approaches. In this section, the study will also look at the model suggested by Roaf (1999), who describes effective collaborative activity as on three inter-connecting levels, the strategic, the operational and the interpersonal and suggests that projects supported at all three levels are more likely to have long-term success. In Section 4 this study will examine the extent to which the implementation of Connexions fitted this framework.

This study will consider strategies which lead to improved inter-service collaboration. Some key issues which will be explored are:

- differing usage of terminology
- the timing of the initiative
- previous national and local experiences of linking agencies and services
- the contribution of educational psychologists

The author's previous experiences as an educational psychologist in school improvement projects will be related to this new initiative, and links will be made with recent national recommendations on educational psychologists' working practices (DfEE, 2000b) and for future models of intra-agency practice.

LIST OF ACRONYMS USED IN THE TEXT

CG	Child Guidance
CfBT	Centre for British Teachers
CoP	Code of Practice (SEN)
CSNU	Connexions Service National Unit
DfE	Department for Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DoH	Department of Health
EAZ	Education Action Zone
EBD	Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties
EBDOT	Outreach Teacher for pupils with EBD
EDP	Education Development Plan
EP	Educational Psychologist
ESW	Educational Social Worker
GOSE	Government Office for the South-East
ISS	Integrated Support Services
LEA	Local Education Authority
LMC	Local Management Committee
LSC	Learning and Skills Council
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
PA1	Personal Adviser 1
PA2	Personal Adviser 2 (formerly careers officer)
PA3	Personal Adviser 3/ Specialist Personal Adviser
PEP	Principal Educational Psychologist
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SENCo	Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator
YOT	Youth Offending Team
YS	Youth Service
YW	Youth Worker

2: THE CONTEXT

Estimating the number of young people who are facing significant barriers to learning is difficult given the lack of generally-accepted definitions. Such people may be young carers, on the fringes of criminality, may have mental health problems, be homeless, out of school, looked after, living in families under stress and have special educational needs.

Figures quoted in Understanding Connexions (CSNU, 2001b) give the scale of the problem in the education context:

- In 2000, an estimated 11500 young people were excluded from school.
- 9% of age 16-18 are not in education, training or employment at any one time.
- Afro-Caribbean young people are 6 times more likely to be excluded from school.
- 1 in 16 young people leave school without any qualifications each year.

It is argued that these young people fall 'through the net' when services and agencies fail to co-operate or to take responsibility for the young person's needs (Roaf, 1999). As one of a number of efforts to address these problems, the government has set up the Connexions Service. A review of a previous model of inter-agency cooperation in practice over a long period, such as Child Guidance, can help with understanding the background to this new development, and what the expectations for it may include.

Policies for young people

The 'Child Guidance model' of the 1950s and 1960s which originated in the U.S. and came to Scotland first in the UK, is of particular interest in the context of this study, although no longer in operation (Sampson, 1980). Each Child Guidance team was composed of specialists who separately investigated the child's problem, then came together to pool their expertise, reach a diagnosis and make recommendations for treatment: generally a psychiatrist, educational psychologist and psychiatric social worker. Influential ideas from this movement have been about therapeutic help in understanding the causes of difficult behaviour, and greater awareness of the complexity of individual differences in children and the need for special educational treatment in school. Sampson notes that the model also encouraged new forms of teamwork, early referral, and improved record keeping and reporting. The demise of the child guidance movement came about because of changes in

service organizations and in the core skills of the professional groups involved (Roaf, 1999).

In intervening years, welfare movements have inspired a number of reports and Acts attempting to look at the causes of the problems and legislate for better practice. For example, in 1994, The Code of Practice for Special Educational Needs (SEN) noted:

'...effective action on behalf of children with special educational needs will often depend of close co-operation between schools, LEAs, the health services and social services departments of local authorities. (DFE 1994 2.38).

The requirement for local authorities to produce Joint Children's Service Plans was one attempt to systematise interagency work. Roaf (1999) shows that in the early 1990's in one county there were 70 different agencies and groups with a role for young people in difficulty. Reviewing inter-service work in an education context, Fletcher-Campbell and Cullen note, "*One of the most striking aspects of LEA support services for special educational needs was their sheer variety*" (1999, P. 59).

At a national level, Moss and Petrie (1997) describe how children's interests could be dealt with by 14 different government departments and how services working in isolation from other services, focusing on their one function, were wasteful of resources and inflexible. The authors suggested refocusing on the school as the important linking element for children's services, a concept followed to some extent in the new Connexions model described here.

Recent guidance in The Framework for the Assessment of Children in Need and their Families (DoH, 2000) describes the government's renewed commitment to "*a range of cross-cutting strategies... improvement in outcomes of children in need will only be achieved with close collaboration between professionals and agencies working with children and families*". (P vii).

Assessments of children in difficulty particularly require a high degree of co-operation and co-ordination between different agencies. It is proposed also in The Framework for

Assessment that interdisciplinary assessment practices require an additional set of knowledge and skills to that required working within a single agency. This theme will be examined in more detail in the research review in Section 3.

In the new Code of Practice on Special Educational Needs there is again strong emphasis on inter-agency working and encouragement for agencies to look creatively at ways to achieve this:

"All agencies should recognise the need for effective collaboration of services involved with the child and with parents... Developments and organisational structures and working practices should reflect this principle". (DfES, 2001, P.135).

The national Connexions Service

One way in which the Government has planned to bring about increased collaboration between services and agencies is through the Connexions Service (DfEE, 2000d). The support offered to young people through Personal Advisers (PAs) will vary according to their needs. The Connexions strategy is described as "*a radical new approach to guiding and supporting all young people through their teenage years and in their transition into adulthood and working life*" (CSNU, 2001b).

Behind the development of this strategy lay concerns that difficulties of some young people were compounded because no one person was available to co-ordinate support. The Connexions Service National Unit (CSNU) has led a phased introduction of regional Partnerships with Local Management Committees (LMC) responsible for operational delivery of the service, usually based on local authority boundaries. Partnerships and the LMCs are themselves multi-agency bodies with representatives from LEAs, Career Services, Youth Offending Teams, Social Services Departments, schools, health professionals and voluntary sector agencies. (See Appendix 1),

Schools have an important role in planning and delivering the service and it is emphasised that Connexions should build on, but not substitute or duplicate the pastoral support that schools already offer. The aim is for Connexions to improve school links with other agencies, thereby freeing up more time for teaching.

Connexions principles

8 key principles are said to underpin the Connexions strategy and its aim of raising achievement and increasing social inclusion:

1. Raising aspiration
2. Meeting individuals needs
3. Taking account of the needs of young people
4. Inclusion
5. Partnership
6. Community involvement and neighbourhood renewal
7. Extending opportunity and equality of opportunity
8. Evidence-based practice

The role of the educational psychologist

The DFE Working Party Report (2000b) into the role of educational psychologists gives examples of psychologists' involvement in effective joint working between health, social services and education. The report recommended further work to map where Educational Psychology Services fit with developing strategies such as the Connexions Service, to highlight areas where the input of the educational psychologist might add additional value.

Local context

Roaf (1999) examines the findings on previous multi-agency initiatives in the City, that interagency working was seen as desirable, but difficult to achieve. Reasons suggested for this were lack of professional confidence, confusion of roles, agency cultures and confidentiality issues. Previous attempts to link services within the LEA itself had been problematic. The grouping of the educational social workers, educational psychologists and pre-school teacher counsellors in a new service in 1990, led by the Principal Educational Psychologist (PEP), was only partially successful. Difficulties faced in restructuring professional teams will be examined in later sections of this study in the context of the development of the Connexions service, to see what lessons could be learned from these experiences.

In the mid 1990's educational psychologists were in leading positions in 2 branches of LEA management which enhanced service involvement in LEA policy-making and in the the

Education Action Zone (EAZ), where a key strand of work was the Integrated Support Services (ISS) model, aimed at increasing the responsiveness, effectiveness and coherence of Support Services. The model worked through school consultation teams, consisting of school representatives, normally the Head or Deputy, SENCo, and the support services attached to the school. Teams meet twice termly in each school, to consider issues and plan actions, and then to review progress, with reports fed back to a core group of headteachers and heads of support services. By collating evidence from the consultation teams in this way, the core group acquires data about issues and concerns, and is able to look for shared solutions. The Integrated Support Services model has been evaluated by Glenny (2001).

“It is clearly the case that the frameworks of support set up by the ISS, and in particular through its key operational structure of the school consultation team, are helping schools to develop more inclusive policy and practice.”

Further description and evaluation of this model is given in Sections 3 and 4. The positive findings of the evaluation led to the adoption of this model in setting up the Connexions service.

The local Connexions model

This county began as part of MKOB Connexions in April 2001. Connexions is an evolving service but it is clear that the government expects early improvement in the experiences of young people (DfEE, 2000a). This is measured through targets for the partnership (for participation in education, for achievement, exclusions and attendance as well as wider cross-cutting targets). Through partnership agreements, schools have also set targets for their Connexions teams. Educational Social Workers (ESWs), Educational Psychologists, EBD Outreach teachers (EBDOTs) and Youth Workers (YWs), working as PA3s, form the Connexions team in each school alongside school staff, PA1s and PA2s (See Appendices 1-5). PA3s work with young people and their families both directly and through consultation, group work and systems work in schools (See Appendices 6-8).

Unique to the model is that schools receive funding to appoint a Connexions Co-ordinator from the senior management team and referrals to specialist personal advisers are made only through this School Connexions Co-ordinator. In addition, a countywide co-ordinator for Connexions in Schools was appointed at Senior Educational Psychologist level.

Representatives from each School Connexions Team meet together in area teams for joint training, sharing good practice, addressing concerns and developing common protocols.

Despite the local and national guidance there were inevitably areas of uncertainty and ambiguity in implementation. Some issues have arisen around the identification of pupils for Connexions support, some schools putting forward those who had no previous access to support, and others directing the work to the most vulnerable pupils, often with a long history of agency support. Assessment and recording, time commitments for team meetings and recording formats all emerged as problematic. It was envisaged, at least initially, that the distinctive element of the Connexions support for pupils would be its intensiveness in terms of frequency and personal contact, although still drawing on the existing skills and techniques of the professionals. Issues arising from the development of this new Service and how the research helped to inform this development, will be discussed in Section 4.

3: THE RESEARCH BACKGROUND

In this study the researcher's main role was as project manager, which gave enhanced access to professional sources and information, but which implies also an interest in positive outcomes. In the context of teaching, however, Myers (1996) suggests that it is only by adopting a research-type stance that work of the highest quality and effectiveness is achieved, perhaps partly because of the resulting personal investment in the process of change. The role of the Connexions project manager here was not to draw up the structure or invent processes, as the local model set this out clearly, but rather to promote collaboration among professionals from a wide range of backgrounds, and encourage the development of effective systems and structures at school level.

Materials consulted during this study included detailed histories and evaluations of interagency work in educational contexts both locally e.g. Glenny (2001), Roaf (1999) and nationally, e.g. Fletcher Campbell and Cullen (1999) and Atkinson (2001). Interviews were also held with the co-ordinator of the EAZ, the Principal Educational Psychologist and the researcher who evaluated the EAZ initiatives in Integrated Support Services.

Lacey (2001) suggests that the literature on collaborative working between services and agencies is based on common sense, rather than on a large body of research. The complexity of the topic comes from the different factors to be considered in evaluating the cost-effectiveness of working across services, and trying to measuring the synergy and improved joint problem-solving arising from team processes. Many studies are descriptive therefore, with the focus on the impact of collaboration on young people more than on the professionals and their organisations (Atkinson, 2001). In this approach, the researcher aims to gain an insider view of a particular social context, with the focus on an analytical description rather than theory production. This can be regarded as a legitimate way of trying to understand multi-disciplinary working, although can provide no more than illustrations of practice (Lacey, 2001).

In this section, educational research will be examined for examples of practices to inform the setting up of the Connexions model. It will be shown that these are often small scale, context-dependent responses to local conditions, which may provide helpful summaries, but leave unanswered questions about resistance to change and the effects of strategic direction on daily work practices (Lacey, 2001). Roaf (1999) suggests that 'scattered diverse projects' should be replaced by research on large-scale government-led inter-agency strategies.

However, a substantial literature on collaboration and co-ordination has emerged from occupational psychology and business management, and some examples from this will be described and their relevance to the educational context considered. Lastly, some basic principles which appear to underlie both these areas will be related back to key studies from social psychology.

Working within and between agencies and services

Evidence shows that successful interagency work is difficult to achieve, yet constantly desired as a supposedly more effective way of working with deprived young people (Roaf, 1999). Professional services in different agencies seem overlapping, both to their members and to outsiders, with sometimes haphazard mechanisms for communication, joint working and training, and procedural problems may divert attention from the substantive issues. Roaf points out that each professional, as an agency member, has knowledge, experience

and beliefs about intra-agency working, which influence the outcomes. The Education Service, as the focus of this study, is a highly differentiated workforce including many different professionals as well as different types of institutions and units, and because of this diverseness, young people can fall 'through the net' within the agency as easily as between agencies. It is noteworthy that every report in the last 20 years on major problems affecting young people has underlined the need for multi-professional collaboration as one of the most effective ways to tackle these problems, and describes how most agencies and services are working at some level to develop this, yet the government still, in 2000, saw the need to bring in the Connexions system to try to improve the situation .

There are two further issues to consider before looking at some examples from educational research: first, the difficulty in defining the terms used in describing services and agencies working together, and secondly, how to conceptualise the client group of young people.

Definitions

Roaf (1999) comments on the difficulties caused by confusion with terminology, compounded by the tendency, as she sees it, of each study to want to 'stake their claim' to particular usages. She sees the term 'agency' as connoting power and action, and a clearly defined purpose. Her studies show that the term is used largely without general agreement among practitioners, alongside other terms such as interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary, inter-agency and multi-agency, inter-professional and multi-professional. Some writers (Orelove and Sobsey, 1991) offer definitions for each of these and aim to show qualitative differences between the work and practices described by each of them. They suggest the term 'multi disciplinary' refers to professionals from more than one discipline working alongside, but separately from each other, whereas, in 'interdisciplinary' work and 'intradisciplinary' work professionals share information and decide on programmes together, however then implement these separately. The 'transdisciplinary' model is the ultimate in collaborative working, where information and skills are shared across disciplinary boundaries with the effect that any team member may take the role of primary worker, supported by others as consultants. This model was developed primarily for children with multiple disabilities, a group who, more than any other, Orelove and Sobsey describe, require a team of professionals who can work together effectively, if support and outcomes are to be adequate.

Fletcher Campbell and Cullen (1999) link the problem of establishing common usage of terminology and language to the difficulties in collecting data about collaborative working and give examples, where a 'service' can encompass anything from one lone individual practitioner to one hundred individuals and professions. 'Team' is sometimes used interchangeably with 'service'. Lacey (2001) comments that 'team' suggests a collaborative relationship at a level of sophistication not reached by many groups of professionals, whose working patterns are more akin, in her view, to loosely connected 'networks'.

The difficulties in establishing common terminology and understandings extend to the definition of the target group of clients, in this case young people.

Young people as clients

The target group of young people, who have been the focus of a number of reports and initiatives over the years, and now of the Connexions initiative, are complex clients. There have been changing public perceptions of the status, rights and responsibilities of this group, and developments particularly in advocacy by and for young people (Roaf, 1999). Moss and Petrie (1997) see childhood as an important stage of life in itself, and children as a social group with rights, requiring protection and promotion. The wishes of young people themselves are assuming greater importance over the last decade (reflected in the Connexions guidance), as is the need to work in partnership with parents.

Growing concern about problem behaviour and how to deal with it has heightened the debate as to whether teenagers are adults or children. Because they are vulnerable and dependent, young people are seen as needing care and treatment, not control or punishment. The notion of a continuum envisages the needs of young people changing over their adolescent years with some requiring no more than the guidance and support offered as part of the mainstream school system. Others will have temporary or permanent needs for enhanced support, mindful that success in education is a 'crucial factor' for developing the resilience which leads to long-term positive adult outcomes for young people living in deprivation (Jackson and Martin, 1998). Jackson and Martin showed that having a special relationship with one adult available to talk, listen and encourage was found to be a common factor in high achieving children who had been in the public care system.

Educational research findings

The preceding sections illustrate some difficulties faced in collaborative work because of factors such as individual work methods, day to day pressures of work and role confusion, i.e. who is responsible for whom and where are the boundaries. This section will look at what can promote or inhibit collaboration.

Fletcher Campbell and Cullen (1999) emphasise the importance of intra-personal issues in intra-service collaboration. They suggest that a key motivator to more effective multi-disciplinary work is the need for better support for pupils who challenge the education system in key stage 4. Disaffected pupils particularly require a multi-agency professional approach, and especially when the difficulties have become embedded later in the pupil's school career. Successful work with such young people greatly increases their social inclusion and the development of appropriate adult life styles.

A recent NFER audit of LEAs showed that unmet needs of young people was the most common rationale for setting up a multi agency initiative, as well as responding to government agendas and directives (Atkinson, 2001). Atkinson found that key factors associated with multi agency working were commitment and willingness to be involved, good relationships among the professionals involved, and someone to lead the work and drive it forward. Funding and resources were also significant factors, but not the ones by which multi agency work succeeded or failed.

These studies indicate that the impact on professionals of multi agency working is positive, with better working relationships, better understanding of responsibilities of different agencies, as well as benefits at a more strategic level such as improved access to funding. Indirect and direct benefits for pupils were identified as enhanced individual support as well as raised achievement. Difficulties were found in sustaining initiatives once funding stopped, as well as finding the necessary time to develop relationships, particularly at the important beginning phases of joint work.

Specific issues for educational psychologists in collaborative work were identified by Butler and Maher (1981), looking at special service teams. They identified role conflict as

one of the main problem areas, and the difficulty of being seen as 'assessor'. They suggested that faulty thinking about professional roles can be resolved by increased communication and negotiation. In a more recent study, Fletcher-Campbell and Cullen (1999) likewise point out the difficulty of psychology services being perceived as predominantly to do with assessment and as gatekeepers of support, and likewise emphasise clarity of roles as a prerequisite for effective collaboration.

Lacey's (2001) description of multi-disciplinary work in the education context emphasises that underlying such work is a common belief that a team of people can achieve more together than they can as individuals. However, time badly used in unprofitable meetings and power struggles, problems of conflicting codes of confidentiality and different usage of terminology are potential barriers to the sharing of expertise. Lacey recommends an audit at the three levels prior to initiating collaborative work: strategic, operational and field work. Strategies which appear to encourage effective collaboration are: negotiating written contracts and service agreements, ensuring meetings are tightly-focussed and implementing key worker systems, where one member of the team takes a lead role in planning and implementing programmes, using other members in a consultative capacity. Shared learning is also an important strategy to encourage collaborative work, as long as careful consideration is given to teaching methods, the expectations of those receiving training, and to providing trainers who are effective learning facilitators.

The studies described here illustrate some of the issues which arise in collaborative working between services and agencies in the education context, and offer some strategies. A further rich source of information is in occupational psychology and business management practice, both looking at what work means for different people and how workers respond to change in the workplace.

Conceptions of work

As workplaces become more technologically complex, more attention is paid to the motivational and social aspects of work: the 'people factor' (Porteous, 1997). Social psychological concepts help in understanding the dynamics of team-building and leadership styles as well as factors such as occupational stress, which can result in lowered well-being of workers and absenteeism. Porteous suggests that our value systems determine our

conceptions of work and the satisfaction which we get, and need to get, from work. However the picture is complex, and different for individuals depending on their background and their psychological constructs. Whereas some workers may be highly motivated by exercising power and initiative in a new work setting, others may find this irrelevant if not uncomfortable, because of their different expectations of the role their work plays in their lives.

Change processes in the workplace

The literature of business management has many studies of strategies for organisational change and development, summarized for example by Argyris (1992), who points out that organisations have most difficulty learning when the problems facing them are embarrassing or threatening to those involved, which is precisely when organisations need to learn most. Organisational defences are the practices and actions that participants use to protect themselves from this threat or embarrassment, and which act against learning. Argyris suggests that literature on organisational learning is divided into 2 types. Firstly, the practice-orientated approach, which provides a recipe-book of strategies, of which examples are given below. Second is the more theoretical literature about organisational learning, resulting from academic research.

The transition curve of the change process in organizational learning has been well described in the influential work of Kanter (1983), who describes strategies for managing each stage of the curve. The first stage of 'denial' is where workers may be reluctant to accept that change is necessary; second is 'resistance'; then, thirdly, 'exploration', moving finally through to 'commitment'. In the first stage, the manager's role is to convince staff of the reality of the change, to provide enhanced meeting time and information sharing opportunities. In the resistance phase, managers are advised to take time to listen to concerns which emerge in the uncertainty of the change. In the third and exploration phase, the manager will want to nurture the beginnings of new energy and enthusiasm of staff. Kanter describes how effective leaders work at accumulating a power coalition and creating a vision and suggests some key activities for successful change implementation:

- Providing help to face up to change
- Ensuring early involvement

- Turning perceptions of threat into opportunity
- Communicating widely
- Avoiding over-organising
- Working at gaining commitment

The final phase of commitment is when the work begins to appear successful. The style of the leader is important and Kanter commends a participative or collaborative style where the leader takes time to interact, listen and persuade. Team building in this approach is by consensus, seeking the input of team members with sensitivity, as well as sharing rewards and recognition. Team members can be motivated by their involvement and their sense of participation in decision making. In this way, a skilled change manager can reduce and win through defences put up by workers (Argyris, 2000). Argyris also looks at some important studies in the social psychology of interpersonal relations and how these underpin many of these strategies in industrial psychology and business management.

Social psychological studies of group and individuals

Firstly, psychological theories about cognitive consistency can yield testable predictions about how individuals will behave in defined circumstances, and the value of this in planning for change is considerable. In some change processes, there may be new situations where people will be expected to behave in a way which they may find inconsistent with their personal beliefs. Argyris (1992) describes an original experiment by Milgram in 1965, which showed how ordinary citizens can be encouraged to participate in procedures inflicting discomfort on fellow human beings. The unexpected finding was the speed with which a relationship could be established between an experimenter and an unknown subject, who was encouraged to regard the victim of the experiment as an outsider. This experiment was said to illustrate the power of a high status superior in convincing those in lesser positions to behave in a particular way, not in accord with their previous beliefs.

Argyris (1992) also describes how we can predict how individuals will behave through the use of theories of cognitive balance and consistency. There is a basic tendency for individuals to try to reduce imbalanced states which are intrinsically abhorrent to them. Therefore if individuals have exercised choice to be in a particular situation or to be part of

a particular group, they tend to reconstrue that situation and the group to themselves as more desirable than if they were there with no choice at all. Information from credible high-status sources is particularly powerful in inducing individuals to behave in ways inconsistent with their own previous attitudes or values, and once involved workers will then reconstrue an activity as more pleasing to justify their choice e.g. 'this must be good if I am doing it'.

Argyris looks at processes for influencing attitudes and changing behaviour, and puts forward evidence that persuasion will work better when the persuader is seen as an expert, or as a person having good intentions, and if they are dynamic, or attractive and act with authority. Rewards which are motivating for workers do not need to be concrete and Argyris describes how, for some individuals, job satisfaction can be as potent a reinforcement as financial reward, linking to the previously described work of Porteous' (1997).

Also looking also at interpersonal dynamics, Hargreaves (1972) provides a rich picture of the influence of the reference group in educational contexts. If the individual wishes to become a member of a group, such as a support service team, and then to maintain his membership, he will be more likely conform to the group norms and adopt the values of the other members. If most members of this reference group hold a particular view, then it will be more likely for the new member to also adopt that view. Hargreaves' studies show how powerful groups can be in thus determining the attitudes and behaviour of their members. Members of a group often subscribe to a set of shared norms and common goals and indeed, the more cohesive a group, the more the members will tend to conform to the group norms. Members of the group who do not adhere to the views of the group will experience dissonance and will be motivated to reduce this, either by leaving the group, or by changing their views to match the group. Since leaving may have unpleasant consequences for the member of the group, the motivation to adhere to the group norms is powerful, even if only in the public arena.

Within the group, rewards and sanctions are tremendously powerful sources of extrinsic motivation and control. These effects have often been demonstrated in experimental settings and therefore effects could be anticipated to be magnified in real-life groups. In the

next section, consideration will be given to how the research findings and strategies described have been used to inform practice, in the establishment of this Connexions Service.

4: INTEGRATING THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Principles underlying the national setup of the Connexions Service

Roaf (1999) suggests looking at the issues underpinning multi-agency initiatives in two ways; legislative, strategic and operational issues on the one hand, and on the other hand, issues to do with process and practice. At the strategic and legislative level, the government, recognising that there was a growing problem with young people in difficulty, gave strong commitment to multi-agency work with the formation of the CSNU (DfEE, 2000d). Further impetus to cooperative working has been given by the new Code of Practice (DfES, 2001), and the setting up in the Careers Service and the Youth Service of new structures to reprioritise agency attention and resources. The Partnership model, at the *operational level, required commitment from diverse professional groups and voluntary groups.*

Attention has also been directed to joint training and a common assessment framework, looking for clarity in terminology and common practice in referral procedures. Activities such as setting of success criteria and targets at partnership, school and individual pupil level require collaborative effort. However, Watts (2001) highlights some apparent contradictions in the role of Personal Adviser which he believes could lead to difficulties as Connexions Services develop, in particular the potential for confusion and overlap with other roles, such as the careers adviser, the learning mentor and school tutor.

Early monitoring of Connexions

A preliminary survey of Connexions Services by the CSNU claimed that over 500,000 interventions had been made by PAs in the pilot regions (DfES, 2002), although what constituted an intervention is not defined. 90% young people had said they found the new service easy to access and useful, and 77% said it was an improvement on support agency help in the past. From these figures, the CSNU concluded: “*Connexions is already making a difference to the lives of young people*” (P.6).

Local issues in integrating theory and practice

In looking at previous reorganisation moves within the LEA over the past decade as described in Section 2, there were several possible contributory factors: inadequate consultation and communication, little representation or involvement at local team level and the lack of a well-known figure-head to lead the change.

Lessons from this were usefully applied in recent team-building projects undertaken by the researcher, one of which was to set up a team of behaviour co-coordinators in a partnership of 7 schools. Training for these coordinators focused on at high performance teamwork, enlisting the support of key colleagues and planning for change. Successful headteachers were invited to co-coordinator meetings, and governors were kept informed of the progress to ensure public recognition for the coordinators' work. After year 1, a questionnaire survey of coordinators showed that they felt the work had gone well in their schools in relation to change in their school practices, the involvement of their colleagues and their own professional development. Team members reported high satisfaction with their participation in the project.

Impact of the ISS model

The Integrated Support Service model of school teams was an appropriate one on which to base the new Connexions work, which would similarly require to unite a number of services and organizations. The EAZ school consultation teams were universally regarded as successful (Glenny, 2001). Advantages of this model were said to include:

- moving from individual casework to issues for school
- agendas set by individual schools
- facilitation of individual casework by enhanced communication
- opportunities for joint work enhanced by team meetings
- sharing of problem solving protocols and solutions;
- ensuring continuity of practice across team membership changes
- plan-review structure ensuring action and accountability.

Glenny concluded that the teams were showing the characteristics of “learning organisations”, as described by Senge et al. (1999), and that participation in the meetings supported team members to having a better understanding of each other’s roles and responsibilities. Support service workers were more able to shape their service to the schools’ interests and needs. Backing from Heads of Service and the role of a systems ‘minder’ was particularly important. The Core Group, with representatives from services and schools, acted as a collecting base for issues and as a problem-solving forum. Glenny (2001) concludes that a distinctive feature of the HOSP project was that it was aimed not at a particular target group of pupils but, like Connexions, was conceived as a routine way of working for schools and services within the area.

Connexions in schools

Initial positive feedback on the local Connexions strategy was encouraging. Ofsted inspectors in October 2001 commended the schools model for its potential to link together, in a coherent and co-ordinated way, a number of agencies already working with young people. Informal feedback was received from a DfES attendance adviser, who noted the way the schools model remained firmly focused on the national priority targets for raising attainment and attendance, and reducing exclusions.

Strategies to address issues and concerns

However, implementing a new initiative often creates a period of uncertainty prior to adaptation, with initial loss of efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery (Fletcher-Campbell and Cullen, 1999). During this time, therefore, it is not surprising that a number of concerns have arisen, some of which have had the potential to significantly impact on the work done by the Connexions Service. These are described briefly with some of the strategies used to address them.

- Working closely with organizations with different aims and structures has been a difficult process. Lack of clarity of roles, some agencies with statutory responsibility, with different pressures and incentives, some with different screening methods, difficulties in passing information, salary issues and the length of the working day have all emerged as potential problems. It has therefore been important to set up regular meetings of service managers to look at these issues.

- Some county secondary schools cover age range 11 – 16 /18 but the Connexions age range is 13-19. Some schools have tried to address this by re-diverting non-Connexions support services resources from the older age group back into the younger age group, in line with government thinking about early intervention and preventative work.
- A main plank of Connexions is the ability of young people to self-refer for support from PAs, however the impact of this on caseloads requires clarification, as do issues of parental referral and referral from outside agencies. Acknowledging the issues openly, and showing flexibility and the willingness to trial different models is key.
- Comprehensive information and data about the cohort of 13 – 19 year olds has to be returned to the Connexions Service National Unit and ways of gathering this while minimising paper work have been important to schools in setting up Connexions. Passing data about work in progress to unfamiliar colleagues for collation has proved an uncomfortable process, and joint meetings have helped facilitate more contact, and bring greater familiarity with other roles.
- The quality assurance or evaluation of the Connexions work is a strong driver of continued funding, however the initial guidance on this has been sparse. This issue has emerged as one which lies at the heart of support service procedures. Acknowledging the value of Connexions as a vehicle to work on these issues has been a way forward.
- Issues of prior accreditation and course validation in the training are yet to be addressed. The possible duplication of assessment procedures in the APIR framework and the DoH framework also cause concern, and in addition, the aspiration for ‘evidence-based practice’ must be questioned given the introduction of Connexions training and assessment materials which appear unlikely to meet this criterion (Evans and Benefield, 2001). A cautious approach to training take-up has been seen to have spared personal advisers the frustration of poor quality training in the local pilot phase.

Different confidentiality codes among agencies can be an 'intractable problem' in collaborative working, related to power struggles, feelings of job insecurity and lack of trust (Lacey, 2001). The proposal to manage these issues within each school Connexions Teams initially rather than looking to set up a countywide protocol may have prevented them, at least temporarily, becoming a major obstacle.

- Differences in language and understanding have impinged in relationships with staff from other organisations. The school team meetings and PA3 meetings, with their problem-solving approach have helped to work through these concerns. Proposals for joint training are now in hand to improve communication and facilitate working relationships.
- The integration of Connexions work throughout the LEA is an ongoing activity which is essential to ensure that this new resource is not seen as just another strand of support. Systematic information sharing with colleagues in all branches of the LEA has been important in this.

Progress of Connexions in Schools September 2001 to July 2002

It is planned that preliminary evaluation of the Integrated Support Services model will consist of interviews with headteachers and School Connexions Co-ordinators, and a survey of PA views, to start in July 2002 (See Appendix 10). . Further consultation will be required on ways to measure progress on national and local targets for Connexions. Ofsted, DfES and informal school and PA feedback meantime suggest reasonable progress in the initial stages.

What worked locally

Looking back to the studies in Section 3 by Kanter (1983) and Fletcher-Campbell and Cullen (1999), it was undoubtedly helpful that the programme has a strong national impetus. The system of pilot areas meant that it was, in Kanter's term, 'triable', and therefore seen as reversible, if things went badly. Also, professionals' 'day jobs' remained, and the Connexions commitment could start as a small part of their professional lives. The programme was 'divisible' (in that regions and schools started in phases) and it was also concrete (there were tangible signs with the CSNU launch publicity and in the press).

Finally, it was familiar and consistent with previous professional experience, in that required PA skills were largely those already developed by experience and training.

PAs were attracted by the emphasis on working carefully with a limited number of pupils, in contrast to the often heavy caseloads of non-Connexions work. Reduced traveling between schools was a further incentive, with the chance to become a more regular part of school life. Laptop computers were provided to those making a high PA3 commitment. It was helpful at an early stage to enlist the support of several key figures from different services, as well as 2 well-regarded headteachers who publicly supported the model. The ethos of the group was established from the start as positive and creative, and the excitement of putting in place a new initiative seemed a reward in itself for some.

Information sharing was a priority at all levels of services, both formally and informally, in groups and individually. Developing shared paperwork and procedures was also helpful in facilitating cross-service working. Good personal relationships were key to the PA3s wanting to take on extra commitments, such as making presentations. Other officers and advisers offered their services as supporters and speakers.

By applying some of the strategies described, a new over-arching professional team cutting across service boundaries has been developed across the county with leadership from within the Educational Psychology Service and with more than half the service participating.

Developments and recommendations

The next task of the Connexions programme might be described as keeping up momentum. Kanter (1983) believes that resistance will occur even in widely supported projects, and that as the change process continues, the growing tedium of day-to-day activities can increase this. Meeting resistance requires persistent leadership and strong managerial support. Going ahead without fully committed workers may mean that a project does not get the creativity and co-operation it will need to make it work.

The impact of the national publicity campaign in summer 2002 will provide further impetus for Connexions locally. The current preoccupations of the ISS model within the EAZ, now

in its 3rd year, are to link more closely with social services and health professionals. In addition, the local authority is reviewing, at a strategic level, how to improve the links between agencies for young people, which may also have implications for further extension of the Connexions Service.

5: CONCLUSION

As a result of the feedback from Ofsted, the DfES and GOSE as reported in Section 4, the Integrated Support Services model will be extended throughout the local partnership. Informal feedback from schools and PAs indicates that the team model has been helpful in supporting the schools to set up structures and procedures for their Connexions work. School coordinators have commented that it helps to identify gaps, meet crises and avoid duplication of support. One of the attractions of the model at present is the flexibility it offers individual practitioners to adopt strategies and techniques with which they are most skilled and comfortable. The current pattern of development of the service utilises the wide diversity of talent and approaches within the services. The contribution of the educational psychologists has been particularly valuable in problem-solving issues as they arise, in developing systems for recording and monitoring and in helping other services to reflect on the process.

The research described here shows that introducing new multi-disciplinary systems is not straightforward. Obstacles and challenges may come from a lack of understanding and suspicion of change. A number of strategies have been discussed for meeting these challenges. Whether this present model will achieve what others have struggled with over the years, remains to be shown, particularly in an increasingly complex society.

Psychology can contribute to the knowledge about forming collaborative with studies from social psychology, about group dynamics and interpersonal relationships as well as in the management of change. Educational psychologists also have training, expertise and skills in systems work and evaluation techniques greater than any other professional group under this Connexions model. The work described in this study confirms there is a key role for educational psychologists in multi-disciplinary work within the education context, both at the systems level, and in their more traditional role of individual pupil support.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The national and local model for Connexions

The Connexions Service National Unit (CSNU) leads 47 Connexions Partnerships set up to mirror Learning and Skills Council (LSC) areas. These partnerships are responsible for funding and strategic planning, while Local Management Committees (LMC) are responsible for operational delivery of the service and are usually based on local authority boundaries, with representatives from LEAs, Career Services, Youth Offending Teams, Social Services Departments, schools, health professionals and voluntary sector agencies.

There has been a phased introduction of the national service from 13 partnerships in April 2001, 3 further areas starting in Sept 2001, and the remaining 32 partnerships in 2002/2003. Funding for the Connexions Service comes from existing resources for youth support and guidance, new additional resources made available through the CSNU, and European Social Funding.

Access to the Connexions Service

The Connexions Service is to have a strong base in schools and further education colleges but to be available to every young person there are also outreach and drop in centres, and links with employment services, the housing office and benefit agency, and youth and voluntary groups, both to deliver the service and promote its benefits to this group of people. Access is by self referral, parental/ carer referral, professional referral, youth worker, training provider, college or any other agency in contact with the young person particularly when the young person is not in learning.

Connexions is to offer both a universal advice and guidance service to all young people and personal support to those that need it. The universal service is to support learning opportunities, introducing pupils to the world of work as well as offering information, guidance and advice, and a co-ordinated approach to the school programme of careers education. For other pupils who need more intensive personal support the personal adviser will develop a sound understanding of the young person's needs using a new integrated assessment framework.

The role of the Connexions Personal Adviser

The work of the PA is split into different levels depending on the needs of the young person, with the first level as standard careers guidance, the second level for young people who require more in-depth work and the third level for those facing multiple problems and needing support across agencies. Personal advisers may be employed directly by the Connexions Service or may remain in their original professional context working within a partnership agreement.

The Personal Adviser's role may include:

- Engaging with young people to identify and address their needs and offering information and guidance with a view to raising aspirations
- Working with the network of voluntary, statutory and community agencies and commercial bodies to ensure progress
- Working with parents, carers and families to support young people
- Managing information effectively to facilitate the process of meeting the needs of young people
- Reviewing and reflecting upon their own professional practice to achieve continuous improvement.

Connexions training and assessment procedures

There are two national training programmes for PAs: the Diploma for Connexions, a ten-day training course with written assignments and Understanding Connexions for Personal Advisers who remain within their specialist base. An introductory two-day course is planned for managers. Both these training courses will introduce Connexions PAs and others to the framework for Assessment, Planning, Implementation and Review (APIR) which outlines the process for identifying needs, planning and taking action. The training and the APIR framework are still in pilot and evaluation phases.

Connexions Direct and the Connexions Card

In addition to traditional methods of delivery of the service the potential for using new technology is being explored through Connexions Direct which will use telephone and Intranet technology to reach out to all young people.

Young people will be rewarded for their engagement in learning, both formal and informal, by the Connexions Card. Rewards in the form of discounts on travel and learning materials will be for participation and meeting agreed targets.

The voice of the young person

Connexions emphasises the part to be played by young people in forming the service and in ensuring that it remains attractive in meeting their needs. Young people have been extensively involved in the regional launching of the service and in interviews for personal advisers.

Particular issues for Connexions with Pupils with SEN

Connexions partnerships have particular responsibilities in assessing and planning for young people with learning difficulties and disabilities. For young people with statements of Special Educational Needs, the Personal Adviser has a role in transition planning.

The local model

This authority began in April 2001 as one of the twelve phase 1 partnerships and the LEA received a contract to provide Connexions support through specialist personal advisers (Personal Adviser 3s) from Educational Social Workers (ESWs), Educational

Psychologists, EBD Outreach teachers (EBDOTs) and Youth Workers. These form the Connexions team in each school alongside school staff, PA1s and PA2s (both employed by CfBT, who hold the careers contract).

Schools were divided into 4 phases to begin Connexions, starting with 8 PA3s in September 2001, increasing in April 2002 to 30 PA3s. (See Appendix 6). Schools receive funding to appoint a Connexions Co-ordinator from the senior management team to lead the Connexions team in school. Team meetings are held termly, with half-termly reviews, to:

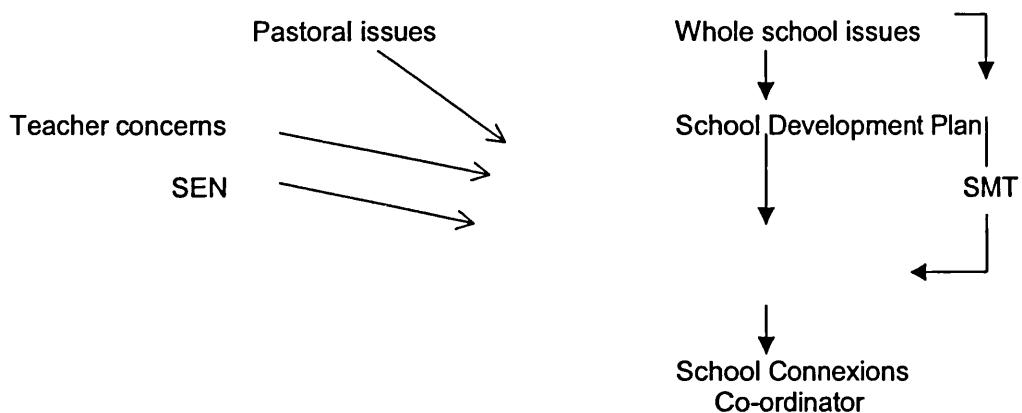
- plan the work of the team over the coming term and develop an action plan
- agree which pupils should be supported by which personal advisers
- clarify referral routes and protocols for joint work

A co-ordinator for Connexions in Schools was appointed to draw together the range of professionals required to deliver this contract. Co-ordinators and representatives from School Connexions Teams meet together in area teams for joint training, sharing good practice, addressing concerns and developing common protocols.

Appendix 2: School Connexions Teams : Integrated Support Services

Connexions offers an opportunity to use existing support services resources more effectively to benefit pupils, their families and schools.

Extra Connexions resources will support the development of School Connexions teams in secondary schools in the county. The recently published evaluation showed that such teams in the EAZ have been a positive development for schools and support services.



Connexions Teams (School Consultation Teams)

Will include:

- School Connexions Co-ordinator
- Heads of Year
- Senco/ Head of Learning Support
- EP (may also be PA3)
- ESW (may also be PA3)
- EBDOT (may also be PA3)
- PA1
- PA2
- PRU (liaison and reintegration)

May also include:

• Youth Worker (may also be PA3)	• Social Services
• School Careers Co-ordinator	• Mental Health
• School Health	• Police
• School Counsellor etc	

Composition of the team is tailored to fit existing school systems and the needs of the school, and decided in discussions with Support Services.

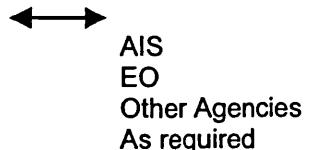
The Connexions teams will involve collaborative working to include:

- Planning support for whole-school issues
- Assessing the needs of individual pupils /groups of pupils
- Establishing programmes of intervention/support
- Monitoring individual pupils or groups of pupils
- Setting up interventions and therapeutic opportunities (e.g. counselling, anger management, etc)
- Establishing effective liaison with other services and agencies

EXAMPLE OF A TERMLY CYCLE

Weeks 1, 2 Termly Planning Meeting of Connexions team

Plan produced



Weeks 3/6 Plan implemented

Week 7 Half-Termly Review – adjust as necessary

↔
Area Connexions
meetings

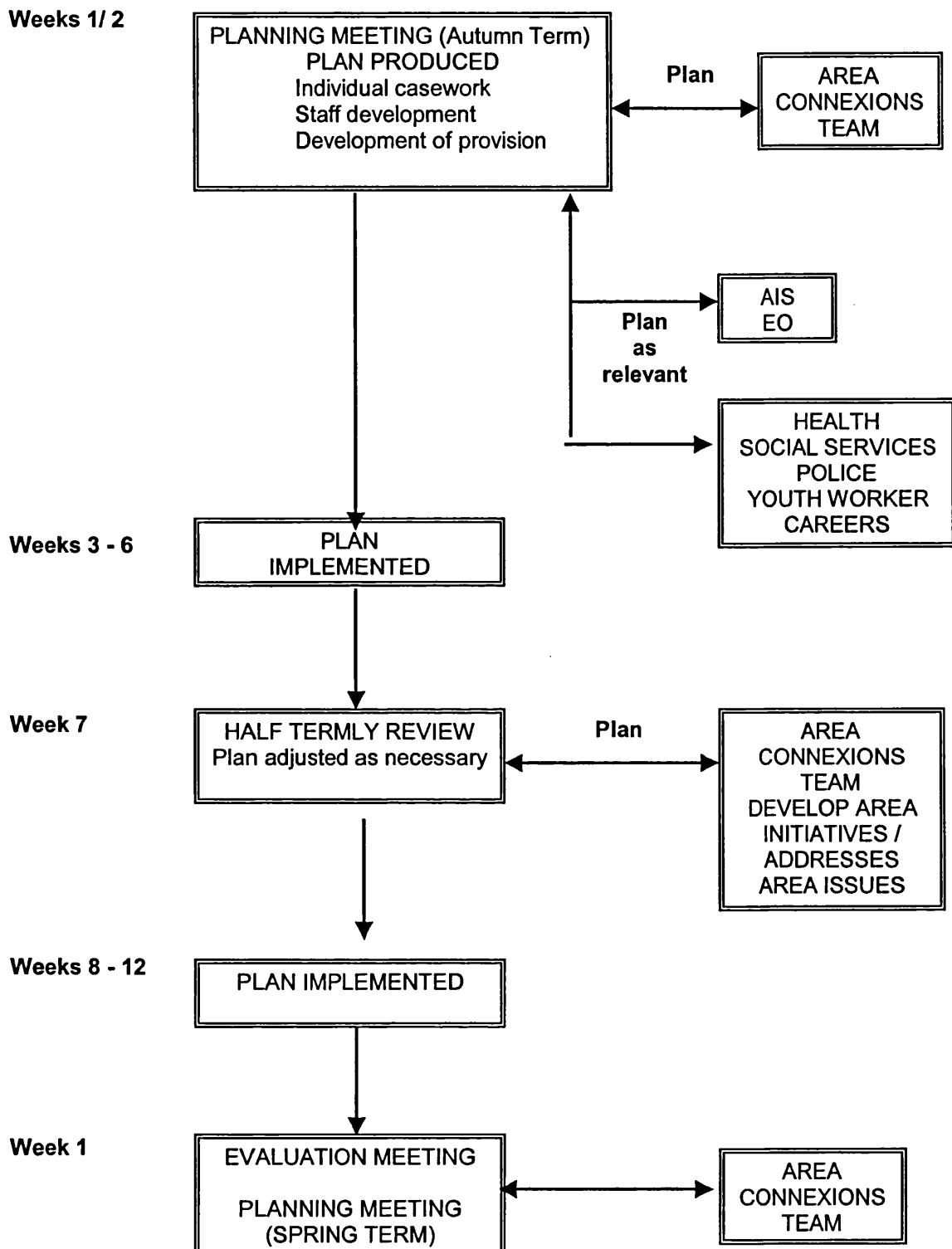
Weeks 8 – 12 Plan implemented

Week 1 Evaluation meeting

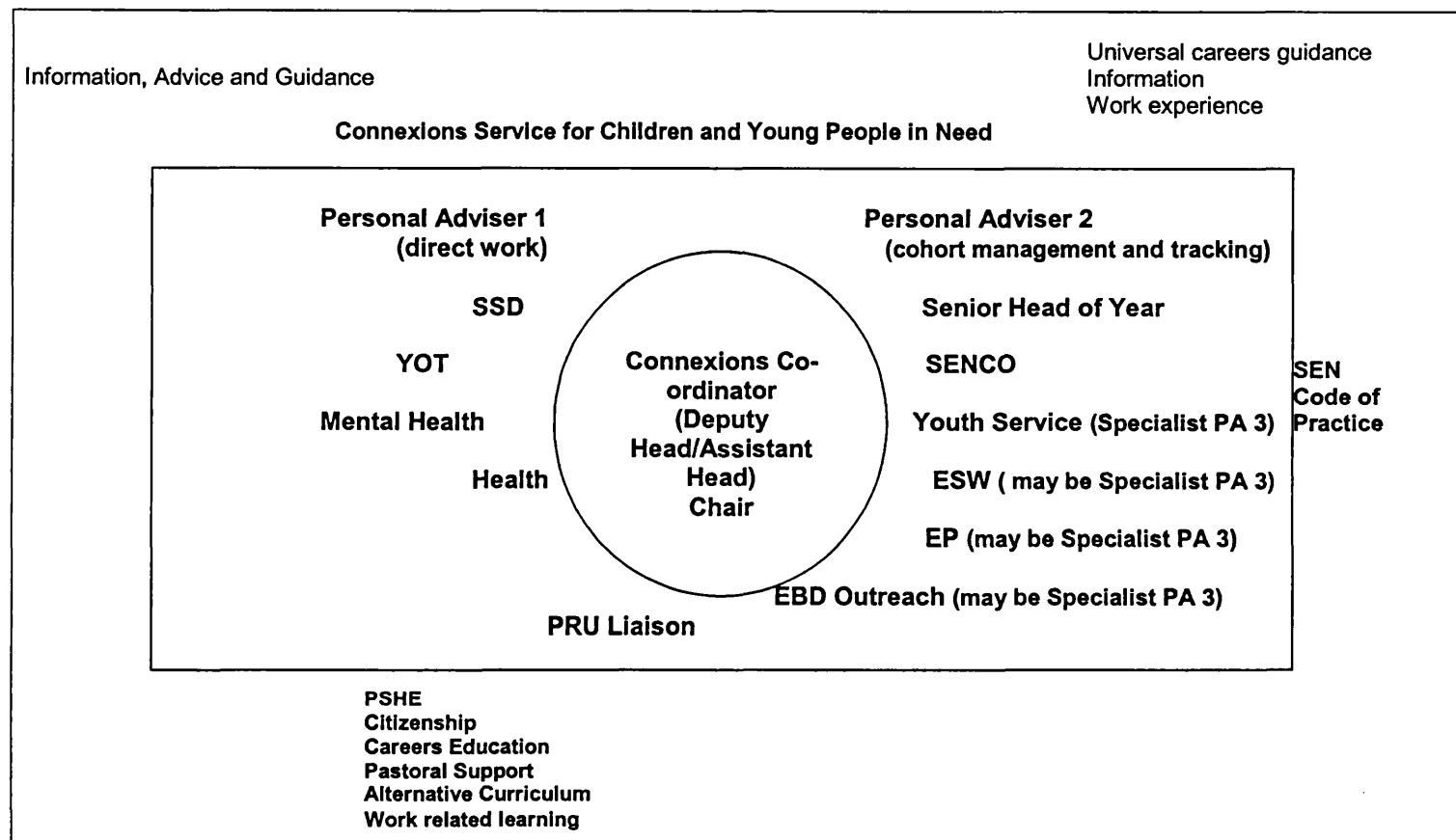
Termly Planning meeting

↔
Area Connexions
meetings

Connexions Team/ School Consultation Team – Termly Cycle



Appendix 3: Diagram of the School Connexions Team



Appendix 4: Issues for School Connexions Teams

Working together (who should be involved, agenda items, timing of meetings and work in school, minutes etc)
NB Connexions 'Question sheet' (attached) may assist.

Identifying Connexions pupils and allocating work

Recording Connexions work and communicating within school

Accommodation for Connexions work

Publicizing Connexions in school and community

Sharing sensitive knowledge

Training: feedback from PAs

Area Connexions Meeting feedback

Liaison with parents (eg parent awareness, parent consent, procedure for home visits)

Managing self-referrals from pupils and pupil consent

Evaluating Connexions work (*How are we doing so far? ...*

*Pupils, school staff, parents, etc;
School targets, SDP*

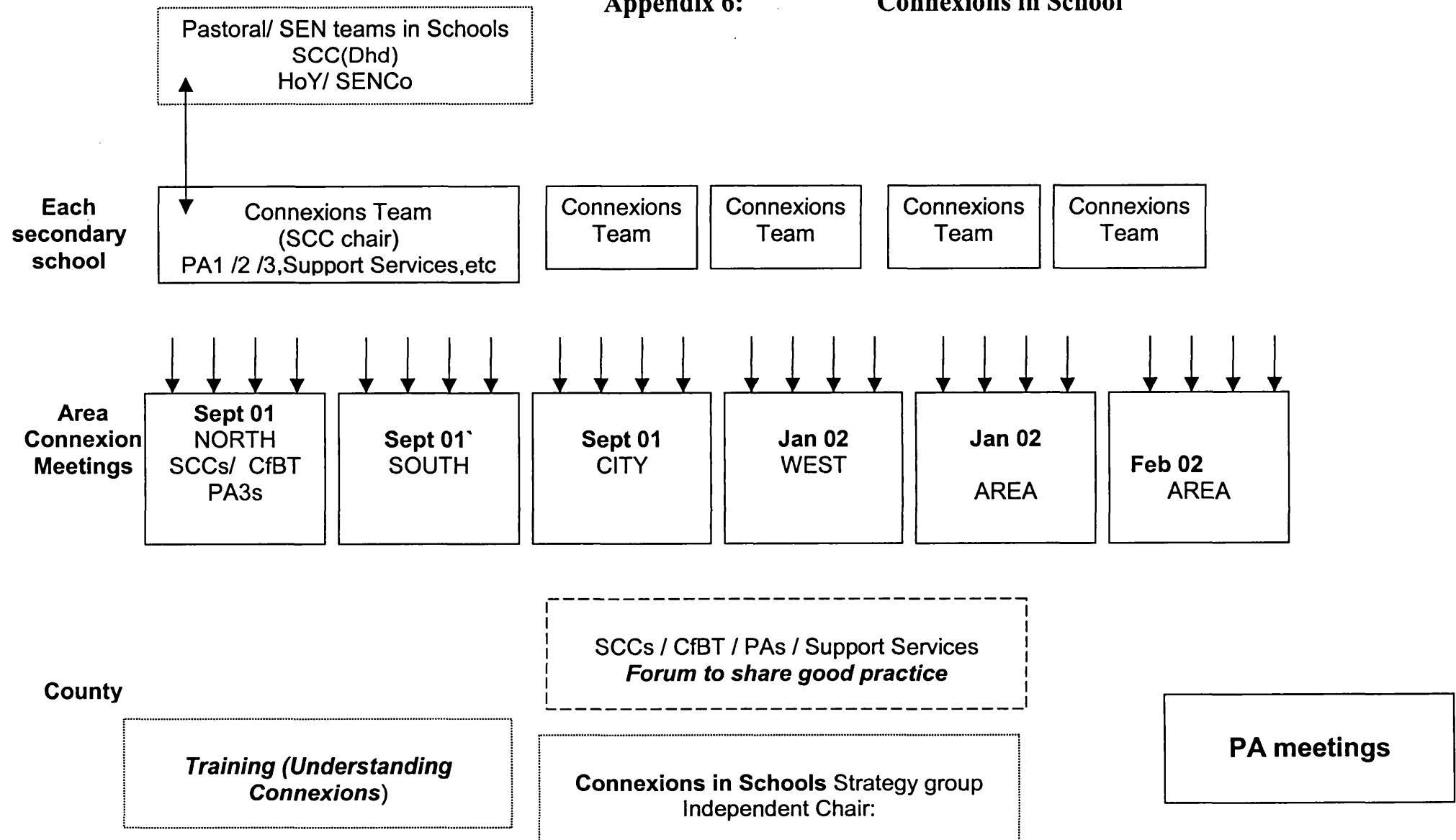
Appendix 5: Questions for School Connexions Teams

1. How are PAs being **inducted into and integrated with** your school's existing provision and support?
2. What channels will PAs use to **share routine information with** school staff?
3. In what ways can Connexions be used in a **multi-disciplinary team** of teaching and support staff within your school? How can that team be **best co-ordinated, monitored and directed**?
4. How will the **continuing professional development of advisers**, including off-school training, be managed?
5. How will Connexions enhance pupils' existing **review and action planning cycles**?
6. In what ways will your school **help pupils to express their views** about Connexions?
7. How will Connexions establish **two-way contact with parents**?
8. How will your school assess and report on the **delivery and effectiveness** of Connexions in its work with pupils, and show that **impartial guidance** on learning and careers options is available to all?
9. How can Connexions be a **natural extension of the school's strategic or development planning**?
10. How can Connexions **best add value** to the work of the school?

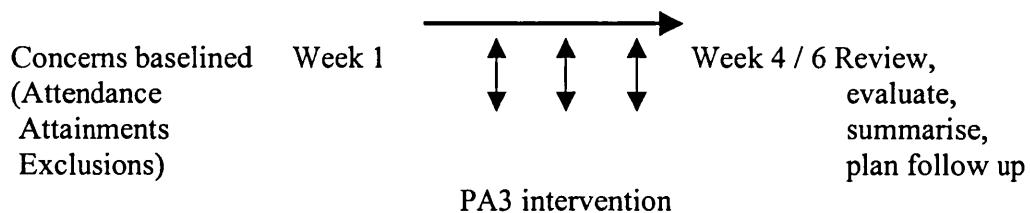
**Connexions – the best start in life
for every young person**

Appendix 6:

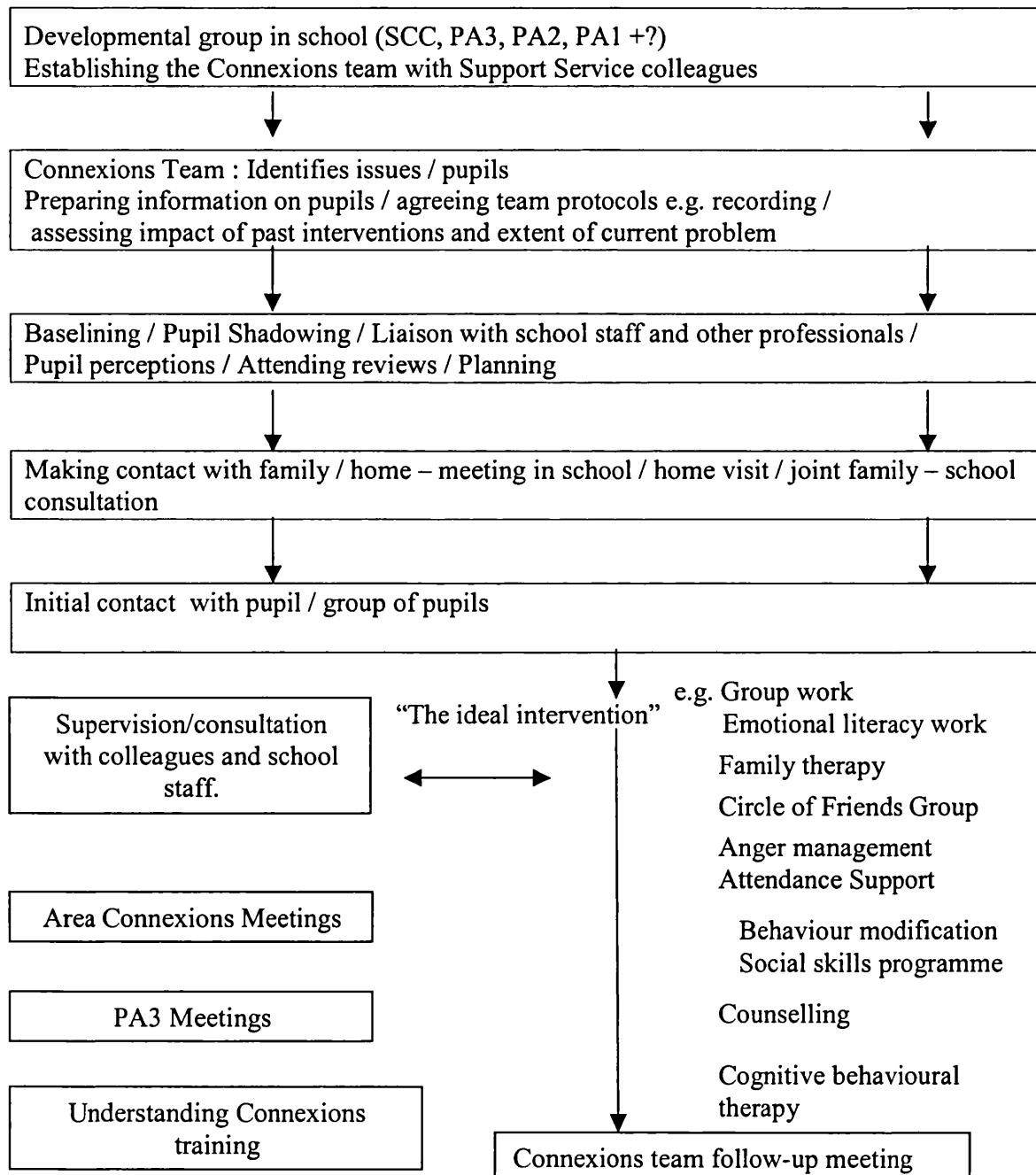
Connexions in School



Appendix 7: The PA3 model of work



(Note: PA3s may choose to work with fewer students more intensively.)



Appendix 8: PA3 Recording format

				Date:
				Time spent:
Issue/ Pupil(s)		School		
DOB	NC Year	Objectives		
Age	SEN Stage			
Involvement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Planning <input type="checkbox"/> Consultation <input type="checkbox"/> Direct work <input type="checkbox"/> Family contact <input type="checkbox"/> Follow-up <input type="checkbox"/> Group work/ other 				
Summary:		Agreed further action:		
Follow-up <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Yes Date..... CC:		Signed:EPS/ESWS/EBDOS Tel: Fax: Email		

Appendix 9: PA3 individual pupil target sheet

Name:

DOB:

Class:

SEN Stage:

	Baseline	Targets	Review
Date			
Attainments			
R. Age			
Attendance			
Exclusions			
Referrals/Incidents			
Agencies EP/EBDOT/ESW			
School			
Pupil View			
Family View			

Appendix 10: Proposed Questionnaire for schools and PAs

It is important that Connexions has a clear understanding of what has worked so far and what needs further development in the future.

During the Partnership Review meeting we would like to focus on the two main component parts of the process

- The schools model – the school team
- The area Connexions meetings

We would like your views on these two aspects, and would like to encourage you to consult with other members of the school Connexions team in completing the prompt sheet. This might include the SENCO, Heads of Year and the Careers Co-ordinator. We would ask you not to discuss with your Personal Advisers however, as they will receive a similar prompt sheet separately.

Name of School /PA

Date Connexions started for School

1. The School Team

The school consultation team was set up to further develop and support integration and coherence of services for young people in school. It is based on a co-ordinated approach.

What have been the successes and strengths of your school Connexions team?

What are the key areas for development for 2002/3?

How successful has this new approach been so far?

Very unsuccessful 1....2....3....4....5....6..... Very successful

2. Area Meetings

The area cluster meetings aimed to provide a chance to share good practice, relate issues to the local context and provide a two way information flow.

What have been the successes and strengths of your area meetings?

What are the key areas for development for 2002/3?

How successful has this new approach been so far?

Very unsuccessful 1....2....3....4....5....6..... Very successful

Any comments?



University College London

PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE ASSIGNMENT

Submission Form

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the Continuing Professional Development Doctorate in Educational Psychology (DEdPsy)

Name: **Patricia Matheson**

Assignment No: **4**

Assignment Title: **Changing Roles in Educational Psychology:
Experiences of professional development**

Submission: **1st** **2nd** Examination **X**

Word count: (Excluding references and appendices) **7772** words

Section of the Core curriculum for Professional Training in Educational Psychology to which this assignment relates: **2**

Interpersonal Effectiveness

Submission Statement

I confirm that:

1. This submitted assignment is my own work; and
2. I have read and acted upon the guidelines for avoiding plagiarism contained in the DEdPsy Handbook
3. The content of this Assignment has not been published in similar form elsewhere, or offered in respect of any other degree, diploma or other academic award.

Course Members

Signature:

Date: ***1st August***
2003

Patricia Matheson

1: INTRODUCTION

“The nature, presence and content of work are central to mental health, to effectiveness, well-being and development” (Warr, 2003 p.28).

This study will explore some professional development issues in educational psychology, relating these to experiences of personal professional development undertaken by the author, first as an area educational psychologist, then as specialist educational psychologist working on school improvement projects, through to an innovative new role at senior educational psychologist level. This involves the development of a strategic alliance with external agencies through a sub-contracting model, and professional management of personnel from five support services. Examples given will show the importance of interpersonal factors for effective practice in this as with other roles within educational psychology, and how skills acquired through educational psychology practice and professional development, including doctoral research, may enhance competence and personal effectiveness in team leadership.

In Section 2, the national and Local Education Authority (LEA) context for performance management will be summarised, and professional development in previous roles including project management described briefly, raising questions and issues for further consideration. An examination of the research literature in Section 3 will describe thinking on the relationship of personality and work motivation, and will draw on studies from occupational psychology, business management and social psychology, to examine a range of strategies and approaches in performance management.

Drawing together the context and the research, Section 4 will describe recent personal and service feedback mechanisms and consider perceptions of the educational psychologists about the role they have developed within Connexions. Other key contemporary issues which will be explored are

- the public-private organisational interface
- self-efficacy in the work role
- the particular experience and needs of women employees
- flexible working arrangements and work-life balance

The development of the author's role as professional manager of educational psychologists and staff from other support services has run in parallel to the doctoral training programme. The research for this assignment has provided an overview of approaches to personal and service performance management, and shown how professional development in the widest sense can contribute to increased interpersonal and role effectiveness. Some suggestions are made for further consideration on how performance management practices and work-life issues can impact on personal professional development, to ensure that emerging models of practice for educational psychologists are empowering and inclusive.

2: THE CONTEXT

This section will describe some recent developments in approaches to performance management, including stakeholder feedback and appraisal, and how these can link to professional development planning. The review will first cover practice on a number of nested levels: the national, the local authority and within that, the LEA, the service and the individual (Bracher, 2001). Along with an overview of developments and how they have impacted at a personal professional level for the author, this section will consider how changes of role can be accommodated, and what advantages, gaps and drawbacks may be experienced from current systems of formal and informal feedback on performance, and professional development planning. The role of interpersonal effectiveness, in general educational psychology practice and particularly in contributing to effective leadership and project management, is related to some professional development experiences, raising questions and issues for further consideration in Section 4.

The national context

Performance management can be said to have two distinct purposes, providing for effective professional development as well as the management of staff (Bartlett, 2000). Feedback and appraisal are the start of the process developed by an organization to support the individual employee in deciding which behaviors to target for improvement through professional development, in order to achieve organisational as well as individual goals and objectives (Gunster, 2003; Cutler and Waine, 2000).

In educational psychology, reports have noted concerns about the extent to which Educational Psychologists have the requisite knowledge and skills to look at new roles or undertake more specialist work, and suggested that “*future training and develop needs of EPs should be considered in the light of issues raised ... should embrace skills, knowledge and experience required for the job, the nature of continuing professional development and training and development required for specialisms*” (DfEE, 2000b, 2000c).

The professional bodies involved in educational psychology also have a role in disseminating good practice in continuing professional development (CPD). In 2002, the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP) issued to all members a CPD “Passport” (AEP, 2002). Based on advice from other professional organisations, it was suggested that 40 points per year should be accumulated by each EP, from activities that develop psychologically-based knowledge and/or skills, although no attempt was made to measure to perceived quality of the activity or how this fitted with the EP’s personal situation. Issues aired in the CPD debate around the initiation of doctoral training for practising educational psychologists, namely that the profession might move to become fully doctorate, and that doctoral training might afford significant advantage in career progression, have not been realised (Kerfoot and Imich, 2001). Conditions and support for doctoral training, therefore, have continued to vary across authorities. Meantime other initiatives in staff development, such as Investors in People, have continued to spread through education services.

Investors in People (IIP) is a national standard of good practice for training and development requiring that good employers:

- show a commitment to develop all employees to achieve business goals
- plan and review the training and development needs of all employees;
- take action to train and develop employees on recruitment and throughout their employment
- evaluate the investment in training and development to assess achievement and improve future investment (Claytor, 2001)

The Local Education Authority context

As part of initial work in this authority prior to IIP accreditation, a staff survey showed perceptions of good team-working, but concerns about inconsistent communication and

inadequate feedback on performance. Staff commented on too little emphasis on training and development, and the need to get the appraisal and performance management system working better. Increased consultation as part of the IIP programme involved the service in useful development activities, with an updated appraisal system running alongside this programme.

Until 1999, this authority operated an annual system of two-way discussions to monitor performance, clarify objectives and link individual training needs to overall team training priorities. Within the Educational Psychology Service, line manager appraisal had been operating with varying formality, and perceived effectiveness appeared dependent on the skills of individual managers. Senior educational psychologists had also explored upward appraisal systems, using categories such as personal qualities, day-to-day working, team management issues and professional issues. Given the small number of psychologists in each team, anonymity was not feasible within this.

The council instituted a new system of appraisal for all staff in 1999, as part of a move to a tighter overall management framework (See Appendix 1). Fletcher (1993) notes that *“in health and education fields large concentrations of professional staff are organised in structures that have few hierarchical levels and where the concept of “management” is somewhat alien. It is more challenging to make appraisal work in the public sector”* (P. 129). The intention of the new system was to incorporate views of peers, clients, subordinate staff as well as line managers, to enable the individual to make maximum use of their skills and abilities, in achievement of the organisational objectives. However, as the appraisee was to retain ‘ownership’ of the process, the collection of comment from others remained optional. This current system has continued to operate, although, at an area EP level, links to service and departmental targets remain tenuous.

The Educational Psychology Service context

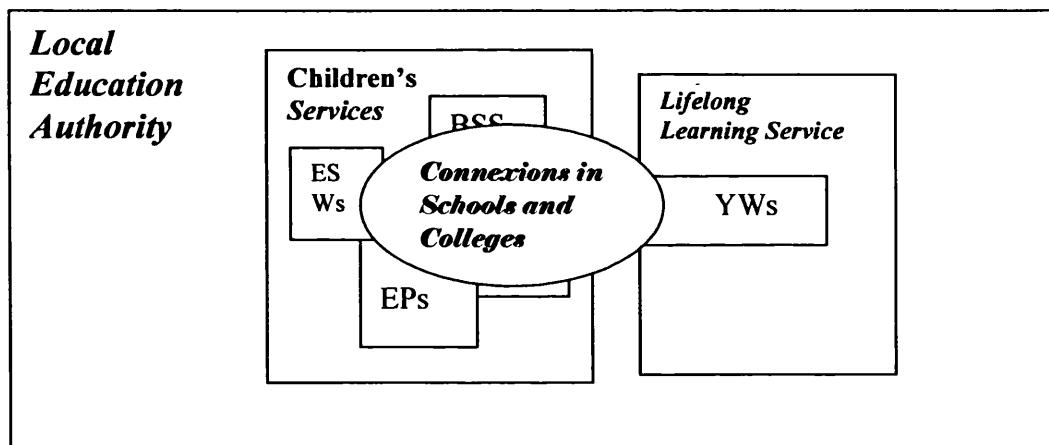
In addition to the council system, the EPS has continued to look at additional feedback methods, some of which have arisen through doctoral work on 360-degree feedback mechanisms. Currently this service has 5 EPs following doctoral courses with half funding provided, although with no additional time protected, as in other services. The implications

for individual EPs in this arrangement are explored later in this assignment in the context of recent research. A further initiative for the EPS since 2000 has been working with Connexions.

Connexions

The LEA has been contracted to provide a multi-disciplinary team of Specialist Personal Advisers in the Connexions programme, a government initiative to address the problem of young people who fall through the gaps of agency support (DfEE, 2000a). This team, currently involves 14 educational psychologists (EPs) and 25 behaviour support service outreach teachers (BSS), educational social workers (ESWs), mental health specialists (MH) and youth workers (YWs), from across 2 of the LEA services (See Figure 1).

Figure 1 Connexions and support services



The LEA team has also become part of a wider county team of over 100 personnel acting as Personal Advisers (others from a careers company and the voluntary sector), as well as part of each school Integrated Support Service team. Issues arising from such inter-group collaboration and dual group membership as described by Roberts (1994), have been important for all members of the LEA Connexions team, and will be further discussed in Section 4.

One of the key PA tasks is to review and reflect upon their professional practice and achieve continuous improvement in performance (DfES, 2002). The Connexions team has explored how to achieve this within the constraints of current feedback, appraisal and

development planning systems within the LEA, and in each participating service. An additional process was set up for the EP Connexions team members as described in Section 4. As part of a national drive to minimise duplication of support services, the development of National Occupational Standards for Connexions PAs, along with Educational Social Workers and Learning Mentors (CSNU, 2002) has been a further impetus to look at how occupational competence can be described.

The personal context

The author has experienced a number of different roles since the outset of doctoral training, following previous experience as an area educational psychologist in urban and rural areas with a specialism in parent partnership, then physical disability. The work of the EPS in 1999 was strongly refocused on school improvement activities, and the author's work with schools subject to special measures led to a 2-year promoted post in project management, working on behaviour improvement. This role required the coordination of a multi-disciplinary team of support service personnel and school staff, as well as setting up and managing office facilities and systems, and an examination of the processes and the outcomes are the subject of the author's doctoral thesis.

The author now has the task of coordination of the Connexions team and Integrated Support Services, through a secondment reviewed as part of the annual contracting process (See Appendix 2 for job description for this role). Through this, further professional development for the author has arisen through work for the Ofsted inspection of the Connexions Service, and of the county 14-19 provision, with the inspection process looking for "a shared commitment to a culture of continuous improvement and the maintenance of very high quality standards" (Ofsted, 2002). A pilot Connexions inspection in 2000 was encouraging about the role of the LEA support services (Connexions, 2001).

It has been suggested that increased job autonomy and influence should accompany increased workload (Axtell and Parker 2003). With the expansion of the Connexions team has come membership of the wider social inclusion management team, and further learning for the author has been through working with at times contradictory quality assurance business practices introduced through Connexions, such as Total Quality Management, ISO 9000, Chartermark, and Pqasso (Bank, 2000, www.connexions.gov.uk). Bahra (1997)

cautions against the initiative fatigue arising from the adoption of these performance-improvement initiatives which are generally about organisational, rather than people development, which is the final theme in this section.

My personal professional development

Any examination of the processes contributing to personal effectiveness is inevitably a personal view. As already suggested, appraisal is useful in as much as the appraisee places value on the support of the appraiser, but the outcomes as well as the actual process can be undermining if this is not the case (Lepsinger and Lucia, 1997). The 360-degree model initiated through the doctoral training in 2000 was a helpful addition to the existing appraisal process, with 8 colleagues from different professional subsets chosen by the appraisee as those whose views would be valued. This process was not repeated as envisaged because of the change in role to external project management with different timescales, and also meantime a new, briefer 360-feedback survey was initiated in the service (See Appendix 3). The outcomes of the original and revised procedures will be compared and suggestions made for development objectives in Section 4. Particular issues emerging from past professional reviews have included concerns about work hours and managing over-commitment.

A further role undertaken by the author following the completion of the behavior project management role involved work with the Educational Social Work Service on assessment procedures, from a Connexions perspective. This was particularly relevant given DfES proposals for Integration, Referral and Tracking of vulnerable pupils, and the Integrated Children's System, a data-sharing initiative proposed to cut across existing agency boundaries, much as the proposed Connexions CCIS database currently in pilot (Thomas and Griffiths, 2003). The ESW assessment development involved a review of systems in place in other LEA services, and the development of materials from the Framework for Intervention (Department of Health, 2000), and the Connexions Assessment, Implementation, Planning and Review Framework (CSNU, 2000). This task gave valuable insight to a different support service, helping to place the work of the EPS in a wider context.

The last part of this section will consider 3 differing experiences which have significantly contributed to the author's personal and professional development. The first of these was a modular programme of management training, examining concepts of leadership, motivation and time management, as well as practical exercises in coaching and mentoring. Paired presentations on the management of change, working with staff from different departments were particularly valuable. The second was the initial doctoral work on high performance teams. Whitmore (1999) describes the most productive teams as highly cooperative but retaining a degree of dynamic tension and how the best team leaders preserve this sensitively. The experience of this training proved highly useful, in setting up the behaviour management teams and the Connexions multi-disciplinary teams. The third experience was the development of techniques of coaching where the emphasis is on self-reflection, and unlocking the potential within the coachee to maximise their own performance (Powell et al., 2001; Whitmore, 1999).

Summary

This section has illustrated some learning undertaken by the author through role changes from area EP to multi-disciplinary team management. The context of national and local systems for performance management and professional development has been described and a number of issues have been noted, including the increasing need to develop skills in dealing with the interface of public-private organisations in education.

This assignment affords a valuable opportunity to conceptualize professional development issues and to review some dilemmas and issues which exist at an individual, as well as local and national professional level. Experiences of professional development suggest that there are complex processes to maximize the use of appraisal and training. The next section will consider some research findings which illustrate how the application of psychology can help understanding of these and other key workplace issues. In Section 4, these research findings will be linked to future planning for individual and service professional development.

3: THE RESEARCH BACKGROUND

This section will explore research on processes contributing to effective continuing professional development. The review will first set the work-life context before examining some factors impacting on experience of work, such as work stress and leadership. Findings about effective management and leadership practice will be described with particular reference to interpersonal effectiveness. The study will also look at the effectiveness of feedback mechanisms, how different appraisal models can contribute to professional development planning, and finally, it will be suggested that effective learning organisations have a number of similar underlying characteristics.

The meaning of work

A review of research on professional development suggests that this topic benefits from being set in a wider review of the role of work in our lives. Despite recent technological advances, many frustrations of working life continue, such as long hours and travel difficulties (Weiten and Lloyd, 1997). Weiten and Lloyd point out that the blurring of boundaries between home and work has made understanding the concept of job satisfaction more important, although suggest that people's attitudes towards their job is a highly personal matter and complicated to assess, with some for whom work is for financial reward and necessity, while for others work may be an outlet for creativity and a source of challenge and achievement (Mullins, 1999; Williams, 1972). For different people there may be different priorities, such as meaningfulness, challenge, variety, autonomy, friendship and recognition, good pay and security. Work motivation changes across working lives, so that older workers may prioritise differently and have new needs Warr (2003).

The common element across approaches to work motivation is that every individual has a set of personal and psychological needs and goals, some obvious and some more concealed. If these needs are met by work, then an individual is likely to be more energetic and creative, and behave in positive ways associated with superior performance (Mullins, 1999). A further aspect to consider is a more person-focused dimension, viz. why people choose their jobs, and to what extent is this mediated by personality factors.

Personality at work

Furnham (1992) summarises a number of findings which show that personality tests tend to be poor at predicting behaviour within organisations. He suggests that there is good evidence for both personal and situational determinants of behaviour, and that some people are more consistent than others. Personality is therefore a moderator variable in that the force it exerts depends on a wide range of other variables being present. Dwelling on personal shortcomings in performance decreases the probability of being a high performer, and conversely, high performers appear better insulated from damage to their self-perceptions stemming from experience of failure (Furnham, 1992).

Self-esteem is therefore an important variable in occupational behaviour, in that workers low in self-esteem may be more affected by different organisational stimuli, and may act against the interests of their organisation in order to maintain or enhance their self-esteem needs (Furnham, 1992). Behaviour at work may also be explained by attributional patterns, that is, whether the individual perceives outcomes as controlled by themselves or by external factors (Mullins, 1999). Workers with internal locus of control are likely to be more satisfied in managerial positions and with a participatory style of management. They will see their successful performances stemming from their own ability and effort rather than the nature of the task, or luck. Conversely, those with an external locus of control tend to blame external factors for their failures and successes (Mullins, 1999).

This brief account takes little note of a range of other complex inter-related factors, such as gender issues. The career paths of women have traditionally been complicated by societal expectations and values, as well as by family and ethnic issues, with consequent implications for their job choices, job satisfaction and stress ratings (Davidson and Cooper, 1983). Occupational stress is strongly affected by degree of control over working conditions and decision-making, and the psychological demand of the task, as well as by individual factors such as coping skills, and external factors such as amount of social support (Weiten and Lloyd, 1997). Companies therefore require to be proactive in intervening to make work environments less stressful, and might also consider employee contractual arrangements, as the increasing use of temporary contracts, as is the case in education, tends to show a negative effect on employee commitment (Parker et al., 2002).

Cranwell-Ward (1987) has reframed the experience of stress more positively for organizations, and suggests that with an optimal balance of confidence, commitment and control, stress can be experienced in a positive and fulfilling way. Leadership is key in achieving this, with 50% of work motivation in organizations estimated to be determined by leadership and management (Adair, 1988).

Leadership, management and interpersonal effectiveness

The difference between leadership and management is illustrated by Covey (1989 p. 102) who noted that “*effective management without effective leadership is like straightening deckchairs on the Titanic...no management success can compensate for failure in leadership*”. Leaders are managers who are able to prioritise, and distinguish the importance and urgency of tasks (Adair, 1998). George (2000) has suggested that effective leaders are skilled in the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processing and decision making. Emotional Intelligence (EI) describes the characteristics of leaders who are able to establish and maintain the identity of their organization: “*the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, from motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships*” (George, 2000 p.317).

The development of emotional intelligence and leadership qualities can be nourished by performance management systems for feedback, appraisal and development planning, and the next section will look at the first stage of this cycle by describing some common issues with appraisal processes as well as research findings about the different types.

Appraisal

Appraisal systems are designed to provide “*recurrent formalised opportunities to examine results and personal contribution which help to increase people’s understanding of what is expected of them*” (Williams, 1972 p. 59). However, to acquire self-knowledge needs time, and subjective impressions may be inaccurate (Ereaut, 1994). Performance appraisals may be affected by the beliefs and attributions of the raters, and interpersonal issues such as feelings towards the other person (Schultz, 1998).

Studies have found peer or buddy ratings generally more positive, and more in line with self evaluation than supervisor ratings, with self ratings consistently tending to be higher

and showing greater leniency (Schultz, 1998). Superior's ratings tend to emphasise initiative and specific job skills, where self ratings focus more on interpersonal skills and may show a "socially- acceptable modesty bias". Further sources of error in performance appraisal are the 'halo' effect (where raters tend to judge all aspects of a person's behaviour on the basis of a single attribute), recent performance error, inadequate information error, and average rating error (where ratings do not reflect the range of differences existing among workers and therefore fail to provide useful information) (Fletcher, 1993). George (2000) suggests that no evaluation system can be perfect, with self- evaluations potentially vulnerable from people wanting to look good, and evaluations by others prone to 'office politics' bias. To minimise these, appraisal systems should stay "*firmly locked onto the job and the abilities needed to perform it effectively*" and the focus for development should be on skills amenable to training, development and improvement (Fletcher, 1993).

Effectiveness of types of appraisal

In managerial or supervisory appraisal, line managers have been found reluctant to give less than satisfactory ratings (Bahra, 1997; Cutler and Waine, 2000). Managerial appraisal is better at predicting performance for supervisees who self-overestimate, whereas for those who underestimate themselves, managerial ratings also tend to underestimate (Atkins and Wood, 2002). Managers may attribute employee behaviour to external causes such as luck or task difficulty, or to internal factors such as health, skills or effort, and improvement in the process requires training and feedback for raters (Lord and Maher, 1991). Disagreement on the assessment between supervisor and appraisee can have a negative effect on motivation (Lepsinger and Lucia, 1997).

Self-appraisal, however, is also liable to bias effects with higher agreement between others, than between self –rating and others (Anderson, 1993; Furnham and Stringfield, 1998). This blind spot may be because of characteristics and issues of which the individual is unaware, or prefers to conceal in order to bypass threat or embarrassment, or because different raters may observe different dimensions or different definitions of performance (Harris and Schaubroeck, 1988; Argyris, 1992). An egocentric bias can be noted especially in managerial contexts, but in general, higher performers' self ratings are more in line with others' ratings. Atkins and Wood (2002) suggest that self-ratings may not in fact reflect actual competency, or indeed, predict performance, and therefore may be inadequate as a

basis for facilitating empowerment and targeting skill development. However, the more job-related and specific the behavioural statements used to define the competencies surveyed, the less error will be found in all sources of ratings.

In upward or 180 degree appraisal, it has been demonstrated that giving supervisors feedback improves their performance (Antonini, 1994; Hegarty, 1974). Studies have since shown, however, that if raters are accountable, they rated managers higher than when feedback was anonymous (Antonioni, 1994).

360 appraisal, however, has been shown to be significantly less subject to bias than from a single rater, and to predict performance as well as supervisor ratings alone (Atkins and Wood, 2002). Benefits of 360 feedback have been shown as increased awareness of others expectations, reduced inflated self ratings, reduced 'undiscussables', and ultimately improvement in work behaviour (Antonioni, 1996). In one of the few large-scale studies of multi-source feedback, Mabey (2001) describes how the use of a competency-based questionnaire with Open University managers produced a more rounded diagnosis of developmental needs, more effective development plans, and more strategically focused investment in training for the organisation as a whole. In addition, significantly better ratings were given to employers by 360-degree participants than by the control group.

As with other appraisal systems, there are limits to what can be achieved through multi-source feedback. It is important to have a representative selection of raters to avoid bias, with adequate peer contact and observational opportunity (Furnham and Stringfield, 1998). Feedback may still be rejected by the appraisee through unwillingness to change self-perception, or if there is a perception that the feedback is unbalanced, and the process can be open to "backslapping" (Antonioni, 1994). The implementation of 360-degree feedback should follow research-based guidelines rather than management wishes, and must be part of a process to provide support and set development targets (Antonioni, 1996; Hegarty, 1974; Lepsinger and Lucia, 1997). Even negative feedback if well handled can be empowering, as suggested by Linley and Joseph (2002), in terms of growth, through greater acceptance of vulnerabilities, increased strength and personal resiliency. The final part of this review will examine some issues in moving forward through the performance management cycle towards planning for continuing professional development.

Professional development planning

Continuing professional development is a planned process of development of individuals throughout their career (Norton and Burt, 1997). With the increasing pace of change in professional practice, the aim should be for a “culture of lifelong learning” (General Social Care Council, 2003). However training can be an expensive provision which should be targeted accurately to provide maximum benefit to individual and organization. The feedback systems described above can ensure that this happens through an appropriate professional development plan, which links the needs of the individual with the aims of the organisation. Warr (2003) notes the inefficiencies of some training activities, which may lack impact because of low transferability. There have also been questions about access to training opportunities for older workers, given the increased pace of role change in organisations (Doeniger, Lorenz and Tekla, 2003; Warr, 2003).

In the context of medical professional development, it has been suggested that the aim of CPD should be for capability, which lets a practitioner adapt to increasing complexity, whereas current approaches have a predominant focus on formal events with tightly defined, content-oriented learning objectives, ignoring that learners actively build on rather than passively consume knowledge (Fraser and Greenhalgh, 2001). The CPD process should therefore involve process-oriented methods including informal and unplanned learning (buzz groups, facilitated e-mail servers), self-directive learning (mentoring, personal learning low, with appraisal also in this category) and non-linear learning (case space, discussions simulations).

Future research issues

This section has considered how applying psychology in the workplace can facilitate quality of working experience and increased organizational effectiveness. There appears scope for further research on how technological changes can be harnessed to promote competencies, on how effective leadership and management may enhance performance appraisal and how organisations can support employee work-life balance. In the next section, issues in performance management at the service level will be first examined both in the context of traditional EP work, the new role of EPs as Connexions Personal Advisers, and at the individual level for the EP manager, and related to some current issues within the LEA, before looking at what has been experienced as effective in CPD activities.

4: INTEGRATING THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

This section will consider recently-developed mechanisms for feedback and professional development planning for EPs in this service in relation to the research described in Section 3. Issues in performance management at the service level will be first examined both in the context of traditional EP work, the new role of EPs as Connexions Personal Advisers, and at the individual level for the EP manager, and related to some current issues within the LEA. It will be suggested that professional development is most appropriately seen as an umbrella for a wide range of development activities, and that organisations which have a person-centred approach to performance management are more effective employers. This section will finally note the need to take into account the current pace of organisational change and how this may impact on work practices and training needs for educational psychologists.

Personal performance review

The 360 degree questionnaire completed by colleagues chosen from school staff and support services as well as EP colleagues, was followed up in the current round of appraisal by a revised and shortened version as noted in Section 2. Choice of raters continued to lie with the appraisee, although, because of the change in roles for the author, only 2 of the 8 were the same people. Ratings therefore gave a different perspective, and showed that the learning modules from the doctoral training on high performance teams had contributed positively to the development of the project management role, in a way which was experienced as supportive by support services and school colleagues.

The personal development plan which was drawn up from the appraisal focused on developing further the skills required to lead the Connexions cross-service multi-disciplinary team, in line with the view that effective transformational team leadership involves a high component of learned and situation-specific behaviour which can be developed through professional development activities (Northouse 1997). Difficulties of dual management for the author as manager were to be approached through greater clarification of role tasks, and critical path analysis and planning (Roberts 1994).

Looking at performance management of both EP and non-EP team members has been important in gaining an overview of the feedback systems of other services, which have used different mechanisms to gain feedback from stakeholders on individual and service issues. A priority for the author as Connexions team leader, supported by the doctoral programme, has been to develop an overview of these processes. For example, current Behaviour Support Service practice includes a yearly performance management review of individual performance including PA work, with the option of anonymity for schools commenting on communication and relationship skills. Future practice for the Connexions team may draw on the Ofsted self-assessment schedule and the national Occupational standards, which both list set of competences for Connexions PAs (CSNU 2002, Paulo 2002) with items such as

- The Personal Adviser establishes and sustain positive relationships with students
- The Personal Adviser respects and is receptive to young people's views
- The Personal Adviser supports young people through choices at key points

Meantime further work was undertaken within the EPS to examine the professional impact and challenge of Connexions.

Connexions and the EPS

This assignment afforded an opportunity to consider the unique contribution of the EP role within Connexions. Roberts (1994) describes difficulties with intergroup collaboration for workers, who take on dual membership. Initial identification in terms of home agencies may build through time, exposure and joint working into a shared value system, and the development of personal relationships. The EPs have gone through this process as a key part of the Connexions initiative, both in the cross-LEA team and as an integral part of their multi-agency school consultation teams (Glenny 2001, Ofsted 2003).

A SWOT (Strengths, Opportunities, Weaknesses and Threats) analysis was used to examine the role of the EP in Connexions and what this role might be adding to professional development, as well as giving feedback on the author's management of the team to date. (See Appendix 4). Although research has shown that team members tend to

evaluate a team's effectiveness differently from managers, this was not found in this case (Lemieux-Charles et al. 2002). Strengths were perceived to lie in the Connexions overview and a better grasp of whole school issues. EPs who were also Personal Advisers experienced enhanced collaborative work and felt able to use more flexible models of delivery. There was an extended range of training perceived available and opportunities for sustained intervention. The EPS felt that the role helped schools to see EPs as a wider resource, and PAs were able to build on existing interests, such as work on self-harm and with refugees. Finally, the view was that the EP role was making a difference to young people.

Under opportunities, EPs noted new possibilities for supervision and professional development. The strategic links through to DfES and LEA policy were described as imperative for an effective EPS, and the Connexions Mental Health agenda offered a good fit with EPS project work. Weaknesses were seen as a lack of fit with recommendations from the Report on Educational Psychology Services (DfEE 2000) and the BPS " Quality Standards " statement, and the emphasis on individual work did not fit easily with the service "consultation" model. Some EPs felt that Connexions was claiming credit for multi agency models of work which had existed before, although noted that Connexions had brought significant new resources to the county for work with vulnerable pupils. It was felt that there was a need to be clear what the skills of EPs as PAs are. Ownership of change was signaled as a potential difficulty with the caution that as the understanding of a new role evolves, misgivings need to be worked through. Employment issues were mentioned also in terms of time committed to extensive travelling, as well as the "information flood".

The threats which the EPs had experienced from the new role were from different systems of accountability and decreased professional autonomy. Data protection remained a key concern. The effectiveness of the role was seen to be much dependent on the vision and organization of the school co-coordinators. Equality of opportunity within the service was raised as an issue, where it was seen that head teachers had tried to select particular support service colleagues.

EPs concluded that, in this LEA, an understanding and experience of Connexions was likely to be of increasing importance in building EP careers. This exercise appeared to

demonstrate that despite initial reservations, this new role was experienced positively within the service as a motivating factor contributing to job enrichment.

The Ofsted report on Connexions in the partnership was very positive about the Connexions role of support services in the county schools, with specific mention of the EPS (Ofsted 2003). “*The creative use of contracting ... has been used to appoint specialist PAs, such as educational psychologists, has been successful. It enables PAs to provide the necessary specialist intervention quickly, ensuring that young people with particular needs receive the necessary 'added value' help*”, a challenge for EPs as noted by Kerfoot and Imich (2001). Connexions has provided a learning opportunity across the public-private divide, with some of the author’s attendant role conflict arising from the issues which come with bridging cultures.

Some further work was done by a group of six EPs on the distinctive EP contribution to Connexions. Conclusions were that EPs bring skills and experience from a wide range of therapeutic and educational settings. They are able to adapt and apply principles flexibly, i.e. “not a take it or leave it offer of a particular service to the student”, and work within an ethical code. The group noted that EPs can move flexibly through several sets of roles e.g. “*therapist, learning support teacher, systems analyst, subject teacher, organizational facilitator, referral agent*” etc. In particular this seems to include the flexible use of a wide range of assessment methods and tools, with the ability to develop intervention approaches to suit new contexts and recognize emerging needs. It was reported also that the EP’s main assessment and intervention planning role remained valued and relevant. as was their ability to create rapport and develop communication channels with alienated students.

Continuing Professional Development

The follow-up to feedback processes such as appraisal may be through activities such as training courses and conferences. However, there are other professional processes which may cater more effectively for individual differences in learning styles, and this exploration of CPD in the EPS context will touch on the broad range of development activities undertaken, including Investors in People, coaching, supervision and mentoring (Lepsinger and Lucia 1997). The psychologists have reported that less formal activities, such as shadowing colleagues from other services, and attending Connexions meetings at other

schools have provided useful development, significant particularly in achieving a clearer understanding of the work of other services, as well as what the distinctive role of the EP can be.

Further development has been achieved through the LEA work for IIP on improving communication through a system of team briefings. IIP also offers a good fit with appraisal systems such as 360 feedback and Investors in People organisations are generally rated more highly by their employees (Claytor 2001). Many IIP accredited employers see training costs fall, as a result of a shift in favour of internal training, which is particularly noteworthy in the context of findings about the importance of context-embedded training for teachers ((Claytor 2001, Brown and McIntyre 1993).

Supervision is also an core aspect of professional development *“where one person, the supervisor, meets with another, the supervisee, to support the latter to be effective in helping people, and is one way to ensure that helpers stay open to themselves and their clients”* (Hawkins and Shohet 1989). Potential blocks to getting good supervision may be previous experiences, personal inhibition, or difficulties in the supervisory relationship, such as maintaining the distinction from management appraisal. Part of the Connexions management role has been to ensure that adequate supervision arrangements are in place. Some of the Connexions PAs have elected to enhance their provision for supervision through additional participation in cross-agency peer consultation groups, which can be a potentially powerful educational structure to explore issues (Kerfoot and Imich 200, Fraser and Greenhalgh 2001). Obholzer and Roberts (1994), however, caution that that groups should not used to process the “toxins” which are not inevitable as part of the job, but are by-products of ineffective management.

Coaching also supports the growth and development of learning organisations by opening the way to “continuing personal and professional development of the most individual kind” (Whitmore 1999). Coaching is about opportunity to express potential, and assumes that people have the capacity to become competent. Cameron and Monsen (1998) note that effective coaching lies in a number of factors, avoiding mutual dependency, maintaining confidentiality, negotiating the level of self disclosure, managing the expression of strong emotions, and maintaining the balance of support versus challenge.

Other developments in the LEA have been around mentoring systems which are very similar to the techniques of coaching, in the focus on self-development of the individual through an ongoing supportive relationship (Whitmore 1999, Powell et al. 2001). Through these processes, which encourage individuals to go beyond technical core of their job, it is also suggested that organizations are able to function more smoothly (Axtell and Parker (2003).

A common thread through such activities is developing worker self-efficacy, that is, how people see themselves as effective. Role breadth self-efficacy can be enhanced through organizational intervention, with repeat performance of accomplishments as an important precondition for the development of self-efficacy (Bandura and Wood 1989). If employees believe organisations are not easily controllable, they tend to lower their goals,, even when the goals are within their capability, and may experience lowered self-esteem. Perceived self-esteem therefore affects subsequent organizational achievement, both directly, and through influence on personal goal challenge.

The process-oriented learning methods described above contribute to the overall development of individual, and fall into the category of “motivators” as defined by Herzberg (Fraser and Greenhalgh 2001, Mullins 1999). The final part of this section will briefly mention factors which fall into Herzberg’s category of “work hygiene factors” and include issues around work-life balance, the growth of flexible working practices and workplace stress (Lewis 2003). Some of these issues may have particular meaning for educational psychology as a female-dominated profession.

Working Arrangements

Flexibility is one of the new buzzwords in organisations, with flexible working time and place as one strand in new statutory entitlements for workers. It may, however, be possible to have too much flexibility for workers who may experience less positive relationships with colleagues, greater work-family conflict and experiences of overwork (Lewis 2003). More research is required to distinguish what needs to change in the organisational culture to support truly flexible working arrangements. For women, these may be particularly significant issues, given that the work-family interface for female workers has been traditionally more complex (McManus et al 2002). Research has shown that it is in the

employer's best interest to minimise employee work-family conflict by enhancing perceptions of supervisors, and of amount and nature of organisational support. Also potentially of significance for organisational and employee well-being is the increasing use of temporary contracts (Parker et al 2002). Around 10% of Connexions Personal advisers are employed on temporary contracts, because of short-term contracting procedures, which may lead to lowered commitment and stress through uncertainty.

Although a more positive role for stress in working life was described by Cranwell-Ward (1987), who noted significant individual differences in the experience of optimum pressure, there remains a perception that working long hours shows commitment and conscientiousness, rather than just a desire to get the job done, and it has been suggested that these attitudes change over working life (Warr 2003). Workaholism is said to occur when a person has difficulty disengaging from work, or experiences intense enjoyment of work, leading to working more hours, with differing leisure use and potential adverse health impact (McMillan et al. 2003). Some explanatory mechanisms include addiction, learning, trait, cognitive and family systems theories, but workaholism may most appropriately be explained as a personal trait activated and maintained by environmental circumstances. Harpaz and Snir (2003), using a non-biased definition of workaholism in a study including public sector workers, found a positive relation to economic orientation which contradicted some earlier findings, with the consequences of workaholism shown to be gender-free.

Work-life balance can also be an issue for full-time workers who undertake further study. The problem of time management generally has not been incorporated into the support for doctoral professional involvement in some LEAs, with the resulting potential for professional and personal stress for EPs. Organisations which wish to ensure psychological health of members through personal motivation, professional satisfaction and helping them to meet their personal aspirations may be described as striving to be learning organisations. Bracher (2001) suggests that in the LEA context, the EPS is in an influential position to become a learning organization itself, and to influence the LEA through the expertise and experience of its members (Argyris 1992). Bracher also suggests that research is an important role for EPs both in facilitating the development in the LEA of the application of

psychology and the use of research skills, and as a key component in the continuing personal development of EPs.

Summary

In this section, experiences of personal and team development have suggested that professional development covers a far wider area of working life than described through training. These experiences will vary across the age range, and between genders at different career points. There are particular development experiences which are valuable to most employees, and some which are particularly relevant for certain individuals at certain times. Organizations which strive to achieve the highest performance devote time and systematic planning to ensure that this is a high priority. Flexibility, choice and involvement appear to be key, particularly in professional roles which are less well defined, such as educational psychology. Finally some issues of organisational performance appear as yet somewhat neglected in view of their potential negative impact, through lowered work-life balance and employee well-being.

5: CONCLUSION

This study has explored some professional development issues in educational psychology, relating these to individual and service experiences. New roles and corporate change have been shown to require different skills and knowledge. This assignment offered the chance to explore both the theory and practice of a range of feedback mechanisms in the personal and service context. The findings show how skills acquired through educational psychology practice and professional development, including doctoral research, may enhance competence and personal effectiveness in team leadership.

The discussion of personal and team development suggested that professional development covers a broader area of working than envisaged through a training model, and employee needs will vary with different requirements at different stages of career development. The study has also discussed some issues which impact on personal and professional effectiveness through work life balance, including gender and age, differences in work motivation and changes in working practice through new flexibilities and technology. However, it appears that there are some development experiences common to the most

effective organizations, which maximise employee consultation and development in the pursuit of organisational goals.

Research for his assignment has been an exponential learning experience but has afforded an wide and valuable overview of many aspects of EP professional practice and training. This section has set the experiences of the author, of the service and through the Connexions role in a perspective of professional development in the widest sense, with suggestions for further consideration.

It has been suggested that the research function of EPs is an underdeveloped aspect of their skills, and one which has benefited from participation in doctoral training, although said to be threatened by the national shortage of EPs (Greig 2001, Webster and Beveridge 1997). The development of the author's role as professional manager of educational psychologists and staff from other support services has run in parallel to the doctoral training programme. The research for this assignment has provided an overview of approaches to personal and service performance management, and shown how professional development in the widest sense can contribute to increased interpersonal and role effectiveness at work, as expressed up by Warr (2003): "*Work is the place you can study psychology*" (p 28).

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APPRAISAL RECORD

Name of Appraisee

Post:

Name of Appraiser:....

Post:

Interview Date:

Review Date:

Statement of Purpose of Appraisal

The purpose of appraisal is to provide a structured, non-threatening process to enable the individual to make the maximum use of their skills and abilities, in the achievement of the organisation's objectives. It is a process in which the appraiser and appraisee:

- Reflect on successful and problematic areas of work in the past year and identify areas of possible employment development.
- Recognise and record good practice and disseminate this where appropriate.
- Reflect on the previous year's objectives.
- Establish aims and objectives for the following year.
- Establish the necessary development activities, training and support which may be required.
- Provide documentation for a personal employment portfolio as appropriate.
- Discuss progress on their objectives after 6 months.

Wherever possible the appraisee should feel ownership of the process.

PART A

PRIOR TO APPRAISAL MEETING

**Reflections by Appraisee of Past Years
Experience/Performance**

(E.g. last years objective's, personal performance, team performance, efficiency of working systems, examples of good practice)

**Appraiser Comments on Review of Past
Year.**

Appendix 2: Current job description

COUNCIL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

POST TITLE	Connexions in Schools: Integrated Support Services Co-ordinator
JOB PURPOSE:	On behalf of the citizens of XXX and the XXX Council to provide a co-ordinated and well-managed integrated support service to students in secondary and upper schools, meeting the needs of the Connexions Service.
DUTIES	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. To play a key role in the development of the Connexions Service in schools.2. To contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the Connexions Business Plan in relation to Connexions services provided to young people through schools.3. To support the development and working practices of Connexions school consultation teams.4. To establish, maintain and develop integrated support services within the Connexions Service in co-operation with Heads of Services.5. Working in collaboration with the XXX Connexions Co-ordinator, Principal Educational Psychologist, Principal Education Social Worker, Head of the Youth Service, and Head of the EBD Outreach Service to support and co-ordinate the work of specialist Personal Advisers (PA3s) in schools.6. To support the development of the role of Connexions Co-ordinators in schools.7. To monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of integrated support services and, in particular, the work of specialist personal advisers as part of the Connexions team.8. To co-ordinate management information in relation to the work of specialist personal advisers in schools.9. To establish and facilitate programmes of intervention and support for young people receiving the Connexions service.10. To develop whole school and cross-partnership approaches to intervention and support for young people receiving the Connexions service.

Appendix 3: EPS 360 feedback form

**Education Department
Chief Education Officer**

Dear

Staff Appraisal

As part of our developing staff appraisal scheme, XX has agreed for me to contact you, to seek your views on those aspects of her work performance that are familiar to you. The whole purpose of this scheme, is both to ensure that staff are challenged and supported to deliver quality services and, equally importantly, to encourage the professional growth that arises from reconciling self perceptions with those of colleagues. It would be of great assistance if you could take a few minutes to rate each of the following items on a scale of 1 (cause for concern) to 7 (excellent). Please would you also comment, where appropriate, if you have any suggestions about what would need to happen for your rating on any given item to improve.

Clarity of Role

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Clear about the ways she can work with you and support your work

Comments

Planning

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Agrees plans of action which are appropriate, implemented and followed through.

Comments

Empathy

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Understands your needs and communicates sensitively.

Comments

Relationships

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Maintaining effective and productive relationships.

Comments

Reliability

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Realistic and reliable in setting time scales for action

Comments

Flexibility

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Flexible and adaptable when unforeseen circumstances arise, within reasonable constraints.

Comments

Thank you for taking the time with this return.

Yours sincerely

Principal Educational Psychologist

Appendix 4: EPS SWOT analysis

Subject: EPs into PA3s

Dear Colleagues,

EPS Connexions Review.

The EPs working as PA3s met last week to review the role and re-affirm a commitment to it. Although all school consultation teams should routinely include the school EP, as the LEA is committed to systematic multi-agency working, the role of EPs as PA3 has been more ambiguous in colleagues' minds.

We accessed a wide range of reflection, using a SWOT format. The issues are summarised here.

EPs into Connexions

Strengths :-

Connexions overview and insight

Enhanced collaborative work

Extended range of training opportunities/professional development

Opportunities for more sustained intervention eg Family Work

Flexibility re models / styles of delivery

More opportunity for systemic involvement at different levels

Routine multi-agency network of support.

Helps school to see EP as a wider resource

Gives EP a better grasp of whole school issues.

Continuity EP --> PA able to build on existing projects / interests

Better placed to negotiate new policy / provision

Makes a difference

Opportunities :-

Enhanced possibilities for Supervision

New areas of work - professional development

Strategic links - clear DfES / LEA policy imperative

Strong links to the Mental Health agenda (nb EPS themed project work)

Weaknesses :-

Fit with " Current Role , Good Practice and Future Directions " DfES report and BPS " Quality Standards " statement.

Fit with " Consultation " model where there is an expectation of intensive individual support.

Good multi agency models of work existed before Connexions. Connexions has brought new resources.

Need to be clear what the new skills are - demonstrate added value - could that new value and more be achieved by other means?

Ownership of change - understanding of a new role evolves ;misgivings do need to be worked through.

Time committed to extensive travelling - especially for training.
Information flood . Communication is undermined by overload.

Threats :-

Different systems of accountability / decreased professional autonomy

Data collection / protection ; concerns about quantity , quality and integrity . Unresolved professional / legal issues re security and transfer of data.

Are the training , skills and experience of an EP best deployed through a PA3 role. The new bid is for specialist PA3s. What specifically

does educational psychology bring to the role ie where is the psychology ?

Leeway in school for a positive contribution ? So much dependent on the vision / organisation of the school co-coordinators

Tensions with the Consultation model

Equality of opportunity within the service ; colleagues " chosen " by individual schools for first round ; two tier system in terms of resources / access / experience.An understanding / experience of Connexions is likely to be of increasing importance in building EP careers !

Schools' understanding of the use of EP time in the Connexions context.

Supervision / accountability - line management issues.

In re-affirming our commitment of time to the PA3 task and taking account of all these issues , there was a high level of individual determination to maintain or increase existing hours. There may , however , be some possibility of offering colleagues who have not yet worked as PA3s , the opportunity to be included in the process. Please contact me if you would like to be involved.

Many thanks,

Principal Educational Psychologist

