‘Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis and Ecological theory: A Combined Approach to Understanding Disruptive Student Behaviour’

by

Lloyd Hughes

Canterbury Christ Church University

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Abstract

Behaviour management in schools is still a topic of significant discourse, from the classroom to the highest levels of Government. Research has suggested that some of the dominant theories of behaviourism which underpin current policy may limit our understanding of the causes of disruptive behaviour and, in doing so, may also fail to prevent further classroom disruption. This study aims to offer an alternative and accessible theoretical approach to behaviour management in response to an acute behavioural event. Built upon an existing interest within the research area in my current role, and extending the forefront of the discipline, my research asks, 'How can interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) and ecological theory enable me to understand a student's disruptive behaviour?' Through the use of semi-structured interviews, I explore the microsystem of both a student's and a teacher's school, home and social lives. The use of IPA as a vehicle to understand how the participants experienced the event enabled me to enter the hermeneutic circle and gain a 'deep level' of idiographic insight. Ecological theory is used as an underpinning feature of the analysis which, linked with phenomenology, not only suggests a mesosystemic 'spill' but also indicates that the disruptive behaviour may be the result of the trauma of domestic violence. The results of the analysis also suggest that the student has reached an end state because of the challenge to his 'just world'; this in turn creates a state of ruminative brooding which may lead to perseverative action. Further, the results also suggest that these findings may not have been possible using current approaches. The overarching implication of this study is that there needs to be a shift in 'thinking otherwise' with regard to current approaches to behaviour management to fully account for person/environment interrelatedness.

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Chapter one: Introduction

The introduction to this thesis outlines the position, importance, and necessity of this research, and it also 'sets the scene' in which the research has taken place. Further, this chapter highlights the initial development of my a priori research questions, which are based upon the setting in which I work, previous research I have conducted (Hughes, 2013 and 2016), and this thesis's original contributions to knowledge. This is followed by the current discussions surrounding behaviour management, which are necessary to highlight current initiatives, criticisms, and discussions within the field. My current teaching role is within a behaviour unit; therefore, the current discussions within the arena of behaviour management may have an impact on my practice and the students I teach. The chapter concludes with a summary of how the thesis proceeds.

Positioning my research

As a practitioner research project on behaviour management within the arena of educational research and practice, this thesis offers a unique case study which is interpretivist in nature. Further, it is practitioner research, which can coexist alongside the current approaches which deal with disruptive student behaviour. In terms of my contribution to knowledge, through the use of a combined methodology (interpretivist phenomenological analysis [IPA] and ecological theory), this case study suggests the level of complexity regarding disruptive student behaviour, which traditional approaches associated with behaviourism may not be able to fully address. Whilst this position may seem 'anti-behaviourist', my argument is not that my study supersedes one hundred years of behaviourist research. Rather, the behaviourist theory which underpins current policy may provide a platform to further examine and analyse an incident. More specifically, the behaviours which are 'overt, measurable, and observable' become the starting point for further investigation. Doing so moves beyond the 'observable' to recognising the impact of person-environment interrelatedness on disruptive student behaviour.

Importance of my research

As a result of my review of current literature and policy, a major theme of my research is that behaviourism is the theory which underpins the current policy approach to addressing disruptive classroom behaviour. I characterise this approach as authoritarian because it is enacted through 'top-down' acts of parliament by the government, which in turn are

advocated through the Department for Education (DfE). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss why behaviourism is so prevalent; rather, my concern is to discuss how a behaviourist mind-set may limit our understanding of the causes of disruptive behaviour. More specifically, my argument is that behaviourist approaches, as they are manifested within policy, do not always allow for, nor do they always enable, an understanding of the causes of disruptive behaviour (Payne, 2015; Stewart, 2012, Hart, 2010; Corbett and Norwich, 2004; Wearmouth et al., 2004; Harold and Corcoran, 2013; Clough, 1999). Through its predominant focus upon that which is overt and observable, behaviourism may fail to account for the causes of disruptive behaviour, and it may fail to prevent further classroom disruption. This research offers a critique of behaviourism using the accessible but under-researched combinational approach of IPA (Smith, 1996) and ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). It is important to note that, when I describe this approach as 'accessible', I allude to the fact it does not require years of study at the undergraduate and postgraduate level to be understood and put it into practice. This combinational approach allows for a deeper level of analysis and attention to fine detail within the participants' lives.

Early stages of my research

This section states my initial, a priori research questions. I also provide information on my work context, my previous research and the background of my interest in this topic area. It is necessary for me to emphasise that the final research questions were developed as part of an objective rationale from the literature review (see chapter 2), my own previous research, and the fact that I am what I would describe as 'professionally embedded' within a behavioural setting.

Initial research questions:

1) How can a student's disruptive behaviour be better understood using an ecological approach?
2) Are phenomenological and ecological approaches more effective to understand disruptive student behaviour than current policy approaches?

These initial, a priori research questions arose as a result of working within my current setting and previous research I conducted whilst completing my master's degree studies (see below). Further, I sought to build upon and deepen my existing knowledge on the use of phenomenological and ecological approaches to improve the understanding of disruptive

student behaviour within an educational setting. An ecological approach to behaviour management is usually through the use of the microsystem, whereby a student's home, school, and social lives are examined in order to create a broader picture of their lives beyond their observable behaviours. More specifically, I wanted to conduct a piece of research which would suggest how a student interacts with their environment and how they experience it. Further, I wanted the study to highlight that, through the use of theory within everyday practice, the 'gap' between theory and practice may be narrowed (Roth et al., 2014). Moreover, it is possible that a key aspect of the theory/practice gap is that a continuum of teacher education through learning, improvement, and establishing praxis is necessary to challenge existing gestalts (Korthagen, 2010, p.412). This case study, therefore, challenges the existing behaviourist gestalt in both a political and a theory/practice gap denotation. In part, this introduction argues for the need for this research by highlighting some of the issues in relation to managing student behaviour. Examples of these are the current initiatives for behaviour management, the ITT provision with respect to behaviour management training for teachers, the current view of the alternative provision of education, as well as the use of managed moves as reviewed by the Children's Commissioner Reports 2013 and 2017. Each of these examples has a potential impact, not only within my setting, but across the institution of education. In essence, this research is, as Dadds (2005) has advocated, 'for new knowledge and understanding, research for critique and research for improvement' (Sheehy et al., 2005, p.30).

The setting and my role

This thesis was written while working as a maths teacher in a state secondary school with approximately 1,800 students on roll in the southern area of England. My role is within the 'The Behaviour Unit', where I work with students who are at serious risk of permanent exclusion (hereafter, I refer to this as the 'Unit'). As part of my role, I also mentor students whose behaviour is not only the focus of teachers' concern but has become detrimental to their learning and that of their peers. When a student is referred to the Unit, their typical pathway involves one week's assessment before progressing to the Unit full-time for a minimum period of one month. The aim is then to gradually reintegrate students back into the mainstream of the school through timetabled lessons. In exceptional circumstances, which are assessed on a case-by-case basis, this pathway may be overridden, and a student may come straight to the Unit on a full-time basis.

The ethos of the Unit is 'margins to mainstream'; in essence, this means that the Unit is recognised as being on the 'margins' of the school. This ethos also suggests to me that, whilst it is within the grounds of the School, it is in policy, and therefore arguably within the meta-cultural view of the organisation, marginalised. This highlights a key factor which I wanted to incorporate within the research, that of 'voice'. This is discussed in greater depth in Chapter 3; however, the rationale is that I wanted my research to give 'voice' to those who may not be heard.

The Unit's goal, as outlined in the school's Unit policy, is to return students to the 'mainstream' of the school as quickly as possible. This does not always happen, however, and some students are 'manage moved'. The process of managed moves (discussed in depth later in the chapter) involves a student being moved to another school either for a short period of time or permanently. The period of time is determined on an individual student level during a 'screening' process when there has been little or no evidence of success following the intervention of support plans at the student's current school (Craig, 2015; Mahon, 2017; Bagley and Hallam, 2017).

While working in the Unit, I have had ample contact with teachers, senior management and parents. I have used these opportunities to gauge their thoughts and experiences of specific students' behaviour. Part of the rationale for this thesis is to highlight how easily and quickly a person's views can be established through the continued use of behaviourist approaches. This stereotyping (see Campbell, 2015; Buchanan et al., 2007; Hornstra et al., 2010), which is based upon initial reactions to information given or upon behaviours which are seen or heard, may not allow a holistic perspective to be considered (see Soltero-Gonzalez, et al., 2012; Crosby, 2015; Tirri, 2011). As a result, an overplay may be made upon the factors which appear to justify institutional decisions. This is how certain behaviourists' views could be further reinforced through what I describe as an economic truth (Bates et al., 2019; Sheehy et al., 2005).

Building upon previous research

This thesis builds upon previous research I have conducted as a teacher, coupled with a continued interest in the area of behaviour management. My first experience of disruptive behaviour occurred when I entered education just over 10 years ago. This experience quickly made me ask myself the common questions: 'Do I have the ability to be an educator?' 'Am I "cut out" for the job?' 'Is this what I want to continue doing?' (Prather-Jones, 2011; Jackson

et al., 2015; Cau-Barielle, 2011; Hong, 2010). As time passed, I developed working relationships with colleagues who had also experienced exactly what I was going through. As we exchanged our anecdotal stories, I was continually informed about certain students and classes by other members of staff: 'He's always like that'; 'Oh my God, that class is a nightmare'; 'Well, if you get any trouble [laughs], don't call us'; 'She always does her make-up. Did she plug in her hair straighteners? I had that once'; 'He's a nasty piece of work, mind you, have you met the family? It's no wonder'. These are only a few of the phrases I encountered from other staff members about certain students and classes within the school. As a result, I quickly settled into a combinational approach of behaviourism followed by stereotyping (Buchanan et al., 2007; see also Riley, 2012; McHugh et al., 2013; van Ewijk, 2011). By the end of my first year, I found myself entering into the same categorised, stereotypical dialogue as that of my colleagues (see also Riley and Ungerleider, 2012; Kokkinos et al., 2010; Rubbie-Davies et al., 2006). At the same time, I also discovered that, although I entered the state all new starters in education covet, that of being 'established' (Scrivener, 2012, Chorzempa et al., 2018), behaviour could still be a major issue with some students in some classes because the current approaches failed to account for and prevent disruptive behaviour.

The environment

At that point, I started researching student behaviour and behaviour management strategies in order to create a greater understanding for my practice. Initially, I used the action research cycle (McNiff et al., 1996); the 'plan, act, observe, reflect' cyclical process enabled me to conduct a preliminary analysis of the needs of students with behavioural issues and design interventions for them (Wearmouth, 2004, p.46). The preliminary analysis highlighted the fact that students had been removed from their mainstream classes and placed in the Unit with little or no direction as to what the future held for them in terms of their education. In the short term, this was effective because these students were no longer a disruption in the classroom or around the school. The impact of this meant that teachers and other students had a 'rest' from the constant milieu and could focus upon the task at hand. However, for the disruptive student, it raised the question, 'What now?'

While the 'solution' was isolation from the mainstream, my initial research confirmed the well-known trajectory within schools of the restrictions on money (Cutler and Waine, 2014; Hastings et al., 2015), the influence of policy (Ball, 2010; Ball et al., 2011a, Maguire et

al., 2011; Ball et al., 2012), and the desire to reduce exclusion figures (Glazzard, 2011; DfE guidance, 2018; Graham et al., 2019). The consequential impact was that 'policy, money, and exclusion figures' were the key factors within the constraints of providing a quality alternative provision (Hughes, 2013). Thus, there was a limited number of subjects on offer for the students, which suggested that their curriculum needs were not being met. Further, my research highlighted the fact that continued isolation from other students had the adverse effect of making the disruptive students more volatile. Therefore, my research suggested that a continuum of isolation created a continuum of disruption by the students, as well as frustration for the school staff.

As a result of my research, a review took place the following month, and with an increase in budget, more teaching staff were employed and more subjects were offered, but crucially, the intention of the Unit came to the fore, specifically that its aim was to provide a successful alternate provision for students at serious risk of permanent exclusion. For me as a practitioner, the study highlighted the importance of conducting research within my setting at a grassroots level. The rationale was not to set a precedent and offer 'the right way of doing things,' but for me, it highlighted the importance and the impact of the environment, in particular ecological approaches to understanding the environment in which students were expected to function. Equally important was that I found that I and my views had moved from categorising students towards seeking to understand why they behaved the way they did and ultimately help them.

The impact of 'them and us'

As a result of the success of my first research article published in *The Teaching Times* (Hughes, 2013), I wanted to build upon this area of study. I began speaking with students who had been referred to the Unit, as well as their teachers, in order to gain a holistic perspective on why they had been disruptive in their classes. It was clear from the accounts that, for some teachers, the students behaved, but for others, they were disruptive. Upon further investigation of the lessons in which the students behaved, it appeared that the students 'liked' the teacher, the subject, or both. For the lessons in which the students were disruptive, however, it appeared that they 'disliked' the teacher. As part of my on-going research, I wanted to understand why this was the case; therefore, my next investigation was a case-study approach (Hughes, 2016). This approach was particularly useful because it enabled me to adopt a phenomenographic perspective concerning how students experienced

their classroom environments. The rationale was two-fold: first, I aimed to uncover the contrast between good behaviour in one class and poor behaviour in another. Second, I wanted to understand why this was the case by asking, 'What is it about this class that is so different from the other class?' Based on previous research, I already understood that the environment was an important factor with regard to student behaviour (Mainhard et al., 2011; Dillon, 2012; Fuse, 2012; Frisby and Martin, 2010; Wearmouth et al., 2004). In my view, therefore, the natural, progressive step within my subsequent research was to understand how the environment was experienced.

While conducting this research, I carried out non-participant observations of the teachers and students within the lessons (RMEH, 2004). One of the key areas I wanted to observe was the demeanour of the staff who experienced behavioural problems within their classes. More specifically, I wanted to observe their body language, their facial expressions, how they spoke to the class, and other factors associated with a general demeanour, i.e., whether they appeared flustered, angry, upset, or hurried (Creswell and Neill, 2003; Wragg, 2013; Okeke and Drake, 2014; Krane et al., 2017; Mitchell, 2013). Upon meeting some of the teachers before the lessons, they appeared defeated even before the lesson began. Phrases such as '[student] is in the class, so they'll be trouble', and, at the conclusion of the lessons, 'I have to be like that with them otherwise I would have no control' became familiar. There was some similarity with the students I followed to their classes; they talked to me between lessons, stating, 'this next lesson I always get a headache', or 'I hope they [the teacher] are in a good mood today'. Further, when we were queued up outside of the classroom with the students, there were groans and other verbal utterances suggesting immediate defiance as the teacher arrived. My interactions with the staff and the students further suggested that there was a continued categorisation of the students by the staff and of the staff by the students. This 'them and us' approach was also demonstrated through what I describe as the 'soap opera effect', where the whole class stopped their work to watch the teacher loudly, verbally chastise a student. These observations suggested that the teacher spent ample time and energy on containment and control of the class or certain students. This was the case even if the class was working. I concluded that the potential of pre-existing narratives of stereotyping may have led to the expectation of disruptive behaviour.

Previous research has suggested that these teacher behaviours, along with a narrative of stereotyping, can create an environment which can prevent students from flourishing (Bhopall, 2011; Bekdemir, 2010; Pinson and Arnot, 2010; Jennings et al., 2013; Riley, 2012;

Gibbs and Powell, 2012). For example, on one occasion, I observed the defensive body language of the teacher during what Bronfenbrenner (1979) has described as the dyad of interaction between two people (1979, p.55). In this case, the dyad was between a teacher and a student, and the teacher's arms were constantly folded when addressing the individual student as well as the whole class. More specifically, I observed the teachers' repertoire of bodily action, hand gestures, and facial expressions. In essence, I observed how they regulated (Taipale, 2016) themselves in the classroom environment and how, in turn, this contributed to the affective regulation of the students' behaviour (Malmivuori, 2006); a teacher's body language directly impacted the students (Boekaerts, 2007). I also observed that there was no movement by the teacher around the classroom, other than moving from the white board to sit back behind their desk. A key finding from the observations was that, as I accompanied the students around the school, the lessons in which there was the least disruption were those in which the teacher's demeanour was calm. The most notable factor was that there were no warnings given to me at the start of the lesson with regard to any of the students. Further, while the teachers instructed the class, they moved around the classroom, out of their comfort zone, and through what I describe as their command of the classroom, they engaged the students. What I observed is what Bronfenbrenner (1979) has described as an activity dyad (1979, p. 56), whereby the teacher and the students are engaged in an activity, i.e., teaching by the teacher and learning by the student. As I observed all the students in the classroom, they were attentive. The instruction was clear, concise, and brief, spoken with confidence and fluidity, without nervousness.

This research led me to conclude that the contrast in the teachers' demeanour appeared to lead to a contrast in the students' behaviour. If the teacher was hostile or defensive, this appeared to contribute to poor student behaviour. However, if a teacher was passionate and engaging, this appeared to promote positive student behaviour. These observations and the research as a whole questioned the concept of whether students are 'naughty', 'dysfunctional', or 'bad' by demonstrating the impact of the staff labelling students on the psychogenic effects of school (Wearmouth et al., 2004; Cornwall, 2004). Furthermore, the research highlighted the need for staff to adapt their character and teaching persona depending on the student. More specifically, the capacity to win the trust and respect of the students enabled successful lessons to be taught.

Summary of the background of the research

It is important to highlight here that these two pieces of research directed my initial research questions. In addition, this research suggested the need for further exploration with regard to the impact of the environment and the assumption of the 'naughty student'. More specifically, it suggested that further research was necessary in order to look beyond what is overt and observable, to 'think otherwise' with regard to disruptive behaviour. I further argue that the failure to do so may engender a 'merry-go-round of disadvantage' (De Ruiter, 2008), whereby the occupational socialisation of certain practices may provide the 'surety of certain outcomes'. This discourse then defines the function of those practices which fixate and restrict the agency of the school, the teacher, and the student. Furthermore, it suggests the meta-cultural view of the organisation as one that is ideologically constructed towards the education system as a whole, as opposed to what it seeks to represent (De Ruiter, 2008, pp. 40-41; see also Popkewitz, 2000; Shore and Wright, 2003; Moore, 1987 for further discussion). As a result of this previous research, my future research, e.g., this thesis, focuses on ecology and phenomenology as approaches to understanding disruptive student behaviour. In essence, it is an examination of the biconditionality of person-environment/environment-person interrelatedness, and of the idiographic and sense/meaning-making of the situation.

Current discussions surrounding behaviour management

The current, dominant discussion within the discourse of behaviour management at the time of writing this thesis (May 2019) is illustrated by Tom Bennett's government announcement to oversee the £10 million 'behaviour network' initiative. This initiative will see 500 schools become part of a three-year experiment aimed at improving student behaviour. In response to this plan, the DfE states that teachers are 'expected to report fewer incidents of disruptive behaviour and pupils should report they feel safer at school, while able to learn more effectively' (Allen-Kincross, 2019).

My concern about this as a classroom teacher is that there is a uniquely behaviourist approach to this experiment, ranging from the number of schools, the amount of money, and the DfE hypothesis. Further, a key maxim of this experiment is a 'zero tolerance' approach, which, as Harold and Corcoran (2013) have noted, is 'a recognised discourse with behaviourism' (2013, p.47). Bennett's use of behaviourism is further evidenced in his

previous publications. Most notably, in his 'top ten behaviour tips' (UNISON, 2015), he argues, 'badly behaved students are almost always without exception badly organised and work alone' (2015, p.4). Bennett further discusses whether a teacher has approached middle or senior leadership for assistance with a behavioural issue, and they have not 'delivered' on their 'promised intervention'. A teacher should address this with the leader and be 'still sweetness and light [towards senior leadership], but with a serious look on your face' (2015, p.6). Previous research also suggests that a zero-tolerance approach is not appropriate and can have an adverse effect on behaviour (Dix, 2017; Graham, 2018). Further, outside of the UK, a zero-tolerance approach is not viewed as the answer to disruptive student behaviour (See Martinez, 2010 [US]; Jackson and Cassidy, 2005 [Canada]; Hargreaves and Hemphill, 2009 [Australia]).

This is a long way from Bennett's (2017) call for 'case studies, focused studies, or experiences in Alternative Settings' (Bennett, 2017), which would use research as a tool to move forward within the area of behaviour management. Furthermore, Bennett has not indicated, based on the literature, what exactly teachers, whether ITT or through CPD, will do beyond 'watching themselves back on video, watching other teachers, and discussing what they have observed' (Tomlin, 2016). As a result of my research on the Bennett literature, this specific detail is missing. However, I agree that the opportunity for teachers to participate in research and contribute to behaviour management studies is much needed and long overdue. There appears to be an essence of highlighting an existing problem and proportioning blame to ITT providers and current CPD without offering much in the way of an alternative. The current policy surrounding the discourse of behaviour management within schools is centred upon three areas (see below), which are the focus of this introduction.

The five key areas

1. Creating a culture: how school leaders can optimise behaviour (Bennett, 2017).
2. Developing behaviour management content for initial teacher training (ITT; Bennett, 2016).
3. Managing moves (Children's Commissioner Report [CCR], 2013 and 2017).

Creating a culture and developing behaviour management during ITT

In the first two articles, Bennett demonstrates the need for change and for school leaders, university ITT providers, existing teachers, and new teachers (both PGCE students and NQTs) to be the agents of change. As Bennett (2017) has argued, 'Many schools find success by ensuring that all staff are trained in behaviour management' (2017, p.35); this highlights the necessity of adequate training. Bennett's (2016) ITT review advocates the need for short-, medium-, and long-term behaviour management training to be established. He has further stated that training should occur 'pre-ITT' and then follow the subsequent steps:

1. Beginning: the initial phase of the training course, focusing on the first few days and weeks.
2. Developing: the period of consolidation immediately after the beginning phase.
3. Extending (ITT): the main body of the ITT period, up to the point of awarding QTS (in the current system).
4. Post-ITT (NQT): continuing professional development beyond ITT, including target areas identified by ITT. (Bennett, 2016, p.7)

Despite a clear 'lean' towards an ecological approach with regard to behaviour management, there is still an over-reliance on the behaviourist stance. Ecologically speaking, the instruction given to build routines, responses, and relationships (2016, p.4–5; 2017, p.35) suggests an understanding of interrelationships among the staff, the students, and their environment. Bennett further cites the Equality Act (2010), which

> places a duty on schools to take into account the circumstances and the needs of each student when managing behaviour issues. Thus, for a student with a known disability, treatment must be proportionate, in the light of the student's disabilities. The same treatment cannot simply be given to everyone in the same situation. (2017, p.37)

A move away from behaviourism?

The measures Bennett advocates all suggest that the requirement should be to move away from behaviourist approaches, but the measures only go so far. He demonstrates awareness of the need for positive working relationships with families, businesses, and within the community (2017, p.58). With this in mind, and at risk of my view being categorised as that of a member of a school community who states, 'we already do that', my communication with students, parents, or the wider community may 'fail to be used correctly' (2017, p.60). What must be highlighted is that, when any style of behaviour programme is used, an

understanding and recognition of the potential pitfalls are necessary. Bennett has recognised this, stating, 'Executing a behaviour programme is a highly skilled and difficult role and should not be assigned to staff without the experience, character, or skills to deliver it' (2017, p.61).

Although I agree that training staff to be efficient in behaviour management is an important element of understanding student behaviour, the content of that training is the key factor (Joyce and Showers, 2002; Kleickmann et al., 2013; Alvarez, 2007). This statement aligns with Bennett's thoughts; however, a behaviour management training programme within ITT and beyond needs to be explicit in nature and not offer a course of 'tokenistic content' (Armstrong, 2018; Carter and Osler, 2000; Sellman, 2009). Furthermore, while I accept that Bennett's argument is necessary, the review of ITT courses (Bennett 2016 and 2017) does not create the knowledge or skill required to understand and therefore effectively address disruptive student behaviour. However, Bennett acknowledges that the topic is vast in scope and further advocates the need for studies which engender a corpus of knowledge through investment and research.

In the following extract, Bennett explains the complexities of addressing student behaviour. He argues that a range of resources, material, and support for teachers and trainers is necessary. He further argues that a teacher cannot be taught every aspect of behaviour management within an ITT period. In accordance with this limitation, ITT institutions should provide 'roadmaps' for teachers to gain experience beyond their mainstream classroom in specialist settings. He argues:

> 'Behaviour management is too broad a subject to be covered completely in a mandatory initial training period. Providers should design introductory experiences in specialist areas, such as case studies, focused studies, or experiences in Alternative Settings (Additional Resourced Provision, Additional Provision, SEND Settings, and Secure Estate). These experiences should then be transferred and applied to the trainee's whole class teaching. Providers should draw roadmaps for trainees with a view to career specialisation and development, post the ITT period'
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> (Bennett, 2017, p.8).

Managed moves

In its typical form, a managed move is an agreement between two schools to transfer a student from one school to another. It is key that this move is a voluntary agreement between all parties involved: the schools, the student, and the parent(s)/carer(s) (DfES, 2004). A managed move is seen as an alternative to permanent exclusion, and it keeps the child in education (Messeter and Soni, 2018; Gazeley et al., 2015). In addition, a managed move does not 'go against' the transferring school in terms of having to report exclusion figures, and, more importantly for that school, it does not 'off-roll' the child (Owen, 2019). However, issues have arisen with managed moves, which have been described as 'grey, unofficial, or informal exclusions' (Craig, 2015, p.21). The CCR (2013) has also described them as 'under-the-radar exclusions' (2013, p.5). Gazeley (2010) has stated that little is known about their use and/or effectiveness, (Craig, 2015, p.22). I argue that managed moves appear to epitomise the behaviourist approach that when 'x' (the behaviour) happens, the result is 'y' (the sanction). In this way, a student can be 'sanctioned' via a managed move as a result of disruptive behaviour.

The 2013 CCR report highlights the problem of 'illegal' managed moves, in which a move is 'enforced', and further states that the statistics in the study are 'conservative estimates' (2013, p.6). The total number of schools in England is approximately 24,000, of which 6.7% have sent a child home for disciplinary reasons without recording the event as an exclusion; this equals 1,600 schools within the country, or one in 10 schools within every local authority area. Further, 2.7% of schools sent a statemented child (a child with a statement of special educational needs [SEN]) home if their learning assistant was not available. This represents 650 schools across the country and more than four schools in each local authority. In addition, 2.1% of schools have recorded a child as 'absent' or 'educated elsewhere' when the school has encouraged that student not to attend. This represents 540 schools across the country and more than three in each local authority. Finally, 1.8% of schools have 'encouraged' parents/carers to home educate their child without it being recorded as an exclusion, which amounts to 192 schools in the country and one school in every local authority (2013, p.6).

It is important to note that these statistics do not suggest illegal practice within schools as normative; however, it also does not indicate that the practice concerns only a small number of schools. This is evidenced by the fact that, in each case, hundreds of schools are

involved; therefore, hundreds of children are affected across the country. The statistics suggest, and the report corroborates, the need for an investigation into the issue of exclusion as a whole, along with the problems and the illegal and unlawful practices which surround it. The Commissioner describes this issue as the 'elephant in the room for educators, policy makers, and others', further stating:

> 'Whenever I speak to head teachers, educational psychologists, or education welfare officers anywhere in England, all will admit, always in strict confidence, that these exclusions do sometimes happen. But nobody wants to go public or is prepared to name names. There is a feeling in these conversations that for the sake of inter-school harmony, or the reputation of the system, this is a subject best left alone'
>
> (CCR, 2013, p.4).

This demonstrates that managed moves, when used as an approach to behaviour management, can result in illegal activity. However, the report does state that 31% of the teachers in the investigation were unaware it was illegal to encourage the home education of a student. A further 24% of teachers were also unaware that it was illegal to falsify attendance records when a child has been asked not to attend school. Finally, 39% of teachers were unaware of the legality of sending a child with SEN home as a result of school support staff being unavailable (2013, p.7–8). These statistics suggest that illegal exclusion is an activity in which school staff were complicit. Whether this was by choice, lack of awareness, or 'for the sake of inter-school harmony', however, they did not do anything about the situation through fear of rocking the proverbial boat (CCR, 2013). A more recent CCR (2017) states that, when using short-term student exclusions, schools had not followed proper, correct procedure. The key issue, however, was the frequency with which this happened to some students, which meant that they missed large quantities of their education. The CCR further states that, at the conclusion of its two-year investigation, the following evidence was available:

1. Pupils being placed on extended study leave, on part-time timetables, or with inappropriate alternative provision as a way of removing them from school.
2. Pupils being coerced into leaving their current school, either to move to another school or to be educated at home, under threat of permanent exclusion.

3. Schools failing to have due regard to their legal responsibilities regarding the exclusion of children with statements of SEN or looked-after children (LAC).
4. Schools failing to have due regard for their responsibilities under the Equality Act 2010.
5. Local authorities failing to deliver their legal responsibility to provide full-time, alternative education for children from the sixth day of exclusion.

(2017, p.6)

Summary of current discussions surrounding behaviour management

The main areas within current discussions with regard to student behaviour have been considered, and it is clear that several must be addressed. Examples include behaviour in schools (see Bennett, 2016, 2017; Deakin and Kupchik, 2018; Weare, 2013) and staff training to address behaviour management (see Drewery and Kecskemeti, 2010; Bennett, 2016, 2017; Armstrong, 2018; Mortimore et al., 2018). In addition, staff training with regard to mental health awareness in schools (see Evans et al., 2018; Moon et al., 2017; Kidger et al., 2016; Sharpe et al., 2016), equality in schools (see Felder, 2019; Cowen et al., 2018; Willey, 2018; Gregory-Smith, 2018), and 'off-rolling' (Long and Denechi, 2019; Boyd, 2019; Hughes, 2018) are necessary. This list is comprehensive, not exhaustive; it suggests some of the key problems and directs the reader to some of the relevant literature. What is axiomatic, however, particularly with regard to the findings from the CCR reports, is the need for change. What I argue for is change in terms of the approach teachers, the DfE, and the government use to address disruptive student behaviour. Moreover, this change is a move beyond the potentially narrow scope of approaches which could be considered behaviourist towards a more humanist, interpretivist modus operandi.

How the thesis proceeds

This first chapter has highlighted the need for further research in this area with regard to managing student behaviour and with reference to person-environment/environment person interactions. The next chapter, the literature review, considers and reviews the current approaches to behaviour management. Following from the literature review, the methodology chapter demonstrates how IPA is used as a vehicle to move from data collection to data presentation. This chapter also demonstrates how ecological theory is used as the underpinning tool to theorise the data. The data presentation chapter shows the process from raw data collection to the development of master themes within the process of IPA coding.

The analysis chapter theorises the data, drawing upon the literature review, methodology, and data collected to validate my argument regarding the extent to which IPA and ecological theory can be used to understand disruptive behaviour within a classroom setting. Finally, the conclusion demonstrates the implications and limitations of my research, as well as potential future research projects resulting from this study.

Chapter Two: Literature review

Introduction

The search for materials for this review was performed using Google Scholar, researchgate.net, Wiley online, the University library, and other websites available through Open Athens. The papers and information had to be in English in order to avoid any 'lost-in-translation issues'. Furthermore, the search was not only for published journal articles; it also included books, chapters, and other reports. These criteria were used to cast a wide net, thereby enabling me to build a picture of the key questions this chapter addresses. In order to maintain a level of objectivity, the following search terms were used in each of the databases: classroom behaviour, student behaviour, disruptive student behaviour, approaches to disruptive student behaviour, teacher approaches to behaviour management, and current approaches to behaviour management. Using these search terms allowed a broad, comprehensive search, which is important to maintain a level of objectivity within my research. Further, when identifying the dominant themes within the field, it was important from a researcher perspective that these themes were 'found' and stated as the dominant themes within the field, as opposed to being subjectively 'searched for' and trying to argue that they are 'the' dominant themes. Moreover, once the dominant themes within the literature were identified (found), I then used the following specific search terms: behaviourism, psychodynamics, systems theory of behaviour management in the classroom, ecological theory, and ecosystemic approach. These search terms were chosen to enable a deeper exploration and review of the relevant literature within each field.

The dominant themes

This first section discusses what were identified as the three key, dominant themes within the literature on behaviour management and its approaches within schools. They are as follows:

1. Behaviourism
2. Psychodynamics
3. Systemic approaches

My main argument within this review is that my chosen approach in this thesis, the ecological perspective, which comes under the heading of systems theory, has been weakened by a lack of current research and representation within the field. This is the result of an overemphasis on the behavioural perspective, with the psychodynamic perspective as a close second. It could be argued, therefore, that this has led to a lack of understanding regarding how student behaviour is understood and analysed. It is also possible that a lack of understanding has given way to 'quick fixes', one-size-fits-all approaches, and a shift towards preventative measures without first knowing the root causes of what should be prevented. Thus, it is necessary to identify how my research question fits into the literature and why it needs to be addressed.

Defining disruptive behaviour

The research on disruptive student behaviour, whether at an individual, classroom, or whole-school level, is not a new endeavour (Wearmouth et al., 2004). However, defining disruptive behaviour is potentially ambiguous because there are many categories which the DfE (2012) defines as the most disruptive to learning: persistent disruptive behaviour (including low-level disruption), inattentive behaviour, verbal aggression, non-attendance, and actual violence (2012, p.13; see also Cameron, 1998; Watkins and Wagner, 2000; Beaman et al., 2007). The DfE also argues that the definition of disruptive behaviour is that which is 'perceived to be disruptive in both nature and seriousness' (2012, p.9). Accordingly, Cameron (1998), following a review of disruptive behaviour and behaviour management techniques, has argued for grouping disruptive behaviour into the following categories: 1) aggressive behaviour, 2) physically disruptive behaviour, 3) socially disruptive behaviour, 4) authority-challenging behaviour, and 5) self-disruptive behaviour (1998, p.2). In response, Watkins and Wagner (2000) have argued that low-level, persistent disruptive behaviour is the 'most troublesome'; specifically, 'talking out of turn' is the most difficult to manage (2000, p.1). The latest exclusion figures for primary, secondary, and special schools in England for 2017–2018 (the latest figures available from the DfE as of August 2019) suggest that persistent disruptive behaviour is still 'the most common reason' for permanent exclusions at 34% (2,700 students) and fixed-term exclusions at 30% (123,100 students; DfE, 2019, p.5).

Historical literature and discussion

If we consider some of the mid- to late-20th-century educational research with regard to student behaviour (see The Underwood Report, 1955; The Warnock Report, 1978; Galloway

and Goodwin, 1987; The Elton Report, 1989), along with some early 21st-century research and press reports (see Gowers et al., 2000; Cole et al., 2002; Tn Independent, 2008; The Steer Report, 2009; House of Commons Education Committee, Behaviour and Discipline in Schools, First Report of Session 2010–11 [2011]; Bennett, 2017), this literature reveals a plethora of documentation relating to mutinies over school holidays, such as at Manchester Grammar, 1690; student uprisings in Winchester, 1710, which were dubbed 'The Winchester Rebellion; teachers being taken hostage in Winchester, 1818; the Uppingham Revolt, 2010; and student rioting at Fir Vale School, 2018. This literature also suggests that, when discussing the historic battle of disruptive student behaviour, it is not a straw man argument of a 'necessary evil'; rather, the discussion is a chronological recognition of the fact that this is a centuries-old problem which continues to the present day (Cole, 2004).

Indeed, as Cole (2004) has argued, from early research literature (mid-19th century; see Carpenter, 1851), the following descriptors have been used for disruptive students: 'children of perishing and dangerous classes', 'street arabs', 'moral imbeciles', and 'maladjusted children'. It appears that these descriptors not only cite stereotypical views of students, but also, as Tomlinson (2001) has stated, the role education can play 'in the reproduction of social inequalities'. Tomlinson has further argued that, when student access to the necessary help and education is restricted, this can act 'as a dominant form of exclusion' (Wearmouth et al., 2004). In essence, then, an early examination of the literature presents definitive knowledge of the on-going issue of disruptive behaviour, along with the historic studies and results which have occurred within the deeper, on-going issue of attempting to manage that behaviour.

Recent literature and discussion

In recent literature (see DfE, 2012; Mercken et al., 2012; Hughes et al., 2018; Miller et al., 2013; Scwab et al., 2019; Ertesvag, 2016), the approach to reporting disruptive student behaviour within educational research appears to be dominated by the 'numbers'; the particular reporting body appears to be concerned with quantifiable data along with increases and decreases of particular types of behaviour. An example of this is DfE (2012), which has analysed data regarding pupil behaviour in England. In the report, a National Union of Teachers Survey stated that 69% of its 2,575 members reported disruptive behaviour 'weekly or more frequently', and 47% experienced frequent defiance 'weekly or more' (DfE, 2012,

p.12). The majority of the literature (see ATL, 2010; 2011, Hallam and Rogers, 2008; Continental Research, 2004; Ofsted, 2005) states that frequent, 'low-level' disruptive behaviour is the most common form of misbehaviour. Additionally, the report also highlights that there are 158,000 pupils in mainstream, state-funded schools (primary, secondary, and special schools) with behavioural, emotional, and social difficulties (BESD; DfE, 2012; see also DfE, 2011). This is an increase from 1.7% in 2004 to 2.1% in 2011 (DfE, 2012; see also DfES, 2004; DfE, 2011).

Furthermore, standalone behavioural studies (see Mercken et al., 2012; Hughes et al., 2018; Miller et al., 2010; Scwab et al., 2018; Ertesvag, 2016) have involved hundreds of participants. As a result of questionnaires used as the primary means of gathering data, an array of quantitative data has been produced which has suggested trends, modes, and inclinations towards a cursory 'cause and effect' with regard to student behaviour (Pritchard, 2009, p.5; Ayers et al., 2002; Ball et al., 2012; Riley, 2012). A potential result of this research involved with or commissioned by the DfE is the enactment of school policy (Docking, 2018; DfE, 2010; 2012). Ball et al. (2012) have argued that a key stage of policy lies between makers and policy enactment. The 'maker' is the civil servant who creates the policy, and the 'enactment' is completed by the people in the context in which it is supposed to be implemented. Ball has further argued that this creates another issue: policy is made and then enacted in this manner because of 'some collide or overlap producing contradictions or incoherence or confusion' (Ball et al. 2012, p.7).

It should be noted that some literature (Sisco, 2009; Wearmouth et al., 2004; Nind et al., 2006; Ayers, 2000) critiques these reports and their approaches. As Sisco (2009) has argued, a school policy which advocates a 'whole school approach' attempts to create a consensus thesis among staff. According to Sisco's research, the staff may be 'willing to try anything' while employing policy-driven 'ladders of consequence' and citing how 'behaviour can be changed' (Sisco, 2009). However, this approach can create a one-size-fits-all scenario, which the rhetorical and institutional frames of a policy may advocate, but the action frame, i.e., the day-to-day implementation of the policy, does not address; therefore, the underlying student needs could be overlooked (Wearmouth et al., 2004; Nind et al., 2006). The literature cited argues that policy addresses the culmination or end product of disruptive behaviour, which is met with punitive or preventative means (Ayers et el, 2000; Nind et al., 2006). Justified with reference to legal statutes, however, neither the cursory veneer of policy nor the

meta-cultural frame go far enough in understanding either the interface of disruptive behaviour or its antecedents.

One potential result of dissatisfaction with policy (Mejias, 2017) is that the field becomes littered with the latest advice for handling behaviour management; this could be pedagogical advocacy related to a specific style or a book trying to sell a fool-proof behaviour management method (see www.topnotchteaching.com for 'five tips that actually work'; www.Sec-ed.co.uk 'NQT Special'; www.theconfidentteacher.com 'top 10 tips for behaviour management'; and www.teacherhead.com for a Bill Rogers video series; all accessed 2018). Thus, teaching appears to have become fickle, in that teachers still try to address the on-going issue of disruptive student behaviour using the latest innovation. Further, there may be a tendency towards what Ball (1998) has called a 'mythologising' of the situation. Statements such as 'not there yet', 'whole-school initiative', and 'behaviour is everyone's responsibility' could act as potential motivators towards an 'idealised state' of improving a situation (Ball, 1998, p.81). Furthermore, the appointment of individuals whom press reports dub 'behaviour tsars', the most recent being Tom Bennett (2019), adds to the potential mythological view. The continuation of this practice alone creates a self-serving perpetuation of the circumstance and, along with a style of thinking, removes what Slee and Allan (2005) have argued is imperative for 'thinking otherwise' (2005, p.16). Mythologisation may contribute to an area of schooling which is in dire need of reconstruction (Slee and Allan, 2005). What follows is a discussion and review of the key areas of literature surrounding behaviour management.

The behaviourist perspective

The behaviourist perspective is one of the dominant areas within discussions of behaviour management, and this approach is both vehemently recommended and engrained within English schools (Harold and Corcoran, 2013; Hart, 2010). The popularity and embedding of the behaviourist perspective could be considered policy from policy-makers who are not from the teaching profession. A potential consequence is that education initiatives are enacted through government policies (Education and Inspections Act, 2006; Department for Education, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c) along with the school inspectorate system and whole-school behaviour policies. The behaviourist approach originates in Pavlovian classical conditioning (1930) and Skinner's operant conditioning (1938), and it argues that behaviour can be learned and unlearned. In essence, the literature advocates behaviour which

is the result of the individual's learning within a particular environment (Ayers et al., 2002 p.8; Gross, 2005 p.43). If we delve further into the literature, we discover that the behaviourist perspective posits a relationship between stimulus and response. Pritchard (2009) has described this approach as the 'stimulus-response theory' (2009, p.6), whereby an individual 'responds' to certain 'stimuli'. In the real world, this is best described as a 'stimulus-response' relationship through examples of 'responsive practice' which, according to neuropsychologists, is the 'reinforcement of particular neural pathways in the brain' (Pritchard, 2009, p.8; Anderson and Dron, 2011, p. 86; Ayers, 2000, p. 10). In a classroom context, this could include posters on walls, classroom contracts, and home/school agreements. In addition, this is evidenced through the use of rewards for good behaviour and sanctions for bad behaviour. The view is that good behaviour is expected and continues when demonstrated, and bad behaviour ceases or does not occur (See Gross, 2005, p171–2 and Cornwall, 2004 pp. 272–3 for further discussion).

The overt, measurable, and observable

Here, we become aware that the focus on individual behaviour within this perspective is that which is 'overt, observable, and measurable' and excludes any reference to the unconscious processes of the mind and genetic or environmental influences (Ayers et al., 2000, p.7; Payne, 2015). The most commonly cited literature further argues that examining the unconscious is viewed as 'an unscientific methodology' and that maladaptive behaviour is a 'product of a person's history of conditioning.' In summary, there are no underlying causes regarding unconscious conflict; therefore, what is learned (maladaptive behaviour) can be unlearned (adaptive behaviour; Ayers, 2000, pp.8–9; Gross, 2005).

Rewards and sanctions

This overt state-sponsorship of behaviourist principles positively reinforces a classical stance of managing student behaviour through a method of reinforcement and punishment. In UK schools, this has led to the compulsory adoption of a reward and sanction system (Payne, 2015; Wilkins, 2011; West et al., 2011; Martindale, 2019). As a result, schools are forced to adopt and become adept at rewarding good behaviour and punishing bad behaviour based upon principles advocated by Bandura (1971) and Premack (1962). The argument is that doing so motivates changing patterns of behaviour (Skinner 1931; Ullman et al., 1965;

Elmore et al., 2010; Gurney, 2018) which ultimately improve the class work rate, performance, and the promotion of pro-social behaviours (Ayers, 2000, p.8; Gross, 2005, pp.17-18; Paine, 2015). The goal is that student behaviour is motivated by anticipating consequences, as well as the memory of past, reinforced behaviours (Payne, 2015, p.485).

Moreover, Mansfield (2007) and Way (2011) have highlighted the 'authoritarian nature of policy' as one which may be 'over-implied' for a minority of students, thus creating a lack of inclusivity. This is suggested through their study on the importance of how students perceive rules and their rapport with teachers. The result is a positive correlation between greater compliance with the rules; positive working relationships between teachers and students are evident ('co-agency'). Way (2011) has emphasised that a further effect of the limit of this approach is the reliance upon an implicit imbalance of power within the classroom, i.e., between teacher and student.

This imbalance may lead to what Canter and Canter (2001) and Canter (2010) have called 'assertive discipline', which can be defined as a behaviour management approach which relies upon the imbalance of power between students and teachers. In the assertive discipline approach, rules and sanctions are predetermined, usually through school policy (Payne, 2015, pp.485–486), which is detrimental to teachers and classroom management because it does not allow teachers to use professional discretion. Furthermore, this strategy exists at the event horizon between 'control of' and 'warmth towards' students. In essence, once applied to a behavioural situation, this strategy cannot be transposed (Canter and Canter, 2001; see also Ahmad and Sahak, 2009, for further discussion).

White and Warfa (2011) have argued that a student may 'do right' for the sake of a reward; Immanuel Kant (1900/2003) also highlighted this point, arguing that, as a result, when the student 'goes out into the world', they learn that 'good is not always rewarded nor wickedness always punished' (p.363). Therefore, the behaviourist approach reiterates the Kantian view of children who are punished when they misbehave and rewarded when they behave; they may become adults who adapt their behaviour to suit their own advantage (White and Warfa, 2011, pp.57–58). Emmer and Aussiker (1990) and Payne (2015) have reiterated this argument, stating that, although there may be a 'perceived' improvement with regard to student behaviour, there is 'little evidence of real change following [student] training in assertive discipline' (Payne, 2015, p.485). Furthermore, this approach lends itself to the concept of a 'passive pupil', thereby failing to investigate and/or acknowledge any

further approaches or motivators which may serve as more effective classroom management tools (Paine, 2015; Parker et al., 2016; Ryan, 2016; Ingersoll and Collins, 2018).

Behaviourism and student motivation

Further examination of the literature surrounding the use of rewards and sanctions shows that behaviourism makes assumptions regarding the nature of student motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000) have defined motivation as the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome, and they have argued that intrinsic motivation is adversely impacted by extrinsic forms of motivation (2000, p.71–2; see also Standage et al. 2005; Al-Dhamit and Kreishan, 2016). Further studies in this area demonstrate a complicated relationship between rewards and intrinsic motivation. The key conclusion in the literature is that school-age students 'are unlikely to be reliably motivated by extrinsic rewards' (see Cameron and Pierce 1994; 1996; Lepper et al. 1996; Ryan and Deci 1996; Lepper 1988; Kohn 1996; Kohn 1999; Ryan et al., 2001; 2012; 2017; Joussemet et al. 2004; Williams, 2018).

Further research provides a deeper perspective of the use of rewards and sanctions regarding students' perception of their use (Shreeve et al., 2002; see also Payne, 2015; Moseley et al., 2000; Dweck, 2000). Shreeve et al. (2002) have stated that, within the context of secondary schools (six within their study), sanctions were linked to behaviour, and rewards were linked to work. Although this may seem a rudimentary and somewhat obvious statement, the study highlighted the dual approach within behaviourism toward both 'task' and 'behaviour', along with the use of praise within the classroom (see Houghton et al. 1990; Beaman and Wheldall 2000; Burnett 2002; Henderlong and Lepper 2002; Kalis et al., 2007; Payne-Woolridge 2010; Pisacreta et al. 2011; Simonsen et al. 2013). Furthermore, Shreeve et al. (2002) have argued that, when used consistently, the system of rewards and sanctions can be effective. However, rewards were less effective with older students, and 'higher-ability' students were rewarded 'more than average- and lower-ability students'. In addition, despite the use of tangible rewards (sweets, money, fast food vouchers), many teachers highlighted individual feedback as the 'reward' which they believed 'students were best motivated by'. More specifically, this feedback concerned classwork they had completed well and suggestions for improvement (2002, pp.252–253). One fundamental aspect of the context of this study is that, where students have an 'intrinsic desire' to succeed and achieve through learning, 'rewards and penalties may be redundant'. This intrinsic motivation comes from

good teaching and positive working relationships between teachers and students. Importantly, this intrinsic nature was not only seen to work with high-ability students; it also worked with disaffected students, as well (2002, p.254).

The effects of praise

Further studies performed in schools have considered the impact and effectiveness of praise. Houghton et al. (1989; 1990) and Merrett and Tang (1994) have discovered that, in the early years of education, praise is more suited to classroom work than behaviour. Further, the study also showed the importance of the family/school relationship system with regard to praise and rewards (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.74). Examples included letters sent to parents, telephone calls, and postcards; however, the studies also showed that, as the students aged, the impact of praise diminished in value for them. With regard to sanctions, it is important to note that subsequent literature (Ferguson et al., 1998; Ayers, 2002, p.15; Payne, 2015) states that sanctions are far more effective when publicly given, i.e., in front of the class, which is at odds with Bennett (2017), who states this should be done 'privately' (Bennett, 2017). However, Shreeve et al. (2002) have further highlighted that 'good teachers' who motivate students seldom needed a formal behaviour structure in order to manage behaviour because of the positive working relationships they had built with students (see Corbett and Norwich, 2004, pp.27–33 for further discussion on the principle of 'co-agency'). Cornwall (2004) has also highlighted this point, arguing that teachers who are successful in their management of behaviour do so because they win the 'trust, respect, and often liking of young people' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.232).

Summary of the behaviourist approach

In summary, the literature on disruptive student behaviour suggests that behaviourist approaches have given way to understanding how to approach behaviour from a more cognitive perspective (Bandura 1986; 1989; Zimmerman 1990; Bruning et al., 1995; Phillips 1995). As a result of the top-down nature of this approach, behaviourist ideals continually underpin discussions on classroom management and the continuum of managing disruptive student behaviour. Further, Harold and Corcoran's (2013) and Hart's (2010) review of the behaviourist approach demonstrates three shortcomings:

1) The reductionist nature of the model
2) The negation of the intricacies which can surround challenging behaviour

3) The contextual factors which may affect a child's behaviour

Moreover, 'the one size fits all' stance, which appears to be advocated without question, does not consider 'the holistic, constructivist nature of human learning or the power of intrinsic motivation' (Payne, 2015). Finally, the behaviourist approach does not lend itself to the perspectives of 'human agency' and the 'child's voice' because it encourages passivity, control, and obedience rather than empowerment, autonomy, and self-regulation (Hart, 2010; Harold and Corcoran, 2013; Paine, 2015; Clough, 2004; Nind et al., 2005, pp.73–77).

The psychodynamic perspective

The psychodynamic perspective argues that the cause of disruptive behaviour is located within 'the unconscious functioning of the psyche' (Ayers, 2002, p.44; see also Castonguay et al., 2012; Gross, 2005). This approach comes from Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytical theory and goes beyond the behaviourist approach by emphasising the analysis of the unconscious mind (Gross, 2005 p.74). The literature states that the origin of disruptive behaviour is a conflict within a person's ego, or the dynamic interplay between the opposing mental forces of consciousness and unconsciousness, which act out the 'struggle between two psychical forces grouping against each other' (Freud, 1910, pp.25–26; see also Ayers, 2000, p.44). Gross (2005) has argued that the theoretical nature of this model focuses on the belief that memories of traumatic events affect conscious behaviour and thought (Gross, 2005, p.105). It is important to note that this approach is therapeutic in nature, and attempts to utilise it within the classroom have been made through activities such as 'circle time' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.67). Nevertheless, the literature argues that this activity sits at the rudimentary end of the psychodynamic perspective and would be better suited to an ecosytemic approach (see Cooper and Upton, 1991; Mosley and Tew, 2013; Wearmouth et al., 2008 for further discussion of an ecosystemic approach).

According to Ayers et al. (2000), the use of the psychodynamic approach in schools centres on Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory, which states that 'attachment' is the 'lasting psychological connectedness between human beings' (Bowlby, 1969, p. 194). Additionally, it emphasises relationships which are both secure and trusting (Frederickson and Cline 2002; 2009). Within the classroom, we can divide the literature into the two key areas of early childhood (infant and primary school) and secondary school when considering the practicalities of implementing the psychodynamic approach.

In primary schools, attachment theory emphasises stable, caring, and trusting relationships with adults, as these provides the basis for nurturing groups as an intervention to help children learn developmentally appropriate behaviours (Boxall, 1976; 2002 Bennathan and Boxall, 2013; Boorn et al., 2010; Hughes and Schloessen, 2014). Fonagy (2001) has stated that attachment theory has been described as 'mechanistic, non-dynamic, and explicated according to misunderstandings of psychoanalytic theory' (Fonagy, 2001, p.1). However, Slater (2007) has argued that, since its inception and exploration, Bowlby's theory has been praised for providing a clear model of normal child development (Slater, 2007). Despite criticisms, additions, and alterations, the basic principles of attachment theory are now widely accepted and provide a solid theoretical basis for nurture groups (Furness, 2014, p.33).

Nurture groups

Nurture groups were first formulated by Marjorie Boxall in 1970 with the aim of fostering social development, clear communication, supporting and caring relationships, cooperation, and positive interactions (Boxall 2002). Thirty-seven years later, Sanders (2007) reported that children attending a nurture group provision made significantly greater emotional and behavioural gains compared to a matched sample of primary school children with similar levels of need without a nurture group (Furness, 2014, p.17). However, Sanders has highlighted a bias concerning generalisations about nurture groups: that is, that this form of 'specialist intervention' is given to children who are identified as having behavioural difficulties and removed from their everyday classes; therefore, it is not 'classroom behaviour management' in the classic sense of the phrase (Sanders, 2007; see also Scott and Lee, 2009).

Regarding the post-primary level, Furness (2014) has stated that no secondary schools in England have nurture groups, which were initially created for pre-school and primary age children (2014, p.15). Her work emphasises the importance and benefit of nurture groups in both phases of schooling, with a focus upon secondary schooling, specifically, in countering bullying and promoting teacher/student relationships within the school (2014, pp.85–87). Building upon Furness' argument, subsequent studies (Wentzel 2002; Shaver and Mikulincer, 2007; 2010; Riley, 2012; Cortina and Liotti, 2010) have argued that teachers play a role akin to that of parents in terms of providing consistent, positive expectations and a disposition towards nurturing; in essence, teachers act as caregivers in loco parentis. Further, Riley (2012) has asserted that part of human development is a gradual displacement of parents as

the primary caregivers during the stages of childhood and adolescence. In part, teachers within the proximity of and care for the child comprise this replacement. The child's ability to recognise motivational goals, their own and those of others, and to further recognise that their goals may not align with those of others, enables them to change and adapt their behaviour in order to suit the teacher and environment (Riley 2012 p.114; see also Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Walshaw, 2013; and Kesner, 2000, for further discussion).

Therapeutic approaches

The literature (Fazel et al. 2014; Neil and Christensen, 2014; Calear and Christenden, 2010) advocates three key approaches within the therapeutic framework for dealing with disruptive student behaviour: universal approaches, selective approaches, and indicated approaches.

Universal approaches

The literature defines universal approaches as interventions which are therapeutic in nature, such as cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) and techniques for stress reduction (Fazel et al. 2014). Universal approaches have also been used and studied within schools, particularly within behaviour management, mood studies, and anxiety disorders (Johnson et al. 2014). Further, the literature indicates that reviews of CBT-based interventions in schools have been performed with a specific focus on student depression and anxiety (Conrad et al. 2011; Neil and Christensen, 2014; Calear and Christenden, 2010). These interventions included what related research defines as 'universal prevention programmes' (Fazel et al., 2014). Several studies (Stein et al. 2003; Neil and Christensen, 2014; Calear and Christenden, 2010) also state that, following a review of the programmes in which anxiety disorders and depression interventions were studied, the overall consensus was that universal approaches were not as effective as 'selective and indicated approaches' (see below). Further, questions have been asked as to whether universal interventions should have taken place without evidence of potential success (Spence and Shortt, 2007).

A possible rationale for adopting these approaches is that, as has been argued (Stallard, 2010; Manassis, 2014), universal approaches are the least intrusive into school life and are cost effective. As a result, schools may adopt such approaches based on these factors. However, it could be argued that the comprehensive nature of these approaches requires a

sustained and ‘concerted effort’ by all school staff, and as a result, they may be difficult to implement (Fazel et al., 2014).

Selective approaches

Fazel et al. (2014) and Conrod et al. (2011) have defined selective approaches as interventions which promote coping strategies with the aim of reducing the development of problem behaviours. Conrod et al. (2011) have stated that use of selective approaches within school has usually been more successful than universal approaches in addressing what Fazel et al. have called ‘risk factors’, such as substance misuse amongst adolescents (Ibid). In terms of programme delivery within schools, Tyrer and Fazel (2014) have noted that selective approach prevention programmes are usually delivered to small groups. The literature highlights the ‘Coping Power Programme’ as one such example, and it is designed for students who display aggressive behaviours and drug misuse. The literature thus suggests that there is evidence of the successful use of selective approaches for students who experience behavioural difficulties, anxiety, and/or depressive disorders (Neil and Christensen, 2014; Calear and Christenden, 2010; Castellanos and Conrod, 2006).

Indicated approaches

Katz et al. (2013) and Desilva et al. (2013) have defined indicated approaches as interventions which are used to treat post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety, depression, and self-harm. Within a school setting, they usually take the form of ‘10-session CBT intervention sessions’ for students who have had or have a history of exposure to ‘potentially traumatic events’ (Stein et al. 2003). In addition, Katz et al. (2013) have suggested that, based on recent reviews, indicated approaches appeared to reduce the symptoms of depression to a greater degree than universal or selected programmes (Desilva et al. 2013; Fazel et al. 2014; Ay and Save, 2004).

Thus, the literature appears to suggest that therapeutic approaches in schools can be successful but require a comprehensive commitment and training by the school and school staff (Fazel et al. 2014). This may be ‘difficult to implement’, but more importantly, the skill set and time required for a successful approach may not be accessible to classroom teachers; therefore, therapeutic approaches may remain the province of educational psychologists (Ayers et al. 2000 and Ayers and Gray, 2013).

Educational psychologists' role in schools

Additional studies (Conoley and Conoley, 1982; Figg and Stoker, 1990; Dougherty, 1994; Wagner, 1995) have argued that the preliminary use of the psychodynamic approach in secondary schools is performed by an educational psychologist in a consultancy role and working individually with teachers or head teachers, specifically, where there is a behavioural concern regarding a particular student (Farouk, 2007, p.207). The use of psychodynamics in secondary schools has evolved into what Farouk (2007) has argued is a 'group work' approach based on the research of Gerda Hanko (1985; 1999) and subsequent work by Stringer et al. (1992) and by Gill and Monsen (1995; 1996). This takes the form of applying a 'problem analysis framework' for the staff to support each other within the setting. This framework consists of three stages:

1) Gather information and assess school resources, share findings, and negotiate the need for educational psychologist (EP) input.

2) Apply behaviour management interventions.

3) Hold regular teacher-support group sessions with an EP acting as a consultant.

(2007, p.208)

Farouk has observed that the 'group' 'consisted of individuals whose opinions and perceptions interact in a dynamic and at times unpredictable way' (2007, p.209). Further, previous research by Hawkins and Shohet (1989) has demonstrated a concern that 'constructive work' may not take place because the group is 'taken up with its own dynamics' (Farouk, p.209). The literature suggests that this approach can create 'group work' where the teachers' focus is on themselves and not on the student(s) they aim to help (Farouk, 2007). In order to counteract this, Farouk, in line with Gill and Monsen (1995; 1996), has argued that staff can be advised not to be 'silent' or 'too talkative', and discussions should be 'open' and 'trusting'. However, any purveyor of this approach needs to be aware that the group discussions can either 'inhibit or facilitate any planned intervention' (2007, pp.208–209; see also Gill and Monsen, 1996).

The discussion of psychodynamics also moves away from 'group work' and reconsiders how to address disruptive student behaviour with direct student involvement. In secondary school, the literature posits a 'significant revival' of the provisions and use of counselling services in UK schools (Jenkins and Polat, 2005, p.3). Further, within the last 15

years, a large number, almost 75%, of secondary schools have provided a therapeutic approach to student welfare. However, there is virtually no available evidence on feedback concerning how the service runs, the service users, or their experiences (Polat and Jenkins, 2005). A review and evaluation of UK school-based counselling has indicated that interventions do help (Adamson et al., 2006; 2009; Fox and Butler, 2003/2009; McKenzie et al., 2011). Moreover, a review of UK schools demonstrates that counselling services offered at a secondary school level are associated with large improvements in mental health (Cooper, 2009). The conclusion from the literature, therefore, is that the psychodynamic approach works as a counselling tool.

Summary of the psychodynamic approach

A key aspect of the psychodynamic approach is the use of nurture groups as a national initiative at a pre-secondary school level; however, as Furness (2014) has noted, there is a significant gap in their usage at a secondary level. This may have 'huge implications' for educational psychologists and other education professionals (2014, p.20). However, using this approach effectively requires considerable training due to the complex nature of psychodynamics. As a result, Garner and Gaines (1996) have argued that this type of intervention is beyond the reach of, and is not favoured by, many classroom teachers (Mcphee and Craig, 2009). As Ayers et al. (2000) have claimed, psychodynamics is the 'intervention which may ultimately remain the domain of the trained specialist'; without specialist training, the aim for the classroom practitioner is to 'manage better the stress which working with these pupils can create' (2000, p.44). Here, we see the distancing of selves between the teacher and the student with regard to the latter's disruptive behaviour. I make this statement not as a needless criticism, but as a classroom practitioner looking to access and be assisted by a behavioural intervention. This approach is a tool which is nevertheless 'out of reach' for classroom teachers.

Scaturo (2001) and Shelder (2010) have argued that one of the key limitations of this approach is that understanding and making sense of a student's psychological issues cannot always be accomplished within psychodynamic therapy. Furthermore, the literature acknowledges that a key strength of the approach is the capacity to identify anger and resentment which could stem from family issues. The lack of care resulting from the approach's neutrality and a reliance on pharmacological intervention and short-term cognitive

self-help tools while awaiting medication may lead to 'client deterioration' (Scaturo, 2001; Shelder, 2010).

Systemic approaches

Systemic approaches to understanding disruptive student behaviour appear to stem away from the rigidity of behaviourism and the apparent clinical nature of psychodynamics. The literature (Ayers, 2000; 2013; Sutton, 1999; Hesketh and Olney, 2004) suggests two key approaches: the ecosytemic approach (Molnar and Lindquist, 1989; Cooper and Upton, 1991) and ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). There are similarities and differences between the two, which are discussed in sections below. The literature provides a broad definition of a systems approach through the description of its two main features: 1) a system is the assembly of parts or components which connect together, and 2) the parts of the system affect each other (Sutton, 1999). Hesketh and Olney have built on Sutton's description of these features, further stating that 'a change in one part of the system will facilitate a change in another part' (2004, p.224). In addition, they have stated that, 'as individuals we operate within other systems in terms of our emotional and social selves' (2004, p.224). This suggests that a person's behaviour is more than 'cause and effect' when viewed through a systemic lens. More specifically, disruptive student behaviour should be understood both within the context in which it occurs and, with regard to the student, 'the context of the many influences on his or her life' (2004, p.225). Further, when a student's disruptive behaviour is considered within the 'emotional complexities' of the systems in which they exist, research in this field suggests that their behaviour can both be better understood and may also have meaning. Wearmouth et al. (2004) have supported this view and have argued that the specific focus on the complexities of disruptive student behaviour should be parents and siblings, the wider family, and the general family constellation. Moreover, where possible, socioeconomic status, gender, ethnicity, religion, culture, and physical and mental health should also be considered (Hesketh and Olney, 2004).

The ecosystemic approach

In terms of the application of systemic approaches to behaviour management, Ayers (2000) has suggested that the ecosystemic approach (Molnar and Lindquist, 1989; Cooper and Upton, 1991) has some parity with ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), but some differences may make the ecosystemic approach unsuitable for this study. The ecosystemic approach is rooted in systems theory (von Bertalanffy, 1968) and the three schools of

psychodynamic therapy (usually known as family therapy; see Bateson et al. [1956] for further discussion; Cooper and Upton, 1991; Ayers et al., 2000). The three schools are the Structural school (Minuchin, 1974), the Milan School (Selvini-Palazzoli et al. 1974), and the Strategic school (Haley, 1970). Further, Cooper and Upon (1991) and Wearmouth et al. (2004) have argued that the approach is also rooted in the work of Greg Bateson (1972, 1979), specifically the areas of epistemology and psychiatry. It must be noted, however that Molnar and Lindquist (1989) developed the process of applying this approach to a school context. In essence, the approach is underpinned by three key concepts:

1) Problem behaviour does not originate within the individual who displays the behaviour, but from the interaction between that individual and others
2) Causation patterns in interactional behaviour are circular (or 'recursive') rather than linear.
3) Change in any part of a system will change the whole system and reverberate through related systems. (Cooper and Upton, 1991, p.23)

The literature states that an ecosystemic approach is based on the idea that people exist within interactional structures, e.g., families and schools, which function in a way which is 'analogous to the natural ecosystem' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.68). Further, the two key behaviour management interventions are 'sleuthing and reframing' (Ayers et al. 2000 and 2013; more needed). Sleuthing is when 'teachers raise questions and look for clues in order to solve problem behaviour' (Ayers et al. 2000 and 2013;). Further, teachers should endeavour to analyse their interpretation of student behaviour and focus on encouraging positive changes to negative behaviour. In addition, a positive interpretation of 'problem behaviour' can create a cycle of positive interactions and be perceived as a 'fresh start' (Ibid).

Reframing is based on the maxim that if interpretations change, behaviours will change (Ayers et al. 2000, p.85–86). According to Ayers et al. (2000 and 2013) and McGuckin and Minton (2014), this is the most-used intervention within the ecosystemic approach, and 'teachers should look for positive interpretations of problem behaviour, i.e., "reframe" the behaviour'. More specifically, teachers should adopt the following procedures for reframing:

1) Identify negative interpretations and responses to problem behaviour
2) Consider plausible, alternative, positive interpretations of the behaviour

3) Respond differently to the problem behaviour based on the positive interpretation of that behaviour. (Ayers et al. 2000, p.86–87)

An example of this reframing (Tyler and Jones, 2002; Ayers et al., 2013) is that, if a student is out of their seat, the teacher could interpret this as a defiant act (negatively). The teacher may also interpret the student's actions as 'they may be struggling with the work' (positively). Using this approach, if the teacher were to pursue the negative aspect, they would reprimand the student, who may not still be able to perform the task. If, however, the teacher considered the behaviour in a positive way, the situation as Ayers et al. have argued 'can be turned from one of conflict to one of co-operation' (Ayers et al. 2000, p.86). Ayers et al. further state that 'confrontation will cease' because both the teacher and student realise that it is the 'student's learning difficulty' which needs solving. Accordingly, one could make the argument that viewing a student's behaviour in either a positive or negative 'frame' based on the overt, observed behaviour is a form of categorisation which may lead to stereotyping students (Buchanan et al. 2007).

Ayers et al. (2000 and 2013) also state that the ecosystemic approach advocates two further interventions which, it could be argued, derive from the reframing process:

1) Positive connotation of motive.

2) Positive connotation of function.

(2000, p.86 and 2013; p.94 see also Molnar and Lindquist, 1989; Cooper, Smith, and Upton, 1994)

A positive connotation of motive is an intervention based on the view that a teacher could perceive a student's 'problem behaviour' as 'positively motivated'. We can consider one of the DfE descriptors of disruptive behaviour, that of 'low-level disruption' (DfE, 2012), specifically, a student talking to another student sitting next to them. Ayers et al. argue that a teacher may 'construe' this behaviour as having a negative motive, e.g., off-task behaviour, and the teacher should 'consider a plausible alternative' (2000, p.86). The 'plausible alternative' is that the student is seeking information about the task from another student. The teacher's positive construing of the behaviour is that the student seeks help, and the teacher's response to this is that they will increase their support for that student. In addition, a positive interpretation of function using the same example could be that the student seeking help from a classmate highlights the fact that the work may need explaining; therefore, as Ayers et al.

argue, ‘the student is paradoxically assisting the teacher’ (see also Ayers et al., 2013 and Wearmouth et al., 2004).

If we examine each intervention in turn, we become aware, as Ayers and Gray (2013) have suggested, that ‘there are equally valid interpretations of behaviour and that by reinterpreting behaviours in a positive way a cycle of positive behaviours and interactions can replace a series of negative interactions and behaviours’ (2013, p.94). This suggests that this approach may take into account the possibility of other factors with regard to perceived disruptive behaviour, thereby going beyond the overt, measurable, and observable to consider different interpretations of student behaviour and interaction. However, the literature also states that the ecosystemic approach has to be ‘evaluated’ in order to measure the success of an intervention. Ayers et al. (2000) have stated, ‘observable changes can be recorded through observation schedules. Changes in perception and interpretations can be elicited through questionnaires, rating scales, and checklists’; this can be achieved through ‘behavioural, cognitive, and sociometric assessment techniques’ (2000, p.87).

In line with Tyler and Jones (2002), recent studies using the ecosystemic approach (see Cooper and Upton 2017; Kourkoutas et al. 2010; McGuckin and Minton, 2014; Rosemary and Elsa, 2011; Ayers and Gray, 2013) suggest that the teachers who implement it believe it is a positive approach despite levels of scepticism (2002, p.32). More specifically, on average, 60% of the participants within their studies who used the approach ‘felt more positive’ and ‘felt more confident’ using it. Further, teachers felt that the structure of the approach, whether reframing or finding a positive connotation of motive, helped in their attempt to use the intervention. Tyler and Jones cite specific feedback from teachers who used the approach: ‘What ecosystemics actually does is give you a structure to manage the whole situation’; ‘I think ecosystemics is like a little package because it does give you a structure of how to look at the behaviour’; finally, ‘I’ve seen my own development, being able to structure my management of the behaviour by that (ecosystemic) method’ (2002, p.33-34). The literature appears to provide insight into the techniques and workings of an ecosystemic approach with some empirical research to support its continued use in the classroom.

My concern in the case of my study, and particularly attempting to understand disruptive student behaviour, is that the ecosystemic approach may focus too much upon the system(s) and not enough on the person/environment interrelatedness. Further, it does not

advocate the use of a phenomenological concept (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) of how the student may perceive or experience the environment, and this approach appears to be 'measured' in order to be successful (Ayers and Gray, 2013).

The ecological approach

The final approach to behavioural interventions and the subject of this thesis is the model of an ecological approach, a systems approach originating from the seminal work of Bronfenbrenner (1979). This work, *The Ecology of Human Development*, is the study of the biconditionality between a person and the environments in which they exist, grow, behave, and develop. It addresses how this relationship is affected by changes within environments, between environments, 'and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.21). The criteria for the approach I chose to focus on in this thesis, based on the previous research I have conducted (see Hughes 2013 and 2016), concern the environment and phenomenology:

1) The approach had to suggest the impact of the environment on a person's behaviour and further suggest person-environment interrelatedness (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).
2) The approach also had to take into consideration the impact of the specifics within the environment. An example of this is the positive and negative line of valence produced by objects along with the Piagetian concept of 'object permanence' (Gardener, 2010), which may act as visual metonyms and having for a person.
3) The approach advocated a phenomenological conception of the environment and highlighted the importance of using phenomenology in its research (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

A link between an ecosystemic approach and an ecological approach is clear because they both suggest a focus on the 'systems' in which a person exists. Nevertheless, ecological theory provides a deeper conceptualisation of a person's environment than an ecosystemic approach. Further, ecological theory presents what Ayers at al. (2000) have described as 'embedded systems that have a reciprocal influence on each other' (2000, p.88); more specifically, these are a series of concentric circles within Bronfenbrenner's original (1979) model consisting of the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, and the macrosystem.

Bronfenbrenner has acknowledged the influence of other scholars, such as Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, Kurt Lewin, and Sigmund Freud, stating that he was 'someone who

conceptualised these ideas in a systemic form' through the formation of a model encompassing the micro-, meso-, exo-, and macro-systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; 1988). In her paper 'Ecological Systems Theory: The Person in the Centre of the Circles', Nancy Darling (2007), a former student of Bronfenbrenner's, states that 'the ecology of human development' focuses on examining and emphasising the interrelationship of different processes and their contextual variation (2007, p.203). Darling has further argued that the importance of Bronfenbrenner's work is not his publication of 50 specified hypotheses; rather, it stems from moving developmental psychology away from the 'science of the strange' towards more ecologically valid studies of individuals within their natural environments (2007, p.203–4)

Regarding the definitions at a school level, Ayers et al. (2000) have stated that an ecological approach 'sees behaviour as being influenced by different types of systemic or environmental factors' (2000, p.90). Hornby (2006) has added that behaviour is impacted by 'influences from individuals, parents, peers, school, community, and society' (2006, p.6; see Bradshaw, 2015 and Espelage and Swearer, 2010 for further discussion on the ecological approach to dealing with bullying in schools). Doyle (2013) has argued that the ecology of the classroom contains six key factors: multidimensionality, simultaneity, immediacy, publicness, history, and unpredictability. Each factor can play out in the environment either by itself or simultaneously with others (2005, pp.98–99).

Mcphee and Craig (2009) have argued that the ecological approach can be considered more accessible for classroom teachers because ecological theory seeks to establish the root cause of the problem behaviour. Furthermore, through programmes such as 'staged intervention' and 'restorative practices', it highlights the fact that the behaviour can be beyond the control of the child; e.g., the behaviour may be caused by exposure to negative environments (Berkowitz, 2013, p.20). It must be noted that, when analysing environments in which the child exists, the child is not absolved of responsibility for their behaviour. Rather, applying this approach aids in understanding that behaviour and can assist with the interrelationships between students, staff, and parents/carers. In essence, it forges partnerships and creates interaction in a systemic fashion (which is discussed further below). Moreover, this intervention encourages those involved to consider the child's behaviour and the negative impact that certain environments may have. It also shifts emphasis away from dealing with behaviour in a decontextualized fashion to teaching 'in light of' underlying causes (Mcphee, 2009).

It is important to highlight a review of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, 'Uses and Misuses of Bronfenbrenner's Bioecological Theory of Human Development', published in 2009 by Tudge et al. This study is an analysis of 25 papers published since 2001 which 'claim' to use Bronfenbrenner's model (Tudge et al., 2009, p.198). Tudge and his colleagues state that the rationale for their investigation and subsequent publication is to highlight conceptual confusion within previous works. Furthermore, they aim to ensure that future research involving Bronfenbrenner's theory is 'well served' and 'clearly acknowledged', with its integrity preserved (Tudge et al., 2009, p.199–200). Therefore, in line with advocated practice, in this section, I review works which use Bronfenbrenner's original ecological theory and not the later Person-Process-Context-Time (PPCT) model.

First, we can highlight the fact that Tudge et al. (1997) have also argued for the importance of a historical academic interest in the effects of a child's environment; they further define ecology as the 'study of organism-environment interrelatedness' (1997, p.327). In his article 'The Vision of Urie Bronfenbrenner' published in 2006, Larry Brendtro states that, prior to Bronfenbrenner's development, educators, psychologists, anthropologists, sociologists, and other specialists 'all studied narrow aspects of the child's world'. Bronfenbrenner viewed such research as a rudimentary approach towards the simplified characterisation and research of a person's environment, along with a hypertrophying of the theoretical focus (2006, p.163). Coupled with this, Bronfenbrenner was highly critical of practice which was not ecological, critiquing it as 'the science of the strange behaviour of children in strange situations with strange adults for the briefest possible time' (1977, p.513; 1979, p.19). I argue that the literature suggests the need for what Lerner (2005) has described as a 'watershed contribution to the understanding of human ontogeny'. Therefore, this 'science of the strange', specifically the developmental psychology of the time, is what Bronfenbrenner viewed as a fixed model of investigation (2005, p.13). In summary, as Derksen (2010) has argued in 'The Influence of Ecological Theory in Child and Youth Care: A Review of Literature', research outside of ecological theory is an attempt by the contemporary scientific community to explain human behaviour through empirical reductionism (2010, p.327).

What follows is a breakdown and analysis of Bronfenbrenner's original nested theory in broad relation to how it could be utilised, examined, and defined when working with the students in the Unit in which I work. This is necessary not only to provide a strong

demonstration of the utility of the theory but also to show its ability to present issues which may be of concern, i.e., student, home, family, teacher, school, and policy.

The microsystem

Bronfenbrenner (1979) has defined the microsystem as 'a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics' (1979, p.22). The use of the microsystem (specifically a focus on the home, school, and social lives of the students) can be utilised to study students' behaviour within the Unit. A specific focus is often the child/family/school relationship system, which requires an understanding of the importance of a child's home. DeHart et al. (2004) have stated that, within the microsystem, the family home is the most 'dominant part of a child's immediate environment' (McPhee and Craig, 2009, p.6). Moreover, how a family act at home may directly affect the way a child acts both at home and in the Unit, where they may display similar positive or negative behavioural traits (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.310). Richman's (1977) study, later highlighted by Fortin and Bigras (1997), argues that a key factor within a child's microsystem is that of the parents' relationship with each other. More specifically, if there is a breakdown in a relationship within the home, the child, who is often exposed to and recalls the negativity they have witnessed, may have a tendency to replicate these witnessed behaviours within the Unit (Stanley, 2011, pp.56–57; see also Schnurr and Lohmann 2008; Barter 2009). These behaviours can take the form of defiance, violence, verbal aggression, self-harm, and selective mutism following a traumatic experience. Furthermore, a child displaying physical aggression in the Unit (and many often do) could be the subject of physical discipline by parents (Pagani et al., 2004; 2009). Here, the literature argues, subjecting the child to impulsive and harsh punishment, as well as inconsistencies in parental approaches, may lead to detrimental behaviour (see Deater-Decker and Dodge, 1997; Mcloyd, 1990; Sampson and Laub, 1994; Patterson et al., 1992; Mukherji, 2001). The key factor here is that the 'overt, measurable, and observable' behaviours associated with the behaviourist approach, which the students in the Unit may display, act as a starting point for further investigation.

In addition to this argument, an observational study conducted by Atici and Merry (2001), which compared six classrooms in a British school with six classrooms in a Turkish school, found what the authors describe as the 'classical disrupter'. This type of behaviour is often displayed by students who come into the Unit. Further, their study reveals that children

who deliberately increase their negative behaviour potentially do so in order to receive increased attention from other peers and school staff. Additionally, considering another part of the microsystem, one could also argue that exhibiting this behaviour positively correlates with a lack of attention the child receives from his or her parent(s) at home. An examination of a previous study by Kutnick (1988) on classroom relationships and dynamics reveals that this correlation can also be greatly exacerbated through 'pro-social or anti-social' cultural views. That is, if a child witnesses a parent expressing negativity towards school, he or she may imitate this as a consequence of what Bandura (1971) has described as 'observational learning' (Bandura, 1971). As a result, there could be a dysfunction within the family/school relationship system. This 'mesosytemic interaction' is discussed in the next section.

The Mesosystem

Bronfenbrenner has defined the mesosystem as 'the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates' (1979, p.25). If we consider the family and the Unit as having a relationship within a microsystem, this is an example of what Bronfenbrenner (1979 and 1986) has called mesoystemic interaction, whereby the school and the home are 'connected' by the student. Further, Bronfenbrenner has argued that research within this area may be one-sided as a result of focusing on the effect of the family on a child's behaviour within the Unit, more specifically, how the student engages with staff, peers, tasks, expectations, and the general environment of the Unit and not necessarily because of a focus on how the Unit affects the child at home (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, p.727). Bronfenbrenner has highlighted several studies to support his argument and determine how the relationship between the home and Unit may affect the child's behaviour in the Unit (see Becker and Epstein, 1982; Burns, 1982; Epstein, 1983, 1984; Medrich et al., 1982; Tangriand Leitsch, 1982). Based on Bronfenbrenner's analysis, we can conclude that, in 1986, there may have been a distinct 'gap' within the literature regarding the family/Unit relationship system (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, p.727–8).

More recent studies (McPhee, 2009; Ebersohn and Bouwer, 2015; Fine, 1995) have argued for the concept of mesosystemic triangulation. This may occur where there are difficulties within the family unit, and 'triangulation' occurs in which the child 'sides' with one parent against another. In addition, Mcphee (2009) has highlighted two further concepts: i) the role of the pupil and ii) the 'go-between' between the home/school relationship. In the Unit, the child is a 'pupil', and at home the child is a 'son' or a 'daughter'; however, the child

cannot undertake both roles at the same time. Invariably, where there is a breakdown within the parent/child relationship, children may compensate by emphasising their 'role of the pupil' and allying themselves with the Unit. In contrast, if there is a breakdown within the pupil/Unit relationship, children may emphasise their role of 'son' or 'daughter' and ally themselves with the parents. These potential scenarios, which are not unfamiliar within the lives of the students I work with, are what by Bronfenbrenner has described as 'tensions' and 'modes of interactions' (1986, p.729). McPhee (2009) has noted that, whenever there is an alliance favouring one side over another, it can lead to a rejection of the other. This rejection is demonstrated through behaviour. The key point to emphasise is that, when there is a tripartite breakdown, 'it is invariably the child who is labelled with the problem' (2009, p.12; see also Taylor and Dowling, 1986; Lindquist et al., 1987; Cooper and Upton, 1990).

In line with Bronfenbrenner's thoughts, Mcphee has further argued that the interrelationship between the different microsystems within the mesosystem becomes 'tridactic … and thus allows for possibility of second order effects' across the settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p.523). More specifically, as a result of events such as trauma and abuse which may be happening at home, there may be a 'spill' of the effects, i.e., disruptive or introverted behaviour within the Unit (see Barnes, 2010; Crouter, 1984). Based on the research by Dowling and Osborne (1994) and Romi and Freund (1999), Mcphee further states that the family and the Unit are the two most influential and sustaining factors within a child's life. These studies may highlight the need for more parental involvement with policies relating to discipline.

The exosystem

Bronfenbrenner has defined the exosystem as 'one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person' (1979, p.25). Bronfenbrenner (1979) has argued that the exosystem is usually the part of ecological theory which may directly affect a student but over which they have no control. The term 'exosystem' does not appear to be widely used within the literature of ecological theory; instead, the focus appears to be specific factors within the exosystem.

Within the literature (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; 1986; Kinman et al. 2012; Grosswald, 2003; 2004; Wilson et al. 2007), the key factor which appears to have received the most attention is parent(s) work life, for example shift work or the type of job and its potential

psychogenic effects (stressors), as well as the impact it may have upon the children of shift workers (Barton et al. 1998; Camerino et al. 2010). More specifically, Bronfenbrenner has examined studies of what he describes as 'work absorption', which he argues is a key contributing factor to both the psychogenic effects of work and the impact they may have on family life (see also Kinman et al. 2012). Bronfenbrenner defines work absorption as a description of the extent to which one's work demands a parent's physical and mental energy (Bronfenbrenner, 1979 and 1986). Further, Bronfenbrenner argues that a parent(s)/carer(s) work absorption may lead to what the literature describes as a 'narrowing effect', which suggests that little time may be spent with the child. This in turn may generate feelings of guilt within the parent, and, when mismanaged, could lead to 'irritability and impatience when dealing with the child' (1986, p.729; see also Iskra-Golec et al. 2016). The literature suggests a cyclical process of work absorption, lack of parent-child time, guilt, irritability and impatience, and then a return to work absorption. I have conceptually visualised this in figure 2.1 below.

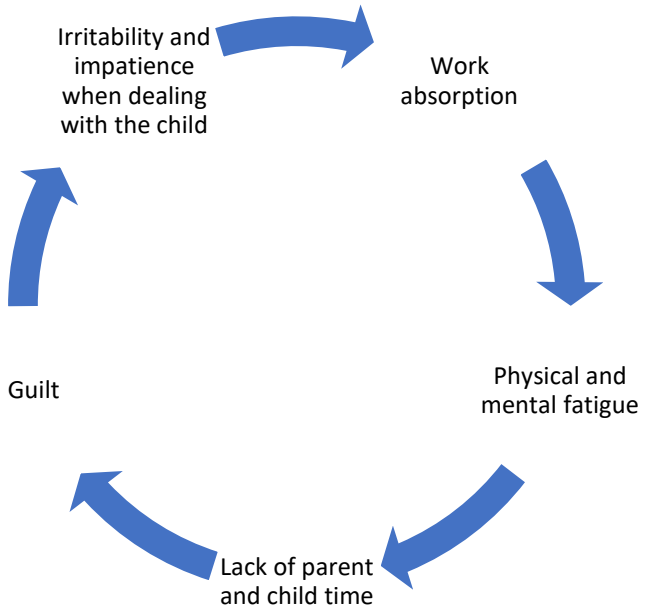

Figure 2.1: The cyclical process of the effects of work absorption on parent and child time.

The potential impact of this on a student within the Unit in which I work is highlighted in what Sanders et al. (2011) have described as 'work to family conflict'. Smith's (1998) study further suggests that, where there is a work-family 'spill' in terms of working hours,

students of shift workers did not perform as well as those of non-shift workers (1998, p.3). However, in terms of the amount of time spent with a child, it was the 'quality rather than the quantity of time spent together' (see also Baumeister, 2010; Reeve, 2014; Kernis, 2003; Hoyle et al. 2019). Sanders et al. have further argued that difficulties with balancing work and family are identified as 'consistent' across the Western developed world, with specific reference to the United Kingdom, the Unites States of America, Canada, and Australia, suggesting that this may be a cultural problem which needs to be addressed (2011, p.1–2). Han (2010) has stated that the impact of two-parent shift-working families may be different from that of a single-parent shift-working family. In a two-parent family, for example, the parents may alternate their shifts around each other's work and the child's schooling in order to 'take turns' caring for the child. However, a single-parent family may not have another adult or family member to look after the child. As a result, a child minder or 'babysitter' may be employed to supervise the child, the impact of which could be evidenced through Bronfenbrenner's argument of 'work absorption' (see above; Han, 2010; Anderson, 2019).

In terms of disruptive student behaviour within the Unit as a further potential impact factor, Smith (1998) has argued that, in a situation with a narrowing effect, a parent may also feel depressed or experience depression. It is important to highlight here that depression may affect the 'behaviour, cognitions, and emotions of the parent' (Smith, 1998 see also Crouter, 1984; Barnes, 2010), which in turn may directly affect the child through the parent being 'emotionally unavailable' because of their low self-esteem and general negative thinking (see Zhang et al. 2017; Paradžik and Maršanić, 2019). Further, parent-child interaction may be altered, and as a result, a child's psychological security could be impaired (McLeod, 2007). Moreover, if the child is in a two-parent family, there could be an increase in marital discord, which can also have a potentially negative affect on the child (CSAT, 2014).

The literature also argues that stressful life circumstances within the exosystem, not only as a result of work absorption but also through extra-marital affairs (see Sori, 2007; Lusterman, 2005; Miller; 2016), traumatic experiences at work (CSAT, 2014; Ren, 2017) and redundancy and job loss, may be associated with disruptive classroom behaviour (Harrington, 1994; Rutter, 1990 see also Sori, 2007; Lusterman, 2005; Miller; 2016). In recent studies, Gassman-Pines and Schenck-Fontaine (2019) have argued that redundancy and job loss may create the situation of 'subjective financial stress' and 'subjective financial hardship', particularly during an economic downturn, within the family home. More specifically, this can happen where there is an objective hardship through what could be described as a general

lack of work and thus a lack of income and financial security for the family. This, the literature argues, is coupled with subjective hardship, and the internal disposition factors of worry, stress, and rumination thus come to the fore (see also Falconer and Jackson, 2020; Yeung and Hofferth, 1998).

If we expand this point further, the literature identifies a potential opposite of work absorption, which I characterise as 'work absence'. Stevens and Schaller (2011) have also highlighted this point, arguing that, in terms of student behaviour and academic achievement, there is a 'causal link between the parental employment shock [job loss] and children's academic difficulties' (2011, p.2). This behaviour may also be magnified if specific risk factors are identified; parental emotion disturbance (Dix, 1991), lack of parental support (Harter, 1993), and general family conflict (Downey and Coyne, 1990). The impact of the exosystem on a student entering the Unit can potentially be life altering; however, the effects from the work-family spill may not always be overt and observable (Dow, 2013). One could argue that this provides further evidence for moving away from the 'overt and observable' theories underpinning the current approaches to consider the wider ecology of a student's life (Payne, 2015).

Extra marital-affairs, divorce, and familial breakdown (see Sori, 2007; Lusterman, 2005; Miller; 2016) may also affect the students who enter the Unit. In addition, the literature (Spence, 2012; Amato and Keith, 1991: Huure et al., 2006; Amato, 2001) argues that children from families where infidelity, divorce, or the breakdown of marital relationships have occurred 'experience lower academic achievement, poorer psychological adjustment, more behavioural problems, more negative self-concepts, increased social difficulties, and more relationship problems with their mothers and fathers' (Spence, 2012, p.3). It has also been argued that students within the Unit may 'act out' as a 'coping mechanism' to deal with familial breakdown (Allison and Furstenberg, 1989; Lansford, 2009; Zill et al., 1993; Bachman, et al., 2008; Downing-Matibag and Geisinger, 2009; Schwinn et al., 2010; CSAT, 2014).

It is important to note that, within the feature of familial breakdown, children are more than just 'witnesses' (see also Mani et al., 2013; Farah et al., 2006; Bradley and Corwyn, 2002). Indeed, because of the shift within the family dynamics, children may be distressed as a result of what they may have witnessed. In cases of students who come into the Unit where outside agencies have been involved, such as police, social services, and family support

networks, the literature suggests that it is essential to consider how this involvement can affect young people (see, for further discussion, Stephens and Sinden, 2000; Malsh and Smeenk, 2017; Flood and Pease, 2009; Guedes et al., 2016). This literature also considers a multiagency approach, which is discussed in the final section of this chapter (see below).

The macrosystem

Bronfenbrenner has defined the macrosystem as 'consistencies, in the form and content of lower-order systems that exist, or could exist, at the level of subculture or culture as a whole, along with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies' (1979, p.26). Several studies (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; 1986; Leonard, 2011; Harkonen, 2011) have argued that the macrosystem is the wider culture and includes socioeconomic status, wealth, poverty, and ethnicity. It is traditionally seen as part of ecological theory, which is the most distal from the individual. However, it could have a significant impact on a person's everyday life because people cannot choose the society into which they are born, nor can they determine its prevailing values and beliefs. Leonard (2011) has argued that the influence of the macrosystem and the direct impact it may have on individual lives is potentially a stark reminder of the hierarchical nature of society (2011, p.27). Further, as Harkonen (2011) has argued, the macrosystem can be further defined as a 'societal blueprint for a particular culture, subculture, or other broader social context' (Harkonen, 2011). Thus, the macrosystem may not be as 'distal' as the concentric circles suggest; rather, it may have direct influences on a person's everyday life (Leonard, 2011).

The influence of the macrosystem on students coming into the Unit is, as Bronfenbrenner has argued, in the shadow of the 'legitimate authority' of teachers over students, which results from the way education is rooted within society (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In essence, this affects a wider culture within the school, which is usually enacted through policy. Therefore, by virtue of being within the Unit, students are governed by policies and become a part the wider culture of the Unit and the school (see Corbett and Norwich, 2005; Wearmouth et al., 2004; Sullivan et al., 2013). Policy is usually written at a macrosystemic level by 'policy makers' (Ball, 2003) and then implemented; in the case of the Unit, this is done through both the Ethos for Learning Policy (EfL; 2017) and the Behaviour for Learning Policy (BLP, 2017), which are whole-school governance policies under which the Unit operates. These policies establish the rules for students in terms of attendance, punctuality, uniform, timetable, and expectations of behaviour, including rewards and

sanctions (EfL, 2017; see also Ryan and Deci, 2000; 2008 and 2010; Vallerand, 2000). This school policy is also governed by government and DfE policies, which have recently suggested that schools may be excluding too many students (see Graham et al., 2019, the Timpson Review). As a result, policies at a local level, i.e., within the Unit, may need to be changed and adapted in order to ensure that exclusion figures are reduced. On a related note, in chapter one, there is a discussion of the potential misuse of 'managed moves' from the CCR 2013 and 2017 reports. As a result of these reports, it may become more difficult for schools to facilitate managed moves if it is felt that the system is failing or being misused as a form of punishment (see chapter one). School/Unit policy may also influence the trajectory of a student entering the Unit (previously discussed in chapter 1). The key factor here is that the literature (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; 1989; 2002; Harkonen, 2007; Leonard, 2011) and the function of the Unit are in line with the policies and practices of the school to which they are linked. Studies on this subject highlight what I describe as the 'action frame' (Slee and Allan, 2005) of the policy, i.e., the day-to-day running of the Unit. The policy attempts to create the desired culture within the Unit, one that ensures that students are returned to the mainstream 'as quickly as possible' (EFL, 2017). A final key factor from the literature (House of Commons, Education Committee, 2018) with regard to the Unit as an Alternative Provision (AP) of education for students is that a good AP 'delivers a lot of love and a little magic into the lives of those who have very frequently, and sadly, experienced too little of either' (2018, p.25).

The chronosystem

The chronosystem is not part of the original model of ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) which was used for this study. In line with Tudge et al. (2009), I recall the importance of stating the model of ecological theory used here and adhering to it. Whilst I agree that it is important to acknowledge other aspects of an evolved system, it is not within my role as a researcher to use part of the original model and part of the bioecological model, thereby creating an eclectic interpretation, as opposed to building upon knowledge and extending the boundaries of the discipline. However, it does not detract from the significance of the development of the chronosystem and its potential use within a study.

Bronfenbrenner has defined the chronosystem as 'the influence on the person's development of changes (and continuities) over time in the environments in which the person is living' (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, p.724). It was developed in its current form as a part of

Bronfenbrenner's bioecological model; more specifically, it was first used in the paper 'Ecology of the Family' (1986, p.732). In the original model, the chronosystem is not named as such, but there are two potential embryonic foci: the 'developmental trajectory' (1979, p.285) and the 'passage of time', which Bronfenbrenner argues is synonymous with age (1994, p.40). Bronfenbrenner further states that, during the conception of his original model in 1979, some studies suggested that 'time' was a 'property of the surrounding environment not only over a life course but across historical time' (1994, p.40). Bronfenbrenner argues that, within the chronosystem, the microsystemic characteristics of both the person and the environment are present, whether in terms of change or consistency. Examples of this could be a change in family structure, employment, moving home, or 'the hecticness in everyday life'. This suggests the continued commitment to person-environment interrelatedness within the model despite the addition of the chronosystem (1994).

Skinner (2012) and Elder (1998) have emphasised the fact that the chronosystem is an important and interactive feature of a person's life and their socio-historical context; Elder in particular argues that the key feature is 'temporal impacts for generations' (Skinner 2012). Examples of these 'impacts' include major upheavals for countries, such as revolution, war, and economic turmoil (Elder, 1998). In terms of impact at an individual student level, the literature (Price and McCallum, 2014; Skinner, 2012; Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977) advocates 'moral stages of development' along with 'the timing of events, decisions, and actions' which may play a pivotal role in student behaviour and development; this could be particularly relevant for students entering the Unit. Moral stages may be impacted by time, culture, and a family's own morality, thereby advocating 'accepted cultural and familial norms'; within the Unit, a student's behaviour and characteristics may influence the environment, and in turn, the environment may influence the student's characteristics and behaviour (Skinner, 2012). Thus, a student coming into the Unit 'brings' with them their own microsystemic 'impacts', such as the individual experiences of trauma (CSAT, 2014) and/or familial breakdown (Ren, 2017). This impact is then met with the influence of macrosystemic policy and governance within the Unit (see above; Ren and Arnold, 2003). I argue that a student then undergoes a further ecological transition from the mainstream of the school to the margin of the Unit. This transition is discussed in the next section.

Ecological transition

A key factor Bronfenbrenner highlights with the theory of ecology is ecological transition. Bronfenbrenner has advocated for and defined this theory as that which 'occurs whenever a person's position within the ecological environment is altered as a result of change in either role, or setting, or both' (1979, p.26). The rationale is to demonstrate the synthesis between the different systems within the theory. Bronfenbrenner argues that all ecological transitions have a dual role, both as instigator and consequence of the process (1979, p.27). This is further defined and summarised through the knowledge and understanding that ecological transitions are defined throughout a person's lifetime (1979, p.27-8). Bronfenbrenner presents the following examples of such transitions: a mother seeing her new-born child for the first time, the first day at school, graduations from school or university, starting work, changing jobs or retirement, getting married, divorcing or being widowed, moving home, planning a family, or, that which is defined as the final transition, death (p.27–28). These examples demonstrate the relationship between the systems and the 'mutual accommodation between organism [person] and the surroundings [environment]' (1979, p.27).

In terms of the child at school, we can say that the transition from home to school is the first major ecological transition within the education journey (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that subsequent transitions throughout adult life are influenced by this first transition (Harper, 2016; see also Fabian and Dunlop, 2002; 2007; Kienig, 2017; Miller and Shifflet, 2016; Miller, 2015; Evans et al., 2018). The formation of friendship groups within the transition phase is as important as the transition itself. Moreover, the relationships children have with their peers are important because they have the potential to influence the child's behaviour at school. Indeed, as Mukherji has stated, 'as children grow older their role models are the members of their peer group. The adult influence becomes less important' (Mukherji, 2001, p. 19).

Pellegrini and Blatchford (2000) have also highlighted the importance of peer relationships for child development; they discuss the impact of such relationships on a child's behaviour (Blatchford and Baines, 2010). Children with behavioural difficulties often advance their social network by virtue of these difficulties. Fortin and Bigras (1997) have recognised that, for some children, their peers can relate to antisocial behaviour. This can contribute to an expectation of maintaining this type of behaviour for the benefit of the peer

group. The problems then become a recursive, self-perpetuating cycle. Fortin and Bigras (1997) have also noted that, within the group, there is no adverse reaction to the inappropriate behaviour; in fact, quite the opposite may be the case (1997, p.22). It is, one might say, a 'birds of a feather' situation, whereby a wholly ecological study of the disruptive behaviour needs to 'take into account all the contexts in which it occurs' if understandings and solutions are to be realised (McPhee, 2009, p.9; see also, Desbians and Royer, 2003; Macleod, 2006).

The latest developments of Bronfenbrenner's original model; a **nested system or networked system?**

In the studies of the original model thus far, we have established that the use of Bronfenbrenner's theory with regards to behaviour management needs further research. The question which needs to be asked is, 'What is the future for the theory of ecology?' In order to answer this question, we need to consider a paper from Neal and Neal (2013), 'Nested or Networked? Future Directions for Ecological Systems Theory.' The authors argue that ecological theory should be viewed not through a lens of nested concentric circles, but rather through the lenses of participants' social interactions. This may sound 'vogue' considering that people exist within the social networks of various online networking sites. This paper demonstrates an evolutionary approach to Bronfenbrenner's original theory, suggesting a networked as opposed to a nested model. The authors advance the theory by redefining the ecological constructs (see figure 2.2 below), and they argue that their concept draws upon work prior to the 21st century's technological revolution and Bronfenbrenner's pre-1979 work. Furthermore, they argue, it draws upon the work of the sociologist Georg Simmel (1950), who viewed ecological systems as those which structurally overlap and are connected directly or indirectly through 'the social interactions of their participants' (Neal and Neal, 2013, p.722–4).

Figure 2.2: Reworded definitions

Construct	Nested	Networked
Ecological Environment	'a nested arrangement of structures, each contained within the next' (p.22)	An overlapping arrangement of structures, each directly or indirectly connected to the others by the direct and indirect social

		interactions of their participants
Setting	'a place where people can readily engage in face-to-face interaction' (p.22)	A set of people engaged in social interaction, which necessarily occurs in and is likely affected by the features of a place
Microsystem	'a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics' (p.22)	A setting—that is, a set of people engaged in social interaction—that includes the focal individual
Mesosystem	'the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates' (p.25)	A social interaction between participants in different settings that include the focal individual
Exosystem	'one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person' (p.25)	A setting—that is, a set of people engaged in social interaction—that does not include but whose participants interact directly or indirectly with the focal individual
Macrosystem	'consistencies, in the form and content of lower-	The social patterns that govern the formation

	order systems that exist, or could exist, at the level of subculture or culture as a whole, along with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies' (p.26)	and dissolution of social interactions between individuals (e.g., homophily, transitivity, and so on) and thus the relationships among ecological systems
Chronosystem	'The influence on the person's development of changes (and continuities) over time in the environments in which the person is living' (Bronfenbrenner, 1986b, p.724)	The observation that patterns of social interactions between individuals change over time, and that such changes impact the focal individual, both directly and by altering the configuration of ecological systems around him/her

Neal and Neal's key argument is that juxtaposed 'circles' have greater influence on the individual than concentric ones. Furthermore, the authors (2013) also state that the most influential circle is the 'smallest' because 'participation in the smallest … already implies participation in the larger' (Neal and Neal, 2013, p.726). The authors give a hypothetical example of a society governed by tradition and custom, whereby one's trade, lifestyle, friends, and place of residence depend on his or her membership in a particular family. Therefore, this 'membership' (the smallest circle) fully determines the impact of ecological forces. Bronfenbrenner, who was openly critical of his own work, believed that ecological influences on an individual were more complex than his original theory suggested, stating that they are of 'substantive variety and structural complexity' (1979, p.55). Neal and Neal built upon this thought, acknowledging that there is little use in simply recreating a graphic using intersecting circles because this 'does little to clarify the underlying theoretical model' (2013, p.727).

This argument, as the authors acknowledge, lends itself to a structuralist theoretical perspective (Neal and Neal, 2013, p.726). Furthermore, it is important to note that a networked view is entirely theoretical, and they emphasise that the approach is three-fold. First, it can be used is to shift focus from 'where' the interaction takes place towards how, why, and with whom (2013, p.733). Second, this shift in focus aids the researcher in examining the different ecological systems and their complex interrelations, thereby unravelling the multiplicity of the different overlapping microsystems. Finally, the authors advocate their method as a way of recognising Bronfenbrenner's (1979) view of his original theory, 'that environmental events and conditions outside the immediate setting containing the person can have a profound influence on behaviour' (1979, p.18; see also Neal and Neal, 2013, p.733). Bronfenbrenner highlights the importance of 'experience' by explaining that not only do the objective properties within the microsystem need to be considered, so too does the way the child perceives them. This concept is based on the theory of Thomas and Thomas (1928), which Bronfenbrenner describes as the 'definition of situation' idea. The 'Thomas Theorem' argues that an individual's interpretation of a situation causes him or her to act. Thus, 'if men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences' (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Neal and Neal also argue that much of the research on ecological systems theory focuses on the microsystem, unwittingly negating the other systems not through lack of interest but because of their 'daunting ambiguity'. Another factor of their argument, therefore, is that incorporating a social network concept could demonstrate how well each system relates to the others, and it could offer what the authors describe as a potential 'path from moving from theory to method' (2013, p.733).

As Neal and Neal explain, when endeavouring to move from theory to method, neither the original nested model nor the proposed network model offers an exact empirical operationalisation (2013, p.733). However, the original model has been researched to a greater degree than Neal and Neal's alternative, which attempts to push ecological theory towards a structured theoretical perspective by arguing that the context or 'setting' and its construction are the initial focus. Following this, the focus then shifts to the social action, which can be analysed through social network analysis. Bronfenbrenner (1979) has defined a setting as 'a place where people can readily engage in face-to-face interaction' (1979, p.22). With this definition in mind, Neal and Neal (2013) have argued that a setting has two dimensions: the 'spatial' (the primary dimension) and the 'interactional' (the secondary dimension). The question I pose and which Neal and Neal echo is that, when we consider the

behaviour of an individual, are interactions truly secondary to spatial factors? (2013, p.727). The authors contend, however, that by focusing on people's interactional factors within the setting, the setting's features are likely to affect it.

The digisystem

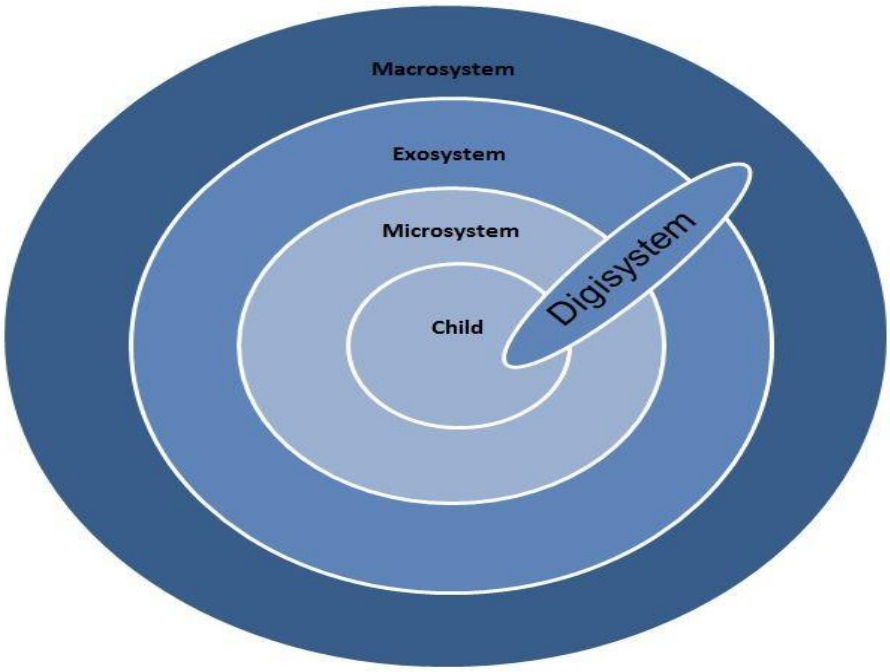

Figure 2.1 The digisystem (Walker, 2015)

In the latest developments within ecological theory, succinctly demonstrated in figure 2.1. above, several studies (Walker, 2015; Johnson et al., 2006 and 2008) have called for the addition of a digisystem to Bronfenbrenner's (1979) original theory. Walker (2015) has argued that a child may be at the centre of the circles; however, within the digisystem, the 'child is an actor throughout' and, more specifically, 'not only does the digisystem bring the world [directly] to the child, it also takes the child [directly] to the world' (Walker, 2015). In order to understand the impact of this further, Hall (1966) has identified what he calls the 'intimate zone'; this is the 'space' which Hall argues is reserved for – in the case of students – parents, siblings, and the wider family. These are the individuals within their lives who are 'comfortably allowed' in this zone. Walker (2015) further argues that the content which is navigated and displayed on computational devices which access the 'world'; 'often comes from far, far away: possibly the other side of the world'. She concludes, therefore, that digital media is both within the macrosystem and directly rooted into the microsystem, as figure 2.1 suggests. Further, whilst data may be received from the macrosystem to the microsystem, it

can also be transmitted from the microsystem to the macrosystem in terms of personal information via social media platforms. Thus, part of the child becomes 'outsourced' to the digital world (Walker, 2015; see also McHale et al., 2009).

This argument is evidenced through Youtube channels such as 'Twintoys' and 'Ryan's toys review', which are channels by children for children, as well as other popular channels such as 'Chad Wild Clay' and 'The Sharers', which are channels made by adults but whose principle target audience is school-aged children between 5 and 16 years old. The impact and popularity of such channels is evident on the YouTube platform. Other popular channels are also available, and according to the website www.statista.com, a 2020 survey conducted by YouTube.com ranked the 10 most popular child-themed YouTube channels (see figure 2.2 below).

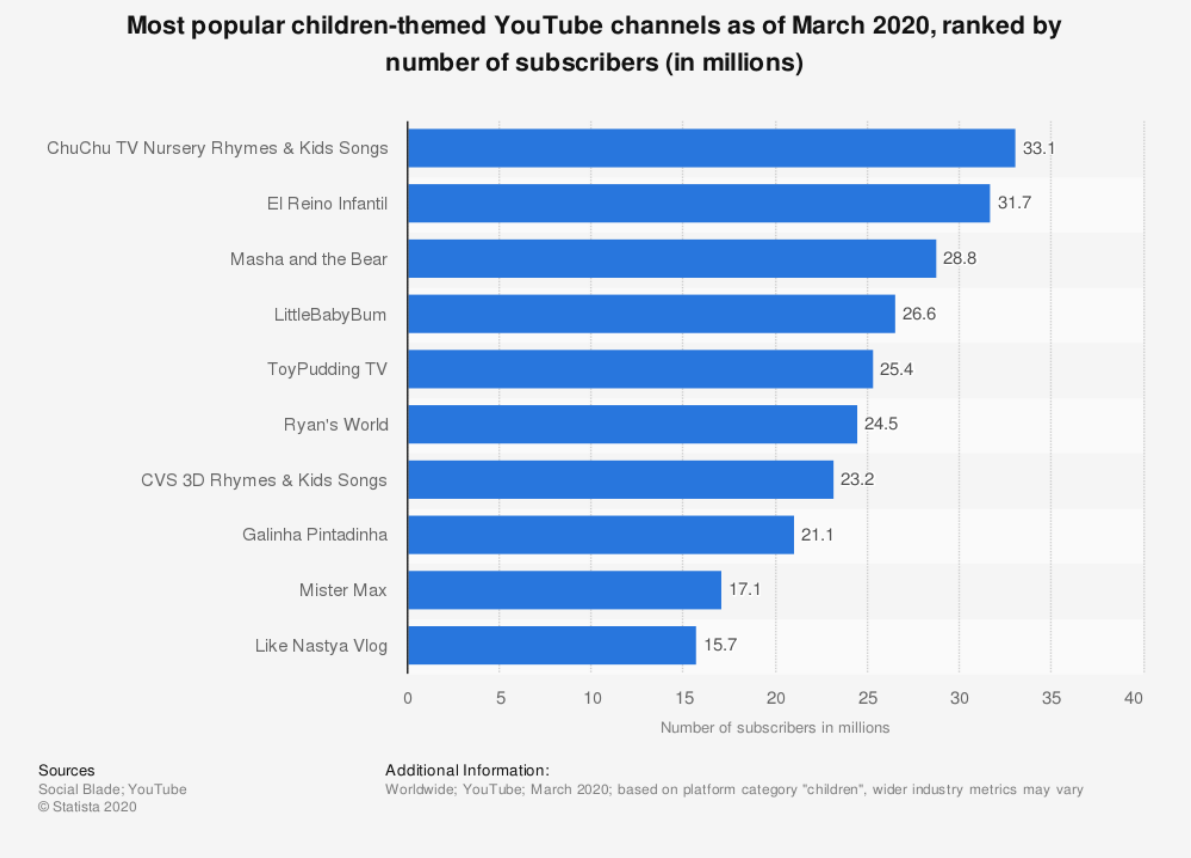

Figure 2.2: Most popular child-themed channel – March 2020 (www.statistica.com).

Johnson and Puplampu (2008) and Johnson (2010) have used the phrase 'ecological techno-subsystem' when referring to what I have titled, in line with Walker (2015), the digisystem. In this regard, the field is littered with debates regarding 'internet use' and the question 'How much [use] is too much?' Johnson (2010) has argued that children's computer

use at home may have a positive effect on cognitive development. This is supported by Johnson (2007), who has argued that the internet is a 'text-based medium'; therefore, it could be argued, 'the more a child uses the Internet, the more he/she reads' (Jackson et al., 2007, p. 188). Jackson et al. (2006) have further stated that, in 'standardised school testing', students who use the internet more had greater academic exam results (2006, p.429). This, they argue, was the result of interpretative, cognitive, and metacognitive processes 'such as planning, search strategies, and evaluation of information' from navigating websites (Johnson et al. 2006; see also Tarpley, 2001).

DeBell and Chapman (2006) have supported this view by arguing that, 'in the area of visual intelligence ... certain computer activities — particularly games — may enhance the ability to monitor several visual stimuli at once, e.g., to read diagrams, recognise icons, and visualise spatial relationships' (2006, p. 3). Subrahmanyam et al. (2000) have suggested that 'children who play computer games can improve their visual intelligence' (2000, p. 128). In addition, there is research (Van Deventer and White, 2002) which also suggests that 'gamers' (those who play video games) can demonstrate high levels of visual memory and pattern recognition. Anderson et al. (2007), however, have argued that a 'gamer' can develop 'distractibility, hostility, and aggression' (see also Chan et al. 2006).

A key factor within the digisystem Walker (2015) highlights is that, traditionally, parents or carers had the responsibility of negotiating friendships and 'access' to the world outside of the child's home. The digisystem's significance however, is that it does not require 'parental negotiation', and perceived 'parental control' of internet access may centre on 'blocking' access to inappropriate content, e.g., violence, pornography, or extremist material. It may be beyond what Walker considers the 'boundaries of parental control' to know or have knowledge of every interaction that takes place (Walker, 2015).

In order to understand the impact of the digisystem on the lives of school-age children, Ofcom (2014) researched how children use 'media'. For the purpose of the study, media was defined as a laptop or desktop personal computer, a smartphone, or a tablet, and these devices were then used to access the internet or specific websites, such as the BBC. The results showed that, of the children in the survey aged between 5 and 15 years, 31% have (own) a smartphone, 71% own or have use of a tablet, and 88% own or have use of a desktop personal computer (Ofcom, 2014; Walker, 2015). Another key factor of the digisystem is the 'consumption and creation of data' (Walker, 2015). Walker argues that the consumption of

data takes place within the child's microsystem despite its macrosystemic origins. Both Walker (2015) and McHale (2009) have highlighted this point when discussing a primary foundation of the digisystem, television. Walker cites specific television programmes such as *Listen with Mother* (1950–1982) and *Watch with Mother* (1953–1973), which were designed for children to 'consume ... in the company of an adult carer' (Walker, 2015). This further strengthens the argument that the digisystem has a direct link between the micro- and macrosystems of a child's life (See figure 2.1 above).

The concept of consumers' 'the creation of data' provides a two-way link between the macro- and microsystem. The digisystem has evolved to the extent that social media platforms such as Facebook, along with other web 2.0 media, i.e., YouTube, with the exception of advertisements, consist of uploaded material by public users. The participation of other users (the audience) reinforces this further through the ability to 'like', 'subscribe', and 'comment' (Walker, 2015; McHale, 2009). The literature then argues that the digisystem could become 'an extension of the individual', whereby the creation of 'settings' and 'online personae' become part of 'reality television'. This link has forged a closer relationship between 'producer' and 'consumer'; additionally, public phone-in and public voting are a method for the audience to guide the narrative of a particular programme. Thus, the previously discussed distal nature of the macrosystem may be eradicated through what Walker has described as a 'sense of involvement'. Further, the audience may 'take to social media' in order to discuss events with other members of the audience (consumers); this is commonly described as 'multiscreening'. There is further argument for the evolution of 'multiscreening' through the television programme *gogglebox*, in which the audience can watch 'the audience' watching a series of television programmes. There is also the audience watching 'the audience' who are watching gogglebox. The literature concludes that the effect of the digisystem is that the 'the viewer is now an active participant in the co-construction of interpretations' (Walker, 2015).

A multi-agency and ITT

The literature defines a multi-agency approach as follows:

> '[D]ifferent services, agencies, and teams of professionals and other staff working together to provide the services that fully meet the needs of children, young people, and their parents or carers. To work successfully on a multi-agency basis, you need to be clear about your own role and aware of the roles of other professionals; you need to be

confident about your own standards and targets and respectful of those that apply to other services, actively seeking and respecting the knowledge and input others can make to delivering best outcomes for children and young people'

(DfES, 2004, p.18; see also Gillen, 2011)

Evolution of multi-agency working

The concept of 'multi-agency working' (DfES, 2003; 2004; DfE 2011; Milbourne et al. 2003; Milbourne 2005) suggests that it was a key factor in the 'Every Child Matters' policy (See DfES, 2003; Williams, 2004). This agenda emerged in response to death of Victoria Climbé, who was tortured and killed by her guardians despite numerous contacts with health workers, social services, and reports of her abuse to the police. The 2003 policy evolved into the 2004 Children's Act, which promoted 'the Government's approach to the well-being of children and young people from birth to age 19' (Carter, 2015).

The aim of the 'Every Child Matters' programme was to give all children the support they need to:

- be healthy
- stay safe
- enjoy and achieve
- make a positive contribution
- achieve economic well-being.

(DfES, 2003)

It has been suggested (DfES, 2003; Reid, 2005) that this agenda was aimed at improving educational outcomes, improving health, reducing reoffending rates, and eradicating poverty for children by 2020 (DfES, 2003). Further, as a result of the Cameron government in 2010, there was a significant shift away from the 'Every Child Matters' agenda towards a policy of 'emphasis on health visitors and social workers to carry out health checks at the child's home' (Lang, 2019; see also Huxtable, 2016). In addition, the term 'safeguarding', although used to varying degrees prior to 2010, came to the fore with specific reference within multiagency settings to 'safeguarding training'. In this training, the employees of every organisation that has contact with children up to the age of 18, irrespective of a child's gender, their religion, or whether they are considered vulnerable, ensure that children are protected from harm. Legislation also states that every organisation

must have policies and procedures in place which protect children in line with the current legislation, e.g., the Children's Act 2004 and the Digital Economy Act 2017 (Lang, 2019). The specific organisations include teachers, social workers, foster carers, hospitals, children's homes, social services, and the police, as well as voluntary groups and/or charities that work with children. This suggests that multiagency efforts should be at the forefront of our work with students. As Parsons (2018) has argued, 'Multiagency working needs to be a reality and not an aspiration'. However, too often, the principles of multiagency working are 'made at a strategic level, but the aspiration is insufficiently driven through to practical implementation' (Parson, 2018, pp. 14–15).

Carter ITT review

If we focus on ITT, the Carter review (2015) suggests that trainee teachers should be introduced to multiagency working as a core part of the ITT process. This may include, for example, meeting or shadowing professionals from outside the profession, such as speech and language therapists and child psychologists. In addition, and in support of Carter's argument, ATL (2014) states that the role of ITT should be inclusive of and underpinned by the following: 'awareness and strategies to promote resilience, addressing issues such as work/life balance, managing workload, and dealing with physical, mental, and emotional stress' (ATL, 2014). Carter supports this view and further argues that a key factor within a multiagency approach is the provision of ITT, whether provided by universities or schools, and teachers should view themselves a part of a multi-agency team from the outset (Carter, 2015; Parsons, 2018). Moreover, as this literature suggests, there should be a conscious effort for both ITT providers and school staff to facilitate access to the expertise of wider agencies, thereby implementing a firm foundation for on-going development. Not only does this suggest the wider role of the teacher, but it also fosters effective relationships with other professionals. With this in mind, one can conclude from the literature that the understanding and development of close relationships between theory and practice, more specifically, the link between research and practice, is a critical element of ITT programmes (Carter, 2015).

Teachers and multi-agency working

Based on extant research, we also need to consider the possibility of teachers working with outside agencies beyond the teacher's ITT phase; it is important to understand that these

agencies may include educational psychologists, social services, and the police. The Prevent Duty (DfE, 2015), Approaches to Female Genital Mutilation (FGM; Karlson et al. 2019), and OFSTED Safeguarding Policy (OFSTED, 2018) are three examples of cases in which teachers could find themselves working with professionals outside of teaching. This could be through a 'disclosure', where a student experiencing distress or abuse may want to tell a staff member what is happening to them, or there could be continuing professional development for teaching on, for example, the Prevent Duty, and an outside professional could give a presentation (See Kelsi, 2015).

Within my setting, in line with the literature, all staff are a part of a multi-agency team that aims to ensure that the students within the Unit achieve (Parsons, 2018). Hughes and Cooper (2007) have argued that collaborative, multiagency working must be three-fold. First, it is important for all professionals to have shared goals. Second, professionals must effectively communicate with each other. Finally, it is important to respect the roles and responsibilities of those they work with (2007, p.51). These three factors appear to support the view of Atkinson et al. (2002, 2007), who have also advocated three key areas within multiagency working:

1. Strategic level working
2. Placement scheme
3. Case or care management (2007, p.19)

The literature suggests that joint planning and decision making occur at the strategic level. Placement schemes are defined as 'crossing the organisational divide', whereby professionals from one agency may work within another. An example of this could be nurses working full-time in schools or social workers managing care homes. Atkinson et al. (2007) have argued that this may already occur; however, what I characterise as 'placement professionals' are not always viewed as nor are always 'part of a clear multi-agency system' (2009, p19–20). Finally, case or care management is defined as an individual within the multiagency team having the responsibility of being a family liaison.

If we consider an example from Hughes and Cooper (2007), a child diagnosed with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) may require collaborative support from their teachers, an educational psychologist, and their parents. In addition, Hughes and Cooper (2007) have emphasised that ADHD is a 'multi factorial condition' which is not usually improved through the provision of a single service. In order for it to improve, it is thus

important that the service provisions ‘meet the evolving needs of the child’ through a coordinated, multi-agency approach (Hughes and Cooper, 2007, p.51–52). It is important that, with this approach, ‘the child is not unnecessarily excluded’ (2007, p.53), and professionals state that they have the ‘best interests of the student at heart’ (Wearmouth et al. 2004). As Hughes and Cooper have argued, for a multiagency approach to be successful in supporting children with ADHD, ‘the child’s perspective about their difficulties need to be understood’ (2007, p.55; see also Hughes, 2004).

A further example within the literature (see McGee, 2000; Elderson, 1999; Holt, 2008; 2015 and Antle et al., 2010 for further discussion) is a child exposed to domestic violence and family breakdown; this is particularly relevant to this study and to the many of the students with whom I work. As Ayers et al. (2000 and 2013) have argued, ecological factors, particularly within the child’s exosystem (see above), may impact their day-to-day lives. DfE (2018) has argued that there may be a range of exosystemic factors that affect a child’s life, and a key factor is parent-on-parent domestic violence (DfE, 2018, p.14–15). Public Health England (2019) has said that part of its initiative to address what they call ‘a whole-system multi-agency approach to serious violence prevention’ includes preventing domestic violence, which ‘cannot be tackled in isolation’ (England, 2019, p.13). In addition, Parsons (1999) has argued that addressing domestic violence and familial breakdown is a ‘multi-agency affair’ (Parsons, 1999, p. 143; see also see also Malley-Morrison, 2012; Heise, 1998; Kennedy, 2008; Levendosky and Graham-Bermann, 2001; Zielinkski and Bradshaw, 2006). A key factor of familial breakdown is its impact on the child’s everyday life, which may be immediate or delayed but is inevitable (see Mani et al., 2013; Farah et al., 2006; Bradley and Corwyn, 2002).

In terms of a multiagency approach to this issue, Byrne and Taylor (2007) have proposed that specific, multi-disciplinary teams in schools may be a useful vehicle in ‘developing relationships’ with and between agencies. Such teams could consist of an education welfare office, a social worker, health personnel, and teachers. The rationale is that these would ‘promote closer, localised, accessible child protection and family support services which are genuinely multidisciplinary’ (Byrne and Taylor, 2007, p.195–196). However, the literature has highlighted issues of confidentiality which may prevent information sharing, for example, if social services have information regarding a student and domestic violence circumstances within a family. A potential solution to this problem is to

adopt Atkinson et al.'s (2007) model, whereby information is shared in a more formal way, i.e., through case conference or case planning meetings (Byrne and Taylor, 2007).

The literature highlights the importance of embedding a multiagency approach within the ITT framework and beyond, one which advocates a meta-cultural view within organisations, as they are an equal part of a team regardless of profession. As Mutton et al. (2017) have argued, 'ITT partnerships should make more systematic use of wider expertise outside university departments of education' (2017, p.28–29). Undertaking ITT can develop a multiagency mind-set by facilitating opportunities during initial training and through a teacher's continuing professional development (see Murphy, 2009; Carter, 2015).

Summary of literature review chapter

The literature (see Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Ayers et al., 2000 and 2013; Darling, 2007) suggests that ecological theory is the approach most accessible to classroom teachers due to its ability to enhance teacher/student relationships. Furthermore, unlike certain behaviourist approaches and psychodynamics, ecological theory demonstrates the interrelationship between people and their environments. Moreover, it is not an approach which only considers 'observable behaviours', as behaviourism does, nor is it similar to psychodynamics, which requires years of training as a counselling tool. Ecological theory is neither the sediment of creating a classroom which advocates the reductionist, one-size-fits-all model through assertive discipline (behaviourism), nor is it an approach which focuses solely upon the internal dispositional factors of people within their environments (psychodynamics). Through a systemic exploration within a school environment, one can conclude that it focuses on student relationships and interrelationships within the classroom environment, and it also focuses on the impact of other environments in which people exist, e.g., at home and socially. Nonetheless, the key resonating factor of ecological theory is that it is not solely student-focused; it accounts for all of the other people in the student's life who can impact their behaviour.

Further, studies on this subject (see Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Berkowitz, 2013; McPhee, 2009) have argued that ecological theory can explain why a student behaves a certain way, but it does not explain how. It builds a platform to explore the conditions of how an event was triggered, but it does not go beyond that platform. Therefore, in order to gain insight into the phenomena, we need to use another approach in conjunction with ecological theory. This approach should allow experiences to be chronicled through the eyes of the people

experiencing them. As an important aspect of ecological research, Bronfenbrenner has advocated the use of phenomenology.

The review in relation to my research question

By examining the research field, we learned about various approaches to the study of student behaviour, each of which provides researchers a lens that is appropriate to their chosen methodology. However, as both a teacher and a researcher, I find it concerning that the ecological perspective, which provides both teachers and researchers a suitable approach to understand how students and teachers interact within their environments, is under-researched, and its value is largely unknown. To reiterate, the criteria I used to select an approach were as follows:

1. The approach had to suggest the impact of the environment on a person's behaviour and suggest person-environment interrelatedness (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).
2. The approach also had to take into consideration the impact of the specifics within the environment. An example of this is the positive and negative line of valence produced by objects, along with the Piagetian concept of 'object permanence' (Gardener, 2010), which may act as visual metonyms and having for a person.
3. The approach had to advocate a phenomenological conception of the environment and highlight the importance of using phenomenology in its research. (Bronfenbrenner, 1979)

As Ayers et al. (2000 and 2013) have argued, a refocused attention on more humanist approaches to understanding experience may provide a tool which demonstrates the influences of systemic and/or environmental factors on student behaviour. A key factor of research using the ecological approach, as Bronfenbrenner (1979) has argued, is phenomenology. How a person experiences a particular setting or an event may lead to new insights into the phenomena. With this in mind, my research question was developed (see below).

Thesis title:

Ecological Theory and Phenomenology: A Combined Approach to Understanding Disruptive Student Behaviour

Research question:

How can phenomenology and ecological theory enable me to understand a student's disruptive behaviour?

Here, we can see the development of the research question from its a priori state (see chapter 1), which advocated systems theory, to having a specific approach within systems theory, i.e., ecological theory. Through ecological theory, there is also a link, following Bronfenbrenner (1979), to using phenomenology within ecological research. In the following chapter, I explore phenomenology as part of the methodology of this thesis.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

In this chapter, I argue for the use of IPA and ecological theory as a combined methodology for gathering, coding, and analysing the data collected during this investigation. In essence, I used a methodology which was dynamic, non-linear, 'multi-levelled and multifactorial' (Ayers et al., 2000, p.88). More specifically, IPA enabled me to 'walk' with my participants through their experiences (Smith, 2009), while ecological theory underpinned the interview and analytical processes. This allowed me to enter and understand different aspects of the participants by focusing on their home, school, and social lives. This focus gave me a sense of their backgrounds, values, and the experiences they brought with them to the classroom. As a result, this insight gave me a more in-depth understanding of the moment of interaction between teacher and disruptive student. Furthermore, the methodology enabled me to consider the experience of the event 'in light of' participant antecedents.

Morrison (2007) has argued that educational research encompasses the two distinct functions of 'attitude' and 'action' (2007, p.3). These functions enabled me to focus both my epistemological and ontological perspectives by asking the questions, 'What is the problem here?' and 'What am I trying to show here?' Accordingly, the epistemological perspective of this thesis is two-fold. First, from a researcher perspective, my aim was to enable a deeper understanding and create new knowledge through 'trying to show something that has not been shown before' (Sheehy et al., 2005, p.30). Second, the epistemological perspective aims at improving practice, in particular, improving behaviour management through what Bassey (1995) has described as 'educational judgements and decisions' that relate to how behaviour is perceived and addressed (Hammersley, 2007, p.145; see also Hillage et al., 1998). This is also related to what Tripp (1993) has described as the improvement of research practice not solely through academic theory but through educational events (Hammersley, 2007, p.146). From an ontological perspective, a key tenet of the methodology is understanding the textual meaning, specifically the 'how' and the 'what' (Cooper et al., 2012, p.5). This was enabled through the concept of inter-subjectivity, the ability to understand the minds of others (Edgar, 2007), and specifically what it was like to 'be' that participant in that situation. It also considers how the participants perceived the event, along with the meanings and interpretations of their worlds (Willig, 2007; 2008; 2013).

To summarise, the use of IPA and ecological theory as a combined methodology enabled an approach to understanding behaviour which went beyond a cause-and-effect perspective when coding and analysing the event. As a result of using this methodology, the potential limitations of overt, measurable, and observable behaviourist approaches could be reduced. It is important to note that this in itself extends the forefront of the discipline because, although Bronfenbrenner has advocated the use of phenomenology within ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), its combined use is under-researched within education and cognate professions. Although the aims of the methodology are to offer voice and deeper understanding, one of the key factors is its accessibility: IPA and ecological theory are within reach of classroom teachers, and ecological theory is already seen in practice within the classroom (Ayers et al., 2000; 2013).

The family of phenomenological approaches

Before making the decision regarding which phenomenological approach to use and how this may alter my research question, it was important for me to consider other approaches within phenomenology. Smith et al. (2009) have described different approaches which are a part of the 'family of phenomenological approaches'; these have been well publicised, documented and cited since the inception of IPA (2009, p. 200; see Ashworth 2003; Dahlberg et al., 2008; Finlay, 2008: Giorgi, 1997 and 2008; Halling, 2008; Todres, 2007; van Manen 1990 and 2014 for further discussion regarding their approaches). I do not intend to discuss each approach found in the literature, other than to state that each shares the basic tenet of phenomenology with IPA. However, for the purpose of giving the reader a more in-depth explanation of my choice of methodology, following Smith et al. (2009), I compare several in order to 'position IPA within the general conceptual map of phenomenological research' (2009, p. 200).

Giorgi's (2008) phenomenological psychology is distinctly different from that of IPA. Giorgi has attempted to attain as close a translation as possible to Husserl's method. However, IPA does not attempt to advocate a specific modus operandi; rather IPA contentment comes from drawing upon the wider phenomenological corpus and remaining 'avowedly interpretative', whereas Giorgi has advocated a more descriptive approach. Furthermore, Giorgi states that the primary concern of his methods is to develop an account and thereby develop commonalities in order to create a 'complete and eidetic picture.' The aim of IPA, however, as Smith argues, is the opposite; it aims to analyse in detail the

‘divergence and convergence across cases, capturing the texture and richness of each particular individual’ (Smith et al., 2009, pp. 200–201). As a result of these differences, the outcome of Giorgi’s approach takes the form of a third-person narrative, along with a general structure outlined for the phenomenon being investigated. This differs from IPA’s focus on the detailed examination of the lived experience and how an individual makes sense of that experience.

Van Manen’s (1990; 2014) approach to phenomenology and hermeneutics demonstrates many similarities with IPA, and his research has influenced practice in health and cognate professions. Nevertheless, as discussed in the literature review, there is some debate between Smith and van Manen as to whether the ‘P’ in IPA should mean ‘phenomenological’ or ‘psychological’. The latest addition to this debate is that of Langridge (2007) and his critical narrative analysis approach. This approach is strongly informed by Paul Ricoeur (1913–2005) and aims to provide analysis through the lens of social theory, citing a different analysis to that of IPA (Smith et al., 2009, P.201)

What is IPA?

IPA is a research methodology based on the three key tenets *ideography*, *phenomenology*, and *hermeneutics* (explored in more detail below), and it is not sedimented into a single, coherent discipline. IPA is a qualitative study concerned with the detailed examination of individual lived experience and how individuals make sense it (Smith, et al., 2009; 2011). Furthermore, Creswell (2009) has stated that a qualitative study ‘is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem’ (2009, p.4). Moreover, Smith has stated that one of the key functions of IPA is to provide idiographic insight into subjective phenomena (2009, p.19). Historically, IPA has been the subject of a uniquely interpretivist paradigm in the form of a descriptive account of a given event or experience. The early forms of phenomenology Husserl developed are based on the idea that the research could ‘suspend’ or ‘bracket out’ a researcher’s own perspective in order to understand how people experience the world. However, subsequent work by Merleau-Ponty and Heidegger demonstrated that it was not possible for researchers to suspend their own perspectives, which they had to acknowledge in all phases of the research process. This formed the basis of IPA, where the process of analysis is interpretative and creates a clear line of argument between the interview, analysis, and emerging themes.

The key tenets of IPA: Defining phenomenology, hermeneutics and idiography

What is phenomenology?

To define phenomenology, I touch upon a discussion already considered within this thesis. However, to begin, phenomenology is defined as the philosophical approach to the study of experience (Smith et al., 2009, p.11). Langridge (2007) has expanded on this idea, stating that phenomenology is the 'study of human experience and the way in which things are perceived as they appear to consciousness' (Noon, 2018, p.78). Within IPA, the phenomenological, analytical, and investigative commitment is to what Quest (2014) has called the 'person-in-environment' and not simply 'phenomenon-as-experienced' (2014, p.43; see also Noon, 2018). Furthermore, as Eatough and Smith (2008) have argued, the researcher must focus on the 'context-dependent life worlds of the participants', which Noon (2018) has described as the streams of consciousness, specifically the participants' thoughts, memories, and feelings. These are, in other words, the aspects of a person's consciousness which enable a researcher to seek a participant's inner life world (2018, p.75; see also Smith, et al., 2009). IPA therefore, goes beyond the 'simply descriptive' approach to the researcher presenting an interpretative analytical account of the meaning of the experience within a participant's particular context (Noon, 2018, p.75; see also Noon, 2017).

What is hermeneutics?

Smith et al. (2009) have called hermeneutics the second theoretical underpinning of IPA, and it can be defined as the 'theory of interpretation' (2009, p.21). Dallmyer (2009), meanwhile, has defined it as the 'practice or art of interpretation' (2009, p.23; see also Noon, 2018). Moreover, as Ricoeur (1970) has states, it involves 'the restoration of meaning' (1970, p.8; see also Noon, 2018). Although it is entirely separate from phenomenology, these two 'strands' meet in the works of the hermeneutic phenomenologist Martin Heidegger (Smith, 2009, p.21), specifically in the features of *Dasein* – lived time and engagement with the world. Our access to which is, as Heidegger acknowledges, 'always through interpretation' (Smith et al., 2009, p.23). Therefore, IPA recognises that analysis and interpretation are interlinked. Furthermore, IPA recognises the researcher's centrality to the analysis (Brocki and Wearden, 2006; Noon, 2018). In order to gain an 'insider perspective' of the participant's lived experience (*Erlebnis*), Smith (2004) has argued that a 'double hermeneutic' is necessary, whereby the researcher tries to make sense of the participant trying to make sense of their world (2004, p.40; 2017, p.13). Smith et al. (2009) further state that the

interpretations are bound by both the participants' ability to articulate their experience and the researcher's ability to facilitate and dissect information (2009, p.35). With this in mind, the objective is to garner an account 'as "close" to the respondent's view as possible' (Larkin et al., 2006; see also Noon, 2018, p.75–76; Smith et al., 2009, p.27–28).

What is idiography?

Smith et al. (2009) and Smith and Eatough (2017) have identified idiography as the third major influence in IPA. In essence, idiography is concerned with the 'particular', whilst maintaining the integrity of the person, and this commitment operates on two levels. First, the 'particular' is the detail and depth of analysis, and second, it is the understanding of how the phenomena has been understood by a 'particular person in a particular context' (2009, p.29; 2017, p.10). It seeks to cautiously develop generalisations (Harre, 1979, moving from the study of a single case to larger samples, thereby developing generalised claims (cited in Smith et al., 2009, p.31). Furthermore, idiography is committed to individuality in the sense that each individual case is central to the research. Therefore, the researcher seeks to understand each participant's case before moving onto the next (see Cassidy et al., 2011; Noon, 2018). With respect to IPA, one has to remember that, in line with Smith (2009), it offers insight into the person but is arguably not the discrete 'individual' as we come to understand it within IPA due to the fact that idiography is a 'worldly and relational phenomenon' (2009, p.29). Further, it is 'in-relation-to' the phenomenon as opposed to being a *property* of the individual. However, the *individual* is still in a position to offer insight into their experience in relation to a phenomenon they have experienced. Here, we see evidence of what, according to Noon (2018), is IPA remaining 'faithful' to the individual through ensuring that any themes are 'personalised to the individual narratives' (2018, p.76, 80; see also Joeg and Othman, 2016).

A brief chronology of IPA

IPA was first used as a methodology in the medical field, and it chronicled the experiences of patients living with chronic conditions, pain, or terminal illness (see, for further discussion, Cronin and Lowes, 2015: Finlay et al., 2018; Smith and Osborn, 2015; Snelgrove, 2016; Willig and Wirth, 2018; Gower et al., 2017; Levy and Cartwright, 2015). In 2011, the founder of IPA, Johnathan Smith, reviewed 293 IPA journal articles published between 1996 and 2008. Based on this review, Smith argues that, since the mid-1980s, the UK has become the 'primary crucible' for developments within psychological studies more

generally. From IPA's founding in 1996, it took just over a decade for the peer-reviewed publication rate to accelerate both inside and outside of the UK (Smith, 2011, p.12). Smith has further acknowledged that considerable discussion and debate has taken place since the inception of IPA, specifically regarding the quality of the research, its validity, and the types of questions generated in the qualitative community (Smith, 2011, p.15; see also Morrow, 2005; Morse et al., 2002; and Rolfe, 2006 for further discussion on these questions within the qualitative research community).

The use of IPA within educational research

If we consider the appropriateness of IPA and its application to this study, Smith et al. (2009) have argued the following:

> IPA started in psychology and much of the early work was in health psychology. Since then it has been picked up particularly strongly in clinical and counselling psychology as well as in social and educational psychology. It is not surprising that the key constituency for IPA is what can broadly be described as applied psychology, or psychology in the real world. (2009, p. 4–5)

Although IPA was initially developed within the field of psychology, particularly health psychology, it has recently become more common within the field of education (see Moriah, 2018; Willis, 2017; Shaw et al., 2015; Gauntlett et al., 20170). This thesis, therefore, is a timely addition to the small but growing number of educational research studies using IPA. Further, as a result of the examination of this literature, the following reasons researchers use IPA have been identified:

1. Emphasising conscious lived experience
2. Giving voice and empowerment to the participants of the study
3. Extending the existing use of IPA within educational research

Furthermore, based on the research conducted, I believe this study is the first to use IPA and ecological theory to try to understand disruptive student behaviour. It thus brings two existing research approaches into a more multi-levelled, multi-factorial, dynamic field and makes an original contribution to knowledge (Ayers et al., 2000; 2013).

My rationale for choosing IPA for this investigation

The reasons for this decision are discussed within the following three themes:

1) Emphasising conscious lived experience
2) Giving voice and empowerment to the participants of the study
3) Extending the existing use of IPA within educational research

These are synthesised with IPA's theoretical underpinnings:

1) Phenomenology
2) Hermeneutics
3) Idiography

These reasons led me to use IPA for this study and make it a key part of the research question:

'How can interpretative phenomenological analysis and ecological theory enable me to understand a student's disruptive behaviour?'

It is also important for the purposes of transparency to highlight that this thesis is a qualitative research study. I argue that this research question and project title capture the essence of what the subject matter seeks to understand within the ontological, epistemological, and methodological stance of this study (Alase, 2019; Smith et al. 2009). Further, in line with Trede and Higgs (2009), I argue that the research question(s) in a qualitative research study should not only 'embed the values, world view, and direction of an inquiry' but also be 'influential in determining what type of knowledge is going to be generated' (2009, p. 18).

Emphasising conscious lived experience

This theme supports the view of Smith et al. (2009), who have described IPA as a tool for providing idiographic insight into subjective phenomena (2009, p.19; see also Smith et al., 2004; Smith, 2009, 2011, and 2018; Smith and Osborne, 2015). This literature suggests that, by using IPA as a methodological tool, the researcher comes to understand that perception is a key factor of the interpretative process. More specifically, it is the determination of our 'self' and our experience within a particular phenomenon. The key tenet of phenomenology allowed me to focus this study on how that phenomena was experienced by the student and the teacher within the setting in which the event occurred, thus creating parity and emphasising the importance of the relationship (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) between phenomenology and ecological theory.

We can surmise that this literature also advocates the use of IPA to enable the researcher to gain a phenomenographic perspective of how a person experiences their perception of an event (see Smith et al., 2009; Noon, 2018; Smith and Osborn, 2015). Furthermore, the investigative emphasis on the participants' conscious, lived experience in this thesis enabled me to 'understand the minds of others', thereby enabling an inter-subjective stance (Buchanan et al. 2007; Eatough and Smith, 2017). This was achieved by actively investigating and seeking meaning within the 'phenomenological meditative narrative' (Smith et al., 2009) of each participant and also through invoking the literature, in which phenomenologists claim, 'we see things not as they are but as we are' (Edgar, 2009, p.32). Moreover, as Smith and Pietkiewicz (2014) have argued, 'The primary goal of IPA researchers is to investigate how individuals make sense of their experiences through the assumption that people are "self-interpreting beings"' (2014, p.8). This additional factor allowed me to focus on the Husserlian concept of 'temporal phases' (Hoerl, 2013) in the analysis. In this approach, the moment of interaction can be broken down into a series of experiential moments or 'phases' of 'conscious lived experience', which can then be explored during interviews and subsequently analysed. Therefore, Noon's (2018) 'streams of consciousness' enabled me to seek the 'inner life worlds' of the student and the teacher (2018, p.75; see also Smith et al., 2009).

Hermeneutics

Within the process of seeking the 'inner life worlds' of my participants, I used the Heideggerian concept of Dasein, more specifically, what the phenomenologist Martin Heidegger has described as the participants' 'lived time' and 'engagement' with the world (Smith et al., 2009, p.21). As Smith et al. (2009) have argued, a researcher's 'access' to Dasein is 'always through interpretation' (2009, p.23). IPA recognises, therefore, that analysis and interpretation are interlinked, and thus the researcher is central to the research questions and subsequent analysis (Brocki and Wearden, 2006; see also Smith et al., 2009). In this study, therefore, it was necessary for me to employ a 'double hermeneutic' (2009, p.35): I am the researcher trying to make sense of the participant, who tried to make sense of their engagement with the world. This process initially took place at the interview stage, and then during coding and analysis. At each stage, I entered the hermeneutic circle and interpreted the data as I made sense of the 'lived time' of the participants' experience of the event and their engagement with the context.

Idiography

In this study, the idiographic perspective is how the teacher and the student understood the event of disruptive behaviour (Smith et al., 2009). It is important to understand the necessity of idiography for the study, given that it is not nomothetic in nature. Thus, as a researcher, I am not concerned with making generalised claims or laws with regard to a student's disruptive behaviour. The focus is on the 'particular' (the detail and depth of how the event is understood; see above) of the event of disruptive behaviour (Smith et al., 2009), while maintaining the integrity of the participants and understanding that idiography is a 'worldly and relational phenomenon' (2009, p.29). In this view, the participants in this study are positioned to offer insight into their perception of the phenomena they have experienced; additionally, as an IPA researcher, I seek their perception, their 'making sense of' and their understanding of that 'single event' experience (Noon, 2018, p.76–80; Smith et al., 2009; Jeong and Othman, 2016).

Giving voice and empowerment to the participants of the study

The second reason for choosing IPA is to give voice (Noon, 2018) to the participants, whose voices may be unheard (see, for further discussion, Goodall, 2014 when studying teachers' experiences of; Bailey, 2011 and educators' perceptions of asylum-seeking and refugee pupils; Roop, 2014 and American transgender students experiencing higher education; Willis, 2017 and teaching assistants' experiences of supporting students with autism; Denovan and Macaskill, 2012 on stress and coping with first-year undergraduates). Through voice, both my participants and I gained phenomenological insight into what Ashby (2011) has argued is the descriptive realisation of the struggles, joys, and stories 'as a way to provide an alternative to [a potential] dominant discourse', which is the current policy-driven approach to behaviour management (Ashby, 2011). The specific rationale for advocating the participants' voice was to invoke the narrative of those experiences and the perspectives of individuals whose voices may otherwise have been 'buried' (Carlsson et al., 2007; Charlton, 2000; Jones, 2007). The aim was to make the participants visible and, hopefully, disrupt those systems of power, e.g., the current approach to behaviour management, which may have privileged the organisation and marginalised the individual (Slee and Allan, 2005; Slee, 2015).

Thus, the literature moves the discussion beyond mere descriptive accounts of human experience to what can be described as the provision of a tool which seeks to highlight issues

of marginalisation. This is the link with the first highlighted point of the literature, in which researchers provide idiographic insight through a focus on lived experience. Furthermore, several studies have argued for teachers and researchers to highlight these issues; more specifically, they should adapt to meet the needs of those on the margins of schooling and bring them into the mainstream (Oxley, 2016; Haegele et al., 2017).

By advocating voice and empowerment for the participants of my study, I became aware that the rationale of IPA literature is to delve into the self of the participant(s) with the specific aim of uncovering marginalised voices and hidden experiences (see Rizwan and Williams, 2015; Haegele et al., 2017). Furthermore, this literature identifies the aim of research as creating visibility for participants whose previous passivity has become a euphemism for invisibility, thereby defining them as 'invisible or unimportant' within previous discourse. A key factor is that, through this action, experience, emotions, and feelings are revealed. As Haegele and Zhu (2017) have argued, when the participant's self is explored, the central feelings of 'frustration and inadequacy' result in an inability to raise their self esteem (2017, p.430). Here, we can see that the literature aligns with Smith et al. (2009) and Edmund Husserl's theoretical view regarding IPA that the founding, pragmatic principle of a phenomenological inquiry is that experience should be analysed as it occurs, on its own terms, within the natural setting (Smith et al., 2009, p.12). In relation to my research, the specificity of voice is within the meanings and interpretations in the microsystems of the teacher and the student.

Fidelity to voice is not solely given to or owned by the student in isolation 'simply because they are a child'. It is also reciprocated towards the subject teacher of the student when analysing the nature of disruptive behaviour. It was therefore necessary to ensure that their voices were heard and that they were aware that what they said, how they had said it, and why would all become data for the purposes of my study. I was particularly aware of this during my coding of both Alex's and the teacher's interviews and subsequent analysis; each participant brought a narrative to the interface that contained their thoughts, values, and feelings. Furthermore, this emphasised my responsibility as a researcher to protect the participants' interests, thereby ensuring their anonymity along with the confidentiality of their data during and after the study.

Extending the existing use of IPA within educational research

Many studies (Smith and Pietkiewicz, 2014; Gus et al., 2015; MHF, 2018; Department of Justice Northern Ireland, 2011; Youth Crime Commission, 2010) have suggested an opportunity to extend IPA research to a more personalised approach, beyond a blame culture and to the empowerment of 'co-agency', whereby the power of teachers and learners is realised. If we consider this view in light of my investigation, this study is an opportunity to extend the forefront of the discipline by extending IPA research. Regarding educational research and behaviour management, Shaughnessy (2012) has advocated the need 'to re-focus attention on humanist approaches which acknowledge the complexity of children's behaviour and focus on internal factors, rather than external control' (2012, p.90). In essence, Shaughnessy argues for less use of policy and 'high-control' strategies; instead, the focus should be teacher-student relationships and evidenced-based interventions which allow for the development of social skills through managing emotions and reasoning capabilities (Rose et al., 2015, p.1, 767–1,768; see also, for further discussion, Webster-Stratton, 2004; Graziano et al., 2007; Linnenbrink-Garcia and Pekrun, 2011). Ayers et al. (2002) have highlighted such use of IPA, arguing that a humanist approach involves recognising and understanding how students make sense of themselves, 'which is crucial to their success as independent learners' (2002, pp. 60–61).

Oxley (2016) has advanced this view with reference to the previously discussed overt use of behaviourism in schools. Her work also consists of attempting to move senior school leaders away from an overreliance on rewards and sanctions. She further argues that, despite research which suggests that rewards and sanctions are not the most effective way to deal with behaviour, they are the method of choice for the majority of schools (Thorsborne and Blood, 2013; Martinez, 2009; Greene, 2008; Searle, 2001; Sellgren, 2013; Richardson, 2016; Oxley, 2016). Existing research suggests that building personal relationships and restorative practices are common when dealing with students for whom interventionist approaches may not work. Based on extant research (Gus et al., 2015; Decety and Meyer, 2008; Lepage and Theoret, 2007), a more ecological and more phenomenological approach to understanding student behaviour is needed. In addition, such an approach may be preferable to some behaviourist approaches, which could be considered control-orientated and policy-driven (Rose et al., 2017; Ramsden and Hubbard, 2002).

Why do some researchers use IPA while others do not? The potential limitations of IPA

Tuffour (2017) has argued that the literature (see Brocki and Wearden, 2006; Larkin et al., 2006; Heffereon and Gil-Rodriguez, 2011) points to four practical and conceptual limitations of using IPA;

1. IPA does not consider the role of language.
2. It is not clear whether IPA accurately demonstrates the experiences and meanings of experiences beyond mere opinion.
3. IPA focuses on perception and seeks to understand lived experience but does not explain why it occurs.
4. Cognition within phenomenology is not fully understood and is arguably not compatible. (Tuffour, 2017, p.4)

Despite advocating these 'vigorous criticisms', Smith et al. (2009) and Smith (2011) have argued that critics accept the insight into experience IPA provides because it is always intertwined with language (Tuffour, 2017, p.4). Smith has further argued that the introspective nature of phenomenology, specifically the 'phenomenological meditation' of participants recanting their experience, allows meaning-making to take place through the context of narratives, discourse, and metaphors (Tuffour, 2017, p.3–4). However, the participants' and the researchers' skillsets become part of what Willig (2008) has described as the 'critical unanswered question', which addresses whether the skillset of those involved in the research can 'successfully communicate the nuances of experiences'. Therefore, one could ask, 'Does this criticism suggest that IPA and phenomenological research as a whole are only suitable to the "most eloquent individuals"?' The argument is that those without the 'right' level of linguistic fluency must nonetheless describe their experiences (Tuffour, 2017, p.4). Pringle et al. (2011) have stated, 'IPA accounts privilege the individual' by going beyond a 'standard thematic analysis' (Pringle et al., 2011, p.21), thereby 'firmly anchoring findings in direct quotes from participants' accounts.' In turn, this adds validity beyond Tuffour's (2017) 'opinion' (Pringle et al., 2011, p.21).

In addition to this line of critique, another key factor Tuffour (2017) has highlighted is the role of cognition, which may not be entirely compatible with phenomenology and may be improperly understood. However, Smith et al. (2009) have refuted this argument by stating that the role of cognition within IPA is clear, and that a prerequisite of the sense- and meaning-making in formal IPA reflection and phenomenological meditation, which are

encompassed within the recanting of experience and reflection, 'clearly resonat[e] with cognitive psychology' (Tuffour, 2017 p.3; see also Smith et al., 2009).

Smith et al. (2009 and 2014) have argued that, in addition to the cognitive side of IPA, the methodology also uses idiographic, contextual, and hermeneutic analysis to understand both the experiences and the cultural position of people's experiences. Furthermore, Pringle et al. (2011), Smith et al. (2009), and Malim et al. (1992) have argued that the idiographic nature of IPA research and analysis considers individual uniqueness 'with the aim of giving a complete in-depth picture' (2011, p.21–22). Malim et al. (1992), meanwhile, have noted that, for most IPA studies, the small number of participants makes generalisation difficult if not impossible. In addition, idiographic studies are potentially 'subjective, intuitive, and impressionistic' (Pringle, 2011). Reid et al. (2005) have argued that, while generalisations may not be possible, the role of 'analytic commentary' leading to useful insights can also have wider implications. Furthermore, Smith and Pietkiewicz (2014) have argued that the intention is not to generalise in the guise of Malim et al., and that, although the research of Reid et al. holds some weight, the IPA researcher seeks a defined sample, purposely selected and 'for whom the research problem has relevance and personal significance' (2014, p.9–10). Moreover, the homogeneity of the group selected, particularly if the subject matter is rare, can define how boundaries are set. Similarly, if the subject matter is commonplace, the researcher may look for similar demographics or socio-economic statuses (2014, p.10).

A final factor for consideration is IPA's contribution to theory. Pringle (2011) has argued Caldwell's (2008) point, stating that it is 'neither the purpose [nor] the remit' of IPA to contribute to theory 'with a capital "T"' (Pringle, 2011, p.21). She notes that IPA studies, through theoretical dialogue, contribute to theory but not in a sense that may please some quantitative researchers (Pringle, 2011). With this in mind, Smith (2009) has stated that all IPA researchers should think in terms of 'theoretical transferability rather than empirical generalisability'. The rationale is that, as qualitative researchers, we are concerned with meaning; we are not of the quantitative 'ilk' looking for the disconfirmation or falsification of a theory. We also do not aim to derive a hypothesis to be verified in an experiment in the hope of 'eliminating claims which are not true [thereby believing we are] moving closer to the truth' (2014, p.7).

In light of this, Johnathan Smith and others continually review, update, and challenge IPA works. This has enabled the growth of IPA methodology and the encouragement of

further IPA study. Although this review of the current research was comprehensive, it is not exhaustive. As Pringle (2011) has stated, it is necessary for those who choose to embark upon an IPA to study to:

1. Be aware of the criticisms.
2. Ensure that rich, exhaustive data is collected from participants.
3. Ensure that the research inquiry has authenticity in seeking to understand the experiences of those who take part in the study.
4. Explore those conditions triggering the experiences, which are located in past events, histories, or the social-cultural domain (Willig, 2008).

Other alternative approaches

Life history approach

By investigating an individual's life, or a particular area of their lives, one could argue for an alternative approach to the methodology which is removed from phenomenology and ecological theory. If, as a researcher, I study the life and lived experience of my participants, I need to address the question, 'Why haven't I used a narrative research design such as a life history approach?' (Bertaux and Thompson, 2017; Vieira, 2016; Bathmaker and Harnett, 2010). The argument for this type of narrative approach is persuasive because of the overlap in the methods used in both IPA and narrative research. An example of this is that narrative accounts are obtained during the interviewing processes and are the so-called 'field texts' (Cresswell, 2012, pp.506–507). However, considering this in relation to my research question, IPA was used to reveal what my participants understood about their perception of their experience of an event. The key reason for highlighting the differences is that a life history approach is anthropological in nature (Cresswell, 2012, p.504), whereas IPA is phenomenological in nature (Smith et al., 2009, p.12). Additionally, ecological theory and its 'phenomenological conception of the environment' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.23) demonstrate parity between IPA and ecological theory.

The life history approach typically narrates a person's entire life history and details certain significant events and turning points in their lives (Angrosino, 1989). In contrast, Smith et al. (2009) have argued that IPA is 'an interpretation of the meaning for a particular person in a particular context' (2009, pp.194–195). That is, the experience of the event using the IPA approach is both the key difference and the key topic within the method, whereby

'the individual and their meanings are the units of analysis' (Smith et al., 2009, p.195). A narrative study in educational research, as Cresswell (2012) has argued, does not typically focus on the entire life of an individual; rather, it focuses on a single event or episode. Considering this in relation to my research question in terms of 'understanding the moment of teacher/student interaction', there appears to be scope here. However, a further key difference between the two methodologies concerns how the data is analysed. A life history approach seeks to retell the story of the event, whereas an IPA approach seeks to interpret the experience of the event using emergent themes from the data (Cresswell, 2012, p.506), thereby providing a deeper level of analysis beyond retelling events to seek the truth of an experience (Smith et al., 2009).

A grounded theory approach

Another question to address is that, if not a life history approach, 'What about grounded theory, in particular constructivist grounded theory?' Smith et al. (2009) have argued that this approach offers greater flexibility and a clearer epistemological position compared to other strands of grounded theory (2009, pp.201–202). Furthermore, Smith has described this approach as having a 'trans-disciplinary identity' that paves the way for a qualitative research space within the social sciences, which otherwise would have been dominated by positivism. This approach contains methods which overlap with IPA, and both are broadly inductive. While one could argue that data in an IPA analysis is theorised to a degree, the main concern is the micro-analysis of an individual's experience and a 'detailed exploration and presentation of actual slices of human life' (2009, p.202). In contrast, grounded theory is concerned with the conceptual, specifically, explanations/concepts and/or resulting theoretical claims which individual accounts could be drawn on to illustrate. Therefore, the sample size is usually much greater than with IPA. It is also worth noting that, as Smith has argued, IPA is not opposed to these 'macro-level claims' but rather values micro-analysis, which ultimately 'may enrich the development of more macro accounts'. It is possible, therefore, that an IPA study could potentially lead to a grounded theory study (2009, pp.200–202).

Participants

How were they recruited?

The participants of the study were recruited using the following criteria (see Figure 3.1 below).

Figure 3.1 – Recruitment criteria for selecting participants

Student criteria	Teacher criteria
Be a full-time student in the Unit.	Be employed by the school on a full-time or part-time contract.
Have been informed by the principal of the school that he or she may be permanently excluded if behaviour does not improve.	Be a teacher of a student who is now full-time in the Unit.
Not be on a 'managed move' from another school.	Not currently be under any disciplinary investigation.
Not currently be under police investigation.	

Two participants were recruited for the study: a year 10 student who, for the purposes of this study, is called 'Alex', and a teacher who was willing to be 'known' in the study as a female member of staff with reference to the use of the words 'her' and/or 'she'. However, she wanted to be known only as 'the teacher' rather than using a pseudonym. It is important to highlight, again for the purposes of transparency, the reasons for asking Alex and the teacher to be a part of the study. The usual trajectory for a student coming into the Unit (previously discussed in chapter 1) is that, when a student is referred to the Unit, the typical pathway involves one week's assessment before progressing to the Unit full-time for a minimum period of one month. The aim is then to gradually reintegrate students back into the mainstream of the school through timetabled lessons. In exceptional circumstances, which are assessed on a case-by-case basis, this pathway may be overridden, and a student may come straight into the Unit on a full-time basis.

Alex's case is one that I would describe as an exceptional circumstance. I received an email detailing the incident which had occurred; Alex arrived two days later in the Unit on a part-time provision, and I was tasked with working with him. If a student follows the usual trajectory for entering the Unit, teachers there have the opportunity to meet with them beforehand. This can also be a chance to build rapport with the student and speak with their parents/carers and their teachers. When Alex arrived at the Unit, I had not observed him in

his classes, and I had not met with his parents; I did not know this student at all. Immediately, I asked myself the questions; 'Why are you here?', 'Who is this student?' and 'What has happened for a student who was predominantly "trouble-free" to be sent here?' I was intrigued to discover more.

There were two reasons to recruit the science teacher: first, she was the teacher in the classroom at the time of the incident; second, she had taught Alex for two years (from years eight to 10) and had knowledge of him in the classroom context. She would be able, therefore, to provide a baseline for Alex's behaviour, e.g., 'What is Alex's behaviour usually like in lessons?' was a potential question. Further, she would be able to state whether the incident was the only time Alex had behaved this way — a 'one off' (Ayers et al. 200 and 2013). She would also be able to state if she felt Alex's behaviour had deteriorated over a period of time. I also believe recruiting 'the teacher' to be important particularly in terms of corroborating and cross-referencing their accounts of the incident, thereby contributing to the validity of the data.

Sample size

Participant sample sizes within IPA studies are typically small (Larkin and Thomas, 2012 p.55; see also Smith et al., 2013); the norm is to 'provide sufficient cases for the development of meaningful points of similarity and difference between participants, but not so many that one is in danger of being overwhelmed by the amount of data generated' (2013, p.51).

The rationale for the small sample sizing indicates the depth of analysis of individual transcripts, which take a significant period of time. Therefore, as an IPA researcher, I sacrifice breadth for depth in terms of participant recruitment. Furthermore, my aim through the use of IPA may not be to make 'general claims'; however, this does not imply that IPA is opposed to making general claims about large populations. Rather, it is 'committed to the painstaking analysis of cases', which Larkin and Thomas (2012) have argued is demonstrated through IPA studies published 'with samples of one, four, nine, 15, and more' (2012, p.56). This demonstrates the trend in IPA studies to use few participants. Moreover, taking into account the depth of analysis in order to create an interpretative account, Larkin and Thomas have claimed that researchers now recognise that this can only be done 'realistically' with very small samples (2012, p.56–57).

Data gathering

Semi-structured interviews and theoretical underpinning

The theoretical underpinning for the interviews was based on the ecological approach advocated by Bronfenbrenner (1979), specifically within the micro-system of each of the participant's world through examining the areas of the school, the home, and the social. In order to understand what participants brought to the interface, I needed to understand how they experienced their immediate environments. This approach shifts the focus away from the student in terms of his perceived 'behavioural problems' to consider the environments in which he operated as dysfunctional in some way. According to Cooper and Upton (1991), students' behavioural problems in schools could be symptomatic of 'dysfunctions in the family system ... the school system, or ... the family school relationship system' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.68). By examining the different areas of a student's life (home life, school life, and social life), the area of concern was highlighted, particularly when Alex was asked how he perceived himself or how he felt he was perceived. Once an area was highlighted, Sutton's (1999) argument that 'the parts of a system affect each other' is emphasised, particularly if a student experiences a traumatic incident at home or in the social context; when they attend school and have rules to abide by, compliance is an inevitable issue. Hesketh and Olney (2004) have further argued that 'behaviour presented in school is often replicated at home' (2004, p.231).

The use of ecological theory to underpin the interviews from a phenomenological perspective enabled the use of the Husserlian concept of '*Abschattung',* or shadowing. This concept is taken from Husserl's seminal work *Investigations* (see Moran, 2000), in which he argues that we only see phenomena from one side or one part of their whole. However, in order to view different profiles, or what Husserl calls the 'Abschattung' of a phenomenon, we 'move' around it (Moran, 2000, p.116). If two people view a particular phenomenon from different angles and move to where the other person stood, one could argue they each saw the same phenomenon from the same sides, thus creating a consensus of phenomenological experience within a mode of experience. In turn, this could potentially create cross-participant themes at the coding and analysis stages.

Applying the 'Abschattung' concept to the teacher-student interface enabled me greater insight into the inter-subjectivity of each participant by 'freeze-framing' the interface and moving around it through the lens of what each participant experienced at home, at school,

and socially. Thus, it enabled an enquiry which aimed to understand the participants and explore the conditions which triggered experience located in past events. Furthermore, Smith and Eatough (2017) have described it as the 'invariant structure' that makes the situation what it is and not something else (2017, p.3). Moreover, the approach enables IPA to clarify and elucidate an event, which illuminates an experience within the 'socio-historical situated person' (2017, p.4). In turn, this enables data mining and generating of layers of meaning. The aim of the interviews was also to gauge the participants' perspectives of the interface; specifically, their perception of themselves as 'learner' and teacher'. The interviews took place within the Unit where Alex had 'time-out', and I wanted to ensure that part of that experience meant that both Alex and the teacher were listened to and felt comfortable talking about the incident and any other issues that could arise as a result of the interviews. Essentially, the aim was for the participants to feel emancipated and willing to talk, as opposed to disempowered and reluctant to talk if the interview were to take place in an environment where they did not feel comfortable, i.e., in the science classroom or the head teacher's office (Wearmouth et al., 2005).

Style of interview

The approach I used in order to understand how my participants experienced the interface was to use semi-structured interviews. This style of interview is commonly used within IPA (Eatough and Smith 2008) and is considered the 'exemplary method for IPA' (Smith and Osborn 2008, p. 29; see also Smith et al., 2009; 2011; Smith and Pietkiewicz, 2014; Kreisburg, 2017; Holland et al., 2014). To further support this choice, semi-structured interviews have been used within much IPA research (see Willis, 2017; Shaw and Anderson, 2018; Rizwan, and Williams, 2015; Huff and Clements, 2017; Haegele et al., 2017; Charlick et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2009, 2011, 2014).

Given their importance as data sources, I significantly emphasised the design, organisation, and conducting the interviews and aftercare (RMEH, 2001, pp.170–172). The face-to-face interviews enabled me to gauge responses by observing the participants' verbal and non-verbal communication, pauses, and hesitations; doing so lends itself to a more probing and in-depth investigation than 'is possible with a questionnaire' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.245). Furthermore, semi-structured interviews were used to reduce what Wilson (1996) has described as 'procedural reactivity', which can occur as a result of the participants' awareness of the interview situation. The participants may feel as though they

are expected to react in a certain way, or they may be tense because of emotional situations they recall or relive (Tickle, 2017; Sapsford and Jupp, 2006). In addition, this reactivity may be heightened as a result of the environment in which they are interviewed. Although a far cry from the 'science of the strange' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), procedural reactivity within interpretative research must be considered. I also had to be mindful of the fact that this could increase 'personal reactivity', which can occur as a result of the mannerisms, attitude, and behaviour of the researcher and to take this into account when deciding on the credibility of the information given. Moreover, I had to be aware of the 'response effect' and ensure there was no undue emphasis on certain words and no leading questions. In addition, when the participants began to talk, I actively listened to them through the use of verbal and non-verbal facilitators, i.e., eye contact, head nodding, and phrases such as 'uh-huh' and 'mmm' to encourage the participants to continue (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.246).

Face-to-face interviews were conducted to further emphasise the importance of the subject matter and the necessity of obtaining rich, meaningful data through both verbal and non-verbal cues and responses. Therefore, establishing and maintaining a rapport at the beginning and throughout the data-gathering process was necessary to facilitate trust. As Butin (2010) has stated, within research, the complex task of 'interviewing' requires more than a question-and-answer session; it requires a strict ethical procedure, thoughtfulness, and preparation (Butin, 2010).

Interview organisation

For the purposes of transparency, this section gives a detailed description of the organisation of the interviews. The interviews were conducted in a room within the Unit, and the same room was used for each interview. The room was a working room, e.g., both students and staff use this room on a regular basis. The room measured approximately 10 feet by 12 feet and was clean and well-lit with windows allowing in natural light. The room was also fitted with artificial lighting. There was one door through which the room could be entered and exited. The layout of the room at the time of the interview depended on where the participants wanted to sit. I was mindful of the fact that this was their interview, and they were free to sit on a chair, on a table, on the floor, or to walk around the room; I always sat in the same place, on a chair next to a desk (not behind) in order for me to be able to make contemporaneous notes. The interviews took place on a Monday, Wednesday, and Friday during one week; this was because Alex was on a part-time timetable and attended the Unit in the morning on those days. Both the teacher and Alex were interviewed on the same day,

Alex in the morning and the teacher in the afternoon. Alex, the teacher, and I agreed to this in order to fit the interviews in with the participants' timetables.

Six semi-structured interviews took place, three involving the teacher and three involving the student. For each participant, an interview focused on their school life, which included the incident; an interview focused on their home life; and an interview focused on their social life. Each interview was planned to last one hour, with breaks every 20 minutes; however, they were participant-led. The home life interview with the student lasted 90 minutes, and the social life interview lasted only 20 minutes, so the timings were not exact. Similarly, the school life interview with the teacher lasted 85 minutes, and the home and social life interviews were fewer than 60 minutes each.

Interview questions

The interview questions were designed to be open-ended, not only to ensure that a thread was maintained but also to ensure the interview was what I would describe as two-way conversation; that is, it did not consist solely of me asking a series of yes/no questions, which could be construed as leading the participants to give answers that would support a hypothesis I wanted to prove. Although this would be easier to analyse, it would limit the range of the answers given and the perspective of the experience. Therefore, I decided to use a series of open-ended questions followed by closed questions and prompts (RMEH, 2001, p.171).

Smith et al. (2009) have advocated the fluidity of the IPA method. Although they promote semi-structured interviews as the 'method of choice' for the IPA researcher, they do not argue for one style of questioning. Their work shows that each area of questioning is based on ecological theory, and so in this study, each participant was interviewed regarding their home life, school life and social life. The questions needed to be underpinned by phenomenology, hermeneutics, and idiography because these are the key features of IPA, which acts as the 'vehicle' for the data collection process prior to analysis. These questions would also enable me to gain a phenomenographic insight into Alex's and the teacher's experience and understanding of the incident and how they made sense of it.

Rapport

It was important to build rapport with Alex and the teacher while asking the interview questions because, as Smith et al. (2009) have argued, the participants need to feel comfortable with the researcher so that they 'know what you want and to trust you' (2009,

p.64). In order to achieve this, at the beginning, my interview questions were what I would describe as 'general' (see appendix for examples). In line with Smith et al., I do not advocate a prescriptive method for starting interviews; rather, I aim to demonstrate what I did in my investigation. These general questions then pave the way for further, in-depth questioning with regard to the areas of the participants' microsystems (their home, school, and social lives).

Styles of questions

Once rapport was established with the participants, it was important for me as a researcher to use and favour 'open'-style questions (usually beginning with 'who', 'what', 'when', 'where', 'how', and 'why') in order to elicit ample information from the participants. These responses could then be followed up with closed questions or 'prompts' for clarification. Smith et al. have suggested these for 'in-depth interviewing' (2009, p.60), and examples from my study are tabulated below (see figure 3.2). Each example question relates to the questions I used during Alex's school interview.

Figure 3.2 Styles of questioning and examples of questions used within the study

Style of questioning	Example question
Descriptive	What GCSEs are you studying?
Narrative	Why did you choose these subjects?
Structural	What stages are involved in completing GCSE science?
Contrast	Why do you prefer a physical education lesson to a history lesson?

Evaluative	How did you feel after the incident?
Circular	What do you think the teacher thinks about how you behaved?
Comparative	How do you think you would have behaved if you weren't thinking about 'home stuff'?
Prompts	Can you tell me a bit more about that?
Probes	What do you mean by 'felt knotted'?

This the 'style of questioning' advocated by Smith et al. is prominent in the literature cited earlier in the chapter on the use of IPA in education research (see Moriah, 2018; Willis, 2017; Shaw et al., 2015; Gauntlett et al., 2017; Lim, 2016; Edwards, 2017; Charles, 2012; Short, 2013; Noon, 2017; 2018; Jeong and Othman, 2016; Holland, 2014; Haegele and Zhu, 2017; Denovan and Macaskill, 2013; Rizwan and Williams, 2015; Huff and Clements, 2017; Haegele et al., 2017; Manning, 2016; Hayton, 2009; Hefferon and Gil-Rodriguez, 2011; Lander and Sheldrake, 2010; Majors, 2009; Oxley, 2016).

In line with Smith and Osborne's (2007) recommendations, it was important not to rush the interviews. It was also important for me to give Alex and the teacher time to respond and finish their answers before following up with a closed question or moving on to the next question. To this end, I only asked one question at a time to avoid confusing the participants, who could have found it difficult to unpack the questions and lose track of what was asked, which may not have resulted in the best answers (Smith et al. 2009). Additionally, in terms of what Smith et al. (2009) have described as 'going deeper' with information gathering, it would appear that 'less is more'. Thus, when Alex discussed areas of 'home stuff' or when the teacher described the incident in the classroom, I used 'minimalist questions' (Smith et

al., 2009), for example: ‘Can you tell me more about ‘home stuff’?’, ‘How did you feel?’, ‘How?’, and ‘Why?’ (2009, p.68).

General considerations for conducting my IPA interviews

As a researcher, I have ethical responsibilities towards Alex and the teacher (see Smith et al., 2009, p.53–54; see also Taylor and Bogdan, 1998, Breakwell, 2006, and Burgess, 1984); these ethical principles are discussed in greater depth in the ethics section of this chapter. As a general consideration, it was important for me to monitor the effect of the interviews on Alex and the teacher. If either participant appeared to feel uncomfortable with a question, they may or may not express this verbally, non-verbally, or indirectly in their response. With this in mind, not only was it necessary for me to monitor all of these possibilities, but I also needed to be ‘ready to respond’ to this responsibility (Alase, 2017, p.14–15). The contingency, therefore, was that if there was discomfort, I withdrew from the current line of questioning and either tried again in a more subtle or gentle fashion, changing words of the question and/or tone of voice. Alternately, I decided not to pursue this area with the participant (Alase, 2017).

Contemporaneous notes

With each participant's consent, contemporaneous notes (Davies, 2000; Tanner and Davies, 2013) were taken during the interview. This was done instead of using an audio recording device because it enabled me to write down the follow-up questions and answers at the time, clarify any points necessary, and note each participant’s body language (Oltmann, 2016; Opdenakker, 2006). This process took the format of asking a question, actively listening to the answer given, and observing the body language immediately after the question was asked and, during the period of time (if any) before the answer was given, whilst the answer was being given, and immediately after. It is important to note that, in line with Stroh’s (2011) argument, body language needs to be recorded contemporaneously in a research diary even if a tape recorder is used because the tape recorder does not record these aspects. If a tape recorder is used, Stroh argues that there is greater difficulty cross-referencing the body language with the transcript once the tape recording is transcribed (Stroh, 2011). In this study, therefore, it was easier to note the body language when detailing the questions and responses. I then wrote the answer given and read it back to the participant in order to clarify. This enabled me to ask any necessary follow-up questions. The rationale for following this method was that it enabled me to be a part of the interface as it was being

experienced and relived by digesting the language used and observations seen. It also enabled me to enter the hermeneutic circle (Smith, 2007; Smith et al., 2009; Packer and Addison, 1989) for the first time. I could thus begin to make sense of the whole of the story by understanding the different parts (Smith et al., 2009). IPA recognises the participants of the study as 'experiential experts' (Eatough et al., 2008); therefore, as a researcher conducting these interviews, I wanted to use a method which would 'invite participants to offer a rich, detailed, first person account of their experiences' (Smith et al., 2009, p. 56).

When detailing their experiences, I encouraged the participants not to rush but to take their time and be thoughtful. I emphasised that this was their interview, and my role was not to dictate its direction but to guide it. This is where the use of semi-structured interviews allowed me to be flexible in modifying questions based on the participants' responses (Edwards and Holland, 2013). This in turn further allowed what I describe as the promotion of free narrative, whereby the participants could 'find their own voice, develop their own themes, and analyse their own experiences in ways that made sense to them' (Garrod, 1997, p. xv). This allowed their experiential worlds to be accessed, comprehended, and analysed, with a further aim of providing a personal account of the research through a first-person narrative. This also occurred through non-prescriptive questioning, which addressed the following themes/questions within my own research:

1. What do I think?
2. How do I make sense of this critically?
3. What do other people think, and why?
4. How does this alter my own position?

Aftercare

The aftercare was guided by the ethical considerations of this study (see below). Following each of the interviews, I asked the participants if they were comfortable with the answers given and informed them that they were still free to withdraw their consent for me to use their data at any time. They would also be able to view my thesis before I submitted it if required. A further consideration of the aftercare was to make the participants aware of the services the school offered, such as counselling, should they wish to use them. This was done

because the interviews contained emotive topics for both the teacher and the student, and they may have wished to discuss these beyond this study (Smith et al., 2009).

Validity

The immediate consideration and responsibility towards the validity of the study within the data-gathering process was to maintain equilibrium between the narrative and its validity, more specifically, ensuring that it reflected 'how the world is' from the perspective of my participants (Wearmouth et al., 2004; Larsen-Freeman, 2016; Newton and Burgess, 2016). However, I continually maintained the hinge question, 'How can I verify what has been said?' With this in mind, Smith et al. (2009) have argued that, when assessing the validity and measuring the quality of research, IPA researchers should adhere to the following four principles:

1. sensitivity to context,
2. commitment and rigor,
3. transparency and coherence, and
4. impact and importance.

Although Smith et al. have acknowledged the utility of these principles, they also encourage creativity and flexibility with these criteria (2009, pp. 180–183), thus reiterating the argument that IPA coding is a fluid, iterative process (2009, p.91).

The use of IPA and ecological theory as a combined approach in educational research is a relatively new concept, and the issue of validity and quality is as relevant to IPA as it is to all research. In this thesis, IPA assumes a more dominant role. Therefore, the assessment for quality and validity focuses on the criteria of the founder of IPA, Johnathan Smith. Smith et al. (2009 and 2011) have published, reviewed, and reassessed the work of IPA to develop a combination of measures and criteria used to judge a 'good study' (Smith, 2011; see also Vicary, 2017, p.102).

The first criterion, sensitivity to context (Smith, 2009), is that the participants were recruited because they shared a lived experience. Both were at the school in which I work, one as a student and one as a teacher. This granted additional viability to the study (Smith, 2009, p.180) and enabled ease of access to gatekeepers, those who give permission for the research at the school. The second criterion, commitment and rigour, involves attentiveness and care towards the participants during the study, particularly during the interviews. An

outsider should be able to examine the study and state that, during the interview process, there was attentiveness and care throughout.

The third criterion is transparency and coherence; the research must demonstrate an understanding of ethical considerations, the theoretical underpinnings of the subject, and knowledge of the relevant literature and participant perspectives (Vicary, 2017, p. 101–103; see also Smith, 2011; Yardley, 2000). The final criterion concerns impact and importance; this is 'the real test of validity' because the question, 'Does this study tell the reader something interesting, important, and/or useful?' needs to be asked. Furthermore, as an IPA researcher, I 'should be aspiring to do this' (Smith et al., 2009, pp.182–183; Yardley, 2000).

Both participants were present during the event in the classroom; therefore, the verification process was a matter of cross-referencing. This was coupled with recapitulating and summarising what each participant said during the interviews, along with observing their non-verbal communication (Mehrabian, 2017; Burgoon et al., 2016). The body language of each participant was observed before, during, and after each question was asked and each answer given. This enabled me to gauge both what was said and how it was said. However, it is important to note that this refers to my interpretation of the answer's validity.

While the interviews took place, I continually asked myself the following questions: Have there been inconsistencies in what has been said during the answers given and/or during recapitulation? Is the answer given plausible? Or was there a clustering of the 'signs of deceit', such as a high-pitched voice or an answer not given with some degree of immediacy and/or fluidity? (McClish, 2019; McClish and Schafer, 2012). However, a participant who has experienced trauma, as Alex had, may not immediately verbalise what has happened to them with fluidity. In light of this, McClish (2012) has argued that the most successful way to verify the 'truthfulness' of a statement is to analyse the words used.

McClish's argument was a key factor during the verification process of the student home interview and as part of the ethical principles of the study, namely juridic and deferential vulnerability. As a caveat to Alex's consent to the study and that of his parents, I gave them the opportunity to read the interview questions and answers as they appeared with their coding. In essence, I wanted Alex's parents to have the opportunity to verify what he said, and he was reminded of this at the start of each interview. The rationale was that Alex's parents were present during the incident at the house, and either or both would be able to verify what was said. For me as a researcher, this transparency was key to the verification

process and to maintaining a balance between the narrative and its validity. The result for my research is that, through the processes and methods used, my findings have validity.

The data coding process

From the process of initial note-taking to the development of master themes, the coding process demonstrated the key tenet of hermeneutics within IPA. In essence, this concerns how the participants made sense of themselves within the situation, which in turn enabled me as a researcher to 'enter' into a double hermeneutic (Smith et al., 2009, p.35; Smith and Osborn, 2003) in which I tried to make sense of the participants trying to make sense of themselves in the situation.

My key argument and claim to knowledge resulting from my data presentation is that, by using a methodological combination of IPA and ecological theory, insight was gained into both the experience of the phenomena and into the 'selves' of the participants experiencing the phenomena. Furthermore, it enabled a deeper understanding of the causes of disruptive student behaviour from both the student and teacher perspectives, specifically of how this was achieved through investigating the different 'lives' within the microsystem (home, school, and social); these provided an holistic perspective of what the participants brought to the interface. The reciprocity of the dual approaches of IPA and ecological theory through the 'Abschattung' was also clear. This culminated in a greater understanding of the specifics of why the incident occurred, how it was experienced, and the thoughts, feelings, and emotions of the participants within the moment of interface.

Coding

The initial presentation of data resulting from the microsystemic interview of each participant involved examining the school, home, and social lives by coding each of the interviews. The first interview involved school life, which included the experience of the disruption within the classroom. The rationale for coding this interview first was because this incident placed the student at serious risk of permanent exclusion. Furthermore, it enabled me to understand the teacher/student interface from the student's point of view and how he experienced himself as a disruptive student. Following the coding of this interview, I then focused on coding the student's home and social life interviews. This focus enabled me to understand how the student experienced his home and social lives and what he brought from

these areas to the interface. From the perspective of ecological theory, it also enabled me to understand the microsystem of each participant and how the different areas within the system interacted. In turn, I could thus understand how the participants made sense of this interaction and how it was experienced. I coded the interviews on a case-by-case basis, starting with the student interviews and then those of the teacher, following the same order.

During the coding process, I drew upon the following strategies advocated by Smith et al. (2009):

1. Line-by-line analysis of the participant interview.
2. The identification of themes/patterns within the experiential material highlighting convergence and divergence as well as commonality and nuances.
3. The development of an interpretative account as a result of meaning-making inter-subjectivity.
4. The development of a gestalt that illustrates relationship themes. (Smith, 2009, p.79–80)

Smith et al. (2009) have also advocated six steps to guide those conducting IPA research analysis:

1) Total immersion – reading and re-reading the original data in order to begin entering the participants' world.
2) Initial noting – maintaining an open mind and noting anything of interest
3) Developing emergent themes – preparing for the growth of the data
4) The search for connection across emergent themes – charting or mapping
5) Moving on to the next participant's (case) data (bracketing out the ideas from the first case and ensuring that the idiographic commitment is upheld)
6) Looking for patterns between participants (across cases). (Smith et al., 2009, p.82–101; Smith and Pietkiewicz, 2014, p.10–12; see also Smith and Pietkiewicz, 2012)

To reiterate, I had no intention as a researcher to be prescriptive; in summary, as Smith et al. have argued, the only 'fixed' point of analysis is created when the analysis is written up (2009, p.81 and p.96).

Initial noting

The initial noting and commenting were broken down into three areas of what Smith et al. (2009) have called 'comments', which are descriptive, linguistic, and conceptual (2009, p.84). The process regarding descriptive comments involves examining what has been said

and highlighting key phrases and/or explanations regarding the participants' experience (2009, p.84–88), which are the things which matter to their lifeworld. In terms of this study, examples include 'protecting my mum' and 'guilt', or words, phrases, or voiced thoughts such as 'never coming back' and 'just lost it'. Having considered the initial highlighting of face-value commentary, the area of linguistic comments involves a deeper analysis of how the words used reflect what has been experienced. The use of metaphors and similes can be a useful phenomenological tool for demonstrating the impact of an experience. In the current study, examples of these are 'felt knotted' or 'we grew apart'. These indicators create dialogue for further discussion, thereby eliciting further experiential narrative.

In essence, conceptual commentary centres upon opening up a range of provisional meaning. Within the process of trying to understand the text, it was important for me to think of this process as a Gadamerian dialogue (Malpas and Gander, 2015, Sammel, 2003), whereby I engaged with the text through my own projection with participant pre-understanding and newly emerging understandings of the participants' worlds (Smith et al., 2009, p.25-27 and p.89). Gadamer (1990/1960) has stated that understanding what is in a text involves revising the researcher's fore-projection as a result of the emergence of meaning from both the engagement with the text and the sense-making process. Furthermore, this process is a continuous one of understanding and interpreting the phenomenon. An example from this study is when the participants talked about how they were when they experienced something or how they act differently within certain contexts; this could be conceptualised as the 'multiplicit self' or the 'multiplicity of selves' (Carter, 2008; Carter and Lester, 2013).

Coding and developing emergent themes

When coding the interviews, it was important to have, as Smith et al. (2009) have argued, a synergy between the participants and the researcher (2009, p.92). The process of description and interpretation brought me closer to my participants in terms of the interpretative meaning and fidelity of the method. Regarding the process, it was initially necessary to list every code, thereby ensuring the inclusivity of the coding, excluding nothing, and maintaining the 'bracketed out' view. To generate the emergent themes, it was important to 'step' into the hermeneutic circle by breaking the interview into parts to perform a closer analysis, which reflected a shift in working from the transcript to the exploratory notes. This process means that, as a researcher, I assumed a more central role as the analysis moved towards an interpretative focus. However, the resulting analysis is a 'collaborative

effort' between my participants and me (2009, p.92). Importantly, I do not use 'collaborative' to mean that they are co-researchers; my intended definition is that it was a collaboration of their data and my analysis.

Generating superordinate themes

As a result of the coding and the development of emergent themes, I generated superordinate themes. A superordinate theme combines a series of clearly related, other themes (Smith et al., 2009, p.97; see also Bourne, 2018; Tomkins and Eatough, 2010). A superordinate theme is generated through the process of either 'subsumption' or 'abstraction' (Smith et al., 2009, pp. 96-97). Subsumption occurs when an emergent theme from the cluster acquires superordinate status; an example of this is given below.

The generation of a superordinate theme through subsumption

Emergent themes	Superordinate theme
Loss Grief Bereavement Sadness Anger Depression	Bereavement

If we consider the emergent themes in this example, they all relate to the death of a loved one. Therefore, 'bereavement', through the process of 'subsumption', acquires superordinate status. The rationale for this choice is that the word itself explains the event and accounts for all the other themes.

The second process of 'abstraction' occurs when patterns are identified from the emergent themes, none of which can explain the others. Therefore, the researcher develops a new name for the cluster of themes (2009, p.96). An example of this is given below:

The generation of a superordinate theme through abstraction

Emergent themes	Superordinate theme
Excessive thinking	

Denial Shock Mourning Anger	Psychological effects of bereavement

Again, if we consider the emergent themes in this example, they all relate to the death of a loved one. The 'psychological effects of bereavement', however, is not an emergent theme. Therefore, through the process of abstraction, the cluster of emergent themes is kept together, but the researcher gives it a new name.

The development of master themes

Following the development of superordinate themes, I then undertook the process of looking for patterns and themes between coding the interviews. This process was used in order to generate 'master themes', the themes which may be particular to one participant but may represent higher-order concepts between the two participants (Smith et al., 2009, pp.100–101). Smith et al. (2009) have argued that 'some of the best IPA occurs' in this process because the researcher can become creative, which 'helps the analysis move to a more theoretical level' (2009, p.101). Therefore, this process gave me the opportunity as a researcher to be creative, experience the higher-order qualities of the interview texts, and demonstrate how the participants have 'uniquely idiosyncratic instances but also shared higher order qualities' (2009, p.101). This process involved examining each of the themes (both emergent and superordinate) across participants and considering the following questions:

1) What connections are there between the cases?
2) Which themes have the greatest influence/potency?
3) Do the themes in one case support another?

These questions are not exhaustive and are intended only to give a starting point for each theme. This process also enabled me to reflect on my own experience of 'walking with the participants' as they relived their experiences (Smith et al., 2009).

The analysis

After generating the master themes, Smith et al. (2009) do not advocate a single, prescriptive method for the analysis and theorisation of the data (2009, p.79–81). Rather, they have argued that the IPA literature promotes flexibility and fluidity throughout the analytical process (2009; 2012; 2014). It is important to highlight that the essence of IPA analysis and indeed IPA itself is the analytic focus, specifically, the direction of the analytic focus on the 'participants' attempts to make sense of their experiences' (2009, p.79). This focus suggests that hermeneutics – specifically, the double hermeneutic – is key because, as a researcher, I try to make sense of the participant who tries to make sense of their experience of the event. In order to enter into the hermeneutic circle, I needed to assume the emotional point of view of Alex and the teacher, thereby leading to an inter-subjective stance. The rationale for this is centred on the ontological perspective, which is the ability to understand others' minds. In order to do so, the analysis focused on the 'complexity of the moment' and the 'layers' embedded within it. This meant that a grounded IPA reading of the data would result in an analysis from the data as opposed to importing an extant theory (2009, p.105).

The IPA focus in this analysis, therefore, stipulates the use of what Smith has described as 'processes and principles' (Smith et al., 2009). In the case of processes, the characterisations of IPA analysis in this study involved moving from a descriptive account of the experience to an interpretative account. Regarding principles, meaning-making, and understanding, the point of view of the participant is the focus. Essentially, IPA analysis is both iterative and inductive, as well as a fluid task of engagement with the data (Smith, 2007; 2009). Furthermore, this engagement utilises the researcher's flexibility of mind and innovation, which evolve into what Larkin and Thompson (2011) have called the development of 'an organised, detailed, plausible, and transparent account of the meaning of the data' (2001, p.104).

The key aspect of the fluidity of this analysis is moving between 'part and the whole of the hermeneutic circle' (2009, p.81), whereby the relationship between the responses my participants gave and the interview as a whole is considered, as is the inverse view. This fluidity ultimately led to a deeper analysis of the data, which in turn enabled the analysis to move to a more interpretative level (2009, p.91). Smith et al. (2009) have argued that an issue with IPA analysis is interpretation; specifically, 'a novice researcher may not take the analysis to a "deep" level (2009, p.103). In order to mitigate this concern, following the IPA

coding, the data theorisation in this study was underpinned by ecological theory and phenomenology (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.23), which enabled a temporal micro-analysis of the event.

The use of ecological theory enables a focus on the settings in which the participants exist and how these may affect behaviour. By focusing on the microsystem of each participant, I then considered what Bronfenbrenner has described as the 'mesosystemic interaction' within the analytical process (1979, p.209). This term refers to how the different areas of a person's microsystem interact. In this study, therefore, an example could be how the participants' home life affects their school life, or vice-versa. It could also concern how specific features of their home, school, or social environments affect behaviour. The settings themselves or specific features, such as objects or perceptions of roles, i.e., a teacher's perception of how a student should behave within the classroom, all contribute to disruptive behaviour.

Bronfenbrenner's advocacy of the importance of using phenomenology within ecological research is reiterated throughout this chapter to understand both how an environment may impact a person and how that impact is perceived by the person experiencing the phenomena (1979, p.33). In this method, how people experience their environment through microsystemic and mesosystemic interaction and what it is like to be in that particular environment take this study to Smith et al.'s 'deeper level of analysis' (2009, p.103). More specifically, it enables an analysis which suggests why those involved in the event acted as they did based on the setting and the factors associated with it. Through this insight and the development of the theory of mind, the road to using this approach in research has been paved. A further rationale for this focus, not just in this study but from a qualitative perspective in general, is that if focus is not maintained, researchers risk becoming swamped in data, and analysis becomes difficult and/or overwhelming. I thus had to be mindful of the fact that this may have led to data being jettisoned and the researcher (myself) being left with low-level insights (RMEH, 2004, p.67–68).

Ethical considerations

Positionality

It is important to recognise and accept that, in relation to this research, no position I choose as a researcher, is neutral. Hodkinson and Macleod (2010) have argued that, in terms of being 'conceptually neutral', all research methods are biased (Hodkinson and Macleod,

2010). Within my role as a researcher, therefore, I needed to ensure that there were no predispositional factors or unconscious bias within my approach. As I conduct research in the school in which I work, I also needed to be aware of my own position as a teacher and any possible assumptions I may make as a researcher which could result from the potential spill between roles (Barnes, 2010). Furthermore, I needed to understand that my research is an iterative process of the strengths and limitations within my chosen paradigm, and that it makes an original contribution to knowledge, ultimately engaging with how learning from research can be conceptualised through on-going debate (Hodkinson and Macleod, 2010).

My epistemological position

My epistemological position is how I position myself within my research and how I arrive at an understanding of what constitutes knowledge about the world (Raddon, 2018; Langdridge, 2007). Placing this thesis into a qualitative theoretical research paradigm, the premise here is two-fold: first, the formation of knowledge, and second, the demonstration of that new knowledge through engendering a corpus of knowledge (Hammersley, 2007, p.7). This thesis is interpretative by title and nature; therefore, my position is to explore the world from the perspective of the individuals involved in my research (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Using IPA (Smith, 1996) and ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) demonstrates a dual process within the methodology, thereby, enabling both of my participants to reflect on their experiences and their perceptions of them (Smith, 2014; Larkin and Thompson, 2012). The subjective nature of this approach enables a deeper micro-analysis, which demonstrates the emergent reality of the interface. In essence, from an epistemological perspective, I aim to show something that has not been shown before.

My ontological position

'Ontology is concerned with the nature of the world' (Willig, 2008, p.13).

My ontological position in this research is that which demonstrates an understanding of the world which I investigate. It is the reality as it is perceived by the participants of the study and the component parts which comprise that reality. In this study, I have taken the phenomenological approach to ontology (Willig, 2013), which concerns an individual's reality, specifically the meanings and interpretations within the participants' worlds. Furthermore, Ritchie and Lewis (2003) have stated that a key question of the approach to conducting this style of research is whether there is a reality which exists outside of people's perceptions or whether the world and the participant's perception of reality are a construction

of their understanding and experiences. In essence, from an ontological perspective, I want to demonstrate inter-subjectivity: the ability to understand the minds of others. More specifically, I aim to understand what it is like to be *the* participant experiencing *the* situation, whilst actively investigating and looking for meaning 'in a way which the participants might be unwilling or unable to do themselves' (Smith, 2017, p.14).

Balancing the roles of teacher and researcher

Throughout this investigation, my role has been that of 'researcher as change agent' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.38), and my motivation for adopting this position has evolved while working with students within the Unit. As a result of my work with these students, I have come to understand the importance of listening to and emancipating the student voice when there may not be an opportunity for voices to be heard (Barnes, 2010). Furthermore, this perspective goes beyond what I describe as the simple labelling of students in order to gain a perceived, potentially limited insight into their behaviour. In order to move beyond these limitations, this position has enabled me to understand the influences of the classroom systems which surround and have an impact upon them, e.g., the physical, spatial, social, and organisational factors which operate within a specific context (Ayers et al., 2000, p.90).

It is important to note that my position involves change on two fronts: thinking and practice. Given the research question, 'How can IPA and ecological theory enable me to understand a student's disruptive behaviour?', IPA and ecological theory can be used so that the methodology, the presentation of data, and the analysis are applied through a systemic approach which is 'multi-levelled and multifactorial' (Ayers et al., 2000, p.88). Doing so seeks to narrow the theory-practice gap by proposing an argument based on an evidence-based case study. This enables the reader to 'think otherwise' about current approaches to behaviour management.

A key factor of my position within this study was being an 'insider' researcher (Smith et al., 2009; RMEH, 2004). Mercer (2007) has discussed some of the advantages and potential challenges of occupying this position. One key advantage is being a member of the school staff in which the investigation was conducted. The literature (Griffith, 1998) has suggested that this 'membership' allows the insider researcher to be familiar with the practices of the setting (in this study, the Unit), as well as its values and ethos and the professional strategies and policies which govern its day-to-day operations (see also Jenson, 2000). It could be argued, therefore, that an 'outsider' researcher may have little or no prior knowledge of these

practices (RMEH, 2004). Further, it has been argued (Smith et al., 2009; Anderson and Jones, 2000: Carter, 2004; RMEH, 2004) that insider research can produce a deep level of data and data analysis and is not always predisposed to 'researcher bias, coercion, and imbalance of power relations' (Anderson and Jones, 2000: Carter, 2004).

It is also important to acknowledge that the experience of working as a teacher within the research setting gave me a working knowledge of the Unit. I had to manage and, when required, consciously change my position from teacher to researcher and vice versa (Drake and Heath, 2008, p.127). In order to do so, I learnt to 'put on different hats' throughout my research process (Roth et al., 2007). Thus, when teaching in the Unit with Alex, another student, or a group of students, my role was a teacher, and I performed my role in accordance with the policies and procedures of the Unit. During the participant interviews and research process, however, my role was a researcher. Here, I conducted my research in accordance with the ethical principles (see below) applicable to this research, as well as the policies which govern the Unit in relation to safeguarding.

I also had to be mindful that 'putting on different hats' may 'infect' the data; therefore, Bowden (2019) has argued that using IPA may limit the possibility of data being 'affected' by being an 'insider' through the process of the 'researcher attempting to understand the experiences of others rather than evaluating the experiences from a subjective position' (2019, p.42; see also Smith et al., 2009). However, IPA methodology does not placate the need to be consciously aware of 'wearing different hats.' After Alex's school interview, for example, it was important not to be affected by the data disclosed during the interview. Doing so could mean that I could treat him differently as a result of his actions through unconscious bias. This is also applicable to the teacher's interviews. A potential consequence of this could be that the participants may lose trust in my professionalism as a researcher and as a member of the teaching staff. In addition, from a researcher perspective, it could be argued that I was affected by the data, which 'spilled' into my other role as a teacher; this could then infect any future data with a perception of mistrust and unprofessionalism. Further, the participants may be less likely to speak in-depth about how they experienced other events within their lives. With this in mind, it is important that my readership accept this study as a credible, trustworthy piece of research in which the research process has been explicit and transparent (see Yardley, 2008: Shaw, 2010; King et al., 2008).

Reflexivity

Within my role of researcher, reflexivity was important because I needed to ensure 'critical self-awareness of the research process within an interpretivist approach' (Bowden, 2019). Bourdieu (1998) has argued this point by stating that, with all research and techniques, reflexivity is a 'precondition of genuine rigor' (1998, p.395). The use of IPA enabled me to approach the study with a mind-set that was not critical, suspicious, trusting, or empathetic of the participants' perspective (Huff and Clements, 2017). This approach allowed fluidity of process, as opposed to what Bowden has described as 'an inflexible process to be followed blindly' (2019, p.47). Further, this was enabled through the epistemological assumption that, as a researcher, I engaged with accounts from participants who are 'always-already' immersed in their worlds (Larkin and Thomas, 2012, p.102; see also Hegel et al., 2017). Furthermore, I approached the interviews with participants as if walking alongside them, carefully questioning features of their lived experience. This enabled me to suspend any possible judgement and focus on how the participants experienced, made sense of, and understood the event (Creswell, 2007: Shaw and Holland, 2014; Bowden, 2019). With a distinct focus on the 'particular', I was able to elicit participant accounts to access experience through the process of inter-subjective meaning-making. The language of their perception was the means to accessing the meaning of the event (Larkin and Thomas, 2012, p.103). In essence, the IPA researcher requires rich descriptive account(s) of the phenomena under investigation, thereby engaging in what Smith and Pietkiewicz have described as 'epistemological reflexivity' (2014, p.7–9).

It was also necessary for me to have what can be described as 'cultural competence' in order to understand my participants' experiential claims (Smith et al., 2009). It is not necessary for me to be an 'insider' in a cultural or research lens; rather, there needs to be an understanding of terms of reference in which the claims exist. However, in the case of this study, I was what could be considered an 'insider' of educational research (Brannick and Coghlan, 2007; Mercer, 2007; Drake and Heath, 2008) because I have worked in education as a teacher for over 10 years and worked within the research setting.

One of the key features to consider concerning this study's reflexivity was the possibility of overfamiliarity with the participants as a result of my 'insider' status (DeLyser, 2001). However, I considered the role of 'insider' a privilege and had easy access to information, e.g., policies. In this thesis, there was limited overfamiliarity with my

participants. Although I knew the teacher as a colleague, we did not work in the same department, and when we attended staff development days, these were whole-school activities with approximately 150 other teachers also in attendance. Further, having stated that I taught Alex on a daily basis, before he came into the Unit, I had had no contact with him. This made Cresswell's (2007) 'effective field relations' and Smith et al.'s (2009) 'rapport at the start of the interview' arguments important during the data-gathering process.

Rapport is important for two reasons: first, for the participants to feel comfortable, and second, because it could be argued, in line with Smith et al. (2009), that the analysis of the data and subsequent generation of knowledge through the use of IPA are 'co-constructed'. That is, both the researcher's and participant's interaction and interpretation lend themselves to developing an understanding of knowledge (see also Conroy, 2003; Bowden, 2019). An element of subjectivity and bias due to the researcher's position within a qualitative research paradigm is accepted (Finlay, 2006). Throughout the investigation, it was important to be continually reflective regarding the research process. Further, as King et al. (2008) have argued, the process of reflection can be viewed as a way of prejudices 'infecting' the data. Smith (2007) has stated that researchers may not become aware of our prejudices and preconceptions until there is active engagement with the data through the processes of coding and theme generation (see also Smith et al. 2009). It was necessary, therefore, to keep a field journal throughout the study in order to identify any prejudices, influences, or factors which may be perceived as prejudice in order for them to be addressed and thus maintain transparency (see also Bowden, 2019).

Key ethical considerations

This thesis is a study of the interaction between a secondary school student at serious risk of permanent exclusion and one of his mainstream teachers. The participants are a year 10 student who I currently teach within the Unit and the teacher, who is a colleague. I approached each potential participant individually and explained the research I hoped to conduct and the university course I studied. Once consent from the student was received, I contacted the student's parents to gain verbal consent and followed up with a letter to confirm formal, written consent. Both verbal and written (signed) consent were received from both participants.

When Alex and the teacher were recruited for the study, it was important that his mother and father had the opportunity to view the data from Alex's interviews for two

reasons: first, for the purposes of transparency when interviewing a minor for this study, and second, in order for Alex's account of what happened at his house (during his home life interview) to be to be corroborated by his parents. Alex's parents could not have access to the teacher's data at any time because I felt this was unnecessary; they would, however, be able to read the thesis prior to submission if they wished. The interview data was kept in a secure locker when in the setting and in a safe at my home address. The information remained confidential, and only I and the two participants were aware of who took part in the study. The data will be securely destroyed following the successful completion of the research study. The participants had access to their data if they required but not access to each other's.

Ethical permission for this study was sought through the University's ethics committee, the school in which the study was to be performed, the participants themselves, and the student's parents because he was under 16 at the time of recruitment. The process for obtaining ethical permission from the University involved completing its standard forms, including a risk assessment, and attaching the interview guide questions and information sheets (see appendix). I was available to answer queries from the chair of the ethics committee and, following its review, permission was granted. The process for receiving permission from the school involved contacting the gatekeepers verbally, then by email, and gaining written permission for the study to proceed.

Throughout this investigation, I explicitly applied the ethical principles of 'non-maleficence', to avoid causing harm to those participating in the study, and 'beneficium', to benefit and promote the participants' welfare (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.46; see also McLeod 1998). In applying these principles, I used pseudonyms for my setting, the staff, and the student. Verbal permission was sought from the necessary gatekeepers to use the data I had gathered. In addition, all stakeholders were aware that they could withdraw consent up to six months after giving it and could read my thesis prior to submission. The importance of observing ethical principles throughout the investigation was maintained to ensure the respect and safety of all stakeholders, the transparency of the investigation, the security and confidentiality of the data collected, and to maintain the viability and validity of my research. In school, both participants in the study were shown how the data was coded, as were parents/carers. If either participant left the school before the completion of the thesis, I made arrangements to contact them directly (in the case of the teacher) or with the parents/carers (in the case of the student). In addition, a copy of the thesis was made available to each

participant. No audio-visual equipment was used, and all answers to the interview questions were contemporaneously written down during the interviews.

Prior to gaining consent, I needed to be aware of two key factors; the first is the issue of juridic vulnerability, whereby the student may feel they 'have to' consent because of my role as an authority figure, i.e., I am a teacher. Therefore, my role as a researcher had to be highlighted. Furthermore, the consent procedure needed to adequately insulate the participants from the hierarchy of the school; this was achieved by anonymising the participants. In essence, consent is theirs to give and not mine to take. The teacher and the student are aware of each other's identity, but the wider school is not.

It was also emphasised to the participants that participating in the study carried no reward or sanction. If the student was at serious risk of permanent exclusion, then by participating, the student would remain at serious risk of permanent exclusion. In addition, the student would not be permanently excluded as a result of not participating in the study, nor would the staff member be promoted or demoted for participating. Second, along with the issue of juridic vulnerability, there is also the issue of deferential vulnerability. There can be an 'agreeableness', particularly with minors, whereby they may feel 'socially pressured' to take part, which may mask an inner reticence. Therefore, when a participant (staff or student) agreed to take part in the study, it was reiterated that they could withdraw their consent. I also reiterated that their participation would have no impact upon any outcome regarding exclusion from school. I explained that the study is separate from what happens to them at the school and, while it may inform practice, there is no preferential or disadvantageous treatment of any participants.

Upon reflection, I consider both participants within this research to be vulnerable because I consider both their lives in school and their social and home lives, as well. Luna (2009) has argued that vulnerability relates to layers which are fully revealed through analysing the context and interactions within it (2009, p. 121). Therefore, the vulnerability of each participant is that, during interviews, they may expose layers of their lives which they would not otherwise. As a result, they may also experience feelings or emotions which are upsetting, particularly if the layers of their lives involve or have involved trauma, abuse, neglect, or bereavement. The participants may also feel uncomfortable discussing the incident studied even though they agreed to take part because of the feelings and emotions it could

invoke. This was addressed by informing the participants from the outset that they could experience these emotions during interviews (Luna, 2009, pp.121–139).

In addition, and aside from the university arguing that the student was vulnerable due to their age, both the participants were vulnerable concerning the aims, focus, and context of the study. From the outset, I needed to aware of the impact for the participants of taking part in this study and the fact that either participant may have had previous undisclosed issues with the school, at home, or in their social lives. In order to address this, openness and transparency were essential. I emphasised that my role as a researcher was to investigate and not make judgements about the participants themselves. However, the participants' statements during interviews become data, and others who read the study may interpret that data. A pro-forma was read to the each participant at the recruitment stage, the consent stage, and immediately before each of the interviews; copies were also given to them.

Furthermore, I needed to be mindful of the fact that I interviewed a minor (secondary school student under 16) who was at serious risk of permanent exclusion. Subsequent interviews and questioning revolved around why the student behaved in a particular way, and reliving experiences may have led to disclosure from the student; this factor highlights the importance of gaining consent for the study. As a researcher, therefore, it was necessary for me to adhere to school's child protection and data protection policies. I explained to my participants that, although their personal details were anonymised within the study, I could not offer confidentiality because I have a duty of care as a researcher. Therefore, if any child protection disclosures were made, these would be passed onto the designated child protection officer. In terms of aftercare, I informed the participants of access to the school's support services, e.g., bereavement counselling, anger management, and smoking cessation classes.

Summary of the methodology chapter

The use of a combined methodology (IPA and ecological theory) enabled an in-depth investigation of disruptive student behaviour within this study. This methodology also constitutes an original contribution to knowledge by extending the forefront of both IPA and ecological theory disciplines, as well as bringing both approaches together to understand disruptive student behaviour. This was achieved through the participants providing idiographic insight into the events they experienced. As a result, further investigation in the guise of semi-structured interviews suggested how they made sense of their perceptions of this event. A key factor of the interview process was voice, specifically, allowing the

participants to guide me through their home, school, and social lives, thus enabling the ‘Abschattung’ (shadowing). This allowed me to ‘move’ around the event within the classroom and consider the actions of those involved in light of these responses. Following the interviews, and as part of the IPA process, I made initial notes and comments with regard to the answers the student and teacher gave. The next steps involved developing emergent themes, superordinate themes, and master themes, the last of which were used as a platform for the analysis chapter. A further key factor during the study was maintaining a strict ethical procedure by adhering to the principles of beneficium and non-maleficence.

Chapter 4: Presentation of data

This chapter presents the data, from the development of emergent themes following noting and coding of the interviews to the development of master themes. My aim in this chapter is not to analyse or theorise the data; rather, it is to create a platform from the data which enables theorising it in the analysis chapter. In essence, IPA was the vehicle which enabled me as a researcher to enter the hermeneutic circle and concern myself 'with the dynamic relationship between the part and the whole' (Smith et al., 2009, p.28). In summary, how each individual piece of data the participants provided during their interviews contributed to their experience of the event. My process of making sense of the how the participants made sense of themselves within both the event in the science classroom and within each of their worlds also contributed. Furthermore, as Smith et al. have argued, in order to understand the whole situation, I needed to consider the different parts and, inversely, in order to understand the different parts, I needed to consider the whole situation (2009, p.28–29). This process invoked a cyclical, non-linear, dynamic style of thinking which, in turn, led to gaining a phenomenographic perspective of the participants' worlds through a four-phase process. The first stage of this process involved noting and coding (not discussed in this chapter but detailed in the methodology chapter; see appendix for example). In the second phase, as a result of the coding, themes emerged; third, as a result of these emergent themes, superordinate themes were developed (Smith et al., 2009). The final phase was establishing master themes from the text, which facilitated the analysis.

In this chapter, each interview (school, home, social life) is titled and presented with a table of the emergent themes which resulted from the initial noting and coding processes. Next, through the processes of abstraction or subsumption, superordinate themes are developed and tabulated with their respective emergent themes and key words from the interviews. The final part of this chapter is the table of master themes developed from the data.

Figure 4.2: Emergent themes following coding of the student's school interview

1.	Multiplicity
2.	View of certain teachers

3.	Teacher/student positive working relationship (PWR)
4.	Exam fatigue
5.	Focus through isolation
6.	Loss of control - mental and physical self
7.	Teacher vs. ideal teacher
8.	Defiance
9.	'Home stuff'
10.	Conscientious about school work
11.	Objects
12.	Annoyed
13.	Dream state/perseveration
14.	Realisation
15.	Guilt
16.	Undesired self during 'the incident'
17.	Release
18.	Inner turmoil

The next task was to group similar themes together to decide whether the abstraction of emergent themes created a super-ordinate theme or whether an emergent theme itself should be given a superordinate status, that is, subsumption. Through the process of abstraction, the following codes were placed under the superordinate theme of 'reaffirmation of self':

Superordinate theme: reaffirmation of self

1. Focus through isolation
2. Guilt

3. Realisation

Through the process of subsumption, I gave the emergent themes 'undesired self' and 'multiplicity' superordinate status because other themes enabled me to combine a series of related emergent themes through contextualisation (Smith et al., 2009, p.98).

Superordinate theme: undesired self

1. Inner turmoil
2. 'Home stuff'
3. Annoyed
4. Release
5. Loss of control
6. Dream state/perseveration
7. Defiance

Superordinate theme: multiplicity

1. Views of teachers
2. Student/teacher PWR
3. Teacher vs. ideal teacher
4. Exam fatigue

My next task was to tabulate the superordinate themes and their respective emergent themes; see figure 4.3 below.

Figure 4.3: Superordinate themes of the student's school life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

Reaffirmation of self	**Key words**
1. Focus through isolation	'Cry'
2. Guilt	'Acid'

3. Realisation	'Hurt, screaming'
Undesired self	
1. Inner turmoil	'Upset and angry, felt knotted'
2. 'Home stuff'	'Couldn't concentrate'
3. Anger	'Annoyed'
4. Objects	'Threw'
5. Loss of control	'Just lost it'
6. Dream state/perseveration	'Closed my eyes/had to get out'
7. Defiance	'Kept walking'
Multiplicity	
1. Views of teachers	'Prick, bitch'
2. Student/teacher PWR	'Get on, say hello, taking an interest'
3. Teacher vs. ideal teacher	'Always exams vs. think about work, not exams'
4. Exam fatigue	'Exams all the time'

The second student interview centred on the student's home life, and the following emergent themes were generated from the coding.

Figure 4.4: Emergent themes following coding of the student's home interview

1. Altered domestic state

2.	Breakdown of home
3.	Initial displacement (physical)
4.	Rotational displacement (physical)
5.	Infidelity
6.	Role (protective of mother and sister)
7.	Familial violence (father)
8.	Unknown emotions seen
9.	The unknown man (father)
10.	Feelings of abandonment (mother)
11.	Feelings of isolation (mother)
12.	Loss of trust (mother and father)
13.	Disbelief
14.	Loss of parental contact
15.	Coping strategies
16.	Future focus
17.	Mourning
18.	Psychological displacement
19.	Adult aversion
20.	In search of self

The next task was to group the similar themes together in order to decide whether the abstraction of emergent themes created a super-ordinate theme, or whether an emergent theme itself was to be given a superordinate status, that is, subsumption. Through the process of abstraction, the following codes were placed under the superordinate theme of ‘deracination’:

Superordinate theme: deracination

1. Initial displacement
2. Rotational displacement

Through the process of subsumption, I gave the emergent themes 'breakdown of home', 'psychological displacement', and 'coping strategies' superordinate status because other themes enabled me to combine a series of related emergent themes through contextualisation (Smith et al., 2009, p.98).

Superordinate theme: breakdown of home

1. Altered domestic state
2. Familial violence
3. Loss of parental contact
4. Unknown emotions
5. Unknown man
6. Protecting mother/sister
7. Infidelity

Superordinate theme: psychological displacement

1. Feelings of abandonment
2. Feelings of isolation
3. Loss of trust
4. Adult aversive
5. Disbelief
6. Mourning

Superordinate theme: coping strategies

1. Future focus
2. In search of self

My next task was to tabulate the superordinate themes and their respective emergent themes; see figure 4.5 below.

Figure 4.5: Superordinate themes of the student's home life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

Deracination	**Key words**
1. Initial displacement	'Threw us out'
2. Rotational displacement	'Two, two, three'
Breakdown of home	
1. Altered domestic state	'Parents split-up'
2. Familial violence	'Fuck off, arguing, threw beer'
3. Loss of parental contact	'Stayed at Nan's'
4. Unknown emotions	'Weird and scary'
5. Unknown man	'It wasn't him'
6. Protective role mother/sister	'Arms around them'
7. Infidelity	'Affair'
Psychological displacement	
1. Feelings of abandonment	'Felt alone'
2. Feelings of isolation	'Outside'
3. Loss of parental trust	'Only trust sister'
4. Disbelief	'Feeling cold, feeling punished'
5. Mourning	'Too much damage'
6. Adult aversion	'Feeling unwanted'

7. Dream state	'Perseveration'
Coping strategies	
1. Future focus	'Forces career'
2. In search of self	'Army cadets'

The final student interview centred on the student's social life, and the following emergent themes were generated from the coding.

Figure 4.6: Emergent themes following coding of the student social interview

1.	Current and future self
2.	Ethos of military values
3.	Transformation of self
4.	Feels valued
5.	Feels wanted
6.	No displacement

The next task was to group similar themes in order to decide whether the abstraction of emergent themes created a superordinate theme or whether an emergent theme itself was to be given a superordinate status, that is, subsumption. Through the process of subsumption, I gave the emergent theme 'transformation of self' superordinate status because it allowed me to bring a series of related emergent themes through contextualisation (Smith et al., 2009, p.98).

Superordinate theme: transformation of self

1. Current and future self
2. Ethos of military values
3. Feels valued
4. Feels wanted
5. No displacement

My next task was to tabulate the superordinate themes and their respective emergent themes; see figure 4.7 below.

Figure 4.7: Superordinate themes from the student's social life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

Transformation of self	Key words
1. Current and future self	'Army cadets, army'
2. Ethos of military values	'Cadet friends'
3. Feels valued	'Camp brilliant, trusted'
4. Feels wanted	'Responsibility'
5. No displacement	'Always welcome'

Coding of teacher interviews

Next, it was necessary to code the teacher interviews. The order and rationale for the coding was the same as for the student interviews. The first interview to be coded was the school life; this interview was coded first because it involves the incident which placed the student at serious risk of permanent exclusion. Furthermore, it enabled me to understand the teacher/student interface from the teacher's perspective and how they experienced themselves being involved with a disruptive incident. Coding the teacher's school interview revealed the following emergent themes (see figure 4.8 below).

Figure 4.8: Emergent themes following coding of the teacher school interview

1.	Workplace ideals
2.	Desired self
3.	Expected self
4.	Roles
5.	Barriers to teaching
6.	Barriers to positive progress
7.	The ‘interrupted’ student
8.	Coping strategy
9.	The undesired self
10.	Self-guilt
11.	Academisation
12.	Transference of expectation from teacher to student
13.	Teacher training
14.	Objects
15.	Exam factory
16.	High expectations
17.	Out of character

Following the coding of the teacher school interview, the next task was to combine the themes in order to create superordinate themes. Through the process of subsumption, I gave the emergent theme ‘workplace ideals’ superordinate status because it enabled me to bring

together a series of related, emergent themes through contextualisation (Smith et al., 2009, p.98).

Superordinate theme: workplace ideals

1. Desired self
2. Expected self
3. Roles
4. High expectations
5. Teacher training

Through the process of abstraction, the following codes were placed under the superordinate themes of 'barriers' and 'the situational self':

Superordinate theme: barriers

1. Barriers to teaching
2. Barriers to positive progress
3. The 'interrupted' student
4. Out of character
5. Transference of expectation from teacher to student
6. Academisation
7. Exam factory

Superordinate theme: the incident

1. Multiplicity
2. The undesired self
3. Self-guilt
4. Objects
5. Coping strategy

Figure 4.9: Superordinate themes of the teacher's school life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

Workplace ideals	**Key words**
1. Desired self	'to inspire'
2. Expected self	'passionate, inspiring'
3. Ideal self	'military values'
4. High expectations	'student achievement'
5. Teacher training	'values, vocational calling'
Barriers	
1. Barriers to teaching	'back seat, admin'
2. Barriers to positive progress	'negative change, unwelcome change'
3. The 'interrupted' student	'student affected, change'
4. Out of character	'always happy, no angel, more to it'
5. Transference of expectation from teacher to student	'endless testing, targets, pressure'
6. Academisation	'business, making money, human cost'
7. Exam factory	'exist'
The Incident	
1) The undesired self	'The teacher who…'
2) Self- guilt	'blame myself, could've done more'

3) Objects	'Threw "acid"'
4) Coping strategy	'calm down, leave, de-escalation'

The second teacher interview centred on her home life, and the following emergent themes were generated from the coding.

Figure 4.10: Superordinate themes of the teacher's home life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

1.	Historic self
2.	Identification disappointment
3.	Coping as a historic process
4.	Fulfilling ambition
5.	Transformation of self
6.	Military service ideals
7.	Career sacrifice
8.	Current self
9.	Making the new self real
10.	Lives alone
11.	Was married

After coding of the teacher home interview, I grouped the themes in order to create superordinate themes. Through the process of subsumption, I gave the emergent themes of 'historic self' and 'current self' superordinate status because they allowed me to combine a series of related, emergent themes through contextualisation (Smith et al., 2009, p.98).

Superordinate theme: historic self

1. Coping as historic process
2. Was married
3. Military service ideal
4. Career sacrifice

Superordinate theme: current self

1. Transformation of self
2. Identification disappointment
3. Fulfilling ambition
4. Making the new self real
5. Lives alone

Figure 4.11: Superordinate themes of the teacher home life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

Historic self		**Key words**
1.	Coping as historic process	'husband away'
2.	Was married	'17 years, two children, divorced'
3.	Military service values	'RAF Police'
4.	Career sacrifice	'got married'
Current self		
1.	Transformation of self	'not stay-at-home Mum'
2.	Identification disappointment	'separate lives'
3.	Fulfilling ambition	'studying, teaching'
4.	Making the new self real	'grew apart'
5.	Lives alone	'on my own, no pets'

The final teacher interview focused on her social life, and the following emergent themes were generated from the coding.

Figure 4.12: Emergent themes following coding of the teacher's social interview

1.	Rambling and hill walking
2.	Holiday
3.	New self vs. newer self
4.	Educational consumerism
5.	Working day vs. working life
6.	Expected self within the role

After coding the teacher home interview, I grouped the themes together to create superordinate themes. Through the process of abstraction, the following code was placed under the superordinate theme of 'travel diary':

Superordinate theme: travel diary

1) Holiday

Through the process of abstraction, the following code was placed under the superordinate theme of 'hobby':

Superordinate theme: hobby

1) Rambling and hill walking

Through the process of abstraction, the following codes were placed under the superordinate theme of 'work/life balance':

Superordinate theme: work/life balance

1) Educational consumerism
2) Working day vs. working life
3) Expected self within the role

Figure 4.13: Superordinate themes of teacher social life interview with respective emergent themes and key words

Superordinate theme: travel diary	**Key words**
1) Holiday	'inspired, sublime romantic'
Superordinate theme: hobby	
1) Rambling and hill walking	'club member, travel diary'
Superordinate theme: work/life balance	
1) Educational consumerism	'working lunch, exam build up, GCSE workshops'
2) Working day vs. working life	'exhausted, holiday is not a holiday'
3) Expected self within the role	'planning and marking'

The final phase of this chapter concerns the table of 'Master themes' (see Figure 4.14 below) which emerged; these are explored in greater depth in the analysis chapter. The purpose of creating these master themes and displaying them in the following format is, as Smith et al. (2009) have argued, to obtain a sense of completion in the coding process. Furthermore, it aims to 'capture' the key aspects of the dialogue which enabled deeper analysis (2009, pp. 102–103).

Table of master themes

The following table of master themes includes the associated sub-themes and extracts from the interviews with Alex and the teacher, which provide context and relevance.

Figure 4.14: Table of master themes

1) **Alex's home**

Breakdown of home

Alex:

When my dad shut the front door, I felt alone.

As my mum drove off, I remember thinking, 'She's never coming back'.

I felt unwanted and that I could only trust my sister now.

I woke to mum and dad shouting, which felt weird and was scary because they never argued.

I just want to be at home again, like before, I just want it to be like it was.

Familial abuse

Alex:

It was scary because it was like it wasn't him, it was my dad but it wasn't. I felt very scared.

He told my mum to fuck off, called her a slag and cunt, which made her cry, and when I saw her cry, I cried too.

Mum was sat on the edge of the sofa crying, dad was really shouting at her, kept pointing at her and swearing at her and threatening to kill her. I was really scared, I didn't know what was happening.

I was really crying, telling him to stop and started shouting back at him, telling him to stop.

Threw the beer in the glass over me, and my mum and told to her fuck off. I was really shocked and just froze.

When he saw he had got me with the beer, he just stared even when mum ran out of the room, he just stared and was breathing really heavily, I got scared and ran after my mum.

I tried to talk to my dad after, but he was more interested in drinking.

2) **Ideals**

Alex's 'just world' prior to the incident

Alex:

Home was good, I felt happy.

We went on family holidays to Italy and Greece. Which was really good, I remember when we went to Greece, we spent 10 days travelling to the different towns.

We had days out to the beach, it was fun, especially when me and dad would push mum and my sister in the water, they would chase us. Makes me smile.

Mum and dad never argued, not that I know of. I couldn't imagine them doing it until that night.

Protective of mother and sister during incident

Alex:

I walked towards her [mum] and put my arms around her, she was so upset and that made me feel upset, too.

My sister went downstairs and I followed, I was afraid of what might happen, she's a bit younger than me, and I didn't want her see what was happening.

Me and my sister couldn't sleep, so we talked all night, I think that's the closest we've ever been. Feels good, we know we can trust each other.

3) **Objects**

Objects at school

Teacher:

Alex grabbed something from my desk, I couldn't see what it was until he turned to the class and said, 'Fuck the lot of you'. When I saw what he was going to do, I felt angry at him, but at the same time couldn't understand why he would want to do it.

I said 'put it down', and as I said 'down' he threw the liquid which was in the beaker over the class, the students.

I honestly thought it was acid, I felt awful, so responsible for what was happening.

Alex:

I grabbed the beaker off the desk and threw whatever was in it over the class, it was some type of clear liquid. I felt knotted inside, sick.

On the desk I saw papers, textbooks, and the beaker, I don't know why, but I picked up the beaker. I didn't feel in control of my hands.

As I picked it up, I was thinking about home stuff, I felt angry.

When I saw the beaker was empty, I felt better, I don't know why, I just did, felt better (sic).

When I closed my eyes, it was like I was back in my front room, and I was throwing it over my dad.

Objects at Alex's home

Alex:

He [Alex's father] threw a load of beer at me and my mum, I couldn't believe it, I just froze.

Mum grabbed her car keys and ran out of the front door, I wondered where she was going.

We turned around and dad shut the front door, he slammed it hard, and it made me jump.

I heard the car door slam and remember thinking, 'No, don't leave me'.

My mum got into the car and drove off, leaving me and my sister outside, it was freezing.

I remember feeling really sick.

4) **The classroom setting**

Teacher:

The science classroom is set out in what we call 'benches'; there are six of them (six rows), and there's room for six students at each bench. I like the room, it's good to teach in and to do experiments in.

We have a seating plan as per school policy, which I do because it helps maintain some control, well, most of the time.

I try to personalise the room and have displays with students' work, so they and I can feel

proud about what they are doing.

Alex sits at the front bench, which is opposite my desk. There was no specific reason for him being seated there.

5) **Roles**

Alex's perception of his own role and the role of the teacher

Alex:

I am at school to learn I suppose, I like school, well, I did, but I'm probably gonna get kicked out now. Not good, I don't want to go to another school, I like it here.

Teachers should make lessons interesting, then everyone will want to learn, even the boring stuff.

If the teacher's a prick or a bitch, I'm not doing any work.

Would you work for a prick or bitch?

It's not about being friends with teachers, it's just about getting on with them, being a bit relaxed.

It's what they're like with you, chat to you and give you advice about stuff.

It's just the little things, like being alright with you and being able to go to them for help.

Saying 'hello' and taking an interest in you as a person and not just chatting about exams all the time.

Always talking about this exam and that exam, just pisses me off.

Teacher's perception of their role and the role of the students

Teacher:

My role is to teach and be the knowledge given and to educate. I enjoy it, I get a lot of satisfaction out of teaching.

Students should be ready to learn when they come into the classroom, that way, they are in the right frame of mind. They have to want to learn, though, you can't really force them.

I feel that my role is to inspire as well as educate. I want to educate and inspire as I had been educated and inspired when I was at school, that's one reason I got into teaching.

I also believe that a big part of my role is getting to know the students I teach. It helps if you get on with students, makes life in the classroom easier.

6) The incident

Teacher:

I have known him [Alex] for a couple of years, and I just felt that what he did was really out of character. I was shocked that he did it.

I blame myself, I just feel I could have done more to prevent it. I look at it as they [the students] are my class, and they are my responsibility.

What annoys me, no, exasperates me the most is when a student like Alex, who clearly has the ability to do well, is interrupted by something. Because it stops them form learning and achieving.

That day he came into the classroom and he was bit quiet, which is odd, because he's normally happy and chatty, I just thought maybe he's a bit tired.

He looked at me with such anger in his eyes and face, he told me shouted at me (sic) to 'fuck off', I felt a bit odd because I wasn't scared but like it wasn't him.

Alex:

She [the teacher] asked me for the homework, I hadn't done it, so I told her, 'I ain't fuckin' done it'; I was upset I hadn't done 'cause of the home stuff.

She [the teacher] told me to calm down, and I told her to fuck off. I felt so angry but not at her.

I came to school having been up all night, I felt really tired, and I didn't want to be there.

I was still thinking about what had happened at home. It was going 'round and around in my head. I was feeling sick, I should have just bunked off [truanted].

Teacher:

I closed my eyes; I thought I'd be reading about myself in the paper, 'The teacher who let an acid attack happen'.

I remember I held my breath as Alex threw the liquid, it was like slow motion.

I didn't feel upset or offended, just concerned for Alex.

7) Perseveration

Teacher

I remember thinking at the time, this wasn't him.

I asked him what was wrong, and he told me to fuck off.

I felt there was more to it because it was so out of character.

As he walked passed me, he kept saying 'I gotta get out', 'get out', 'gotta get out'; I heard it three or four times. My gut instinct told me this wasn't right, 'Why did he need to get out?'

Alex

As I walked towards the door, I remember feeling as though I had to get out.

I saw the beaker, and I dunno, it was a bit like a dream, then it [the beaker] was in my hand. I threw, I just didn't give a shit anymore, I was really wound up.

On the desk I saw papers, textbooks, and the beaker, I don't know why, but I picked up the beaker.

As I picked it [the beaker] up, I was thinking about home stuff.

When I saw the beaker was empty, I felt better. I felt like relief (sic).

When I closed my eyes, it was like I was back in my front room, and I was throwing it over my dad. That's probably why I felt better after, but then I heard people in the class scream. I then got even more scared and ran out the class (sic).

Summary of data presentation chapter

It is important to understand that, as a researcher, I am as 'hermeneutically close' to the participants and the research as is possible prior to the analysis chapter. Having 'walked' with Alex and the teacher through their experiences, I again reiterate that the point of this chapter was not to provide an analysis; the goal was to develop the master themes which are 'explained, illustrated, and nuanced' in the following analysis chapter (Smith and Osborn, 2007). The theorisation of the data occurs under the headings of the master themes.

Chapter 5: Analysis

Introduction

The research question of this study has ensured a thread throughout the thesis, which focuses on understanding a student's disruptive behaviour. In this analysis, there is thus what I would characterise as a natural tendency towards analysing the interview data which enables Alex's behaviour to be understood. Accordingly, this chapter centres on analysing and theorising the data from Alex's home and school interviews, as well as from the teacher's school interview.

This analysis suggests that a disruptive incident in a school classroom may not be fully understood in light of current behavioural approaches. Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, used as the underpinning analytical tool for the data, enabled the exploration of the complexity of the 'moment' of disruption. This allowed for a discussion in relation to the master themes generated from the IPA data. Furthermore, this approach enabled a discussion of the intersection of teacher-practitioner experience juxtaposed with a broader theoretical viewpoint. The intention was to create synergy between the academic world, professional practice, and the use of an ecological approach, which highlighted both the complexity of the settings and the limits of certain behaviourist approaches. Further, ecological theory allowed a more open analysis, which in turn allowed the use of multiple lenses to theorise the data. In essence, it allowed access to the truth of the experience of the event, which may not have been possible through certain behaviourist approaches.

The following data analysis focused on eight key theme areas:

1. The complexity of the 'moment' and ecological theory
2. Alex's home
3. Ideals
4. Objects
5. The classroom setting
6. Roles
7. The incident
8. Perseveration

Summary of findings

My analysis reveals that the factors of the cause of the disruption were not merely behavioural traits associated with the behaviourist approach, i.e., that which is overt, measurable, or observable (Kaplan et al., 2002; Landau, 2009; Pritchard, 2017; Wearmouth et al., 2004; Ayers, 2002). I previously argued that these traits are identifiable through various acts of Parliament (Education and Inspections Act, 2006; Education Act 2011) and DfE directives (2013; 2014a, 2014b, 2014c;), which are a key aspect of behaviour management policy in schools. I also argued that embedding these assumptions in policy could lead to the covert behaviourist approach becoming a default setting for teachers. Furthermore, the causes of disruption were not the results of psychodynamic, clinically derived 'tests for truth', whose process derives from the medical model of testing and quantification (Moore, 2019; Aitken and Radford, 2018; Trevethan, 2017; Weiss, 2002; Ayers, 2002; Wearmouth et al., 2004). My analysis reveals that, while Alex was at home with his family, he observed his father verbally and physically abuse his mother; as a result of this experience, Alex was in a state of anxiety the following day at school. This led to a state of anxiety-driven perseveration and ruminative aggression which resulted in the disruptive classroom behaviour. Alex described this experience as being in a 'dream', saying, 'when I closed my eyes, all I could see was what my father was doing' (extracts from Alex's school interview). Furthermore, the teacher described the incident as having 'more to it' than just 'acting out' and 'being naughty' (extract from the teacher's school interview). These views came from her knowledge of the student, as she had taught him for two years.

In essence, the use of ecological theory enabled the analysis of Alex's and the teacher's microsystems, their component parts, the mesosystem (how the microsystems interact with each other), and their impact (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; 1986; 2005; Neal and Neal, 2013; Tudge et al., 2016; Velez-Agosto et al., 2017; Walker et al., 2019). This enabled me to explore different aspects of the participants' lives to gain a greater sense of who they were in the situation. Understanding the 'why' begins with those who experienced the event at the interface of the phenomena under investigation. The discussion allowed the use of temporal phases to create a sequence of events within the moment of disruption. Through the process of inter-subjectivity, I walked with my participants through the experience, which led to discovering the reasons this event occurred. In summary, IPA allowed me to see the event

(the what), and through the use of ecological theory, I can now understand the reasons (the why) it took place.

Complexity of the 'moment' and ecological theory

The school system can be considered complex because it is composed of many parts that interconnect in intricate ways. When analysing the moment of interaction between Alex and the teacher, it is important to understand that this interaction occurred within a complex system (Ambrose, 2014; Johnson, 2008; Wearmouth et al., 2004; Burns, 2011; Finch, 2001; Blikstein, 2008). Hardman (2011) has argued that, despite the use of complexity theory in educational research (see Doll, 2008; Mason; 2008; Radford, 2006; Phelps and Graham, 2010; Davis and Sumara, 2006; Sullivan, 2009), there is 'considerable difficultly in defining complexity within education' (2011, p.3–4) due to its 'indeterminate' (undefined) nature as a developing system (Hardman, 2011, p.3).

Atweh et al. (2007) have supported this argument, claiming that the classroom cannot be fully understood without an attempt to 'reconstruct the meanings that the participants attribute to their actions' (2007, p.107). In addition, Mercer (2010) has argued that we cannot understand the classroom without analysing 'temporal dimensions' (Mercer, 2010, p.5), which can be defined as the timespan or frequency of occurrences in a classroom, such as activities, teacher instruction, or disruptive student behaviour. These studies suggest that a narrow, indeterminate research focus on one parameter of the environment or one parameter of a student's behaviour, as Hardman indicates, 'reveal[s] only part of the picture'. Without a broader focus, the learning, student behaviour, and complexity of the classroom in which Alex and teacher function 'cannot be fully understood' (Hardman, 2011, p.5; see also Smith and Thelan, 2003).

My argument is that the moment of disruption between Alex and his teacher is 'complex' because there are internal (within-person) and external (environmental) dispositional factors leading to the moment of disruption. The disruption occurs within a 'complex system', i.e., the classroom, and it occurred because of the 'interconnectedness of variables' within the classroom and the outcomes of that 'interconnectedness' (Radford, 2006 p.178). To understand the interconnectedness of variables within the classroom, Cilliers (1998) has argued that this understanding 'only makes sense in the context of connections between them' (1998, p. 25). In essence, understanding the moment of disruption between

Alex and the teacher requires understanding the classroom environment, as well as the lives of Alex and the teacher, specifically, their lives at home, school, and in a social context.

To analyse the disruption in terms of the complexity of the environment, Bronfenbrenner (1979) has argued that the key factor is how people perceive the environments within the systems, as opposed to how the environments exist in a described or perceived 'objective reality' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.4). In chapter 3, I argued that inter-subjectivity, the ability to understand the minds of others, was necessary to gain a phenomenographic perspective of what it was like to be Alex or the teacher experiencing the moment of disruption. Furthermore, Bronfenbrenner has proposed, to fully understand this phenomenological aspect of the environment, we must consider the principles and properties of a dyad (1979, p.59).

In ecological theory, a dyad is defined as a group of two people, or more broadly, something consisting of two parts or elements. A dyad is formed 'whenever two persons pay attention to or participate in one another's activities' (1979, p.56); an example of this could be a conversation between two people. The key dyad in this study is the 'primary dyad', which occurs between children and their caregivers, and which Bronfenbrenner has defined as one that 'continues to exist phenomenologically for both participants even when they are not together' (1979, p.58). The primary dyad in this analysis is between Alex and each of his parents, who 'appear in each other's thoughts', are the objects of strong emotional feelings, and continue to 'influence one another's behaviour even when apart' (1979, p.58). The dyad in the classroom between Alex and the teacher is an observational dyad, whereby the teacher is 'paying close and sustained attention' to Alex's actions (1979, p.56). This dyad is not as strong or as prevalent in Alex's mind as the primary dyad involving his parents (see Bowlby's [1969] attachment theory); however, it is important to note that the dyads are not mutually exclusive. Indeed, during the moment of disruption, Alex experienced both an observational dyad with the teacher and the influence of the primary dyad with his parents.

These ecological factors of the complex classroom environment are not indicative of what Hardman (2011) has called a 'passing trend' (2011, p.2). Rather, they suggest the complexity of the environment by highlighting its intricacies. In addition, I argue that, through the application of IPA and ecological theory, these intricacies can be investigated and analysed. This approach enabled the analysis of the participants' microsystems (home, school, and social lives), which Bronfenbrenner (1979) has argued s the most influential level

of the theory because of its immediacy for the person. The rationale for this approach was not to shift blame from Alex for his disruptive behaviour, nor is he absolved of it (Doyle, 2013; Wearmouth et al. 2004; Ayers et al., 2002; Froyen and Iverson, 1999). Rather, the rationale is to understand the different areas of the participants' lives, how they make sense of themselves within their microsystems, and how this may have contributed to the event of disruptive behaviour. This focus was also necessary because Alex and his teacher are immersed in the areas of home, school, and social contexts, and they routinely exist and interact with other people in these areas (1979, pp.22–23).

With this in mind, we can consider the following narrative summary from my initial analysis of one of those areas of the microsystem, Alex's home:

'One evening while asleep in bed, Alex is awoken and goes on to witness his father verbally and physically abuse his mother. His mother runs out of the house, gets in the car, and drives off, leaving Alex standing outside with his sister, crying. As they try to come back into the house, the father shuts the front door, leaving them outside. Eventually, their father lets them in. They stay up for the rest of the night because they cannot sleep and attend school the next day.'

I then added this initial analysis as a preceding event and placed it with the summary of the incident:

'One evening while asleep in bed, Alex is awoken and goes on to witness his father verbally and physically abuse his mother. His mother runs out of the house, gets in the car, and drives off, leaving Alex standing outside with his sister, crying. As they try to come back into the house, their father shuts the front door, leaving them outside. Eventually, their father lets them in. They stay up for the rest of the night because they cannot sleep and attend school the next day. One day at school, during a science lesson, Alex swears at a teacher, throws the contents of an experiment beaker over some students in the class, and runs out of the lesson and disappears. He later returns to see the head of year, who immediately chastises him. This incident lands Alex in the behaviour Unit and at serious risk of permanent exclusion due to his behaviour towards the teacher and his reckless actions with the contents of the beaker, "which could have had acid in it."'

I became aware of the interactive nature of the different areas of Alex's life and how they impacted each other, which Bronfenbrenner calls mesosystemic interaction (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.25). This occurred when two areas of the microsystem, in this case

Alex's home and school lives, interacted (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This interaction suggested to me that there were potential reasons Alex acted the way he did, but it did not tell me what those reasons were beyond what is in the narrative. Therefore, further exploration and analysis of the event at Alex's home, as well as the event in the classroom, were required.

The idea of highlighting the issue of potential symptomatic dysfunctions not within the student but within the systems in which they exist is not new (See Hooper et al., 2015; Jouffre and Croizet, 2016; Edgar, 2009 for discussions on the fundamental attribution error). Therefore, in order to use ecological theory as a tool to examine these external dispositional factors, the key aspect of that theory had to be identified; Bronfenbrenner argues that this is the setting. In this study, two settings not only acted as the scenes for specific events, but they are also the beginning of the theorisation process; the where, as it leads to the how, is data in itself (Neal and Neal, 2013, p.727). The complexity of the moment in this study, therefore, concerns the home and the classroom because what happened within Alex's home setting directly affected him and directly impacted what happened within the classroom setting. In order to begin the analysis, we need to ask, 'How is a setting defined in terms of ecological theory?' Bronfenbrenner has defined a setting as 'a place where people can readily engage in face-to-face interaction' (1979, p.22). He further states that every setting has two distinct factors or dimensions: i) the spatial and ii) the interactional. The spatial dimension is the space, place, or area of a setting, and the interactional dimension involves engaging in face-to-face interaction within the setting (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.22; Neal and Neal, 2013, p.728).

Neal and Neal (2013) have argued that, although they do not reject the importance of spatial dimensions within the setting, interactional dimensions outweigh them because people are engaged in either 'common' or 'different' patterns of social interaction. An example of a 'common pattern' is an activity dyad, where a teacher and a student work through a class exercise together, and the 'common pattern' is student learning. In contrast, a 'different pattern' is the interaction between Alex and the teacher in this study during the moment of disruption, where Alex was disruptive and the teacher tried to stop this from happening. Neal and Neal have further argued that, by adopting this view of ecological theory, one can define the setting as a place where people are 'engaged in social interaction', which may be affected by the features of a setting (2013, p. 729).

In response to Neal and Neal, I agree that interactional factors are the most important to consider, particularly in this study. However, it is not enough to tentatively state that the features of an environment have an impact without asking, 'Why is this the case?' Bronfenbrenner himself pondered this question and answered by way of what he calls 'hard fact', specifically, by building on the phenomenological works of Husserl (1950), Koehler (1938), and Katz (1930) (1979, p.22). Bronfenbrenner has argued that the foundation of any theoretical viewpoint with regard to how a setting is experienced, whether spatially or interactionally, is a person's 'phenomenological conception of the environment' (1979, p.23). In essence, it concerns the setting and how its features impact the 'meaning to the person in a given situation' in a phenomenological sense (1979, p.22). In this sense, one can interpret Bronfenbrenner's argument with regards to the impact of a setting as the epitome of the 'definition of the situation' (p.22–23). However, the concept of reciprocity needs to be maintained in our understanding of the setting through an ecological lens; there is a process of 'mutual accommodation' in terms of person-environment and environment-person interaction. In essence, an analysis of the setting is bi-conditional because a person and the environment are dynamically interrelated.

Alex's home

An analysis of Alex's home setting suggested the dynamic interrelatedness between a person and his or her environment. More specifically, the immediate influence and subsequent impact of Bronfenbrenner's systems on my understanding of Alex's immediate and subsequent behaviour could be found within this setting. This is particularly evident within the microsystem of the home, where conflict between Alex and his parents was a result of three factors:

1) In conflict with his father for the verbal and physical abuse he witnessed towards his mother
2) In conflict with his mother for driving off in the car, leaving him and his sister outside their house
3) In further conflict with his father for shutting the door on them, leaving them outside the house.

During the second interview with Alex, which focused on his life at home, he revealed the verbal and physical abuse which he had witnessed. This involved his father swearing at

his mother, threatening her, and throwing the contents of a pint glass (beer) over her as Alex tried to defend her. After this, Alex looked at his father, whom he described as 'him but it wasn't him', further describing him as 'not my dad' and 'being possessed' (extract from Alex's home interview). Roffey (2016) has stated that the impact of domestic violence incidents, such as the one Alex witnessed, goes beyond mere 'witnessing' in terms of what children and young people see. Furthermore, the negative impact, whether immediate or delayed, on a young person's 'self-worth, concentration, attendance, behaviour, and mental health' is inevitable (2016, p.32; see also Mani et al., 2013; Farah et al., 2006; Bradley and Corwyn, 2002). It is also important to consider the potential views of agencies outside of teaching, such as police and social services, and how their potentially negative and uninformed views may impact the outcomes of young people who have been involved in domestic violence incidents (see, for further discussion, Stephens and Sinden, 2000; Malsh and Smeenk, 2017; Flood and Pease, 2009; Guedes et al., 2016). Although none of this literature specifically cites Bronfenbrenner, I argue that the key factors are the spatial and interactional dimensions of the settings in which the incidents occurred. Behaviour is steered by occurrences within the setting, and, as Bronfenbrenner argues, the activities which involve other people or the objects within those settings 'send out lines of force, valances, and vectors that attract and repel, thereby steering behaviour' (1979, p.23; this is discussed further in the 'objects' section of this chapter). Therefore, this research supports my argument that an ecological approach bridges the gap between what is witnessed and the effects it may have on those involved in the incidents through a deeper analysis of the environment in which incidents occur (see also Malley-Morrison, 2012; Heise, 1998; Kennedy, 2008; Levendosky and Graham-Bermann, 2001; Zielinkski and Bradshaw, 2006 for further discussion on using an ecological approach within domestic violence situations).

In terms of the second factor of conflict with his mother for driving off in the car, Alex described the moment she left with his thought, 'she's never coming back.' These feelings of abandonment were then exacerbated by Alex's father, who 'looked at us as he shut the door', which made Alex feel alone, cold, and adult-aversive (extracts from Alex's home interview). An examination of the evidence from some studies (See Dowling and Elliott, 2012; Fell and Hewstone, 2015) reveals that stressful life experiences, such as the one Alex experienced, are a key factor in the symptoms of anxiety. Further, Mcphee (2009) has argued that the interrelationship between the different microsystems 'allows for the possibility of second order effects' across the settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p.523). If I relate these arguments to

this study, this refers to what I describe as the seeding of anxiety and trauma because of the impact of what Alex saw his father say and do to his mother (CSAT, 2014). This is coupled with the fact that domestic violence was not an on-going saga within the household. During Alex's home interview, he stated that this was the only argument he could remember his parents having. He further stated, 'mum and dad never argued', 'I can't ever remember them arguing', 'a few of my mates' parents' rowed but mine never did' (extracts from Alex's home interview).

One argument suggests that if Alex's parents regularly argued to the extent he had witnessed, e.g., threats, name-calling, and the throwing of objects, he may have been what I would describe as 'environmentally conditioned' to the situation. This phenomenon goes beyond classical conditioning theory (Pavlov, 1897; see also Watson and Rayner, 1920) to a phenomenon of 'trauma bonding' otherwise known as 'Stockholm syndrome' (Carnes, 2018). Trauma bonding is 'interpersonal trauma whereby the perpetrator elicits fear in the victim that is experienced as venerating gratitude for being allowed to survive' (Reid et al., 2013). It is a form of psychological abuse which occurs over time through patterns of systematic physical, emotional, psychological, sexual, and financial abuse, 'like an IV drip entering your veins' (Thomas, 2016). Carnes (2018) has argued that both the physical and psychological effects cause a victim's whole body, which he calls 'the system', to 'elevat[e] into an alarm state, never safe. Waiting for the hurt again' (Carnes, 2018). As a result, the victim can become addicted to the traumatic experiences; their emotions are numbed through their experience, and their survival instinct becomes a dominant factor of their personality and their existence. The only time they 'feel' anything is when they are in survival mode, and in order to 'feel', they need trauma (Carnes, 1997; Herman, 2015).

While Alex stated that his experience was not repeated over a period of time and was confined to a single event, it could be argued that he experienced trauma bonding from a single event (Carnes, 2018). This could have occurred through the fear he experienced while watching his father threaten and verbally abuse his mother, and Alex subsequently having beer thrown over him by his father while protecting his mother. He could also have experienced trauma bonding through feelings of abandonment when he was left on the drive and watched his mother drive off, leaving him and his sister, and then watching his father shut the door. He could also have experienced trauma bonding because of the combination of events he witnessed and in which he was involved. There is trauma and uncertainty on three fronts:

1) What Alex witnessed
2) The unknown emotions Alex experienced at the time
3) Alex's inability to decipher what was happening and his inability to understand and manage his own emotions

We can clearly see the limitations of cause-and-effect behaviourism in contrast to an ecological approach to accurately deliver a valid understanding of why Alex behaved as he did. The policy of Charlie Taylor's (2011) 'Behaviour Checklist' could be described as an example of such a limitation.

Taylor's (2011) 'Behaviour Checklist' comes from the book *The Checklist Manifesto* published in 2011 by the medical surgeon Atul Gawande. According to Taylor, Gawande was concerned about the number patients being infected after operations; as a result, Gawande developed a checklist in order to eradicate infections with significant positive results (Taylor, 2011). In his own words, Taylor 'took the idea of a checklist and adapted it to help schools to improve behaviour', further stating, 'I thought the idea of the checklist was exciting' (2011). Taylor states that classrooms are complex; therefore, this checklist for classroom teachers is divided into four areas: classroom, pupils, teaching, and parents. He has further argued that having routines in the classroom is important, as is meeting and greeting the students, knowing their names, and understanding their needs. He recommends the following:

1. Display rules in the class and ensure that the pupils and staff know what they are.
2. Display the tariff of sanctions in class.
3. Display the tariff of rewards in class.
4. Have a system in place to follow through with all rewards.
5. Follow the school behaviour policy.

Taylor is somewhat tentative in his approach, stating that some of these checklist ideas would be better suited to primary and some to secondary contexts, and the list is not exhaustive. My first question is, 'Would a display of rewards and sanctions in the classroom have stopped Alex from acting the way he did?' The answer is no because, in her first interview, the teacher described her life at work as a teacher as follows: 'the class rules are on the wall near the door, and students are made aware of them' (extract from the teacher's second interview). This suggests an over-reliance from the 'Government's expert adviser on

behaviour in schools' towards an approach which, in this case, did not work. My concern is that the use of the certain behaviourist approaches can lead to the establishment of a particular lens through which professionals view events. This is evidenced by Taylor, who, in a checklist for head teachers, states, 'Have clear plans for pupils likely to misbehave and ensure staff are aware of them' (Taylor, 2011). This school of thought may reinforce stereotyping among teachers and senior leadership; if a student attends a class and is expected to misbehave, this 'clear plan' may become a default mechanism for dealing with disruption (Manolev et al., 2019; Ayers et al., 2002; Riley and Ungerleider, 2012; Vitto, 2003).

A key factor which resonates with me, and which is discussed in chapter two, is the one-size-fits-all method, which is common with some behaviourist approaches and can be vehemently recommended and engrained within English schools (Harold and Corcoran, 2013; Hart, 2010). Further, there is an over-reliance on what is 'overt, observable, and measurable', which excludes any possible reference to the unconscious processes of the mind or genetic and environmental influences (Ayers et al., 2000, p.7; Payne, 2015). Furthermore, Canter and Canter (2001) have argued that that the approach to behaviour management may lead to 'assertive discipline'. This can be defined as an approach which relies upon an imbalance of power between teachers and students, along with school policy, which usually predetermines sanctions (Payne, 2015, pp.485–486). This approach can also be to the detriment of positive working relationships between staff and students because it does not allow for a full understanding of the situation, nor does it allow for professional discretion on the part of the teacher (Canter and Canter, 2001; see also Spittler, 2012 for further discussion).

Ideals

The family home is the closest structure to a young person's life and the 'dominant part of a child's immediate environment' (DeHart, et al., 2004; Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986, 2005). Historic and current studies, as well as our own familial experiences, demonstrate that, within the family home, young people interact with their parents, carers, and siblings to varying degrees (Bai et al., 2016; Tippett and Wolke, 2015; Kramer, 2014). While Alex's experience in his home was not desirable, it was nevertheless an interaction, a dyad. If we are to consider the master theme of ideals, Bandura's social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) suggests that whichever microsystem Alex was in (home, school, or social), he may have modelled the behaviour he observed from people around him. A consequence of the manner

in which his family acted and behaved during the incident may have had a direct effect on how he behaved through a subsequent display of similar behavioural traits at school.

When Alex described the incident during the home interview, he stated how he believed parents should be. His descriptions were based on what he has experienced in his house and in his friends' houses, but the key phrase he used was 'there for you', stating 'your mum and dad should be there for you and not leave you'. He said his mum always cooked because she liked it, unless it was the summer holidays, 'then dad would try the "barby" (barbeque), which was always fun'. He said his parents both worked, which he did not mind because they were able to do nice 'things', such as go on holidays, and 'there was always food' and that 'we were never hungry'. He also stated that he had mates (friends) who did not have much in the way of money or food because their parents did not work. He did not want to be like that: 'it's not my mates' fault, but I don't wanna be someone who's got nothing (sic)' (extracts taken from Alex' home interview).

Within the theme of ideals, there is also the sub-theme of roles. Bronfenbrenner has defined a role as 'a set of activities and relations expected of a person occupying a particular position in society, and of others in relation to that person' (1979, p.85). These roles include Alex's 'ideal of roles', which can be defined as 'the behaviour expected of the occupant of a given position or status' (Sarbin, 1968, p.546; see also Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Within his household, Alex's role was son; he also had a mother, father, and sister. Prior to the incident, Alex described his home life as a 'happy home' with 'days out' and 'family holidays'. For Alex, these memories are his archetypal familial home and form part of what Gross (2005) has described as an emerging, crystallised intelligence measured by an experienced cultural background and education (2005, p.669). Furthermore, while defending his mother, Alex sought to protect these ideals from 'possession'; we also see Alex's role change during the incident from son to protector. The protector role is further enacted by running after his mother and attempting to reason with his father after the incident. His attempt to protect the ideals was reduced to protecting his sister and maintaining an alliance with her as 'the only one I can trust now' (extract from Alex's home interview).

Alex also experienced the roles of his parents changing with his microsystem. His father changed from father to perpetrator, rejecter, and back to father following the incident. His mother changed from mother to victim and then to rejecter. Alex also experienced his view of his parents' roles change further when his father told him that his mother met

someone else and was having an affair. This disclosure suggested that Alex's view of his mother following the incident changed from the person who had been rejected by his father to the perpetrator of the whole situation. Further, Alex's view of his father changed from being the perpetrator to being the victim. This was evidenced during the second interview regarding his home life, when he stated, 'my mum and dad split up, mum was having an affair'. When Alex's father told him about the affair at his mother's workplace, we become aware of the impact of the exosystem within the ecological framework. This can be defined as the impact of Alex's mother's work life upon Alex's microsystem, something he had no control over; nonetheless, he is directly affected by the actions of those within it (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

This incident has challenged what I describe as the 'just world' of Alex and his 'core life assumptions', which aided him in traversing his everyday life (CSAT, 2014; Scheeringa et al., 2012; Ratcliffe et al., 2014; Mertin and Mohr, 2002). It is evident that the building blocks of Alex's values frame his upbringing and the perceived stability of a 'happy home', and they were challenged because this incident caused the emotional traumatic response of a 'foreshortened future' (CSAT, 2014; Pedersen et al., 2018; Mannarino and Cohen, 2011; Cohen and Scheeringa, 2009; Callagham et al., 2019; Yates, 1999). For Alex, this incident created an affectivity of belief in which there was uncertainty and/or disbelief about his own future. He asked, 'Why has this happened? What happens now? Who will I live with? Do we move away? Where will I go to school?' These questions were initial reactions to the event, and Alex talked about them with his sister in the hours following the incident. The response of a foreshortened future was Alex's questioning of whether his 'everyday life' as he knew it would still occur. CSAT (2014) has argued that typical examples of this questioning revolved around the possibility of Alex's family still being a family, whether he would still be able to access education, and the loss of hope and a future (CSAT, 2014; Schandorph-Lokkegard et al., 2017).

Objects

A potential consequence of what I describe as behaviourism in action is that Alex's overt behaviour may ignite the maxim, 'when X happens, the result is Y'. This maxim is the typical cause-and-effect modus of classical and operant conditioning, the cornerstones of behaviourism (Dalla and Shors, 2009; Kirsch, 2004; Kirsch et al., 2004; Lorenzetti et al., 2006; Usman and Ogbu, 2019). This event could end with the conclusion that Alex acted recklessly and carelessly when he threw the beaker of liquid over the class (X happens), and

he is now being punished (result=Y). The final result for Alex could have meant being permanently excluded from his current school. This is evidenced through the 'action frame' (Rein and Schon, 1996; Bommel et al., 2014) of a behaviourist policy being delivered as a one-size-fits-all, 'inclusive' model of behaviour management, whereby school policy enables the positive reinforcement of students' categorisation before the situation is fully understood (EfL policy, 2014; 2017). This approach serves the school by quickly chastising the student for their behaviour, but it may fail to meet the needs of the student through the narrow view of the 'learning and unlearning' of behaviour through a notion 'fixed assertive discipline' (Payne, 2015; Halstead et al., 2015).

By using an ecological approach which takes the analysis beyond 'X' and 'Y', Bronfenbrenner has argued that both the properties of settings and the properties 'of more remote aspects of the ecological environment' should be the focus. He has further argued that a critical issue in the analysis is establishing whether a particular setting or settings 'have equivalent psychological and social meaning to the participants' (1979, p.128–129). Therefore, applying his argument to this study suggests that the properties within the home setting which were key factors during the event and had meaning for Alex were the glass, the beer, the front door, and the family car.

During Alex's second interview regarding his home life, these objects held particular meaning and had a significant impact on how he felt at the time. Further engagement and analysis with Alex's experience of these objects during his interview, along with understanding their meaning within the event, 'highlights the importance of the phenomenological field in ecological research' (1979, p.29). Analysed further, these objects were meaningful for Alex's experience on two fronts; first, they were the most salient aspects of his perceptual (visual) field because they were within his attention spotlight during the event and were used in the course of or in connection with the actions of those involved (Buchanan et al., 2007, p.77; Kagan, 2017; Jennings, 2015; Ellis, 2016; Treue, 2003). Second, Alex's account of the event suggested how he perceived each object and how inanimate, 'everyday' objects can carry meaning. This steered his behaviour as a result of the valence of specific objects during the event, which Bronfenbrenner, citing the work of Lewin, has described as 'motivational forces' (1979, p.24; see also Eren and Yesilbursa, 2017; Seirafi et al., 2018).

‘Motivational forces’ are those which emanate from the environment and not from within the person, further demonstrating person-environment and environment-person interrelatedness. Therefore, we need to ask, ‘How can a person who is present in their own microsystem, who perceives these “everyday” objects (or events) have their behaviour steered when the objects only appear to the consciousness without any reference to their meaning?’ In order to answer this question, we need to consider three factors:

1) The on-going activity within the environment in which the person perceives themselves as engaged or the activity in which they perceive others to be engaged.

2) The interconnections with people in a setting, not in terms of personal feelings, but of the activity(ies) in which those individuals are engaged, whether ‘common, complementary, or relatively independent undertakings’ (1979, p.25).

3) The role of each person within the environment is presented in figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1: Objects and engaged action

The object	**The engaged action**
The beer glass	Alex’s father was holding the beer glass which contained the beer immediately before throwing it over him and his mother.
The beer	Beer was thrown over Alex and his mother by his father.
The family car	Alex and his sister watched his mother drive off in the car.
The front door	Alex’s father shut the front door after seeing him and his sister standing on the driveway immediately after Alex’s mother drove off in the family car.

When each of the objects in the environment is assigned to its engaged action, we become aware of their significance. Furthermore, following the understanding of their roles within the environment, and more specifically within the event, these everyday objects became visual metonyms that can tell the story of the work-family-school 'spill'. In addition, the objects may also suggest the 'tensions' and 'modes of interaction' within the family as a result of Alex's mother having an affair with a work colleague (1986, p.729; see also Sori, 2007; Lusterman, 2005; Miller; 2016).

For Alex, these objects and their associated roles in the event became a part of the Piagetian concept of 'object permanence', which can be defined as objects with an existence in the mind of a person even when the object itself is not apparent to the senses, i.e., the object cannot be seen, heard, touched, tested, or smelled (Gardner, 2010, p.129). Piagetian cognitive development originally suggested that object permanence occurs in people, specifically infants, aged between eight and nine months old. Recent research, however, suggests that object permanence occurs in infants aged between three and four months old (Bremner et al., 2015; Prasad et al., 2019; Spelke, 2016). In principle, this aspect of cognitive development would have been rooted in Alex's mind by the time he was two years old (Kauts and Kaur, 2016; see also Glazer, 2019, p.42).

My argument is that the objects in figure 5.1 achieved permanence in Alex's mind within the primary dyad. Earlier in the chapter, I argued that the most important dyad within a person's life is the primary one, 'which continues to exist phenomenologically for both participants when they are not together' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.58). As a result, interactions and occurrences — in the case of Alex, the event — are object permanence, and it occurred within this dyad between Alex and both of his parents, who 'continue[d] to influence one another's behaviour even when apart' (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, pp.58–59). Further, these objects left what I describe as a matrixial residue of occurrence and definition within both Alex's mind and his experience of the setting. Gardner (2010) has argued that, in a person's mind, these objects move from 'inanimate everyday' objects to 'having existence' as a result of the actions in which they were involved and with which they were associated during the 'moment'. Gardner has further stated that, once a person has experienced this permanence, 'he [they] can think of and refer to them even in their absence' (2010 p.129; see also Bremner et al., 2015; Prasad et al., 2019; Beth and Ekroll, 2015).

Classroom

In the classroom setting, it was important to maintain ecological validity within the study (RMEH, 2004); therefore, in the analysis, the classroom setting was not treated as any less important than that of the home setting. In addition, it was also important for me to recognise and reiterate that classrooms are complex, dynamic, and multi-layered systems with multidirectional linkages (Johnson, 2008, p.9; Wearmouth et al., 2004). Furthermore, the classroom represented the interface of interaction with Alex and the teacher, and it also represented the place where all their thoughts, feelings, emotions, ideals, expectations, and roles converged (Johnson, 2008, p.8).

From both the teacher and Alex's perspective, the classroom was the focal stage of the learning process, and these factors represented the typical characteristics of a classroom beyond the ecology of tables and chairs. It is also important to note that, when examined, the complexity of the interface of this situation went beyond what is merely overt and observable. The overt and observable should not be ignored because they ignite our senses, thoughts, and reactions; they act as evidence of disruption, which needs to be maintained as a focus (Douglas et al; 2016; Nash et al., 2016; Kaplan et al., 2002). Johnson (2008) has argued that, in the classroom, traditionally, a class-theoretical model towards behaviour management has been applied in which internal dispositional factors were the only ones considered responsible for behavioural outcomes. In summary, Johnson suggests that, when Alex misbehaved, the school may take the view that there is 'something wrong' with Alex. This approach was again evident from school staff in the setting for this study, as when the email stating what had happened was sent to me following Alex's arrival in the Unit. In opposition to the class-theoretical model, Johnson advocates a field theoretical model, which 'may provide educators with insight into interactions among layers within the complex system' (Johnson, 2008; see also, Slavin, 2015). In summary, Johnson proposes, and indeed what this study suggests, is a shift away from certain behaviourist approaches towards the recognition of person-environment/environment-person interrelatedness.

A potential further issue with the use of current behavioural approaches within the classroom is that, when the disruption occurs, the school's 'Ethos for Learning Policy' (ELP) states that staff should 'Always address the behaviour, not the person, and reprimand where possible privately' (ELP, 2017, p.22). This may lead to conceptions and/or misconceptions about students, and the school may attempt to depersonalise the situation through a focus on

behaviour which is 'seen' (Parker and Levinson, 2018; Furneaux and Robert, 2018). One consequence of this approach may focus attention away from the 'unseen', particularly with students who are continually disruptive, or those like Alex, who have a sudden outburst of disruptive behaviour which could be the result of deeper anxieties (Akesson, 2017; Cote et al., 2016; Gillies, 2011; Riley, 2004; Grimmer, 2018). Further, Sisco (2004) has argued that, concerning students' ability to exhibit pro-social behaviours within the classroom and around the school, 'school staff cannot assume students possess the expected skills' (2004, p.3–5). This may result in what Watkins and Wagner (2000) have called a 'them' (disruptive student) and 'us' (staff) situation, in which '"they" are very different from "us"... and therefore hard to understand' (2000, p.3. see also Wearmouth et al., 2004; Glock, 2016; Ellemers, 2018; Retelsdorf et al., 2015). Furthermore, because 'they' are hard to understand, a potential consequence of our own cognitive and schematic processing is to stereotype or categorise through the process of 'overgeneralisation', whereby all that is 'seen' is the problem behaviour; what is "seen" is then addressed, making the process one of 'stimulus-response' (Buchanan et al., 2007, p.67; see also Carlana, 2019; Walker, 2017).

Roles

The examination of the roles of teacher and student within the school may lead to those roles being legitimised and explained through policy as opposed to ecology. Bennett (2019) has argued that policy can dictate a teacher moving from an educator to a 'technician' or 'classroom manager'; in the same way, the student becomes the 'learner' whose 'responsibility' it is to 'acquire skills' (2019, p.17). This argument also suggests that the view of the teacher and the student can be distorted depending on the meta-cultural view within the institution (Wearmouth et al., 2004). This argument illustrates Ball's (2003) point under the heading of the 'terrors of performativity', which he defines as the technology of policy which involves organising 'human forces into functioning networks of power' (Ball, 2003, p.216). Ball argues, 'The novelty of this epidemic of reform is that it does not simply change what people, as educators, scholars, and researchers do, it changes who they are' (Ball, 2003, p.215). The role of the teacher in this study could thus be defined as a Foucauldian 'technician of behaviour', and her task in that role is 'to produce bodies that are docile and capable' (Foucault, 1979, p.294). Foucault further argues that the consequence of this is that Alex would become a 'product' the teacher would 'produce' (Foucault, 1979). This demonstrates a meta-cultural view within education which focuses on numbers and statistics.

The effect of this approach is that, with educational judgements and decisions, ‘we may we feel as ignorant of the answers to the big questions as ever’ (Boyle, 2001).

Coburn (2016) has argued that the role of the teacher and the role of the student are based upon ‘assumptions about the nature of human action’ and can dictate how they act in the classroom’ (2016, p.465). Further, Lawrence (2008) has argued that the roles, in particular the power of the teacher as an ‘actor’ who interprets policy, may shape how the teacher responded to Alex’s disruptive behaviour. This response may occur as a result of ‘routine, on-going practices that advantage particular groups without those groups necessarily establishing or maintaining those practices’ (2008, p. 176). Further studies (Lane 2013; Loeb and McEwan 2006) have investigated how the design of policy, which often seeks to balance rewards and sanctions, can shape individual roles and choices within those roles. Consequently, this ‘design of policy’ may in turn contribute to both intended and unintended outcomes.

The final ‘outcome’, therefore, could be what Coburn concludes is that in which ‘individuals may act unwittingly to enact policy that ultimately disadvantages them’ (2016, p. 465–6). Thus, the macrosystemic influence of policy which directly channels itself into the classroom and the wider school could have ignited a low tolerance towards Alex by school staff if his behaviour was viewed as non-conformist. In addition, an institution — such as the one featured in this study, along with many others which are frequently ‘aiming for Outstanding’ (Grigg, 2014; Chapman, 2013; SecEd, 2012; 2017; Dougill et al., 2011; Hopkins, 2000, 2013; Blackburn, 2013; Kaparou and Buch; 2016) — may have become consumed by the marketisational approach to grades and targets (Taylor, 2018; Hicks, 2015; Gavin and McGrath-Trump, 2017; Percival, 2017; Wearmouth et al. , 2004; Cornwall, 2004; Rinne et al., 2016). This in turn may have dictated how the school believed the teacher should manage behaviour, published through policy, and how the teacher interprets that within the classroom setting, their teaching, and their demeanour (EFL, 2014; 2017).

During his school interview, Alex stated that whether he worked in class depended on the teacher first then the subject, stating if the teacher was a ‘prick or a bitch’ then he would not work. When asked, ‘Why?’ He answered, ‘Would you work for a prick or a bitch?’ (extract from Alex’s school interview). This response suggests that, to Alex, a teacher’s demeanour is the first aspect of learning (McMahan and Garza, 2016; Bates et al., 2016; Krane, 2017), but this view may or may not correspond with rules established within the

classroom. However, I argue that, as a result of the organisational paradigm which advocated a behaviourist approach, the individuality of both the teacher and Alex were lost, and the consensus thesis among school staff of a behaviourist approach through advocating school policy was enacted (Wearmouth et al., 2004).

Furthermore, the organisational paradigm of this approach partially suggested what Bronfenbrenner has described as the 'dyadic parameters' of teacher-student relationships in terms of the balance of power between teacher-student reciprocity and institutional ideology (1979, p.85–86). Moreover, the way these roles were embedded within an institution demonstrated how influential they were, how they compelled others to act, and the relationships formed within the setting (see also Banerjee et al., 2014; Lyons et al., 2016; Dicke et al., 2015; Cooper et al., 2015) These factors were all dictated by the macrosystem of the organisation, which suggested the concept of 'role legitimation'; as Bronfenbrenner has argued, this is enacted through firmly rooting institutions within society. Therefore, in the case of this study, the institution of education legitimises the role of the teacher and the role of the student. The next factor to consider is the power of both the teacher and the student (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 92).

During her school interview, the teacher stated that her role was to 'educate' and to be the 'knowledge giver'; I argue that the teacher viewed the primary function of her role as one of an erudite nature. It is important for me to be tentative here, because this one interview with the teacher regarding her view of her role is an existential generalisation is only one point of view at one moment. It cannot, therefore, be deemed a universal generalisation on the behalf of teachers in general. Ben-Peretz et al. (2003) have argued that teachers' views of their role are closely related to their self-image (see also, Goodson, 2003; Day et al., 2006; Darby, 2008; Nias, 2017). However, the teacher's personal view of her role is in contrast with research conducted by Biesta et al. (2007; 2015), who have argued that 'some' view teacher agency on any level as a 'weakness' within the function of a school, and 'agency' should be replaced with 'data-driven approaches' (Biesta et al., 2007; 2015). That said, research from Biesta and Tedder (2007) states that ecological reciprocity is a key factor because the 'actors', in this case the teacher and student within the classroom, 'act by means of an environment and not simply in an environment' (2007, p.137). This further highlights that incidents of disruptive behaviour are always 'unique situations'; thus it is still necessary to obtain the teacher's view despite its perceived subjective uniqueness.

Education is institutionally rooted within society and, as a result, gives schools and teachers a 'legitimate authority' to exercise power over their students (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.92). However, Raven et al. (2017) have argued that teachers' powers of expertness and legitimacy depend upon the influencing agent, i.e., the teacher. Here, we see the effect of the school environment as part of the macrosystem, which is the system which enacts the policies and rules of an organisation. Furthermore, these rules create a meta-cultural environment and view of the school, where the rules and expectations are reflected within what the school deems 'acceptable behaviour'. Additionally, when there is an embedding of roles within an organisation, the environment creates a differential power status for the teachers and students, and the effect is what Bronfenbrenner has described as the 'institutional validation' of the roles (1979, p.91). Thus, being a 'teacher' within a school carries with it a social status and a degree of control over the lives of the students. This control is expressed through the embedding expectations, such as the school routine and learning, where students are 'rewarded' for adherence or 'sanctioned' for non-conformity. This in turn may create an effect of student passivity, dependence, and, in Alex's case, self-deprecation (1979, p.90–91).

Additionally, during her school interview, the teacher described what she believed the role of the student to be upon entering the class, stating that students should be 'ready to learn' (extract from teacher's school interview). My argument here is that this response is evidence of the macrosystem 'filtering' into the microsystem of the classroom. It is also evidence of the school's 'Behaviour for Learning Policy' (BLP), whereby the code of conduct for students and staff, following the maxims of 'educate', 'inspire', and 'self-discipline', aims to ensure that 'every member of the school will adhere to the school's vision' (BLP, 2017). Through the meta-cultural frame, it may also be apparent that people agree on what they want a policy to do but 'not how to get there' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.78).

Furthermore, the teacher demonstrated awareness of her own 'values frame', which I would define as the values, beliefs, and experiences of working with a policy within the classroom microsystem. When asked how she perceived her own role, she said she saw herself as 'an educator and an inspirator' (extract from teacher's school interview). The teacher further stated that she considered getting to know her students part of her role, not necessarily in the sense of any additional educational needs but as people. This view suggests that the development of positive working relationships between teacher and students is a part of the teacher's values frame. In her school interview, she also stated that 'it helps if you get

on with students' (extract from teacher school interview). My argument is that if the power of the teacher and the power of the learner are brought to the fore within the classroom, this will enable the development of 'co-agency' (Nind et al., 2005).

The concern with the macrosystem being so influential within the classroom, however, is that the perception of a policy which drives 'typical ways of working' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.77) becomes what I define as 'institutionalised pathology', where policy is enacted to 'suit others' needs' (Corbett and Norwich, 2005, p.27). Thus, a curriculum emphasising that students 'will' undertake behaviour modification as a result of the school's vision could also be viewed as a dystopian policy which is 'concerned with the wellbeing of the school ... and with maintaining order, rather than with individual needs' (Corbett and Norwich, 2005, p.20). When policy and typical ways of working are sold as 'having the best interests of the students at heart' or to provide a 'world-class educational experience', the perception is, as Swain and Cook (2005) have argued, 'like the idea of motherhood – who can possibly be against it?' (2005, p.68).

When Alex was asked how he perceived his role as a student, his views were the same as the teacher, 'to learn'. My assessment of this response is that the macrosystem of educational rooting within society, along with the school policy, has dictated how Alex should view himself within the classroom (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Therefore, Alex is a 'learner', and this is how he made sense of himself within the school, which I define as a macrosystemic hermeneutic perspective. When asked how he perceived the role of the teacher, however, he stated, 'Someone that takes an interest in you' and, 'Someone who says hello, asks how you are and not (sic) talking about exams all the time' (extract from Alex's school interview). The impact of what I describe as the psychogenic effects (Cornwall, 2004) of the microsystem came to the fore in Alex's statements, and the current view of a teacher as 'someone who talks about exams all the time' suggests an undesired state within Alex's perception of the teacher. I further argue that Alex's view of a teacher is the balance between teacher-student relations and co-agency, which is the 'nettle that remains to be fully grasped' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.314). Here, we see a contrast between Alex's perception of the role of the teacher as more 'human', his view of himself, and how society dictates the role of teacher. Research conducted by Cole et al. (1989) shows that the key to creating positive working relationships between staff and students is not the application of policy or training, but the demeanour of their (the teachers') personalities. Cole et al. (2004) have further argued that, when dealing with students, whether in an academic or a pastoral sense, a school needs

staff members who have ‘the capacity to win the respect, trust, and often liking of young people’ (Cole et al., 2004, p.21).

Part of the way into the interview with Alex, he stated that a teacher ‘should be able to teach and make the lessons interesting’ (extract from Alex’s school interview). The important factor the difference in the initial views of how a teacher should be from the student and teacher perspective. This view supports Johnson (2008), who has described the ‘little things’ that teachers do which help promote resilience amongst students in schools. Further, Newman (2002) has stated the following:

> A substantial increase in psycho-social disorders of children has taken place in most developed countries over the past half century, including suicide and para-suicide, self-injurious behaviour, conduct and eating disorders, and depression. (Newman, 2002, p. 6)

This statement highlights the key factors of processes and outcomes which, in terms of coping and response, help students deal with anxiety, risk, and threats to well-being. Furthermore, as Luther and Zelazo (2003) have argued, ‘resilient adaptation rests on good relationships’ (2003, p. 544; see also Johnson, 2008). The implication is that ‘good relationships’ between students and teachers and/or students and their parents/carers go hand-in-hand with developing resilience. However, what Luther and Zelazo fail to realise is that, in this study, Alex had good relationships at home and school. This generalised statement does not, therefore, consider all the variables, thereby challenging a person’s resilience and behavioural responses to microsystemic stimuli. My argument is not that the authors are entirely incorrect in their assumptions, and indeed these may work in certain scenarios. In Alex’s case, however, the lack of resilience he displayed was ‘in spite of’ good relationships; he was unable to control, adapt, and avoid his own behavioural outcomes between the timeframe of the home occurrence and the school occurrence.

Alex further highlighted the relational factors of the environment, which are what ‘matters’ to him within the school context. Needless to say, this analysis does not seek to proportion blame for the student acting the way he did in the classroom; however, one could argue that it does highlight a greater awareness of the need to build student resilience. Resilience can be defined as the ‘capacity for or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances’ (Masten et al., 1990, p. 425). It should be reiterated, however, that resilience is not and should not be viewed as an innate gift to which

many are called but few are chosen (Bempechat, 1998; Benard, 2004). Nor should it be viewed, as Gray (2015) has argued, as student 'failure' or the perception of failure and the 'end of the world' if students cannot deal with bumps in the road (2015, p.1). A discussion of Gray's view of resilience is not appropriate for this analysis because it is one of family breakdown and possible permanent exclusion from school. This situation, in my view, goes beyond the everyday 'bumps' and approaches the argument that 'resilience' is a 'capacity available to all children that is bolstered by supportive factors' (Benard, 2004).

The key factors to be highlighted and reiterated are that interactions among the multiple layers of a complex system could, as Johnson (2008) has argued, 'result in any number of unforeseen outcomes'. Johnson further states that changes and fluctuations within the system can result in what he describes as 'far-reaching consequences' that have 'larger impacts' across that and other layers of the system. This view is further evidenced within this study in that Alex experienced an event in the home part of his microsystem which had 'far-reaching' effects upon the school part of his microsystem because of the mesosystemic interaction between his home life and his school life.

Incident

Through the analysis of Alex's disruptive behaviour within the classroom setting, which succeeded the events of the previous evening within the home setting, we see the impact of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, specifically the microsystem and the mesosystem. To reiterate, the microsystem contains Alex's school life as well as his home life, and the mesosystem is how these two microsystems interacted (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In this case, Alex experienced the impact of a traumatic experience at home which, in turn, had an effect him at school. As a result of what happened at Alex's home, upon entering the classroom, he was unable to bracket his experience. More specifically, he could not separate his home and school lives; he was unable to make the ecological transition between home (son) and school (student). This manifested itself not in a physical sense but in a sense of being in the classroom setting and, as a result, the influence and impact of Bronfenbrenner's systems on Alex's behaviour came to the fore. To be precise, within the microsystem, we saw conflict between Alex and his teacher as a result of two factors:

1) The unresolved conflict from the home microsystem and the subsequent effects of the trauma he witnessed.

2) Conflict towards his teacher for asking for the homework, which he was not able to complete, and the resulting incident.

What the analysis of the data shows is that, when Alex came to school that day, the conflict issues he had experienced at home had not been resolved, either in fact or in his mind. During his school interview, I asked him how he felt just before entering the classroom; he said 'stressed out' (extract from Alex's school interview). As Cornwall (2004) has argued, a 'stressed' student may become overwhelmed and 'unable to control events around them' (Cornwall, 2004, p.315). Alex, having experienced trauma at home just a few hours before school, entered an environment where 'individuality' is bracketed in favour of the 'role of the student'. This was a transition he was unable to make that day as a result of his experience at home.

Perseveration

My original contribution to knowledge is that, during the incident of classroom disruption, Alex was in a state of perseveration, which arose as a result of the trauma he had experienced. This state was induced as a result of the anxiety he experienced following the events at his home the previous evening. My argument is that Alex was traumatised to such an extent that, as Sorg et al. (2012) have stated, the impact of 'worry and brooding' (rumination) created a state of negative affectivity on which perseveration and perseverative thinking are dependant (Ottaviani et al., 2016; Borrill et al., 2009; Williams et al., 2017; Manfredi et al., 2011). Trick et al. (2012) have argued that there is a bivariate association between anxiety and/or emotional distress and perseveration. Adopting this view, therefore, allows for the possibility that the outcome of disruptive behaviour Alex displayed was an inevitable consequence of his experiences. The use of current behaviourist approaches would not seek to understand and/or explain the reasons why; such approaches merely react to the behaviour itself. I now take this opportunity to briefly explore perseveration, defining and contextualising it before exploring the link between it and aggressive behaviour

Perseveration can be defined as 'the automatic repetition of an action, utterance, thought, or other form of behaviour' (Coleman, 2009, p.564). Perseveration within the microsystem of the classroom is traditionally associated with autistic spectrum disorder (ASD; Puleo, 2017; Allington and Gabriel, 2016; Arora, 2012). There is also research which suggests that it can be attributed to serious mental health issues, such as schizophrenia and psychosis (Macdonald et al., 2017; Carruthers et al., 2019; Singh et al., 2017; Morris, 2018;

Sellers et al., 2018). It is important to reiterate that, at the time of writing this thesis, neither of my participants had been diagnosed with autism or a serious mental health condition such schizophrenia or psychosis.

Within the classroom, staff have used perseveration to keep students with autism on task (Rispoli et al., 2011; Ninci, 2018; Marshall, 2017; Christoff et al., 2018; Carroll and Blakey, 2016). It has been used specifically as an embedding tool, using the concept of 'perseverative interest' for reading cues and reading progression with autistic students to shift focus and attention towards a task when students appear to be 'stuck' in a repetitive pattern (Zein et al., 2014). These studies demonstrate the power and effect of objects used as general stimulatory cues, but with particular reference to stimulus towards a task. Although, in terms of my study, Alex has not been diagnosed with ASD, Pugliese et al. (2014) have argued that symptoms and characteristics of ASD are present within the general population (2014, p.704; see also Baron-Cohen et al., 2001; Constantino and Todd, 2003, 2005; Hoekstra et al., 2007; Wainer et al., 2011; Mazefsky et al. [2012] for further discussion). It is accurate to say, therefore, that perseverative behaviours cannot be solely attributed to individuals who have been diagnosed with ASD, and that the 'general population' can also become 'stuck' in a particular pattern of perseveration. This view is particularly relevant to this study because Alex has displayed behaviours as a result of a pattern of events and experiences in his home setting, which were recreated as a result of the unwitting visual and verbal cues in the classroom setting. In essence, this study suggests the emergence of a cyclical process, whereby ASD characteristics increased the likelihood of social anxiety and aggression, which in turn increased the likelihood of social anxiety (Pugliese et al. 2014, p.710).

Pugliese et al. (2014) and Kashdan et al. (2009) have argued that social anxiety is a key factor within what they term 'anger rumination', which can be defined as a cognitive process of rumination which may occur during and/or following an experience of anger (2014, p. 705; see also Sukhodolsky et al., 2001, p.690). The term 'rumination' can be defined as 'a pattern of responding to distress with perseverative thinking about the causes or consequences related to that distress, at the expense of using problem-solving techniques to improve one's mood' (Pugliese et al., 2014, p.705; see also Nolen-Hoeksema and Morrow, 1991). Maxwell (2004) has argued that 'anger rumination' is a propensity to think negatively about past events, or where thinking about past events causes negative thoughts. This negative thinking, according Bushman et al. (2005), can create a trigger of aggressive behaviour (See also Bushman et al; 2002). The consequence of anger rumination which Alex experienced is that it strengthened

and increased his anger through what Kashdan et al. (2009) have argued is the depletion of Alex's ability to regulate his behaviour; this led to a reduction in his behavioural inhibition (Kashdan et al., 2009).

It is important to note that rumination and perseveration have traditionally been seen as separate concepts in psychology. Recent studies, however (Ruscio et al., 2014; Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 2008; Muris, 2005), have suggested that the negative affectivity associated with rumination and perseverative thinking are one process, through which negative affectivity increases emotional distress. One suggestion for further research within this area, which this thesis fulfils, is the study of perseverative thought in response to acute events (Ruscio et al., 2011; see also Szabo and Lovibond, 2002; Verkuil et al., 2007; Moberly and Watkins, 2008 for further discussion). More importantly, a key factor from these studies is that aggression is a predictor of social anxiety. As Pugliese et al. (2014) have argued, if there is a 'heightened perception' of social anxiety as a result of the experience of an event, 'behavioural expressions of anger' could be an inevitable consequence resulting from anger rumination (Pugliese et al., 2014). A potential implication of my study, therefore, is that if Alex's anxiety was identified prior to entering the classroom, the incident may not have occurred. Thus, we need to ask, 'Would that identification have been possible using the current approaches to behaviour management?' The answer is likely 'No.' It is only through further focused, post-incident investigation using IPA and ecological theory that it was possible to identify the events Alex witnessed which led to his disruptive classroom behaviour.

However, if a student behaves in a particularly introverted or extroverted manner, which was the case with Alex and which was out of character for him, then my argument is that school staff must act upon this. The rationale for this viewpoint is that exposure to domestic violence in a child's home life can lead to incidents of violence, bullying, and victimisation in their school lives. As Baldry (2003) has argued, 'Parents might show very little care for their children and not consider their feelings. As a consequence, a child develops a low empathy towards others' (2003, p.715). Her study further suggests that children who have witnessed physical forms of domestic violence between parents were more likely to be violent themselves and physically bully others (direct bullying). In addition, children who witnessed their parents verbally abusing each other were more likely to be involved in 'non-physical bullying' (indirect bullying), such as name-calling (Baldry, 2003, p.716). Further, Gilbert et al. (2009) have argued that exposure to domestic violence can

harm educational attainment, a child's own development, and their mental health (2009, p. 74). Additional research (Olofsson et al. 2011; Assad et al. 2016; Kiesel et al. 2016; Byrne and Taylor, 2007) has also suggested an interconnection between a child's education, their mental health, and behaviour in school. These studies further suggest that children with a low level of psychosocial health have lower literacy and numeracy levels.

Unicef (2006) has stated that children who are exposed to domestic violence are impacted to such an extent that they may show behavioural and personality problems including depression, anxiety, and suicidal tendencies. Pingley (2017) has also shown that 'irritability, sleep problems, fear of being alone, immaturity, language development, poor concentration, aggressiveness, antisocial behaviours, anxiety, depression, violence behaviours, low frustration tolerance, problems eating, and being passive or withdrawn' are all factors associated with children who have witnessed domestic violence (2017, p.7; see also Holt, 2008; 2015 and Antle et al., 2010 for further discussion). Further, these are all behaviours which are either overt or have symptoms. If a student is irritable by being tired, if they 'look tired' (Radford et al., 2011), this will lead to problems concentrating, hyperactivity, poor behaviours, and violence. If a student isolates themselves and appears withdrawn or passive, these are cues which are observable and must be acted upon for the purposes of further investigation.

A return to the discussion of this study requires a summary of the moment of disruption. This moment began when Alex swore at the teacher in response to being asked for his homework. Alex got up from his seat, swore again at the teacher, and walked towards the door. While walking towards the door, he explained to me during his school interview that he was feeling angry about 'home stuff'. However, he was now in a situation where he had sworn at the teacher and where perseverative action, as a result of what he witnessed at home, came to the fore. At this point, the situation shows seen and unseen behaviour from Alex. The seen behaviour is not handing in his homework, repeatedly swearing at the teacher, and walking towards the classroom door. The unseen, however, is the explanation of why this happened; it is, as Alex states, 'home stuff'. He further stated during his school interview that, when he felt anger, he also felt as though he 'ha[d] to get out'. I asked him if he meant 'Get out of the room?' He replied by saying, 'I don't know, just had to get out' (extract from Alex's school interview). When Alex walked past the teacher, she stated in her school interview that she heard him muttering 'get out' and 'out' repeatedly (extract from teacher school interview). Although Alex did not mention this during his interviews, and when put to

him, he had no recollection of saying it, the teacher stated it quite explicitly. Here, we see an example of perseverative thinking from Alex which he remembers and the perseverative action (utterances) which the teacher observed; this may be evidence that Alex became stuck in a pattern of traumatic thought. The teacher further stated that when Alex walked towards the door, she described his face being flushed; he was breathing heavily and had a fixed stare, which made her think it had to be something more than mere bad behaviour. This suggests that frustration built inside of Alex as he became consumed by the trauma of his experiences. In particular, this included the experiences of having beer thrown over him by his father while trying to protect his mother and feeling isolated on the driveway when his mother drove away in the car and his father shut the door on him and his sister.

Alex's feeling of isolation is a key factor of this study because it is meant not in a physical sense but in a psychological sense. Alex stated he 'felt' isolated, could 'only' trust his sister now and had to 'get out' of the classroom. These factors represent injuries which are typically associated with trauma (Ren et al., 2017). Ren et al. (2017) have further argued that when individuals feel isolated from a group, they enter a reflective stage in which they try to make sense of their 'injury'. As a result, there are three possible outcomes:

1) Lash out

2) Go along with it

3) Withdrawal (2017, p.34)

My argument is that the isolation and 'felt alone' feelings Alex experienced in the driveway recurred in a perseverative fashion in his mind, making him socially anxious, irritable, and giving him a low tolerance (Herman, 2015; Ratcliffe and Wilkinson, 2016). Further, Alex may have become predisposed to what Ren (2017) has argued is 'emotional-impulsive readiness.' Asking Alex for the homework he was not able to complete acted as an unwitting tool for provocation on the teacher's part. This was not a tool to make him become aggressive, but a tool which ignited a mind-wandering process, in which 'homework' was the trigger and his trauma was the temporal orientation (Sirois, 2016) he brought to the classroom (Vannucci et al., 2019; see also McVay and Kane, 2013, Plimpton et al., 2015, Song and Wang, 2012).

Alex's tendency would always be to 'lash out' in the first instance, hence his swearing at the teacher (Ren, 2017). He then attempted to 'withdraw' and leave the classroom, and in doing so, he walked past the teacher's desk. On the desk, he saw what he described as a

‘stack of books, some papers, and a glass beaker’ (extract from school interview). When he saw each of these objects, he stated that he looked at them but did not stop walking. At this point, Alex experienced what I describe as mesosystemic interaction (Bronfenbrener, 1979); the microsystem of the home and the microsystem of the school interacted as he began to relive the experiences of home within the school/classroom setting. At the same time, the objects (books, papers, and beaker) on the desk appeared to his consciousness and competed for attention in his mind. In order to understand how this occurs, I renew Bronfenbrenner’s call to use phenomenology within ecological research. Therefore, in order to distinguish how phenomenologists specifically gauge human experience, and thus Alex’s perception of the items on the teacher’s desk, it is necessary to examine in some detail how they theorise with regard to perception. Furthermore, it is also important to discern how Alex perceived the objects and how the ‘object permanence’ of the beaker created the impulse for him to pick it up from the desk.

Edmund Husserl’s argument regarding representational characteristics of mind through ‘the theory of intentionality’ (Moran, 2000) states that, as human beings, we are consciously aware or ‘conscious’ and ‘aware’ of people, events, and physical and abstract objects. Husserl further argues that the principle properties and themes of consciousness are factors which create a representation from objects or situations we bring before our minds; in turn, these give us a sense of something (Macintyre and Smith, 1989, p.2). To illustrate this point, in *Being and Nothingness*, the French philosopher Jean-Paul Sartre uses the example of the café scenario in which he has arranged to meet his friend Pierre; however, upon arrival at the café, Pierre is not there. Sartre states that when he looks around the café, the objects, people, and the scene itself compete for attention within his consciousness. This depends on specific items which enter his attention spotlight and, in doing so, either have meaning or, if not, become self-nihilating. One could argue that the beaker which Alex perceived is out of context and has no meaning because it is not where Alex would expect it to be at that specific point in time (Smith et al., 2009, p.20). Sartre describes the ‘raison d’etre’ – the purpose of existence – of the situational context within the theory of intentionality.

However, through his discussion of the concept of ‘intentionality’ in *Investigations*, Husserl identifies ‘different species and sub-species of intention’ (Moran, 2000, p.114), which he describes as ‘intentional experiences’ and ‘intentional acts’. He argues that our thoughts or ‘intentional experiences’ always transcend towards the phenomenon; therefore, Alex experienced this transcendence of thought and memory upon seeing the beaker. This

transcendence of human consciousness is generated from our thoughts, which surround the phenomenon, and within our mind, we become, as Brentano describes, 'reflexively aware'; i.e., I see something, and I am aware that I am seeing something (Moran, 2000, p.115). Moreover, as Hoerl (2013) has argued, there is a difference between concepts of the 'neutrality thesis' and the 'animation thesis'; in this case, anyone other than Alex looking at the beaker would not necessarily attribute the same 'external reference' he did. In the same way, Alex looking at the set of textbooks or stack of papers on the desk would have no meaning in that situation, unless he had experienced them in a way to give them permanence in his mind (Gardner, 2010).

When Alex saw the beaker, he experienced what Hoerl (2013) has described as 'the apprehension that animates the content' (2013, p.381). An explicit definition of this term is necessary to understand exactly what may have happened in Alex's mind when he saw the beaker on the teacher's desk. Within Husserlian phenomenology, which Hoerl refers to, the definition of 'content' is not the same as in an everyday definition, such as the contents of a bucket or the content of a newspaper. Rather, the 'content' in a phenomenological sense is 'experiential content', and there is an 'apprehension' which 'animates' that 'content' in a particular way (Hoerl, 2013, p.379). The beaker Alex saw on the teacher's desk was experienced 'not in the sense of being objects, e.g., of acquaintance, but in the sense of being (aspects of) episodes we undergo' (Husserl, 2001, p. 273). Further, Husserl states that the object being experienced creates a temporal experience; in this case, the beaker reminded Alex of the event he experienced at home, as well as the current experience of it in the classroom. The beaker as an object within that temporal experience became what Husserl describes as a 'time-constituting act' because it represents 'apprehensions of the now,' 'apprehensions of the past,' and so on (Husserl, 1991, p. 41; and p. 239).

Analysed further through an ecological lens, Alex experienced a temporal mesosystemic interaction, which is best reflected in Husserl's tripartite distinction of primal impression, retention, and protention (Hoerl, 2013, p.382; see also Masi, 2016; Wu, 2018; Blaiklock, 2017; Kwok, 2019; Schaefer, 2018; Zahavi, 2012; Gallgaher and Zahavi, 2014). In order to understand these concepts further, I use a simple traffic light scenario. Consider that I am in my car at a red traffic light, waiting to continue my journey. Being stopped at a red light includes being aware of the current situation (primal impression), and it also involves me being aware that the traffic lights, prior to being red, have previously performed the sequence of green – amber – red (retention). Further, the current situation also involves me

being aware of the fact that the lights will perform the sequence from red, to red and amber, to green, and then back to red again (protention). The sequences are perceived within the temporal experience of awareness of the present, the past, and the future. Therefore, the perception, 'it's just a beaker sat on the teacher's desk' may be valid to any person other than Alex because it is not a perception of temporal awareness within his mesosystem. However, it was an existing symbol of his present anxiety and what happened in the past, i.e., the trauma he witnessed at home; as a result, it became a symbol of his own release, his 'getting out'.

Having understood the meaning that the beaker had for Alex, along with the extreme anxiety he experienced, enabled an understanding of how he came to pick it up. Alex stated that he 'grabbed the beaker off the (sic) desk and threw what was in it over the class.' He further stated, 'I closed my eyes, all I could see was my dad chucking the beer over me and mum' (extract from Alex's school interview). My argument is that, as he closed his eyes and threw the contents of the beaker over some students in the class, Alex had reached an 'end state'. This occurred as a result of a cumulative process of anxiety, coupled with a state of 'action readiness', which is further evidenced by his desire to 'get out' but not being sure about what he thought 'getting out' meant (CSAT, 2014). This, as CSAT (2014) has argued, is an attempt to regain control of the situation through what could be described as a re-enactment scenario.

Following this scenario, Alex heard screaming from some of the people in the class: 'I opened my eyes and ran out of the classroom' (extract from Alex's school interview). These feelings of guilt and shame (Stuewig and Tangney, 2007) developed into Ren's 'withdrawal stage' when Alex ran out of the classroom out of fear of what he had done and anger at himself. Frijda et al. (2014) have stated that impulsive actions, however they occur or whatever we theorise about them, always have both an 'urgency' and an 'aim' (2014, p.518; see also Frijda, 2010; 2005). The urgency was to release the trauma which took the guise of throwing the contents of the beaker, and the aim was to 'disown' his trauma (CSAT, 2014), thereby attempting to move away from a negative to a positive self-regard (Fisher, 2017; see also Danylchuk, 2015; Rowan and Cooper, 1998, p.51; Bergamnn, 1992).

Summary of analysis chapter

The findings of this analysis suggest the need for an increased use of IPA and ecological theory in order to understand behavioural events within the complexity of the classroom. This analysis has highlighted the importance of individual microsystems, settings,

roles, mesosystemic interaction, the influence of the macrosystem, and how rooted meta-cultural policies can shape pre-existing teacher perceptions and behaviours. The findings also suggest the impact of ecological theory and phenomenology, along with the knowledge and insight gained as a result of their use in understanding the 'moment' of student disruption.

Furthermore, this analysis has suggested the necessity of looking at a 'deeper level' (Smith et al., 2009) to understand disruptive student behaviour. It also argues for the necessity of acknowledging and 'determining' complexity in education, specifically in the classroom. Without this acknowledgement and a continuum of research in this area, educational policy will not advance beyond some of the 'cause and effect' behaviourist approaches in place. The classroom is a complex, multi-layered setting which consists of the micro-, meso, exo-, and macro-systems of each individual within the classroom and the ideals of those who function within it; these contribute more than the mere 'production of products'. These ideals are specifically rooted within the dyads between the student(s) and the teacher(s) within the class. Alex and the teacher spoke specifically of the need for what I describe as positive working relationships and co-agency, which Alex implied as the first form of learning.

A key finding of this analysis was the significance of objects as 'time-constituting acts' along with the impact of mesosystemic interaction, specifically the trauma Alex experienced, which resulted in perseveration, and perseverative thinking then led to ruminative aggression. This study shows that these traits are not only exhibited by people who have diagnosed disorders such as ASD because these actions are not, as CSAT (2014) has stated, 'signs of mental illness, nor do they indicate a mental disorder'. The appearance of certain objects or a certain class of object can lead to a form of behaviour which is not understood using current behavioural approaches and policy in schools. Further, it is behaviour which the teacher herself described as having 'something more to it', and this analysis suggests the same. While this study does not attempt to absolve Alex of his behaviour, it helps to understand why he acted the way he did. It also suggests an incident which Alex had witnessed and was involved in and the effects it had on his life. The key factor is that, while the incident Alex witnessed at his home may have stopped physically, it continued psychologically, and its effects may be life-changing. In my view, based on the result of this case study, there needs to be a serious shift in schools and the DfE in terms of 'thinking otherwise' about disruptive student behaviour.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

Summary of findings

My original contributions to knowledge are two-fold: first, I extend the forefront of both the IPA and ecological theory disciplines by using them as a combined approach to understand a student's disruptive behaviour. Bronfenbrenner (1979) has argued that through the use of ecological theory, the importance 'of the person's subjective view' of a situation is defined, which in turn is 'a major determinant of action' (1979, p.125). The result was that IPA enabled me to understand the event which took place (the what), and through the use of ecological theory, I could understand why the event took place (the why). My second contribution to knowledge is the discussion of how, as a result of witnessing an acute incident of domestic violence at his home, Alex was traumatised and entered a state of negative affectivity, which in turn led to anxiety-driven perseveration and ruminative aggression, which resulted in the disruptive classroom behaviour. The analysis also revealed the significance of particular objects within the environment which, as a result of the acute event, held meaning for Alex and had an impact on how he felt at the time. Further, as this study has suggested, behaviour can be steered by the presence and perceived meaning of objects within an environment through their 'lines of force, valences, and vectors that attract and repel' (1979, p.23). This was a key point of the analysis because, as Bronfenbrenner has argued, the experience of these objects and their meaning in an event '[highlight] the importance of the phenomenological field in ecological research' (1979, p.29).

Reflection on the study

A key factor which has resonated with me throughout this study is that, in the actions of so-called 'disruptive behaviour', there is a story. This narrative can be unpacked through the ability to step outside of our everyday experience (bracketing) and by disregarding the natural attitude and potential for categorisation and/or overgeneralisation (Buchanan et al., 2007, p.67) to adopt a phenomenological attitude (Smith et, 2009, p.12; Griffin et al., 2012; Murray and Holmes, 2013; Smith, 2016). Considering Husserlian phenomenology and the 'Erlebnisse' or 'mental process', bracketing is necessary to avoid Heidegger's notion of the 'Theory of truth', which is based solely on a judgment, as opposed to experiential truth, in which truth is 'judged' based not on phenomenological or phenomenographic perspectives but solely on 'natural attitude' (Moran, 2000, p.236). Moreover, and moving beyond

Husserl's presumptions of 'Being-in-the-world' through assertions and discourse — 'Aussagen und Rede', the Erlebnisse demonstrates experience through 'Being and Time' — 'Sein und Zeit' – that the experience occurs at a specific point in time, as opposed to what I describe as an 'educated guess' (Moran, 2000, p.235). The key factor, therefore, is that, through the ontological perspective of inter-subjectivity, as a researcher, I gained a phenomenographic insight into both Alex's and the teacher's views of their experiences. This in turn encouraged a deeper understanding of the self-perceptions of both participants, not only as learner and teacher within the classroom context (their school lives), but also within the context of home and socially. In addition, from institutional and inclusive perspectives, how a student learns and how a teacher teaches, along with their perceptions of themselves and each other's roles, are important factors in the eventual reintegration process from the margin of the Unit into the mainstream of the school.

Hancock and Mansfield (2002) have emphasised how, in practice, 'many teachers disregard children's views and perspectives' (Wearmouth et al., 2004, p.39) or are not as accommodating as they would like to be or could be (see Cassidy, 2011; Macfarlane and Woolfson, 2013). My own values and experiences came to the fore in this study because this is not the first time during my work in the Unit that I have encountered a discourse of inequality and non-inclusivity. As a key part of this conclusion, therefore, I question the efficacy of this study by asking, 'Does this study achieve what it sets out to achieve?' In order to answer the 'So what?' question within this first section, I reflect on the methodology and analysis because these two sections were key in ensuring that the study achieved the aim of understanding why Alex behaved as he did.

A reflection on the analysis

The theorisation of the data in the analysis section, following the IPA coding, was underpinned by ecological theory and phenomenology;, these enabled a temporal microanalysis of the event. The microanalysis highlighted perseveration, rumination, and trauma as the key factors which encased the student prior to entering the classroom. The key perseverative action within the classroom was triggered by the teacher's request for homework, which Alex was unable to complete because of the incident he witnessed at home. The action of throwing the liquid over members of the class was the replication of a key event from the home incident. This was triggered as a result of three factors:

1) object permanence;

2) primal impression, protention, and retention;

3) Alex attempting to take control of his own trauma.

These hidden but quite real factors Alex experienced at the time as being like a 'dream' can be used as evidence to explain his disruptive behaviour. The implications of these findings suggest that Alex was not simply 'acting out', and the teacher's initial thoughts at the time of the incident that 'there's more to it' were well founded. These findings also provide some evidence that the incident explored within this study may not be fully understood using current behaviourist approaches.

Through the use of an alternative approach to understanding behaviour, ecological theory and phenomenology provided an accurate analytical tool to enable a deeper understanding and contextualisation of the behaviour and how it occurred. Beyond this, and reflecting upon my capacity as a researcher, was the ability to assume the emotional point of view of Alex and the teacher, thereby leading to an inter-subjective stance. Through this insight and the development of the theory of mind, a way to further use this approach within the Unit has been paved.

Limitations of the study

There are three limitations of this study:

1) methodological limitations

2) longitudinal limitations

3) cultural bias

In this section, I discuss these three limitations as an overall acknowledgment of the limitations of this study and as opportunities for further research (discussed in the next section).

Methodological

The methodological limitations of this study concern the sub-headings of sample size and self-reported data (Murnan and Price, 2004).

Sample size

The sample size of this study could potentially be perceived as a limitation. However, a realistic approach to the study should be taken in terms of what can be managed with data

collection, coding, and analysis. As an IPA researcher, I am, as Larkin and Thomas (2012) have argued, 'committed to the painstaking analysis of cases' published with samples of 'one, four, nine, 15, and more' (2012, p.56). Further, and in line with Smith (2009; 2011), I also argue that, in order to achieve a 'deep level' (Smith, 2009) of analysis, I 'strategically chose a small sample size' (Smith, 2011). It is also necessary to acknowledge that, despite the 'painstaking' depth of analysis in IPA research, one cannot make generalised findings from a small sample. However, IPA researchers acknowledge that, on the subject of 'realism within research', the depth of analysis is needed in order to create a succinct interpretative account, which can only be carried out 'realistically' with a small number of participants (Larkin and Thompson, 2012, p.56–57).

Further, it must be noted that this study is not a statistical test with generalised results that represent a specific group of people. The aim of implementing the interpretivist approach was to move the study beyond the overt, measurable, and observable to that which is more than mere descriptive accounts of human experience. This resulted in what I describe as the provision of a tool which seeks to provide truth, and more specifically, a viewpoint which is true and sympathetic towards the experience of the event through the 'eye of the beholder' (Pronin et al., 2004). A further aim of the methodology was to give voice to my participants; therefore, the specifics of those voices had to be interpretations of their lived experiences. Moreover, this study focused on in-depth interpretations and not generalisations; in other words, it sacrificed breadth for depth. The rationale is that the depth of this study contributes to the breadth and corpus of the use of IPA and ecological theory within the field of educational research.

A final key factor to consider is that a greater sample size would not necessarily have led to more information. In addition, a larger sample size may not permit a deep and inductive analysis. Conversely, a sample size which is too small may not be able to support the claims made. In my study, my choice of sample size was determined by the research question I tried to answer and the field of knowledge to which this study contributes. As a result, the underpinning methodology which explored the 'moment of interaction' between teacher and disruptive student does not imply the need for a greater sample than that of a teacher and a student. If there was plurality in the title, e.g., teachers and disruptive students, then 'one of each' would have been too small because a universal generalisation cannot be made from an existential generalisation (Huberman and Miles, 1994, pp.432–440).

Self-reported data

A key factor of this study was the data collected from my participants. The significance of the validity of that data was always at the forefront of my mind when deciding which methods to use. I investigated a retrospective incident; therefore, the key information-gathering tool was semi-structured interviews (semi-structured). When conducting those interviews, it was important to gain both a holistic perspective of the experience of the event, and a focus on the participants' home, school, and social lives enabled me to gauge their experiences 'in light of' the information given.

Researcher limitations

In my role as a researcher on the EdD programme, there are both time and word count constraints (Burgess et al., 2006). As a result, the focus of the study is purposefully narrowed and focused upon one 'moment' of one student's interaction with one teacher in one classroom. Despite its contribution to the field, what this study does not consider is whether this behaviour is or would be present in all of Alex's lessons. Nor does it consider whether one can attribute the lack of alternative behavioural approaches as opportunities for intervention which staff may have missed. If the opportunity presented itself and the word count allowed, I would have interviewed Alex with regard to all of his lessons. Further, I would have carried out lesson observations and interviewed all of his subject teachers and any school staff who had regular contact with him in order to gain a broad perspective of Alex's learning experiences.

Cultural bias of the participants

The participants in this study were selected intentionally because they were English-speaking and because of my linguistic limitations as a researcher. As a result of this limitation, one could ask whether this study would have yielded the same results if it were carried out with participants who were non-English speaking, or who were from vastly different cultural backgrounds. In order to answer this question, there would need to be a larger number of participants from both English-speaking and non-English-speaking backgrounds in order to potentially address and satisfy the anomaly of demographics.

Opportunities for further research

There are practical applications which can be made as a result of this investigation, beyond the study's original contribution to the field in terms of its methodology and findings. This study paves the way for further incidents of disruptive behaviour to be investigated and analysed using this methodology. I do not advocate my methodology as 'the only one that should be used' or, indeed, that this method is 'the only one that can be used'. The limitations of this study preclude such statements, in that I have explored the behavioural causes and effects of one student which also involved one teacher, in one lesson, in one classroom, in one school. These opportunities for further research exist primarily with a larger sample size, and further research could be conducted using more participants. However, it is important to note that a study with the same number of participants would not be any less valid and would still contribute to the field. A further consideration along with a greater sample size and the depth of analysis used with IPA is the employment of co-researchers. Heron and Reason (2006) have argued that using participants as co-researchers is a 'well-considered' way of closing the 'gap' through 'co-operative inquiry' (2006, p.144). Whether the co-researchers are the participants themselves or academic researchers (Wearmouth et al., 2004), this method may provide scope for further research.

What has changed during the time of writing this thesis?

The key change at the time of writing this thesis is the publication of the 'Timpson Review of School Exclusion', which was presented to Parliament in May 2019. This review was written by Edward Timpson CBE following his commissioning in March 2018 by the Secretary of State for Education, Damian Hinds MP, as part of the government's initiative to review schools' practice of exclusions. A key chapter of this review is entitled 'Equipping: Giving schools the skills and capacity to deliver'; in it, Timpson argues for the government recommendations within key areas (Timpson, 2019, p.67). The implications of this are that embedding effective behaviour management in an ITT framework may ensure that teachers are equipped 'to deal effectively with poor behaviour when this arises'. This would ensure that, at the start of a teacher's career, behaviour management would not be an unknown entity but a key area of training for prospective teachers. In addition, the introduction of 'designated individuals' in schools may ensure an effective response to challenging behaviour and its potential causes, which in turn may instil confidence within staff as part of the use of 'effective interventions'. The introduction of a practice improvement fund (PIF) across the

school system, whether a ‘mainstream, special or AP [alternative provision] school’, may go some way in changing the view of the different areas of schooling, particularly the ‘bolt-on’ view of AP and special education to mainstream schools. This ‘repositioning’ may ensure that schooling outside of the mainstream is viewed as a ‘source of expertise’, and working in these areas of education could be viewed as a ‘positive career choice for the school workforce’. However, in line with Timpson, I would argue that the key implication of his review is that there needs to be a continuum of support and investment for ‘multi-disciplinary teams’ to be ‘attached’ to schools. The rationale is that, despite a call for unity across different areas of schooling, it cannot be for ‘schools alone’ to tackle all of students’ needs when it comes to additional support (Timpson, 2019, p.67). These factors suggest Timpson’s understanding of the importance of the ecological factors within the school when dealing with disruptive behaviour. This further supports the argument that, when developing a skilled workforce which can deal effectively with behaviour management, Timpson states:

‘It is all the people within schools — the teachers, Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators (SENCOs), support staff and others — who create environments where children can thrive and achieve their potential.’ (Timpson, 2019, p.67–68)

The key word highlighted and reiterated throughout this study is ‘environment’, and its importance appears to be an overarching theme within Timpson’s view of how to ‘equip’ schools. This new report appears to contrast with Tom Bennett’s proposals (Chapter 1), which call for a ‘zero tolerance’ approach/strategy when dealing with challenging behaviour. What is clear from both reports, however, is the need for change, and that change appears to be afoot. This is evidenced by a key factor in the report: Timpson argues for the co-agency of schools and local authorities to be a ‘working with local partners’ initiative in order to meet and address underlying, complex behavioural needs. Timpson further states that, in order for a multi-agency approach to be successful, it is necessary to have ‘an holistic view of their [student] individual circumstances, both within and outside school, and some children need support beyond their school for this’ (2019, p.77–78). Timpson admits that a multi-agency approach can cost money with the ‘buying-in’ of services, such as occupational therapists and educational psychologists. Nonetheless, the implication of failing to act is that students would not receive the support and help they need, coupled with the continued cyclical process of teachers blaming parents and parents blaming teachers.

A final word

This investigation began with the question of whether an alternative approach to behaviour management could lead to a greater understanding of the reasons behind disruptive student behaviour. Through an interpretative phenomenological analysis and the use of ecological theory, the study revealed a state of suffering and trauma which, whilst unique to the student, went some way in explaining the student's behaviour. The implications are that policy makers in government, the DfE, and schools, as well as teacher trainers and ITT providers, may benefit from considering and reflecting upon the results of this study. The 'one size fits all' behaviourist approaches are driven by policy makers and may serve an institution and neglect the most vulnerable individuals within it. The final word is that it has been an inspiring experience to conduct this study.

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Appendix

Education Faculty Research Ethics Review
Application for full review

For Faculty Office use only	
FREC Protocol No:	**Date received:**

*Your application **must** comprise the following documents (please tick the boxes below to indicate that they are attached):*

Application Form	**X**

Peer Review Form	**X**

Copies of any documents to be used in the study:

Participant Information Sheet(s)	**X**
Consent Form(s)	**X**
Introductory letter(s)	
Questionnaire	**X**
Focus Group Guidelines	

Education Faculty Research Ethics Review

Application for full review

1. PROJECT DETAILS

MAIN RESEARCHER	Lloyd Hughes
E-MAIL	lloydhughes2008@live.co.uk
POSITION WITHIN CCCU	Doctoral student
POSITION OUTSIDE CCCU	N/A
COURSE (students only)	Doctorate in Education – Generic Cohort 3
DEPARTMENT (staff only)	N/A
PROJECT TITLE	'Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis and Ecological theory: A Combined Approach to Understanding Disruptive Student Behaviour'
TUTOR/SUPERVISOR: NAME	Dr Lynn Revell
TUTOR/SUPERVISOR: E-MAIL	lynn.revell@canterbury.ac.uk
DURATION OF PROJECT (start & end dates)	6 terms to complete the thesis. (From 1st March 2018 – 1st June 2020)

OTHER RESEARCHERS	None

2. OUTLINE THE ETHICAL ISSUES THAT YOU THINK ARE INVOLVED IN THE PROJECT.

I will be interviewing minors (secondary school students who are under 16) who are at serious risk of permanent exclusion. Subsequent interviews revolving around why students behave in a particular way, may lead to disclosure on the part of the student. Therefore, permission will need to be sought from the student's parents/carers in order for them to take part in the research.
I will also need to ensure that permission is sought from the school gatekeepers to carry out the study.
Security of data and anonymity of the participants of my study is paramount.
Observe at all times through the study the ethical principles of *beneficium* (the study will benefit the participants) and *non-malificience* (the study will not cause the participants harm).
Ensuring the participants know that whilst they are anonymous within the study, they can withdraw their consent up to 6 months after giving it.

3. GIVE A BRIEF OUTLINE OF THE PROJECT in no more than 100 words. (*Include, for example, sample selection, recruitment procedures, data collection, data analysis and expected outcomes.)* Please ensure that your description will be understood by the lay members of the Committee.

This project is a study of the interaction between a secondary school student, selected using selection criteria (see attached) who is at serious risk of permanent exclusion and the mainstream teacher who teaches them. The student will be asked to take part in the study and is a full-time student within the behaviour unit. Three semi-structured interviews will be carried out on a one-to-one basis between myself and the student and myself and the teacher. Interview one will focus upon school life, Interview two will focus upon home life and interview three will focus upon their social lives. The interviews will take place in a classroom within the behaviour unit with no other staff or students present. I plan for the interviews to last for one hour with planned breaks every 20 minutes. Contemporaneous notes will be taken during the interviews. The data will be analysed using IPA coding, whereby the codes will be generated from the data produced and not from a pre-existing set.

4. How many participants will be recruited?	Two participants. One student and one teacher.

5. Will you be recruiting STAFF or STUDENTS from another faculty?	NO
6. Will participants include minors, people with learning difficulties or other vulnerable people?	YES Aside from the legal assumption and ethical protocol of the University advocating 'vulnerability due to age'; these participants are vulnerable within the aims, focus and context of the study. From the outset I need to aware of the impact of the participants taking part in this study. The fact that either participant may have have previous undisclosed issues with the school, at home or in their social life. In order to address this, openness and transparency of the research are key. It will be emphasised that my role as a researcher will be to investigate and not to make judgements about the participants themselves. That said, what the participants say during interviews will become data and judgments about them, may be made by others who read the study. (Pro-forma read to participants at, recruitment, consent stage and immediately prior to interviews- copies of which will be given to them) There is an issue of juridic vulnerability, whereby the student may feel they 'have to' consent because of my role as an authority figure e.g. I am a teacher. Therefore, the consent procedure needs to adequately insulate the participants from the hierarchy of the School and this will be achieved through the anonymising of participants. Consent from participants needs to be sought first, before that of parents/carers and interviews will be conducted separately. It also needs to be emphasised to the participants that participation within the study carries no reward or sanction. If the student is at serious risk of permanent exclusion then by taking part in the study the student will remain at serious risk of permanent exclusion. Also, the student will not be permanently excluded as a result of taking part in the study. Equally, the staff member will not be promoted or demoted for taking part in the study. Along with the issue of juridic vulnerability there is also the issue of deferential vulnerability. There can be an 'agreeableness' particularly with children whereby they may feel 'socially pressured' to take part which may mask an inner reticence. Therefore, if a participant (staff or student) agrees to take part in the study, it will be reiterated that they can withdraw their consent. I will also reiterate that their partaking in the study will have no impact upon any outcome regarding whether they are excluded from school. The study is separate from what happens to them at the school and, whilst it may inform practice, there is no preferen-

	tial or disadvantageous treatment of any participants. I consider both participants within this research to be vulnerable because not only am I considering their lives in school but also their social and home lives as well. (Luna (2009) argues that vulnerability is relational to layers which are fully revealed through analysis of the context and interactions within them. (2009,p. 121) Therefore, the vulnerability of each participants is that, during interviews, they may experience feelings or emotions which are upsetting. Particularly, if the layers of their lives involve or have involved abuse, neglect or bereavement. The participants may also feel uncomfortable talking about the incident which I am studying even though they have agreed to take part, because of the feelings and emotions it may invoke. This will be dealt with by informing the participants, from the outset, that they may experience these emotions during interviews. Reference: *Luna, F. 2009. Elucidating the concept of vulnerability: Layers not labels.* *International Journal of Feminist Approaches to Bioethics 2(1): pp.121–139.*

7. Potential risks for participants: - Emotional harm/hurt* - Physical harm/hurt - Risk of disclosure - Other (please specify) *Please note that this includes any sensitive areas, feelings etc., however mild they may seem.	Please indicate all those that apply. YES NO YES N/A
8. How are these risks to be addressed?	As a researcher, I will be adhering to school's child protection and data protection policies. I will explain to my participants that although their personal details are anonymised within the study, I cannot offer confidentiality because I have a duty of care as a researcher. Therefore, if any child protection disclosures are made, these will be passed onto the designated child protection officer. In terms of the aftercare I will make students aware of access to the school's support services, e.g. bereavement counselling, anger management, stop smoking.
9. Potential benefits for participants: - Improved services - Improved participant understanding - Opportunities for participants to have their views heard. - Other (please specify)	Please indicate all those that apply. YES YES YES N/A

10. How, when and by whom will participants be	Participants is a student who I currently teach

approached? Will they be recruited individually or en bloc?	within the school and the teacher is a colleague. I will approach each potential participant individually, in the role as a researcher. I will call the parents of the student to gain verbal consent and follow up with a letter, confirming formal written consent.
11. Are participants likely to feel under pressure to consent / assent to participation?	No.
12. How will voluntary informed consent be obtained from individual participants or those with a right to consent for them? - Introductory letter - Phone call - Email - Other (please specify)	Please indicate all those that apply and add examples in an appendix. NO YES NO Consent Form

13. How will permission be sought from those responsible for institutions / organisations hosting the study? - Introductory letter - Phone call - Email - Other (please specify)	Please indicate all those that apply and add examples in an appendix. NO YES NO In Person/Consent Form
14. How will the privacy and confidentiality of participants be safeguarded? (Please give brief details).	Names of participants and location of school will be changed to preserve anonymity. In school, the teacher and student will be aware of each other's identity.
15. What steps will be taken to comply with the Data Protection Act? - Safe storage of data - Anonymisation of data - Destruction of data after 5 years - Other (please specify)	Please indicate all those that apply. YES YES YES
16. How will participants be made aware of the results of the study?	All participants within the study will be shown how the data is analysed – including parents/carers. If the either participant leaves the school before the completion of the thesis. I will make arrangements to have contact with them directly (in the case of the teacher) or with the parents/carers (in the case of the student). Also, a copy of the thesis will be made available for each participant.
17. What steps will be taken to allow participants to retain control over audio-visual records of them and over their creative products and items of a personal nature?	There will be no audio-visual equipment used. I will record answers contemporaneously during the interviews.

18. Give the qualifications and/or experience of the researcher and/or supervisor in this form of research. (Brief answer only)	Lloyd Hughes Current Doctoral student at CCCU. Have conducted research studies during my Masters Degree.
19. If you are NOT a member of CCCU academic staff or a registered CCCU postgraduate student, what insurance arrangements are in place to meet liability incurred in the conduct of this research?	N/A NO NO In Person/Consent Form

Attach any:

Participant information sheets and letters

Consent forms

Data collection instruments

Peer review comments

DECLARATION

- I certify that the information in this form is accurate to the best of my knowledge and belief and I take full responsibility for it.
- I certify that a risk assessment for this study has been carried out in compliance with the University's Health and Safety policy.

- I certify that any required CRB/VBS check has been carried out.
- I undertake to carry out this project under the terms specified in the Canterbury Christ Church University Research Governance Handbook.
- I undertake to inform the relevant Faculty Research Ethics Committee of any significant change in the question, design or conduct of the study over the course of the study. I understand that such changes may require a new application for ethics approval.
- I undertake to inform the Research Governance Manager in the Graduate School and Research Office when the proposed study has been completed.
- I am aware of my responsibility to comply with the requirements of the law and appropriate University guidelines relating to the security and confidentiality of participant or other personal data.
- I understand that project records/data may be subject to inspection for audit purposes if required in future and that project records should be kept securely for five years or other specified period.
- I understand that the personal data about me contained in this application will be held by the Research Office and that this will be managed according to the principles established in the Data Protection Act.

Researcher's Name: LLOYD HUGHES

Date: 05/08/2017

CONSENT FORM

(HeadTeacher)

Title of Project:
'Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis and Ecological theory: A Combined Approach to Understanding Disruptive Student Behaviour'

Name of Researcher: Lloyd Hughes

Contact details:

Address:	C/O Canterbury Christchurch University North Holmes Road Canterbury Kent CT1 1QU
Tel:	N/A
Email:	lh349@canterbury.ac.uk

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.	
2. I understand that my consent is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	
3. I understand that any personal information provided to the researchers will be kept strictly confidential	
4. I agree for the study to take place.	

_____	_____	_____
Name of Person taking consent (if different from researcher)	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Researcher	Date	Signature

Copies: 1 for participant
1 for researcher

CONSENT FORM
(Parent on behalf of student)

Title of Project:
'Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis and Ecological theory: A Combined Approach to Understanding Disruptive Student Behaviour'

Name of Researcher: Lloyd Hughes

Contact details:

Address:	c/o Canterbury Christchurch University

North Holmes Road
Canterbury
Kent
CT1 1QU

Tel: N/A

Email: lh349@canterbury.ac.uk

Please initial box

1. I/We confirm that I/We have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.	☐
2. I/We understand that participation is voluntary and consent maybe withdrawn at any time, without giving any reason.	☐
3. I/We understand that any personal information that provided to the researchers will be kept strictly confidential	☐
4. I/We agree to my/our son/daughter/ward taking part in the above study.	☐

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of Person taking consent (if different from researcher)	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Researcher	Date	Signature

Copies: 1 for participant
1 for researcher

<u>This information sheet is to be read to the potential participants at the recruitment stage and a copy given.</u>

Good morning/good afternoon,

My name is Lloyd Hughes and I am a student studying for a Doctorate in Education at Canterbury Christchurch University. I am planning to carry out a research project which I would like you to be a part of.

The project is entitled:

‘Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis and Ecological theory: A Combined Approach to Understanding Disruptive Student Behaviour’

This study will focus upon one incident of behaviour which has led to a student being placed in the behaviour unit on a full-time basis. This study seeks to analyse and interpret the incident using a series of interviews which not only investigates that incident but also explores your life at school, as well as at home and socially.

It is important for you as a participant to understand that the interviews will be in depth and questions will be asked about your life at home, at school and socially. Therefore, there will be three interviews covering each area of your life. This is a study which examines your life in detail and as such your responses *may* cause you to be upset and feel uncomfortable. It is not the intention of the study to do this but it may be a consequence of in-depth interviews which discuss emotive topics. I would like to make you aware of the counselling services which the school has to offer and should you feel you wish to speak to the counsellor at any point during the study, I can arrange that for you.

It is also important for you to understand that for the purposes of this project I am a researcher and not a teacher. Your identity will only be known to me and the teacher involved in the study, of whom you will also know the identity. That said, you need to be aware that as a researcher I cannot offer confidentiality in respect of criminality or anything that is detrimental to your welfare. I would like to point out that during the interviews, once you have said something you cannot ‘unsay’ it and what you say will be used as data within the study.

I would also like you to be aware of the fact that once consent is given you can withdraw your consent at ***anytime*** during the study. Furthermore, once consent is given there will be a 2-day cooling off period. I will then approach you again to ask if you are happy to take part in the study. If you are happy to take part in the study, we will arrange a convenient time to conduct the first interview.

(Participant will then be given the consent form to sign)

(Student will do this in the presence of their parent(s)/carer(s)

Read prior to each interview – participant to be given a copy.

Good morning/good afternoon,

You have agreed to take part in this study and we are about to commence the first/second/third*

interview. During this interview, we will be discussing you school/home/social life*.

Are you still happy to be involved in the study?

Are you happy to go ahead with the interview at this present time?

I have to inform you, there will be no audio-visual equipment used and I will be recording your responses by writing them down after each question. If you have any questions at any time then please ask me. At the end of the interview you will be invited to read over what I have written and make any further comments should you wish to do so.

The interview should last no longer than 1 hour and we will be taking regular breaks.

Are you happy to proceed on this basis?

If at any point during the interview you wish to stop then please say so.

Are there any questions before we begin the interview?

**delete as appropriate*

Questions to be used during interview about their School life – Teacher.
This interview is to discuss the incident which resulted in the student being placed in the Unit.

How long have you been a teacher?

Why did you decide to become a teacher?
How would you describe the best part of the job?
How would you describe the worst part of the job?
(Student X) has been placed in the Unit full-time as a result of an incident which took place, what can you tell me about that incident? (Ask what led up to incident if known by teacher)
How did you feel during the incident?
How would you describe how you dealt with that incident?
If you could change anything about the way you dealt with the incident what would it be?

Notes

Questions to be used during interview about their School life – Student.

Ensure reasons for coming into the Unit are covered in the section 'How would you describe any issues at school?'

What subjects are you studying at school?

Where you leave school, what would you like to do?
How would you describe yourself at school?
How would describe any issues you experience at school?
How do you deal with these issues?
Do you believe this is the best way of dealing with these issues?

You have been placed in the Unit on a full-time basis as a result of an incident which occurred involving (Teacher), what can you tell me about that? What led up to the incident?

How did you feel when the incident was going on?
How did you feel after the incident?
If there is anything you could change about the incident what would it be?
Notes

Questions to be used for Home life interview (The same questions will be used for both Teacher and Student)

Where do you live?

Who do you live at home with?
Describe any family holidays or get togethers you have?
Describe any issues at home.
Have you witnessed or been involved in anything at home which you consider to be an issue?
How do you deal with this?
Do you believe this is the best way for you to deal with this issue/these issues?
Notes

Questions to be used during interview regarding Social life (The same questions will be used for both Teacher and Student).

What do you do when you are not at home or school?
How would describe a typical weekend?
How would describe a typical school holiday?
Do you take part in any community or social activities?
Do you experience any issues outside of school?
How do you deal with these?

Notes:

Example of the initial commenting and development of emergent themes following the interviews

Interview questions (R) and answers (T)	Initial commenting	Emergent themes
(R) What happened when you asked Alex for the homework?	Question asked by me	
(T) *He looked at me and he said 'I haven't fuckin' done it'. It took me by surprise… I mean he's no angle but he's not normally like that.*	Alex swears Not Alex's 'normal' behaviour, so why is he now acting like this?	Out of character
So, I immediately said to him 'please don't speak to me like that'.	Teacher maintains professional stance and asks for some respect from Alex when he talks to her.	Expected self (teacher)
He then said…shouted… 'you asked me if I'd done it, I aven't fuckin done it so I said 'I haven't fuckin done it'	Escalation of anger/loss of control by Alex 'Homework' appears to be a trigger but why? Alex 'performs' what he said as though the teacher hasn't understood him. Is there an underlying issue here?	Anger Out of character
I then said to him 'you need to calm down'	Teacher maintains professional stance as is expected of her and attempts to try and deescalate the situation.	Coping strategy (teacher)
He then said 'I am calm you need to fuck off, slag'	Unaware of his loss of control, Alex thinks he is calm 'slag' – why the personal comment here? Is this directed at her or just 'said'.	Out of character
I then said if you don't calm down I am going	Teacher recognises the situation is escalating and	Expected self

to ask you to leave	her attempts de-escalation and exiting Alex from the classroom are a coping strategy	
He then said 'fine fuck off then' with that he stood up from his desk and walked towards the door.	Alex swears at teacher again. What the underlying problem here? Keeps swearing and it's out of character	Out of character
As he did he grabbed something off (sic) my desk I couldn't see what it was initially.	Escalation on the part of Alex by physically 'grabbing' the glass beaker from the teacher's desk. Teacher unaware.	Objects (the glass beaker)
But then he turned to the class and said 'fuck the lot of you' and I saw he was holding a glass beaker.	His attention turns from the teacher to the whole class. This indicates being overwhelmed with his current situation. But why is he overwhelmed by being asked for homework? Other factors maybe at play here?	
I saw it had a liquid in it and I didn't know what it was but I could have been acid.	Teacher description indicates thought of a worst-case scenario with 'acid' being thrown over the students.	Objects ('acid')
So I shouted 'put it down' and as I said 'down' he threw what was in the beaker over the class.	Teacher attempts to stop Alex with verbal command and can recalls the exact word said when Alex through the contents of the beaker. This indicates significant impact of the incident upon the teacher.	Expected self (teacher) Coping strategy (Alex)
It went over some of the students and they	Teacher disbelief and shock *'held my breath'* at	The undesired self (guilt)

screamed, I just held my breath *Alex ran out of the door* *The whole thing was just awful and I blamed myself, still do blame myself, I should have done more to try and stop it.*	what is happening in the classroom. Alex withdraws from the situation? Are there other factors at play here? Clear awareness of her own feelings of guilt and responsibility for the situation. The teacher feels entirely responsible for what happened. She feels she didn't do what was expected of her. Lost some self-respect maybe? But believes it could have been prevented by her if she had acted differently.	 Out of character Self-guilt Expected self (teacher feels she should have done more) Undesired self