



UNIVERSITY OF LATVIA
FACULTY OF EDUCATION,
PSYCHOLOGY AND ART

*The principles underpinning shifts in
teacher beliefs about students with
behaviour support needs*

Promotion to the degree of Doctor of Pedagogy

Author: Ilona Brūvere

Scientific Adviser: Dr.habil.paed, LU Professor Emeritus Irēna Žogla

| | |
|---|-----|
| Section 1: Details of the study and relevant theories | |
| Introduction | 8 |
| Chapter 1: | |
| Research methodology | |
| 1.0 Overview | 27 |
| 1.1 The rationale for a qualitative approach | 29 |
| 1.2 The research sample | 32 |
| 1.3 Information needed to conduct the study | 33 |
| 1.4 Research design overview | 35 |
| 1.5 Data collection methods | 35 |
| 1.5.1 Phase 1:Preliminary study: The VISC project | 36 |
| 1.5.2 Phase 2: Integrative literature review | 37 |
| 1.5.3 Phase 3: Document review | 38 |
| 1.5.3.1 Non-reactive documents | 39 |
| 1.5.3.2 Reactive documents: survey responses | 41 |
| 1.5.4 Phase 4: Discussions and interviews | 42 |
| 1.6 Data collection, analysis and synthesis | 43 |
| 1.7 Limitations of the study | 46 |
| Chapter 2: | |
| Literature Review | |
| 2.0 Complex contexts | 48 |
| 2.0.1 The Glonacal Agency Heuristic: the importance of global, national and local contexts | 48 |
| 2.0.2 Using Complexity Theory to probe teacher beliefs | 52 |
| 2.1 Integrating information | 58 |
| 2.2 Discipline: duelling opposites of extrinsic and intrinsic or interwoven? | 61 |
| 2.3 Behaviour support theories and models | 68 |
| 2.4 The web of interactions dominated by teacher beliefs | 85 |
| 2.5 The complexity of shifting beliefs | 95 |
| Chapter Conclusions | 97 |
| Section 2: The impact of contexts | |
| Chapter 3: | |
| The broader context: the impact of interacting webs on teacher beliefs | |
| 3.0 The importance of context | 98 |
| 3.1 School education in Latvia: mediated by nationhood, occupation and renewed independence | 100 |
| 3.2 Using the NSW experience as counterpoint | 106 |
| 3.3 Pedagogy: Latvia and NSW | 114 |
| 3.4 The need for hybridisation | 118 |
| 3.5 The intricacy of contextual influences | 123 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Chapter Conclusions | 125 |
| Chapter 4 The influence of systems' webs on beliefs about behaviour: the documents and their dissemination | |
| 4.0 Webs of interaction influencing inclusion of students with behaviour support needs | 127 |
| 4.1 Latvian normative acts and guidelines related to discipline | 133 |
| 4.2 NSW legislature and DEC policies: what do they indicate? | 137 |
| 4.3 Comparing visions of student support needs | 144 |
| 4.4 The influence of language: the impact of labels | 147 |
| 4.5 National/State level knowledge sharing in NSW and Latvia | 153 |
| 4.6 Reducing marginalization of students with behaviour support needs at a system level | 157 |
| 4.7 What has been ascertained through comparison of Latvian and NSW documents | 157 |
| Chapter Conclusions | 160 |
| Chapter 5: The local webs: behaviour support and its adaption in Latvia with comments from the NSW experience | |
| 5.0 The student behaviours causing concern | 162 |
| 5.1 Addressing the major behaviour support themes in Latvia | 162 |
| 5.1.1 Concept: use of rules | 164 |
| 5.1.2 Concept: use of consequences | 166 |
| 5.1.3 Concept: providing feedback | 171 |
| 5.1.4 Concept: reciprocity and teacher-student relationships | 173 |
| 5.2 Intervening, supporting or punishing? | 180 |
| 5.3 The significance of student voice | 187 |
| 5.4 Criteria related to school discipline in NSW and Latvia | 189 |
| Chapter Conclusions | 195 |
| Section 3: Improving teacher capacity to include students with behaviour support needs | |
| Chapter 6: Personal webs: building teacher capacity- financial and human capital | |
| 6.0 The importance of resources: human and financial | 197 |
| 6.1 The effect of additional resources | 198 |
| 6.1.1 Resources for vulnerable students with behaviour support needs in NSW: Lessons to be learned | 200 |
| 6.1.2 Resources for vulnerable student with behaviour support needs in Latvia | 203 |
| 6.1.3 Teacher professional learning in NSW: what does it suggest? | 210 |
| 6.1.4 Teacher professional learning in Latvia | 215 |
| 6.2 Capacity building and professional learning | 218 |
| Chapter Conclusions | 223 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| | |
| Chapter 7: The importance of teacher self-efficacy as part of the interacting webs that build teacher capacity | |
| 7.0 The importance of teacher self-efficacy in shifting beliefs | 225 |
| 7.1 Improving teacher self-efficacy beliefs | 227 |
| Chapter Conclusions | 233 |
| Chapter 8: Analysis and interpretation | |
| 8.0 The analytic categories | 235 |
| 8.1 Categories used for analysis and interpretation | 246 |
| 8.1.1 Categorisation 1: The role of theories/models and the implications for hybridisation | 246 |
| 8.1.2 Categorisation 2: Tension created by global, national and system documents – the use of language and implementation processes | 248 |
| 8.1.3 Categorisation 3: Teacher capacity building | 250 |
| 8.1.4 Categorisation 4: How teacher beliefs impact on understanding of students with behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in beliefs | 251 |
| Chapter conclusions | 253 |
| Section 4: Implications for teachers in Latvia | |
| Conclusions and recommendations | |
| Conclusions | 254 |
| The principles underpinning a shift in beliefs | 260 |
| Recommendations | 261 |
| Suggestions for practice | 261 |
| Suggestions for further research | 266 |
| References | 268 |
| Appendices | 305 |

Tables

| | |
|---------|---|
| Table 1 | Overview of the information needed |
| Table 2 | Triangulation |
| Table 3 | The Glonacal Heuristic, Complexity Theory and teacher beliefs |
| Table 4 | Concepts used to frame student discipline and behaviour support in this study |
| Table 5 | Behaviour support theories/models based on interactive, interventionist and non-interventionist approaches and locus of control |
| Table 6 | Criteria for inclusion of students with behaviour support needs |
| Table 7 | Teacher beliefs and the implications for the study |

| | |
|----------|---|
| Table 8 | External contextual webs and teacher beliefs in Latvia |
| Table 9 | A SWOT analysis of the DEC process of inclusion |
| Table 10 | Latvian teacher use of behaviour support strategies and perceptions of usefulness |
| Table 11 | Criteria contributing to student discipline and their application in NSW and Latvia |
| Table 12 | Additional services for students with EBD in NSW government schools |
| Table 13 | Additional support for Latvian students with special needs |
| Table 14 | Discipline and behaviour support in Latvia: a snapshot |
| Table 15 | Behaviour support in NSW: a snapshot |
| Table 16 | DEC professional learning directed at student behaviour support |
| Table 17 | Professional learning in Latvia directed at student behaviour support |
| Table 18 | Professional learning and change |
| Table 19 | Findings corresponding to the analytic categories |

Figures

| | |
|----------|--|
| Figure 1 | Shifting beliefs: an on-going process |
| Figure 2 | Variables linked to a shift in teacher beliefs |
| Figure 3 | Linear models |
| Figure 4 | Interacting webs of influence |
| Figure 5 | Building teacher capacity to facilitate a shift in beliefs |
| Figure 6 | The importance of addressing teacher self-efficacy to achieve a shift in teacher beliefs |

Appendices

| | |
|------------|---|
| Appendix 1 | VISC Mana personīga pieeja klases disciplīnai (vispārējā) (Personal intervention plan for my class) |
| Appendix 2 | Non-reactive documents used in this study |
| Appendix 3 | Aptauja pa uzvedības traucējumiem (Survey on student behaviour issues) |
| Appendix 4 | Discussion questions from the VISC course |
| Appendix 5 | Initial key words for the integrative literature search |
| Appendix 6 | Data summary tables for each research question |
| Appendix 7 | Glomacal influences and discipline: understanding the complexity of |

| | |
|-------------|---|
| | teacher beliefs |
| Appendix 8 | External contextual webs of influence and teacher beliefs in NSW |
| Appendix 9 | Webs of influence at the local level, resultant teacher beliefs and outcomes |
| Appendix 10 | A comparison of professional learning opportunities and behaviour support in Latvia and NSW |

List of abbreviations

| | |
|-------------|--|
| ABA | Applied Behaviour Analysis |
| ADHD | Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder |
| APU | Atbalsts Pozitīvai Uzvedībai (Support for Positive Behaviour) |
| ATEE | Association for Teacher Education in Europe |
| BACME | Building Appropriate Classroom Management Ecosystems |
| BAPP | Behaviour and Attendance Pilot Project |
| CCBD | Council for Children with Behavior Disorders |
| CESE | Centre for Educational Statistics and Evaluation |
| DEC/DET/DSE | Department of Education and Communities, Department of Education and Training, Department of School Education – all names given to the state education department in NSW over the years. |
| EBD | Emotional and Behaviour Disorders |
| ED | Emotional Disturbance |
| ESES | Every Student Every School |
| FBA | Functional behaviour assessment |
| IBE | International Bureau of Education |
| ISTB | Itinerant Support Teacher (Behaviour) |
| LST | Learning and Support Teacher |
| NESA | National Education Standards Authority |
| NSW | New South Wales |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development |
| OFSTED | The Office for Standards in Education |
| PBIS/PBS | Positive Behaviour Intervention Support/Positive behaviour support |
| PBL | Positive Behaviour and Learning |
| PISA | Programme for International Student Advancement |
| P&C | Parents and Citizens body |

| | |
|-------|---|
| PL | Professional Learning |
| PS | Public school |
| SEA | Sociāli Emocionālā Audzināšana (Social Edmotional Upbringing) |
| SEL | Social and Emotional Literacy |
| SSS | Strategies for Safer Schools |
| SWPBS | School Wide Positive Behaviour Support |
| TALIS | Teaching and Learning International Survey |
| TET | Teacher Effectiveness Training |
| TQTM | The Quality Teaching Model |
| TTT | Talk, Time Teamwork: The Collaborative Management of Students with Attention Deficit Disorder |
| VBTAI | Valsts bērnu tiesību aizsardzības inspekcija (Child protection) |
| VISC | Valsts Izglītības Satura Centrs (National Centre for Education) |
| WINS | Working Ideas for Needs Satisfaction |

Section One: Details of the study and relevant theories

Introduction

“Success is a journey not a destination”

Arthur Ashe

Topicality of the research

The current focus in educational research on league tables and “best practice” diverts attention from other purposes of schooling such as equity and access and student personal development and capability, which are crucial in the achievement of positive outcomes for students with behaviour support issues. Instruments, which are seen as neutral, such as PISA, are used to discuss “best practice” but the factors identified as such in one setting, replicated in another, may not result in a successful intervention. PISA defines normality in its own terms (Auld & Morris, 2014, p. 136), a normality which may be contrary or tangential to the achievements of students with behaviour support issues. It is engagement with these students that teachers find most troublesome and which often leaves the class in a state of disequilibrium with the teacher seeking to resolve this by removal of the student.

It is important that teachers can return the class to a state of equilibrium and create a positive classroom environment that addresses the behaviour issues that disrupt student learning, regardless of the cause or the nature of the behaviour. Currently there are multiple theories and models that address this in the literature and yet behaviour issues remain a matter of concern to teachers, schools, systems and the community. Student behaviour can preclude access to, and interfere with, learning, which includes their own and that of others. Teachers find unproductive behaviours associated with disengagement the most difficult and stressful to manage (Dix, 2012; Sullivan, Johnson, Owens & Conway, 2014; Graham & Sweller, 2011). This study is interested in teacher beliefs and the role they have in marginalising these students, stopping teachers from providing the on-going pedagogical support that these students require if they are to engage with their learning and form supportive social

relationships. As M. Pajares notes “beliefs strongly influence perception, but they can be an unreliable guide to the nature of reality” (1992, p. 326).

Teachers in Latvia are challenged by the student behaviours they now encounter in schools, which disturb their previous beliefs about student behaviour support, exacerbated by constant and rapid social, economic and political changes. Global initiatives such as inclusive education mean that many nations share common directions in education, similar experiences and challenges but there are also differences. This study focusses on school education in Latvia but uses the New South Wales (NSW) government school system experience to comment on the experiences in Latvia. Latvia has only recently returned to democratic ideals. NSW, in Australia, an established democracy, has had to address some of the issues in school education that Latvia is now facing. There is a further link between the two in that universities in Latvia have chosen to use Australian literature, Maurice Balson’s *Understanding Classroom Behaviour* (1997) for teacher preparation and schools Phillip Cam’s children’s philosophy series, suggesting that there might be a deeper link of shared values and concepts. When examining problems within Latvian education there is a strong sense of déjà vu, as many similar issues surfaced in NSW, although 30-40 years previously.

Currently Latvia is implementing new approaches to child protection and developing support systems for vulnerable children with communication and/or behaviour difficulties and experiencing domestic violence. It has also introduced *Skola 2030*, a competency-based approach to teaching/learning. This document stands out as it includes a planned process of transition, albeit it is unclear whether on-going support will be provided and the exact nature of the professional learning. Reviewing other educational literature and documentation from Latvia indicates that there is little in the way of scaffolded support for schools to develop and implement procedures for students with behaviour support needs. This is reinforced in interviews with teachers and experts. While a consultative committee has been established in Latvia to develop intervention plans for vulnerable students, the success of such plans in the long term will be limited if teachers cannot access professional learning which is directed at establishing a preventative approach to behaviour difficulties, interventions that correspond to student needs, teacher ideologies and competencies, and leadership is not provided for schools through guidelines and supporting strategies, in other words, planned and on-going support for change, which is likely to bolster a shift in teacher beliefs. Teachers need assistance to implement new behaviour support theories/models, to ensure that they become a part of

everyday classroom interactions. Equally important, however, are the strategies which will promote a shift from segregationist beliefs about students with behaviour support needs to ones of engagement of these students in their classrooms. The interaction, otherwise, between reforms or innovative practices will result in flawed implementation of such practices which may end by reinforcing existing teacher beliefs and make the process of engagement with students with behaviour support needs even less likely. As a result, the concept of a shift in teacher beliefs is central to this study, as access itself to innovative practices, new theories and models, thus far has not been sufficient to achieve a change or maintenance in practices. As stated by M. Valcke, G. Sang, I. Rots, I., and R. Hermans, R “the adoption of an educational innovation can only be explained when the teacher’s beliefs are also taken into account” (2010, p. 627).

Educational change in Latvia needs to be achieved at a fast pace to meet the needs of a nation and school system that are being re-established, therefore, in the current global educational climate, educational transfer provides a possible ready answer. This study considers how educational borrowing has occurred in other countries, specifically the state of NSW, to establish how it has taken place, how it has been hybridised or glocalised, and how it is adapted and applied to meet local needs. Decisions by the Department of Education and Communities (DEC), the current name for the education department in NSW, provide an example of such hybridisation or adaption. After focussing on inclusive education processes and strategies, NSW moved to a celebration of diversity, emphasising diversity rather than inclusion. This does not mean that the idea of including students has been rejected, after all, with respect to students with disabilities, 77% are educated in regular schools in NSW (Department of Education and Communities, 2011), rather, it means that it has been adjusted to local circumstances, internalised and become a part of everyday operations in NSW using the discourse that is meaningful to teachers in NSW. Specific processes, such as cultural traditions, the pace of change, background historical developments, local needs, economic and political imperatives and teacher capabilities, influenced this hybridisation. Examining what the Latvian system borrows and the processes that follow, how expectations are made clear to teachers and what support is available, alongside the analysis of NSW system choices and experiences, provides for a deeper understanding of what needs to occur for successful hybridisation, which is likely to support a shift in beliefs. By using the NSW experience, which often contrasts with that in Latvia, it is also possible to deduce the principles that underpin teacher belief shifts about students with behaviour support needs. Principles are

considered by this study as antecedents, the factors that must be present for a successful shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs.

This study applies a broad definition of behaviour support needs, and mention of inclusion refers to the processes of incorporation of students within the class rather than the global inclusion movement unless otherwise stated. Apart from students with a disability diagnosis, there are students with behaviour support needs who have no diagnosis but whose behaviour support needs are such that they need assistance in order to fully access and participate in schooling. Teachers often label these students as disruptive, noncompliant or worse. The terminology of behaviour support is used in this study so as to include all students: those with a diagnosis of emotional and behaviour disorders (EBD) and those whose behaviour does not meet any disability diagnosis criteria but the behaviour is a barrier to participating successfully in teaching/learning in the classroom. In this study the impact of all students who have behaviour support needs which has a bearing on their learning, regardless of the aetiology, is considered.

The needs of these students and their teachers are similar. The students need on-going pedagogical support to develop stable, appropriate and self-managed behaviours. In order to consolidate what they learn from each experience, such support needs to be flexible, as the strategies that provide support to one student may be contraindicated for another. Regardless of the strategies the interaction with, and support from, the teacher has to be constant.

The study suggests that teacher scaffolding for students with behaviour support needs:

- must be on-going, not designed as a one-off intervention for a specific behaviour, because each behaviour is part of a behavioural conversation and a reductionist approach cannot address the complex and indirect relationship between inputs (what is taught to the students) and the resulting outputs (behaviours);
- should be educative in intent, not a means for control;
- must have connectivity, between the students and teacher and between the staff, which points to why one-off, isolated professional learning experiences also do not easily lead to successful classroom practice;
- has to have acknowledgement by everyone from education systems to schools, teachers and parents that while these students present a challenge to their teachers and

peers, the behaviours that are challenging are not the sole responsibility of the student but are a response to the situation, to a complex environment, and provide comment on the meaning of the teaching/learning tasks, student/teacher/parent relationships, student to student relationships and are the best means known to the student for achieving his/her needs;

- should provide opportunities to hear, and listen, to the student voice and through a process of reciprocity, to engage in making new meaning for classroom behaviour.

In a similar way, this study suggests, teachers need support when they implement new practices, which also needs to be on-going and targetted to individual situations. Like students, they benefit from multiple opportunities to learn new information and understand the implications. They need professional learning that encourages networking and reduces isolation. Teachers undertaking changes in their classrooms rely on a school culture that empowers them, on connectivity between the teacher and his/her colleagues and the school leadership team that discourages self-protective autonomy.

Teacher beliefs about discipline and behaviour support are dependent upon a broad range of elements that interact. Each of these impacts on what actually happens in the classroom, as it is part of a nested system operating from the global to the local. For this reason this study has chosen to examine global elements, such as United Nations (UN) Statements on the education of students with disabilities and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) reports as they set not only the global tone but also influence national level laws and policies. National level elements are also reviewed, such as state legislature or normative acts, and policies, procedures or guidelines that relate to students with behaviour support needs. These are situated within a socio-political, economic and historical context, which also contributes to how teachers understand and view student discipline/behaviour support. A change in any of these elements has consequences, which may lead to teachers feeling the stress of uncertainty along with challenges to their existing beliefs and practices.

At a local level, apart from specific school approaches, how teachers have experienced school themselves, what professional learning has been available to them, and what resources are available to scaffold their work with these students in the classroom also have an impact. Teachers may be unaware of theories and models of student discipline and behaviour support or these theories may be alien to their experiences to concepts of pedagogy and their beliefs

about the nature of these students. How theories are translated into practice is not only dependent on teacher knowledge and skills but is also dependent upon teacher beliefs.

The problem: Students with behaviour support needs are often marginalised and their behaviours disrupt their learning and that of other students. This can challenge teachers and reinforce the belief that such students should be removed and educated elsewhere, in a specialised setting. This belief interferes with the teacher's ability to implement innovative practices and incorporate these students into classroom activities, and often leaves teachers stressed. While these students need on-going and constant pedagogical assistance, many teachers find it difficult to involve them in the day-to-day activities of the class and often manage them by isolating them. As the students' experiences of developing skills of self-management can thus be erratic and incomplete, this reduces the student's ability to develop a repertoire of new behaviours and leaves teachers and students in challenging situations.

If teachers believe that they do not have the skills to teach these students, that the students belong in a special class, that there is no valid reason for including them and it is just a departmental ploy to save money, that it is the student's problem or if they believe in zero tolerance, then they will require assistance to implement any new practice which does not involve the removal of the student.

The object of the research: teacher professional development related to learners with behaviour support needs.

The subject of the research is how to achieve shifts in teacher beliefs in regards to students with behaviour support needs.

The title therefore is: *The principles underpinning shifts in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs.*

The aim of the research is to establish what actions and situations promote a shift in teacher beliefs from a segregationist one to one that supports incorporation and engagement of students with behaviour support needs and to define the principles underpinning this shift.

Research questions:

- What does the literature tell us about the key themes that appear in school discipline and behaviour support theories/models and the nature of any link between these themes and teacher and beliefs about students?
- What global, national or local elements, or combination of these, prevent the dismantling of exclusionary system, school and teacher beliefs and practices and maintain segregationist beliefs? This includes legislature, policies and student categorisation.
- What helps to build the capacity of teachers to work with difference, specifically with respect to students with behaviour support needs including teacher skills or knowledge, supportive school and classroom structures and procedures, positive teacher self-efficacy beliefs and positive student-teacher relationships?
- How do the above contribute to the principles that underpin a shift in beliefs along with the implications of this for teacher development in Latvia?

The aim and questions are served by the following objectives:

- To analyse and categorise behaviour support theories/models in order to establish the alignment between specific theories/models with respect to teacher beliefs about locus of control, to determine key themes and to ascertain any resultant links to the formation of teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs;
- To analyse the discipline dichotomy to determine any preference that maintains existing beliefs or facilitates change; on the basis of this theoretical analysis, to establish the criteria for effectively including students with behaviour support needs and the accompanying teacher beliefs;
- To review central global documents to identify the level of commitment to including students with behaviour support needs and to establish any resultant impact;
- To investigate Latvian systems documents and processes, national acts, and school policies relevant for students with behaviour support needs and complement this with an investigation of NSW documents (legislature, policies, support document) as a way of identifying what hampers a shift in teacher beliefs and what facilitates it;
- To scrutinise Latvian teacher survey responses, the proposed intervention plans for students with behaviour support needs and analyse discussions with experts and teachers comparing the results to findings from the literature and establishing any discrepancies, the reasons for these and the implications for shifts in beliefs;

- To identify, through the research literature, document and process analysis, the principles behind a shift in beliefs about students with behaviour support needs.

This study seeks to establish the specific principles that guide shifts in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs or maintain existing ones. Otherwise, these students may remain marginalised and teachers end up by managing students rather than teaching them.

The **significance of this study** lies in its multidirectional approach, as opposed to a reductionist, linear one and its questioning of what needs to occur or be present for a shift in teacher beliefs to take place. How shifts in beliefs can be achieved is investigated through the literature, through teacher and expert responses and through documentation. Review of the literature on discipline demonstrates that consideration of discipline as a continuum rather than a series of events linked to control or the expression of self-discipline is pertinent for a shift in teacher beliefs. The role in achieving shifts in beliefs of behaviour support theories/models and teacher knowledge and use of these is also investigated. Teacher responses in the survey, intervention plans and interviews provide insight into the theories/models with which they are familiar and choose to use. This results in suggestions related to shifting beliefs through teacher professional learning, with the NSW experience providing insight into particular key aspects such as collegiality, on-going support, whole-school approaches and individual teacher professional learning plans. Finally, the importance of systems' documents, with particular reference to the actual messages that they deliver as opposed to the intended ones, is examined to determine what elements hinder a shift and which ones facilitate it.

This study's **theoretical contribution** lies in its identification of the principles that underpin a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs. By applying these principles, schools and systems are establishing the environment conducive for a shift in beliefs.

Seeking to explain a shift in beliefs through a linear cause and effect process is dismissive of the complexity involved in developing beliefs. The principles underpinning belief shifts demonstrate diversity, reflect multiple levels of influence and suggest that holism rather than a reductionist approach could help to explain a shift in beliefs. Teacher belief shifts are not

the result of the manipulation of discrete elements such as professional learning, support structures, theories of behaviour support but rather the interaction between these, the various contexts and teacher existing beliefs. As the diagram below demonstrates, this is an on-going process, which involves the co-evolution of new meaning involving both teachers and students. Making new meaning leads to new beliefs, otherwise there is no new meaning and old beliefs are reinforced.

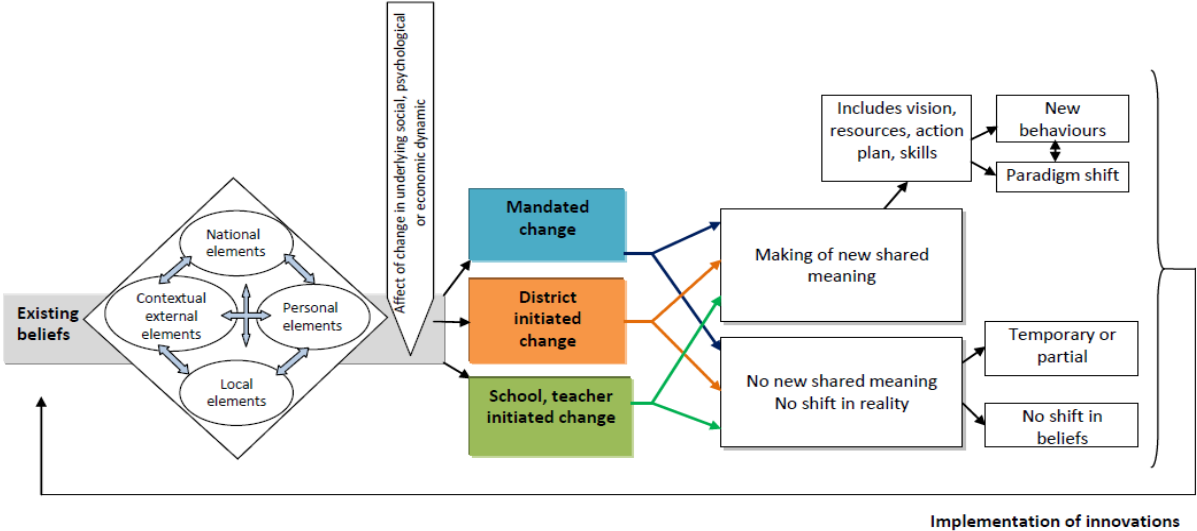


Figure 1: Shifting beliefs: an on-going process

The study seeks to add to pedagogical theories relating to students with behaviour support issues by identifying the principles bolstering a shift in teacher beliefs and by establishing multi-faceted and multi-directional causal relationships, exploring the social, historical and political contexts that are the underpinnings for these relationships. It suggests that the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices is dialectical and therefore needs to be investigated from varied perspective rather than a linear one.

To date research on discipline and behaviour support predominantly has a strong focus on the student and how to change the student’s behaviour. This can create unrealistic expectations. Looking at this from a social model perspective, one that systems such as NSW use for identification of student support needs, this is an incomplete answer. This focus in literature on modifying student behaviour is more in line with theories of integration, in other words, it is the student who must change in order to suit the situation. While acknowledging the role of classroom climate, research and professional learning, topics focus on how the teacher can

help the students to change their behaviour and include the use of reactive strategies, intervention strategies, peer support and other programmes, classroom behaviour strategies, social skills teaching to remediate antisocial behaviour, using rewards and sanctions and so on, all with a focus on how the student must change or his/her behaviour be modified. All of these are important issues that need consideration, however, the behaviour still appears to be “owned” by the student and the onus is on the student to change. This creates disparity between the expectation that teachers have that a particular theory, model or approach will solve the behaviour issues and what are the actual consequences of implementation, because the approaches are not implemented in a vacuum, rather in a specific context where the context itself can create discrepancies in how discipline and behaviour support are delineated by laws, regulations and policies and how this is understood by teachers and then applied.

This research seeks to meliorate the strong focus on the student by addressing the problem through a focus on the teacher. The teacher is the facilitator or manager of the class, depending on the views held by the teacher about the locus of control in a classroom. It is difficult to change someone else’s behaviour, therefore this research suggest that teachers should start with the behaviour they are most familiar with, their own. This means acknowledging the role of context and the teacher’s attitude and understanding of locus of control in the classroom. It also includes elements such as the teacher’s vision for the class with respect to behaviour support; his/her current skills and knowledge of behaviour support theories and models; elements which act as a stimulus for change for the teacher and build his/her capacity to implement innovative practices and resources and an action plan, not just for the class but for the teacher, a large part of which will involve professional learning. If this shift in focus does not occur then the gap will remain that stops knowledge transfer and leads to resistance or partial implementation of innovative practices leaving students in a cycle of vulnerability.

Apart from moving the focus to the teacher, this study also suggests changing the lens through which teachers view student behaviour. Currently behaviour continues to be medicalised, through categorisation, or criminalised, through exclusionary tactics such as suspension and zero tolerance, which encourages a segregationist attitude in teachers and marginalisation of students. The study proposes that behaviour can be best understood as communication so that barriers to communication can be identified. These barriers may be teacher behaviours and attitudes or those of the student. Student and teacher communicate

their knowledge, skills and beliefs through their interaction and this is a reciprocal process. The meaning for the class of innovative practices can only be created through the interaction of the students and teacher. By investigating behaviour as communication, the negative framework of medicalisation and criminalisation is removed.

The following diagram brings together elements that can either hinder or facilitate a shift in beliefs. These concepts will be unpacked in subsequent chapters.

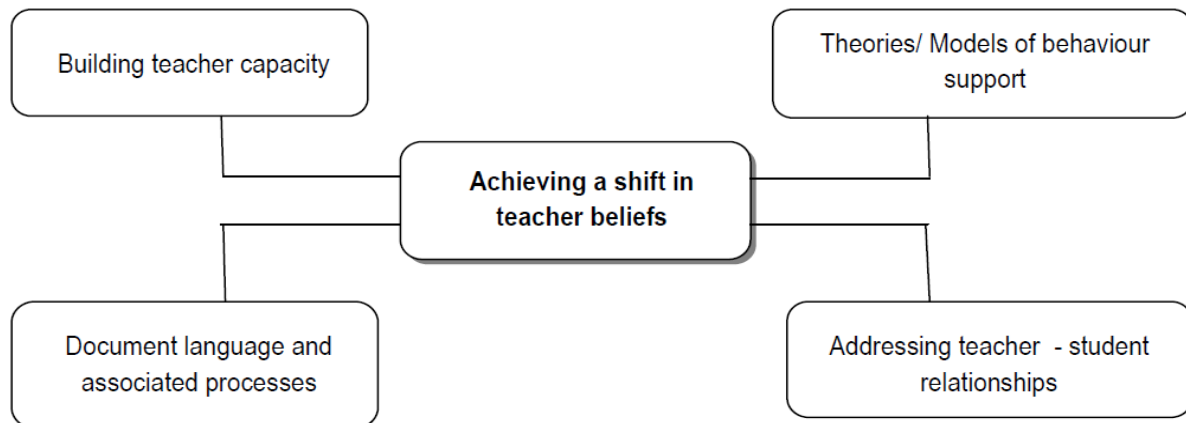


Figure 2: Variables linked to a shift in teacher beliefs

Methods of investigation

- Case study using qualitative analysis with the teacher survey providing insight rather than analysis of numerical data.
- An integrative literature review of theories/models related to school discipline, behaviour support and teacher beliefs to trace the relationship between theories/models and beliefs. The literature also provided the framework for the teacher survey distributed to Latvian teachers.
- Consideration of survey data responses (82 respondents) to establish teacher views about student behaviour support. Comparison with theories/models to identify the state of Latvian teacher knowledge and use of these theories and models.
- Discussions with experts to detail Ministry and school processes, requirements and support provided to teachers including professional learning (2 VISC team members).
- Discussions with special education teachers (2 respondents) to detail school and classroom processes, professional learning and support.

- Interviews with beginning teachers (2 respondents) to clarify their knowledge of behaviour support approaches, pre-service teaching in this area and any concerns that they have about this area.
- Analysis of global, national and local documents and accompanying processes through categorisation, coding and interpretation seeking layers and conditions which maintain or shift teacher beliefs.
- Analysis of teacher intervention plans (5) for students with behaviour support needs to identify central beliefs, behaviours of concern and preferred strategies, along with an understanding of the circumstances that help teachers to implement innovative practices. This analysis was complemented through seminar discussions with these and 89 other teachers.
- The documents, structures and processes in the Latvian system are complemented by comparison with documents, structures and processes in NSW, which helps to refine the principles underpinning teacher beliefs.
- The application of the Glonacal Agency Heuristic and Complexity Theory to analyse the data obtained.

N. Speer's (2008) "collections of beliefs" provides the approach for the study, rather than single trait analysis. S. Marginson and G. Rhoades' (2002) Glonacal agency model is used to interpret outcomes of the interactions between the different domains and agents. The model focusses on global (glo), national (na) and local (cal) levels. The Glonacal model intersects these domains with agencies. Firstly, agencies may be organisations or entities such as an education department or national legislature. Secondly, they may also be the ability of people individually or collectively to take action. Flaws in implementation can potentially arise at all of the intersections between the agent/agencies and the Glonacal domains. Teachers may misunderstand legislature, policies, theories or how to implement these, which can lead to failed, or incomplete, attempts at changing strategies and therefore no shift in beliefs. Complexity Theory is added to the Glonacal heuristic to explain non-linear relationships. Schools are complex adaptive systems operating in a changing environment where teachers adapt to global, national and local societal changes. Complexity Theory can be used to propose actions and circumstances that promote change. While many schools may be run as large-scale industrial organisations (Senge et al., 2000, p. 43) with hierarchical structures, the relationships, webs of influence and interactions within the school are not linear. According to

Complexity Theory they rely on connectivity that is created through networking and feedback, with communication and collaboration at the centre (Mason, 2008, p. 48). Complexity Theory is a theory of change, evolution and adaptation. It breaks with models of linear predictability by replacing these with organic, holistic approaches where the relations between interconnected networks or webs are important (Morrison, 2008, p. 1). Rather than, thus, drawing a direct line between state education system policies on discipline and teacher implementation of discipline strategies as a cause and effect process, Complexity Theory emphasises co-evolution between the agent (teacher) and the environment (class) and self-organisation as the key.

A case study approach is used based on qualitative data analysis in the form of content analysis and thematic coding. Information has been collected principally from both reactive and non-reactive documents.

Limitations of the study

This study uses qualitative methods to investigate the principles underpinning a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs. While survey data is available, this study treats this as a reactive document that allows for deeper analysis of teacher beliefs, rather than as a source for quantitative analysis.

Qualitative research is frequently criticised for lacking scientific rigour with the findings resulting in a collection of opinions influenced by the researcher's bias. To counter this perception this study employed the following:

- seeking out similarities and differences across sources to ensure different perspectives are represented;
- using respondent validation by asking for comments on interview summaries;
- data triangulation by using different methods and seeking different perspectives to produce more comprehensive findings;
- minimising the impact of personal bias through the researcher's fluency in both Latvian and English and experience of working in both environments.

Theoretical foundations and methodology for the research

1. *Conceptualisation of discipline and its foundation level of behaviour support* (e.g. concepts relating to the discipline dichotomy of control or self-discipline and interventionist, interactionist or non-interventionist approaches to behaviour support). Maguire, Ball & Braun, 2010; Balson, 1997; Charles, 2011; Urbis, 2011; Mayworm and Sharkey, 2014; Clark, 1998; Richmond, 2007; Slee, 2013, 2014; Kauffman & Landrum, 2009; Alberto & Troutman, 2003; Canter & Canter, 1976; Dreikurs, 1982; Dreikurs, Grunwald & Pepper, 1998; Glasser, 1986, 1990, 2001; Kounin, 1970; Porter, 2007; Walker, Colvin & Ramsey, 1995; Wragg, 1989; Bear, 2011; Kaplan & Carter, 1995; Ginott, 2003; Gordon, 1974; Doyle, 1986; Skinner, 1953; Kohn, 1993; Lewis, Hudson, Richter & Johnson, 2004; Sugai, & Horner, 1999, 2002; Emmer & Stough, 2010; Algozzine & Algozzine, 2007, 2009; Špona, 2006; Van Bergen, Graham, Sweller & Dodd, 2015.

2. *Concepts surrounding teacher beliefs (including teacher views of self-efficacy and the impact on teacher actions and implementation of innovative practices, the implications of context for teacher beliefs and the filtering effect of teacher beliefs)*: Kagan, 1992; Fives & Buehl, 2012; Levin, He & Allen, 2013; Rokeach, 1976; Pajares, 1992; Prawet, 1992; Kuhn, 1970; Zinn, 2008; Fullan, 2007; Ernst & Rogers, 2009; Ross & Bruce, 2002; Hansen, 2012; Lambe & Bones, 2006; Hargreaves, 2005; Nespor, 1987, Guskey, 2002; Richardson, 1996; Avalos, 2010; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Gibbs & Powell, 2012; Poulson, Avramidis, Fox, Medwell, & Wary, 2001; Valcke, Sang, Rots & Hermans, 2010; Carrington, Deppeler & Moss, 2013.

3. *Concepts surrounding contextual impacts on teacher understanding of discipline and behaviour support* (e.g. historical and political events, views on pedagogy): Crossley, 2010; McLean, 2008; Sherringham & Campbell, 2006; Gulson, 2007; Mladenov, 2015; Acton & Glasgow, 2015; Ozga, 2003; Viķe-Freiburga, 2010; Belousa & Uzuliņa, 2010; Anspaks, 2003; No'voa & Yariv Mashal, 2003; Žogla, 2001, 2017; Alexander, 2004; Brühlmeier, 2010; Ҡestere, 2014; Collinson, Kozina, Lin, Ling, Matherson, Newcombe & Žogla, 2009; Ҡoķe & Saleniece, 2015; Lyons, Ford & Slee, 2014; Steiner-Khamsi, 2002.

4. *Concepts related to inclusion and classroom engagement*. Hoppey & McLeskey, 2013; Florian, 2008, 2012; Sharma, 2012; Messiou, 2012; Tihomirova, 2011; Nīmante, 2008; Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016; Ainscow & Sandhill, 2010; Anderson, Klassen & Georgiou, 2007;; Booth, 2003;; Gorran, Nilholm & Karlsson, 2011; Hodkinson, 2006; Hulgin & Drake, 2011; Lloyd, 2008; Slee 2001, 2009; Van Swet, Wichers Bot & Brown, 2011; Lazaine, 2012; Graham & Sweller, 2011; Miles & Singal, 2010.

5. *Conceptualisation of reciprocity in the classroom (e.g. as an element determining implementation of innovative practices)*: Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013; Infantino & Little, 2005; Payne, 2015; Lewis, Ron, Katz & Qui, 2008; Cefai & Cooper, 2010; Lewis, Montuoro & McCann, 2013; Trotman, Tucker & Martyn, 2015; Liberante, 2012; Van Uden, Ritzen & Pieters, 2014; Way, 2011.
6. *Concepts of social and emotional aspects of classroom behaviour resulting in teacher stress and student vulnerability (e.g. teacher-student relationships, social skills, emotional literacy)*: Sullivan, Johnson, Owens & Conway, 2014; Hastings & Bhan, 2003; Stephenson, Linfoot & Martin, 2000; Beaman, Wheldall & Kemp, 2007; Lewis, Rom Qui & Katz, 2008, Rogers, 2011; Dinham, 2008; Wubbels, 2011; Walker, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Alderman & Green, 2011; O'Connor, 2010; Liberante, 2012, Hattie, 2009, Ravet, 2007; Martinsone & Niedre, 2013; Marsh, 2012, Graf, 2012; Sugai, 2012; Soodak, 2003; Sutherland, Lewis-Palmer, Stichter & Morgan, 2008; Skiba, Ormiston, Martinez & Cummings 2016; Hagenauer, Hascher & Volet, 2015; Garner, 2010.
7. *Conceptualising elements which promote and hinder change in teacher behaviours (e.g. policies, categorisation of students, DEC/Ministerial commitment and support, professional learning)*: Kestere, 2009; Bleiere, 2008; Anspaks, 2003; Fullan, 1993; Senge, 1990; Timperley, 2011; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2014; Powell & Graham, 2017; Steiner-Khamsi, 2009, 2013, 2017; Hargreaves & Ainscow, 2015; Opfer, Pedder & Lavicza, 2011; Borko, 2004; Fullan, 2007; Guskey, 2002; Ingvarson, Meiers & Beavis, 2005; Little 1993; Timperley, 2008; Perry & Tor, 2009; Gundy & Berger, 2016; Sanford, Hopper & Starr, 2015.
8. *Research methodology*: Cunningham, 2001, 2003; Merriam, 1998; Radford, 2008; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002; Anh & Marginson, 2013; Flick, von Kardorff & Steinke, 2004; Mason, 2008; Kohlbacher, 2006; Auld & Morris, 2014; Pipere, 2016; Magolda, 2004; Morrison, 2006, 2008, 2010, 2012; Coll & Kalnins, 2009; Maxwell, 2011; Stake, 2010; Torraco, 2016; Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Suri & Clark, 2009. Bloomberg & Vople, 2008. Flick, von Kardorff & Steinke, 2004.

Structure of the thesis

The study is divided into four sections. The first section contains details of the study and relevant theories (Introduction, Chapters 1 and 2) and focusses on methodology. Chapter One addresses in detail the methodology for the study. Chapter Two is an integrative review of literature important for this study. This includes the Glonacal Agency Heuristic and

Complexity Theory, which provide the skeleton for analysis in the study. It then progresses to a detailed review of teacher understanding of discipline in the classroom and school and the various key behaviour support theories/models. The aim is to question the dichotomous approach to discipline that appears in the literature: that of the technology of control or the transactional process leading to self-regulation. Theories of behaviour support are analysed to establish their relationship to teacher beliefs about locus of control in their classrooms. Beliefs about locus of control in the classroom are central to teacher actions in the classroom, their willingness to take risks, implement innovative approaches and to the nature of reciprocity between the students and the teacher which can result in new meaning being made in the classroom by the teacher and students or the maintenance of disequilibrium and no shift in teacher beliefs.

This section also establishes the importance of teacher beliefs for maintenance or change of interactions with respect to students with behaviour support needs. It describes the theoretical framework for understanding teacher belief shifts. It details why a reductionist approach focussing on single elements is unlikely to result in successful implementation of innovations or support a shift in beliefs that would lead to the engagement of students with behaviour support needs. As R.E. Stake states “what happens individually is much more than the separation of collective relationships” (2010, p. 18). Multidirectional interacting webs of influence provide a more precise and inclusive understanding of the complex processes associated with shifts in teacher beliefs.

The second section on the impact of contexts (Chapters 3, 4 and 5) focusses on the importance of context including interacting webs at a national, Ministry/departmental and local level. The section analyses the aspects that would be expected to support teachers in their work with students with behaviour support needs such as resources, professional learning, policy documents and legislature. Analysis of documents, teacher survey responses, planned teacher interventions for students, discussion with experts and beginning teachers and seminar discussions about students with behaviour support needs in Latvia is supplemented by analysis of documents and processes from NSW.

The third section on the importance of teacher capacity to include students with behaviour support needs (Chapters 6, 7 and 8) begins with a discussion of how key variables can contribute to both facilitation of a shift in beliefs or be a hindrance to it. The interplay of

variables, which lead to this situation, is then added to information gained from the various interacting webs to disclose further principles underlying a shift in teacher beliefs and how these principles can be applied. Chapter 7 details the importance of teacher self-efficacy beliefs for teacher implementation of innovative practices. Chapter 8 highlights findings from the research and aligns them with variables from the literature using four analytical categories.

The final section returns to the fourth question of the research: Implications for teachers in Latvia (Conclusions and Recommendation). The findings lead to conclusions and implications for research and practice.

The theses for defence

The following theses are put forward for defence:

- A shift in teacher beliefs requires a multi-directional approach rather than a linear reductionist one focussing on single elements of change.
- For a shift in teacher beliefs to occur, discipline needs to be understood not as a series of events but as a complex network of webs of interaction and teachers need to conjointly create new knowledge about discipline and behaviour with their students, thus using evolutionary rather than revolutionary processes.
- Key principles underpinning a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs reflect the importance of hybridisation at a system's and classroom level; teacher capacity building; inclusive language in system documents and transition planning for their implementation and, addressing existing teacher beliefs, including self-efficacy beliefs.
- Teacher development in Latvia could be improved through changes at a system's level especially with respect to transition planning and the removal of categorisation of students, pre-service learning focussed on inclusion not differentiation and in-service learning which is whole-school, collaborative and on-going.

Approbation

The following publications are related to the concepts detailed in this study:

- Bruveris, I. (2017) Students with behaviour difficulties and Latvian teacher beliefs about them: globalisation or glocalisation in action? *Society, Integration, Education: Proceedings of the Scientific International Conference, 26-27 May, 2017, 3*, 17-28. Rezekne, Latvia;
- Bruveris, I. (2016) Teaching people, not content: Latvian teachers' reflections on the inclusion of students with emotional or behavioural disorders (EBD) and what can make a difference, in: Daniela, L. & Rutka, L. (eds) *Selected Papers of the Association for Teacher Education in Europe, Spring Conference, 2015*, Cambridge Scholars, Newcastle-upon-Tyne;
- Bruveris, I. (2016) From segregation to celebrating diversity. *Society, Integration, Education: Proceedings of the Scientific International Conference, 27-28 May, 2016, 3*, 39-54. Rezekne, Latvia;
- Bruveris, I., & Prudnikova, I. (2015) Inclusion, legislation and practice: educating students with disabilities - the Australian and Latvian experiences. *Society, Integration, Education: Proceedings of the Scientific International Conference, 22-23 May, 2015, 3*, 193-204. Rezekne, Latvia.

The following, while preceding this study, have laid the foundations for it:

Ilona Brūveris, VISC videos (four) on behaviour support available at the VISC website (<http://visc.gov.lv>) or on youtube.com – viscgovl:

- *Behaviour difficulties: anger and aggression* (Uzvedības traucējumi. Dusmas un agresīva uzvedība, 2014);
- *The relationship between the classroom environment and student behaviour* (Vides organizācija un uzvedības standartu kopsakarības, 2013);
- *The role of discipline in education* (Disciplīnas nozīme mācību un audzināšanas procesā, 2013);
- *Behaviour difficulties and suggestions for building educationally sustainable relationships*, (Uzvedības traucējumu izpausmes un idejas pedagoģisko attiecību veidošanai, 2013).

Aspects of the study have been discussed at the following:

- Association for Teacher Education in Europe, Riga, Latvia, 2015, plenary address: *Professional learning to help teachers meet the educational needs of students with emotional disturbance or behaviour disorders*;

- Society, Integration, Education Conference, Rezekne, Latvia, 2015, plenary address: *Inclusion, legislation and practice: educating students with disabilities – an Australian experience;*
- Association for the Advancement of Baltic Studies (AABS) Conferences: *Glocalisation or globalisation and the inclusion of students with behaviour difficulties: the NSW and Latvian experience*, Australian 18th Chapter Conference, Melbourne, October, 2016;
- *Managing student behaviour in post-Soviet Latvia: Latvian teacher beliefs and Western practices*, AABS Conference: The Baltic States at 99: Past, Present and Future, Rīga, 19-21 June, 2017; and,
- *Latvia and educational borrowing, change and “bucking the trend”*, 2018 AABS Conference: Stanford University, 1-3 June.
- Lecture series as part of EU funded projects (Eiropas Sociālā fonda (ESF projekta) *Izglītojamo ar funkcionāliem traucējumiem atbalsta sistēmas izveide* titled *Teachers’ understanding of the behaviours that challenge them* (Skolotāj, izproti savu reakciju izaicinājumam!) 30 hour series presented in June (Liepāja) and December (Rīga) 2012.
- Valsts Izglītības Satura Centrs (VISCS, National Centre for Education) lectures: *Behaviour difficulties (Uzvedības traucējumi)*, June, 2013;
Students with behaviour difficulties at school and in society (Bērns ar uzvedības traucējumiem izglītības iestādē, sabiedrībā – izaicinājumi un risinājumi), 2014;
Behaviour difficulties: anger and aggression (Uzvedības traucējumi. Dusmas un agresīva uzvedība), June, 2014;
Behaviour problems: What works and why (Uzvedības traucējumi: Kas palīdz un kāpēc) June, 2015;
Student behaviour: understanding and changing it (Skolēnu uzvedība, kā to izprast un mainīt), May, 2017;
Factors influencing the inclusion of students with behaviour difficulties (Skolēnu uzvedības traucējumi ieklausnā), May, 2017.
Supporting the behaviour of students in the learning process (Atbalstot skolēnu uzvedību mācīšanās procesā), 11-14 June, 2018.

- Lectures presented as part of INOSOCTEREHI (The development of an Adolescent's Physical, Emotional and Social Balance and Inclusive Education), a national research project, Latvia, 2015-2017:

Prevention is better than cure: including students with emotional disturbance or behaviour disorders, May 23, 2015;

Segregation to engagement and participation: government schools in NSW and students with behaviour difficulties, June, 2015;

From segregation to celebrating diversity: personalised learning, May, 2016;

The teacher as a change factor (Skolotājs kā pārmaiņu factors), December, 2016;

Inclusive education and students with behaviour difficulties (Iekļaujošā izglītība un skolēni ar uzvedības traucējumiem), May, 2017;

Inclusive education and physical, emotional and social balance (Iekļaujošā izglītība un fiziskais, emocionālais un sociālais līdzsvars), June, 2017.

Chapter One

Research methodology

1.0 Overview

This study is concerned with understanding how teacher segregationist beliefs are developed and maintained, which lead to the marginalisation of students with behaviour support needs and stop teachers from providing on-going pedagogical support. By seeking exclusion or marginalisation of these students, teachers are reducing opportunities for students to learn new behaviours. Teacher actions are directed by teacher beliefs therefore it is important to determine what maintains existing teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and precludes the involvement and engagement of these students in class. The study is also interested in what challenges existing beliefs and how this can be used to close the gap between what needs to happen to achieve engagement of these students and what actually happens in many cases. How teacher beliefs dynamically interact with practice and contexts and how they inform each other needs to be ascertained.

This chapter describes the framework and research design in detail. There are many studies that research students with behaviour support needs and the strategies that teachers use. Frequently the focus is on a range of individual elements such as teacher skills and abilities, linking these to educational reforms such as inclusive education or alternative approaches such as restorative justice. The literature also addresses teacher professional learning associated with reforms or it focusses on systems' issues. Teachers, however, work within classrooms, schools and educational systems, all complex and dynamic settings that can impact on how new knowledge becomes established in classrooms. The nature of their context: their classrooms, interactions and relationships with students combine to impact on beliefs, knowledge transfer and application. This study aims to address a gap in current knowledge that has been created by a reductionist approach focussing on single element linear change rather than the examination of multidirectional interactions. A linear process has no capacity for explaining transitions and these are crucial to the implementation of innovative practices. How teachers work with students with behaviour support issues is not determined by single factors such as skills, policies or specific approaches but rather by the interaction of these with the context and teacher beliefs. The global search for “best practice” and “what

works” has led to reductionism that does not explain teacher behaviour in complex systems. “What works” is not one single element, but networked webs of interaction.

1.1 Rationale for a qualitative approach

Morrison (2008, p. 28) states that complexity in educational research is usually addressed through qualitative research methodology, mainly case studies and through the application of an interpretative and interactionist epistemology. As Maxwell states “qualitative research methods can be used to identify causal relationships and develop causal explanations” (2004, p. 243). Qualitative research concentrates on unearthing explanations and description. This means that a qualitative study relies on relationship and interaction among the elements of the study rather than having a set starting point. This is true of this study as it mostly uses a qualitative method, it relies on case study and has many elements of an interpretative approach, but is not restricted to a purist approach in methodological philosophy nor method.

Stake (2010, p. 18) suggests that the strength of using a case study approach lies in its focus on the local situation and social processes, for discovering meaning and understanding of experiences in context, not as a means of generalisation. This does not, however, mean that regularities cannot be identified, but the focus remains on deeper understanding. Causal webs of interaction vary across contexts and contexts are intrinsically part of the process, just as context is a part of teacher beliefs not a framework for them. These causal webs of interaction may, or may not, produce regularities that are general (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 4).

A qualitative approach was chosen because the essential aims of qualitative research supported the design of this study, specifically: “understanding the process by which events and actions took place; developing contextual understanding; adopting an interpretative stance;...and maintaining design flexibility” (Bloomberg & Vople, 2008, p. 80) This study is interested in how students with behaviour support needs are viewed and understood by systems and teachers. In particular it is concerned with identifying processes or elements that would help teachers to shift from segregationist views to more inclusive ones that would foster the use of innovative practices rather than relying on extant approaches which no longer meet the needs of students in current classrooms. As teacher beliefs are central to teacher actions, the study seeks to identify the key principles, and the variables that make up these principles, which underpin a shift in beliefs rather than seeking to qualify “best practice”

examples of teaching students with behaviour support needs. While “big data” studies based on national comparisons such as PISA or TALIS may be searching to identify “best practice”, the reality is that they cannot succeed as they do not provide an explanation of the impact of local context or they relegate culture to a variable, which can somehow be statistically analysed (Bereday, 1961). They provide general characteristics associated with a particular phenomenon but not explanations of the “how and why” which are important for this study.

The ontological assumption underlying this thesis is that societal settings, such as culture and politics, have an impact on a phenomenon such as education, its organisation, processes and patterns of educational thought but that this is an interactive process. School discipline and the education of students with behaviour support needs are to a large extent defined by social and cultural factors. This study aims to document and understand the influence of interacting political, pedagogical and historical forces, social influences and individual biographies. These influence the choices teachers make with respect to discipline and behaviour support strategies, choices that are filtered through teacher beliefs.

While the European Union (EU) encourages acceptance of standards by member states it does not support adopting homogenous or uniform lines of development in each member state, but rather regulates against that. Similarly, this thesis is focussed on understanding the principles, which underpin a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs, not on establishing uniform understandings of student discipline and behaviour support. For this reason a single case study approach was selected which allowed for analysis of how, when and why teachers changed their beliefs about students with behaviour support needs or variables which acted as barriers to this occurring. The interacting contextual factors which influence teacher beliefs in Latvia were examined, with experiences from elsewhere, particularly the NSW, providing counterpoint. In the context of considerable social, economic and political change such as experienced in Latvia, the concern is to support teachers to develop beliefs which will facilitate their engagement of students with behaviour support needs and the incorporation of these students into classroom activities, rather than to discern universal intervention systems.

Context-sensitivity (Crossley & Watson, 2003, p. 142) is important for the design of this study therefore it looks at the interactions between the various contexts: historical, political, cultural, global, national and local. Generalisations and laws can silence history (Cowen,

2014, p. 7) yet all indications are that history needs to be acknowledged rather than ignored or silenced. Contextual analysis is an effective counter to this silencing. Context is not just a framework for the creation of beliefs; rather it is an important component of teacher beliefs (Zheng, 2015, p. 29). While contexts shape beliefs, beliefs also shape contexts in a dynamic reciprocal process. This suggests an interactive process between various contextual, and at time conflicting, elements such as teacher prior experiences, their own schooling experiences, the contexts of various classes that they have taught, their knowledge of, and experience with, classroom management, their beliefs about teaching/learning, student social/emotional characteristics and so on. There are, thus, many causes and conditions that combine to bring about change both on a personal and systems' level (Morrison, 2010, p. 376).

Linear cause and effect theories provide little insight to this complexity. Instead the interactions are better explained through webs of multi-directional causes, conditions and effects. Explaining flaws in implementing innovative behaviour support practices in Latvia based upon any single element, be that access to professional learning or lack of policy guidance, limits understanding of the complexity underlying shifts in teacher beliefs and does not provide an informed perspective in terms of future professional learning, policy design and implementation or the management of change in schools. Similarly, explaining why teachers in NSW continue to hold beliefs more suited to integration of these students than inclusion or celebration of diversity by simply pointing to class size, curriculum demands or any other single element again ignores the complexity of change.

Selection of a research theory needs to be based on the purpose of the research and any given theoretical perspective may need to be complemented by other points of view. Furlong (2004, 343) suggests that research in education needs a range of research beliefs, methods and approaches that would allow for diverse choice and adaptability and cautions against the dominance of any one perspective. Maxwell (2011, p. 23), similarly, argues that a combination of components from divergent ontological and epistemological approaches, such as the realist with the constructivist, provides a useful heuristic strategy for tackling causal explanations in qualitative research and that by deliberately attempting to use divergent assumptions, broader understanding of the phenomenon can be achieved, reflecting the reality for teachers. Teachers may hold, for example, constructivist beliefs about friendship, society, collegiality and discipline, but see child neglect as real, not socially constructed. Abbott argued that the use of polar positions in a study, such as realism and constructivism, function

as conceptual tools to reveal new ways of making sense of the phenomena being studied. “You don't care if the tools are all "consistent" with some axiomatic principle; you care if, among them, they enable you to do the job, to create something that can meet your needs or accomplish your goals” (2004, p. 12).

In general this research relates most closely to Constructivist epistemology where meaning does or does not exist in an external world, but rather is created by the person's interactions with the world. Following on from this, changing teacher beliefs, then, requires continuous interaction between the teacher, the system, the school and the learners requiring support with their behaviours. This interaction, informed by constant teacher reflection and self-evaluation, facilitates a self-managed shift in teacher beliefs.

The theoretical perspective of Interpretivism provides guidance on methodology as the aim is to gain a deeper understanding of diverse constructs of discipline and behaviour support, to explore the meaning that teachers, schools and the nation/state give to these constructs and the role that teacher beliefs play. Interpretivism proposes that reality is socially constructed which infers that discipline and behaviour support can have different interpretations depending on the context, thus they should be investigated using the perspectives of various sources. This is one reason why the NSW experience is used as a point of intersection and difference with the Latvian one and why published documents are analysed alongside reactive documents such as surveys.

1.2 The research sample

Latvia was chosen for the study as it had relatively recently (25 years previously) entered an era of post-soviet democracy. As such it provided rich information on the impact and interaction of various contextual factors such as historical events, ideology, social structures, system requirements and teacher personal biographies across the soviet and democratic periods. The study is not a comparative one between NSW and Latvia, but the experiences of NSW teachers helped clarify contextual understanding and contributed to the interpretative stance taken when analysing data. The choice of countries was also guided by the relationships that had been established with both states, the researcher's knowledge of both languages and employment in the education sector of both countries.

While document analysis (global, national, system and school) and literature reviews were the core of the research methodology, seminar discussions as part of VISC project Eiropas Sociālā fonda projekts „Izglītojamo ar funkcionāliem traucējumiem atbalsta sistēmas izveide” - vienošanās Nr. 2010/0330/1DP/ 1.2.2.4.1/10/IPIA/VIAA/001, Speciālās izglītības procesa plānošana un īstenošana izglītojamiem ar uzvedības traucējumiem (a European project focussing on the establishment of a system of support for students with disabilities specifically for those students with behaviour support needs and furthermore referred to as the VISC project) provided a broader perspective. Interviews with experts and beginning teachers and discussions with specialist teachers, along with teacher responses to a survey: “Aptauja par uzvedības traucējumiem” distributed to teachers in Riga and the provincial town of Jelgava, also provided multiple perspectives which contributed to contextual understanding.

1.3 Information needed to conduct the study

In order to understand the processes that are involved in changing teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs, the information needed was divided into three categories: contextual, demographic and perceptual. This provided background information on political, social and economic elements along with school and system organisational elements and the webs of interaction between these elements. Table 1 provides a summary of how the main data collection methods were linked to the background information and the research questions.

| Type of information | What the researcher requires | Method |
|---------------------|---|--|
| Contextual | The background and history of Latvia in the soviet and post-soviet era with reference to education. The organisational background of the education system, its structure and culture in Latvia and NSW. Information on discipline/behaviour support models and theories | Document analysis seminar discussions and interviews with VISC education experts in Latvia. Integrative literature review |
| Demographic | Descriptive information regarding approaches to schooling in the soviet and post-socialist era in Latvia | Document review, archival research |
| Perceptual | Participants' views and understanding of their experiences relating to behaviour support issues | VISC project narratives (intervention plans), survey responses, seminar and specialist teacher discussions, beginning teacher |

| Type of information | What the researcher requires | Method |
|---|---|---|
| | | interviews |
| <p>Question 1: What does the literature tell us about the key themes that appear in school discipline and behaviour support theories/models and the nature of any link between these themes and teacher and beliefs about students?</p> | Do key student behaviour theories and the underlying presumptions of these facilitate a shift in beliefs; are there key reoccurring themes in the behaviour support literature and how does addressing these influence teacher beliefs and actions; what explanations are there for the partial or temporary use of the theories by teachers and the resultant lack of change in student behaviour which maintains extant teacher beliefs? | <p>Integrative literature review</p> <p>Document review</p> <p>Analysis of narratives (VISC project intervention plans)</p> |
| <p>Question 2: What global, national or local elements, or combination of these, prevent the dismantling of exclusionary system, school and teacher beliefs and practices and maintain segregationist beliefs? This includes legislature, policies and student categorisation.</p> | How do global statements and concepts of “best practice” in education impact on system requirements and how are these requirements translated into action at a national and local level; are there national, system or school strategies which support inclusionary practices, which are likely to promote a shift in teacher beliefs and minimise exclusionary practices in the classroom? | <p>Document analysis</p> <p>Discussions with VISC education experts in Latvia</p> |
| <p>Question 3: What helps to build the capacity of teachers to work with difference, specifically with respect to students with behaviour support needs including teacher skills or knowledge, supportive school and classroom structures and procedures, positive teacher self-efficacy beliefs and positive student-teacher relationships?</p> | What are the key elements which help build teacher capacity; what do systems and schools need to do to build capacity; is teacher knowledge of behaviour theories sufficient for building capacity and promoting a shift in beliefs; what system’s changes are needed to support capacity building and a shift in teacher beliefs; how do personal attributes such as teacher self-efficacy beliefs impact on capacity building? | <p>Document review</p> <p>Teacher responses to the survey</p> <p>Seminar discussions</p> <p>Interviews with beginning teachers and discussions with specialist teachers</p> |
| <p>Question 4: How do the above contribute to the principles that underpin a shift in beliefs along with the implications of this for teacher development in Latvia?</p> | What principles underpin a successful shift in teacher beliefs and how can systems and schools implement these principles; What needs to happen in teacher education, including on-going professional learning, to address the underlying principles that promote a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs; what changes in national and system procedures are required for these principles to be put into practice? | <p>Document review</p> <p>Discussions with VISC education experts</p> |

Table 1: Overview of the information needed

1.4 Research design overview

The following steps were taken to carry out the research. Each of these is discussed in greater detail following this summary. Initially a literature review was conducted to consider the contribution of other authors to the fields of discipline/student behaviour support and shifting teacher beliefs. The student behaviour support/behaviour management literature review provided the basis for the survey that was later developed and used.

At the same time the VISC project provided the opportunity for seminar discussions and concluded with participant narratives that detailed their planned interventions for their classrooms. These provided information on teacher perceptions and beliefs and an opportunity to determine the impact of formal professional learning about behaviour support on teacher beliefs.

Key documents at a global, national and school level were analysed and relevant documents were compared with ones from NSW. These provided information on behaviour models in use and comparison between the two settings facilitated identification of variables that built teacher capacity with respect to inclusion of students with behaviour support needs.

Discussions with specialist teachers, beginning teachers and VISC experts, when considered against documentary evidence and research literature, assisted in identifying the principles underpinning a shift in teacher beliefs.

1.5 Data collection methods

The use of multiple methods of data collection and triangulation provided for an in-depth understanding of the principles underpinning a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs from an exclusionary one to that of inclusion. These methods consisted of an integrative literature review of: discipline and behaviour support; teacher beliefs; the Glonacal Agency Heuristic and Complexity Theory. This was followed by document analysis, scrutiny of survey responses, teacher narratives of classroom intervention plans and information gathering from seminar and specialist teacher discussions and interviews with experts and beginning teachers.

The research consisted of three phases but there was overlap between the phases and it was the interaction between the data from the document and literature review and that from teacher perceptions which supported the generation of a list of principles.

1.5.1 Phase 1: Preliminary study, the VISC project

In 2012 VISC offered a 30 hour professional learning programme to teachers on discipline and behaviour management. This was offered in Liepāja, a regional city, and in Rīga. In total 110 teachers participated in the professional learning which included major Western theories of behaviour management and practical applications. Teachers reviewed and discussed preventative, supportive and corrective strategies. At completion they were required to reflect on their current strategies, select preferred strategies from the course and institute changes in their classes and this formed the narrative of their intervention plans. They had to record what they chose to do, the implementation process and comment on any modifications that were required during the implementation process. This data collection method was selected because it engaged the participants in a reflective process and it was possible to draw on the personal meaning that participants constructed of the professional learning thereby providing perceptual information. This narrative intervention plan document is included as Appendix 1.

The intervention plans submitted by the 94 teachers who attended the two courses were read. Those plans which were not individual responses, that is, plans were either developed individually and then copied or developed by a group, were not used for the analysis as it was impossible to identify individual teacher responses. Those plans which were scant and provided little information for analysis were rejected. As were those where teachers demonstrated limited understanding of approaches from the professional learning. Of the remaining plans five were selected because of the detail that they provided and because they represented different groups: capital city, provincial city and rural teachers. Analysis of this information provided insights into teacher beliefs and assumptions and their understanding of the various theories presented. It also provided an opportunity to start identifying principles, especially those related to professional learning, which support a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs.

1.5.2 Phase 2: Integrative literature review

An integrative literature review provided for the inclusion of various data sources such as empirical and conceptual studies concomitant with identifying themes or concepts. The importance of an integrative literature review is that it “reviews, critiques, and synthesises representative literature on a topic in an integrated way” (Torraco, 2016, p. 404).

Themes and concepts provided the focus for examining various topics rather than relying on a meta-analysis. As H. Suri and D. Clark (2009) state, the primary premise of meta-research is to convert findings into effect size indicating that only those variables which are measurable are valuable. “It would be limiting to inform educational policies and practices by syntheses based exclusively on measurable concepts and statistical integration of verifiable relationships between two or more variables” (2009, p. 399). Interestingly, this is what many education departments across the globe are doing in their quest for “best practice” and “league table” data.

Furthermore an integrative literature review was considered an appropriate method for research on the topic of shifting teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs for two reasons. Firstly, the field of discipline and student behaviour support is a mature research field but also a very complex one which is often reduced to linear equations rather than explorations of its diversity and complexity. Secondly theories and models of behaviour support are numerous as are those of discipline and are often embedded in conceptually complex research. An integrative literature review may help with the reconceptualisation of the existing models or eventuate in new understandings. Studies addressing discipline and student behaviour support are dominated by a particular, usually single, model or theory being presented as the solution for behaviour issues in the classroom or school. When several theories are combined and examined, as in G. Lyons, M. Ford and J. Slee’s (2014) *Classroom management: creating positive learning environments*, it is either to provide pre-service students with an overview of the theories/models or to add a new model to the list. There have been many applications of different theories/models in schools with suggested intervention strategies, processes and professional learning approaches. Yet students with behaviour support needs continue to be marginalised. What is missing is a holistic approach to understanding teacher responses to behaviour support theories/models, especially the influence of contexts and beliefs. For that reason the literature review consisted of four topics:

discipline, behaviour support, teacher beliefs and understanding context through the GLONACAL Agency Heuristic and Complexity Theory. While, at first glance, these may appear to be disparate areas, the integration of information from all four topics provides for a holistic approach. Research on student behaviour support needs to move beyond a focus on the student as the source of the problem, with requisite changes by the student and associated programmes for teachers and focus on the complex situation within which the behaviour occurs.

1.5.3 Phase 2: Document review

Qualitative research stresses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings (Golafshani, 2003, p. 600). Documents at the global, national and local levels accommodate various contexts as well as providing a way to collect data that is non-intrusive. Atkinson and Coffey (1997, p. 58) refer to documents as ‘social facts’, which are produced, shared, and used in socially organised ways. Documents constitute the primary data collection methods in this study. These include documents relating to laws, regulations, and policies but also systems support documents and media reports. As school discipline cannot be decontextualised from its local culture, these documents provide insight through their content, language, through disjunctures with global and national flows and teacher implementation. Scrutiny of proactive documents and processes from NSW created a framework for analysing the influence of documents and processes in Latvia, data from the survey and intervention plans helped to identify what Speer identifies as a “collections of beliefs” (2008, p. 367).

Working with students with behaviour support needs is a complex process which is influenced by: discipline and behaviour support theories and models; system and school policies and processes; access to, and implementation of, professional learning; and system reforms influenced by global directions. All of these contribute to teacher beliefs about these students along with the reality of dealing with challenging behaviours in the classroom. Beliefs are formed within complex, interactive environments therefore this study uses the concept of investigating “collections of beliefs” (Speer, 2008, p. 367) as a frame rather than single, static traits. A collection is a small set of related beliefs that influence a teacher’s perspective. This study does not replicate Speer’s individual teacher case study approach but

it is based on Speer's approach that beliefs are dynamic, multidimensional and transactional and that "collections of beliefs" best explain this complexity.

Documents occupy a prominent position in modern societies. For organisations written documents are the preferred form of their representations of reality. Official documents such as policies, legislature and reports can be used to draw conclusions about the intentions and ideas of organisations (Wolff, 2004, p. 284). Documents provide insight into socially organised practices like school discipline and behaviour support and some, such as school discipline codes or student welfare policies, provide insight into the reception and implementation of these practices. Documents are often preceded and followed by other documents such as implementation plans and evaluations and these provide a conversation which can be investigated. In particular the conversation between nation/state and local level was investigated.

U. Flick (2004, p. 180) notes that W. Marotzki suggests a combination of non-reactive procedures such as analysing available documents, with reactive procedures, such as interviews. As stated, this study relies mostly on document analysis, a proactive process that includes synthesis of the literature as well as other global, national and local documents. Documentation is an important data collection method as it is stable and non-intrusive and official documents come in standard forms. Most of the documents in this study were extant: legislature, state and school policy documents, research literature, teacher professional learning programmes, university course documents and reports and teacher narratives of planned interventions.

1.5.3.1 Non-reactive documents

Exploration of the global domain provides a social blueprint and provides insight into issues related to education that impact on students with behaviour support needs such as inclusion and teacher development. Documents that were analysed include international agreements or statements, documents produced by agencies such as the OECD and the UN and historical documents relating to education. A list of the non-reactive documents that were used is included in Appendix 2.

Documents in NSW and Latvia pertaining to behaviour support (laws, regulations, policies and guidelines) have been analysed systematically to identify cultural, contextual, structural and functional elements. This allows for identification of any culture-bound attitudes to punishment, control, teacher self-efficacy and pedagogy. It also highlights the importance of hybridisation, the tension between teacher ability to respond to challenges of globalisation and their ties to specific cultural frames of reference.

Analysis of national normative documents such as state and national legislature and policies, guidelines, and legal bulletins, contributes to understanding how global and national/state webs of influence interact to shape teacher constructs of discipline including the foundation level of behaviour support. Such influences clarify how and why the DEC in NSW, for example, has moved from segregated settings, to integration, then inclusion and currently is promoting the celebration of diversity in both regular and special schools, hence maintaining a level of segregation for students with behaviour health and other special needs, which is out of step with the inclusion movement in education and which, in turn, has impacted on teacher understandings of discipline.

Other documents include, firstly, institution course records that establish the prevalence, or not, of professional learning which incorporates issues of discipline and its foundation level of behaviour support. Secondly, also related to teacher knowledge of student discipline is teacher access to readings and information in academic or professional journals. These constitute a national knowledge base for school discipline and behaviour support.

Professional learning has been used as a way to achieve teacher belief shifts, for instance, access to online courses to support the introduction of the *Every Student, Every School* policy in NSW. Another source of professional learning is academic or professional readings. In NSW teachers have access to over 16 journals, which address educational issues including discipline and behaviour management. Beyond this, teachers in NSW also have access to other journals that are published in English such as those from the Council for Children with Behavior Disorders from the USA. Similarly books on the issue of behaviour support are widely available in English and cover a range of perspectives, theories and models. All key theorists are represented as are tomes which bring together a range of theorists such as Maurice Balson's *Understanding Classroom Behaviour* (1997), C.M. Charles' *Building Classroom Discipline* (2011) J. M. Kauffman and T. J. Landrum *Characteristics of emotional*

and behavioral disorders of children and youth (2009) and Bill Rogers' *Classroom behaviour: A practical guide to effective teaching, behaviour management and colleague support* (2015).

In contrast, there is one journal published in Latvian (*Izglītība un Kultūra – Education and Culture*). This journal deals with a broad range of educational issues not just behaviour support. Specific publications that address behaviour support in Latvian are A. Špona's *Audzināšana process teorijā un praksē* (The theory and practice of upbringing, 2006) and D. Nimante's *Klasvadība* (Classroom management, 2007). While many teachers speak English and could access journals in English, their proficiency is variable. This has an impact on access to new approaches and innovative practices in Latvia.

University courses for the preparation of teachers are also a resource available to teachers. An analysis of publically available information on pre-service courses indicates that in Latvia and NSW the focus is on teaching subject methodology not on classroom management or behaviour support.

1.5.3.2 Reactive documents: survey responses

School and municipal staff attending training on behaviour support were surveyed to identify Latvian teacher beliefs about student behaviour including which behaviours were of most concern and what strategies they considered to be effective. The training took place in Rīga and in a regional town, Jelgava. Although 132 people attended the training, only 82 were teachers in schools, therefore, only their responses have been included. The survey results are exclusively female. While men attended the training they were either not teachers or did not complete the survey. The female dominance is, however, reflective of the male/female teacher distribution in schools in Latvia generally. The survey also allowed for identification of teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs. Furthermore, it allowed for differentiation between teachers with respect to the time they had spent teaching. This was important for data analysis as teachers who have taught for 20 or more years are a product of the Soviet system. Similarly teachers who have taught less than 5 years are a product of the newly re-instituted democracy. The aim of the survey was not to produce statistical data but to analyse the nature of the responses seeking information on conditions and layers that influenced beliefs (Morrison, 2012, p. 27).

The survey asked teachers to identify the student behaviours most of concern, how these impacted on the class and the teacher, the support strategies they commonly used, the strategies that they believed to be most useful and the level of support they received from the administration. This allowed for comparison with policy documents and guidelines. It also provided data on teacher beliefs. It provided information from a different perspective and therefore contributed to a more comprehensive and valid depiction of constructs of discipline and behaviour support. Furthermore, survey is relatively unobtrusive and can be easily administered and managed. The survey appears as Appendix 3.

1.5.4 Phase 4: Discussions and interviews

The VISC project consisted of lectures and workshop activities. An important part of this course was teacher participation in seminar discussions. These discussions focussed on applying the various strategies to the teachers' classroom situations, thus, providing insight into their issues and concerns and also their beliefs about working with students with behaviour support needs. The seminar discussions were used as data sources as they fostered a dialogue amongst the participants, which allows for clarification and extension. It also allows for increased richness in responses through participant interaction. The discussion questions are attached in Appendix 4.

Interviews were also used as they elicit context-rich, personal accounts and perspectives. They were held with VISC experts and beginning teachers. Two VISC experts were involved in a series of on-going semi-structured interviews that probed the structures and systems in Latvia with respect to students with behaviour support needs. A semi-structured approach provided for flexibility and allowed the respondents to elaborate on a given question based on their expertise. The questions queried the experts views on Latvian teacher behaviours, their reaction to regulations and laws, their understanding of students with disabilities specifically those with EBD, their reaction to "disruptive" students, issues relating to the on-going impact on teacher thinking of the Soviet era, teacher struggles with the behaviours that they now face, the measures that have been taken to address teacher concerns, and the nature of support available from school leadership teams and the Ministry. They also provided background information on the structure of the education system in Latvia.

Further semi-structured interviews were held with two beginning teachers who were about to start teaching. Of interest were their views about the preparation that they had received in behaviour support in their initial training, their knowledge and beliefs about students with behaviour issues and beliefs about their ability to work with these students.

Finally a series of three discussions were held with two special education teachers, which helped to determine in what ways their beliefs differed from teachers in general education and added another dimension to teacher perceptions.

1.6. Data collection, analysis and synthesis

The study generated data that needed to be examined for meaningful patterns. Qualitative techniques were used to sort and analyse documents, interviews and discussions.

A priori themes based on the researcher's experience provided the key words for the integrative literature search on discipline and student behaviour support. These are listed in Appendix 5. The following data bases were searched: ERIC (EBSCO), JSTOR, ProQuest Central, Sage Journal List, Wiley Online, SciVerseScopus and ResearchGate. The articles or books were rejected if they pertained to student specific diagnoses or had a medical focus, focussed on a group outside of K-12 schooling, for example, pre-school students or parents and care-givers and if authorship occurred more than 25 years ago, with the exception of those that are considered key theories for the field of discipline/behaviour support.

The articles/books were analysed using scrutinisation techniques to identify the main themes. The purpose of the scrutiny was to identify patterns. Ryan and Bernard (2003) identified the following techniques for scrutinising data:

- seeking repetitions of concepts;
- pursuing indigenous typologies where local terms or word usage are used to organise text;
- finding metaphors or analogies which may provide insight into meanings held by individuals;
- searching for transitions which are indicated by topic sentences or turn-taking and interruptions;

- seeking similarities and differences;
- looking to understand whether there is missing data by identifying what is not being discussed pertinent to the topic;
- searching for theory-related material where content is linked to an explicit theory.

This scrutiny of articles/books resulted in the identification of the main themes that appear in the discipline/behaviour support theories/models and their implementation. These were identified by using sorting and use of word lists (Ryan & Bernard, 2003, p. 95-96).

The final step was the use of the recorded themes to synthesise the findings. Such synthesis was not seeking to reduce the findings to one perspective, but as Torraco (2016, p. 422) states synthesis provides a better understanding of the topic. Synthesis can lead to the generation of a new model, conceptual framework or another unique conception. Synthesis “re-casts, combines, re-organises and integrates concepts and perspectives on the topic” (Torraco, 2016, p. 420). The synthesis resulted in the following taxonomy: discipline as management and control; transactional discipline; positive classroom engagement and addressing barriers to including students with behaviour support needs. This provided the outline for the questions used in the teacher survey as well as initiated the direction for this study.

Global, national and local documents were also systematically analysed to identify cultural, contextual and structural equivalences. They were summarised, topics ordered, categories constructed and information recorded on post-it notes to facilitate sorting. The categorisation process provided the opportunity to examine documents in detail and use this to identify patterns, themes and conceptual categories. The surveys and interview and discussion notes were reviewed and categorised. This produced themes and also responses that were culture-bound attitudes to punishment, control, self-efficacy. Completed data summary tables for each research question in this study can be found in Appendix 6.

These processes led to the refining of the original taxonomy and the identification of areas requiring further investigation which emerged at a global level (inclusive education), national/state level (discipline as control or student wellbeing and self-discipline, resources to support students with behaviour support needs, teacher pre-service and in-service professional learning, assessment and placement procedures for students with EBD, and preventative

approaches) and local level (teacher beliefs and assumptions, teacher locus of control, teacher/student relationships, access to professional learning, and pedagogical concepts).

By comparing information from both non-reactive and reactive documents it was possible to examine what G. Steiner-Khamsi refers to as the “ dual transfer process”. What politicians announce and how this gets implemented at a policy and school allows for variation and interpretation, so that the end result may not be the intended one. There is “ample room for modification, reinterpretation and resistance by various actors involved at each level of a policy implementation process” (2002, p. 78). The teacher narratives intervention plans also supported the analysis of this transfer process, where knowledge can be misinterpreted or dismissed as a result of teacher perspectives or beliefs, due to their specific cultural frames of reference.

The combined data from all of the above sources resulted in the four analytic categories being determined: the role of theories/models and the importance of hybridisation; how teacher beliefs impact on understanding behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in these beliefs; tension created by global, national and system documents - the use of language and implementation processes; the complex interactions which support or hinder teacher capacity building. The information was hand-coded into the analytic clusters and categories.

The analytic categories are directly related to the research questions for this study. The following elements were employed in the analysis and interpretation of the collected data: an emphasis on the connective webs between reactive and non-reactive documents; ways in which participants in the survey and intervention plans demonstrated the influence of these connective webs; how the collected data was consistent with the discipline and behaviour support literature; and, how the collected data from non-reactive and reactive documents goes beyond the literature.

The process of synthesising data included triangulation. “Triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p. 112). Triangulation is normally a strategy for validating results but in this study it is also used as a method for gaining additional knowledge and thus increasing the scope and depth of the investigation. By triangulating different approaches such as document analysis with survey results, it is possible to capture

different aspects such as teacher skills and beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and departmental expectations. It also may assist with theory development as it can provide divergent perspectives when, for example, the action of the teacher is different from the theory of discipline and behaviour support suggested by the department or legislature.

It does, however, also help to overcome risks of error by involving more than one method of data collection (Flick 2002). The following table summarises data triangulation for this study.

| Method | Source |
|---|---|
| Document review at a state/national level | Policy/Historical documents |
| Survey | Teachers |
| Discussions | VISC project teachers Special education teachers |
| Interviews | VISC experts Beginning teachers |
| Document analysis at a local level | DEC policies/ LV Cabinet regulations School policies/codes |

Table 2: Triangulation

1.7 Limitations of the study

This study is not an empirical one where support or proof is provided through quantitative analysis. The aim is to use qualitative methods to develop a deep understanding of what helps teachers to change their exclusionary beliefs about students with behaviour support needs to more inclusive ones and to capture the meanings that are attributed by systems, teachers and schools to student behaviour. As such, it can have the same criticisms directed at it as all qualitative studies. This includes being prone to researcher bias with a lack of detachment between the researcher and the subjects, with the researcher more likely to notice those elements, which confirm his/her original beliefs. However, as Merriam (1998, p. 199) notes a “qualitative study provides the reader with a depiction in enough detail to show that the author’s conclusion ‘makes sense’”. This study used various data collection methods and triangulation of information as a means of limiting the impact of researcher bias. Its primary

reliance on documentation also limited the interaction that took place between the researcher and subjects, interaction which can impact on results.

This study focussed on determining what variables encouraged teachers to shift their beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and as such focussed on teacher perceptions and literature related to discipline, behaviour support and teacher beliefs. It could be expanded by the inclusion of data from students about their perceptions of teacher responses to behaviour support issues, indiscipline and teacher attempts at student engagement.

Chapter two

Literature Review

2.0 Complex contexts

School systems and schools are complex and dynamic non-linear organisations which operate in sometimes unpredictable and changing environment (Drago-Severson, 2012, p. 28). As well, education is shaped simultaneously by local, national and global dimensions of actions, and theories which suggest a linear cause and effect response to reforms or changes in schools or school systems are not able to address the multiple interacting layers within complex systems. The identification of individual key factors related to school improvement and then addressing these through a uniform and systemic approach disregards the impact of national or local contexts as similar reform initiatives can lead to unexpected outcomes in different contexts (Trombly, 2014, p. 43). This suggests the importance of examining context broadly, in this case, using the Glonacal Agency Heuristic and addressing density of interactions through Complexity Theory.

2.0.1 The Glonacal Agency Heuristic: the importance of global, national and local contexts

Marginson and Rhoades (2002) Glonacal Agency Heuristic is used in this study to understand different domains and their interrelationships. The model focusses on global (glo), national (na) and local (cal) levels. The glonacal model intersects these domains with agencies. While this model was developed for tertiary institutions, it applies to other educational settings because teachers, while located in one setting, are affected by national and global influences. Sometimes these influences are direct, such as policy implementation, and at other times they are the teacher's own reactions, views and beliefs, which they form in response to global or national directions.

Global factors reside in historical, political, economic and cultural domains which impact on the teacher's domain of day-to-day interactions and choices and can result in tensions. Changes in one of the domains impacts on the other and the effects of these changes can be

tracked. One domain does not dominate over another but rather reacts to it and with it, As Marginson and Rhoades state:

“We do not see a linear flow from the global to the local; rather, we see simultaneity of flows... National and local entities and collective efforts can undermine, challenge and define alternatives to global patterns; they can also shape the configuration of global flows” (2002, p. 289).

It is not possible under such circumstances to achieve a shift in teacher beliefs by simply manipulating single variables, like introducing a new behaviour support theory, as this disregards the complex and interacting domains and their relationships.

In the Glonacal Agency Heuristic the term “agency” refers to organisations or entities such as an education department, school or national legislature, however, it may also be the ability of people individually or collectively to take action, to exercise agency, for example teacher agency. This could be the actions of a teacher in a school or the actions of a professional body such as the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) which can impact on global and local decision-making. In the NSW setting it was the combined effect of multiple agencies, such as teachers, teacher unions, schools, parent groups and professional organisations interacting with inclusive education movement from the global domain that led the DEC to look at alternatives and refocus on celebrating diversity rather than inclusion.

The Glonacal heuristic consists of three domains (global, national and local), which are defined through structure and action. It is also a relational environment, which points to the importance of agencies. Marginson and Rhoades state that the aim of their heuristic is to encourage exploration of types and patterns of influence and activity, which aligns with the purpose of this study.

The analysis of intersections or interactions between agencies and domains is important for this study, as it helps to identify the means by which teachers critically shape their responses to the behaviour issues that arise in class through their interaction with the environment. Agency is not a quality of the teacher but rather a phenomenon that occurs from the transaction between the teacher and the situation (Biesta & Tedder, 2006, p. 11). Teachers take certain actions by means of their environment, not just simply in an environment, again pointing to the importance of webs of influence and context.

A key feature of the Glonacal heuristic is reciprocity. Influence and activity usually flow in more than one direction. The DEC requires that most of its consultants in district, regional and head office, known as Senior Education Officers, have recent school experience. These consultants provide advice and support to schools; help with initiatives and policy implementation. They also, however, impact on the decisions at the various officers bringing with them not only their own experiences but the beliefs and attitudes of the teachers and community that they worked with in their own schools, which then informs the advice they give to their managers. Officers, for example, who have worked in a school where the whole school community has been in favour of an inclusive approach to students with special needs and where, as a result, strategies and processes have been put in place to support this, resulting in supported and successful inclusion, may shift their beliefs to align with the school community. In turn this may influence the advice they give their managers.

The Glonacal heuristic has three other dimensions: strengths, layers and conditions and spheres. Strengths refers to how influential an activity may be and whether the influence is direct or indirect. In Latvia, for instance, the National Centre for Education (VISC) is responsible, amongst other tasks, for providing professional learning to teachers. This is a direct source of influence however it also provides support to the Ministry, as it did with the Ministry's position paper on inclusive education, which results in indirect influence on other Ministries and educational institutions. The dimension of strength includes the level of resourcing available to support a change as this also impacts on how readily or thoroughly changes are accepted and thus the strength of the change. In NSW the release of the *Every Student, Every School* document which stressed celebrating diversity in all schools, regular and special, was accompanied by professional learning modules and a refocussing of the itinerant support teacher (behaviour) programme as well as additional funding for other associated initiatives thereby impacting on the strength of its influence. In Latvia there is almost no transition planning to support the introduction of new regulations or approaches, which limits the influence or strength of the change. *Skola 2030* focussing on the introduction of competency-based teaching/learning is an exception to this, but even there the transition planning is inconclusive.

The dimension of layers and conditions refers to the way that influence and effect are able to move between global, national and local levels and to the structures reflecting the historical

context upon which current activity and influence are based. Schools in NSW are based upon the structure of those in England. Private schools in NSW still receive government funding, with some private schools receiving more than public schools. This is a bone of contention for the public education lobby and is regularly debated but it dates back to the time of the Roman Catholic Relief Act (1829) in England, which gave almost equal civil rights to Catholic subjects, which they had not had since the days of Henry VI. In NSW this was followed by the Church Act (1836) which gave state aid to Anglican, Catholic and Presbyterian churches and which Governor Bourke extended by providing government aid to their schools as well. In this way conditions emanating from the 16th century impact on funding decisions in the 21st century. In Latvia a salient condition is that of teacher understanding of pedagogy that includes “audzināšana” or upbringing as opposed to the Anglo-American concept which is closer to didactics.

As Marginson and Rhoades state, referring to higher education but equally true of schools:

“...education institutions, systems, and countries have long histories shaped through centuries of sedimentation of ideas, structures, resources and practices. Contemporary agencies and agency generally do not sweep all this away; their influence and activity is layered on top of powerful and resilient structures and commitments” (2002, p. 293)

Conditions arising from global, national and local events and the layers of their influence continue to provide a foundation for teacher beliefs and the effectiveness of innovative practices. The philosophies of the West, for instance, stress individualism and this is reflected in the approach to behaviour support that is based on the individual (the student) making changes. In Latvia, in contrast, there was a period on 50 years of Soviet stress on the communal rather than the individual. This Soviet ideology, while no longer practised, has not been eradicated but continues as part of the conditions that are a foundation for the decisions that teachers take.

The final dimension is the geographical and functional scope of activity and influence, that of the spheres of agency activity. At an international level this could be the EU and its European educational space, which directly impacts on European countries but, indirectly, more broadly. In NSW, at a national/state level, an activity such as the development and implementation of *Talk, Time, Teamwork: Collaborative Management of Students with ADHD* (1995) by the DEC influenced not only schools in NSW but it was also used in other

states becoming national in its influence. Staff from the DEC, the Health Department and paediatricians developed it collaboratively and thus its influence was not only in education but also in health provision. At a local level, the strategies used in a unit for students with emotional disturbance attached to a regular school became a regional programme (*Building Appropriate Behaviour Management Ecosystems* or *BACME*, 1984), which then transformed into a state-wide project *Strategies for Safer Schools* (1994). In these examples it can be seen that the scope of activity is greater than initially intended.

Finally Marginson and Rhoades note that depending on the issue being studied within the global, national and local spheres the dimension of layers and conditions will have different structures and “So, too, the strength of the internal (fault) lines and connections will vary, as will their directional flow or reciprocity” (2002, p. 294). The strength of these fault lines and connections contributes to the teacher’s ability to achieve a shift in beliefs. Appendix 7: *Glonacal influences and discipline: understanding shifts in teacher beliefs* provides an analysis of themes and issues in NSW and Latvia using the Glonacal heuristic.

2.0.2 Using Complexity Theory to probe teacher beliefs

Apart from examining the interactions emanating at the global, national and local level through the Glonacal model, this study uses Complexity Theory to examine webs of interaction (Morrison, 2008; Mason, 2008). Complexity Theory challenges the rational and deterministic world of Newton where there is linear predictability. As B. Davis and D. Sumara (2012, p. 32) note, educational research requires the study of evolving and intertwining phenomena with each phenomenon nesting within another or being part of a hierarchy, which linear cause and effect models cannot explain. Like Chaos Theory and it shares with it “concern with wholes, with larger systems or environments and the relationships among their constituent elements or agents, as opposed to the often reductionist concerns of mainstream science with the essence of the ‘ultimate particle’ (Mason, 2014, p. 3)

Educational discourse is about multiple interconnecting elements that continuously evolve (Radford, 2006, p. 184). These elements connect in a dynamic and non-linear way. Educational research requires theoretical, paradigmatic and methodological pluralism (Pipere, 2016, p. 12) and Complexity Theory supports such pluralism. While there are core elements to Complexity Theory, there are also many perspectives as it is still a developing theory (Morrison, 2010, p. 375).

Complexity Theory is concerned with the dynamic interaction of elements where obvious interventions produce unexpected outcomes (Senge, 1990, p. 371). These outcomes or behaviours cannot be predicted from the constituent elements and are not based on these elements but on the interaction between them. The focus of Complexity Theory is on demonstrating why the whole is larger than the sum of its separate parts (Wells, 2013, p. 3), why the linear examination of single elements cannot provide solutions to complex problems with multidirectional interactions.

The application of Complexity Theory to educational research provides descriptions and explanations within a range of interpretive possibilities (Horn, 2008; Radford, 2006). In a neoliberal era of accountability, regulation and managerialism in schools, empirical studies aimed at predicting the success or otherwise of single interventions or strategies can be appealing as the search is for “best practice” which can be replicated if key elements can be confirmed. This approach to research aligns with the normative slant in education which neoliberalism deems appropriate, but it does not provide an explanation of complex interactions which do not respond to empirical analyses such as transitive if A causes B and B causes C then A causes C (Morrison, 2012, p. 19). When examining change in teacher beliefs it is misleading to say that because a teacher was provided with a professional learning activity (A), this then meant that new behaviour support strategies were implemented in the class (B) and this led to a change in student behaviour (C), therefore, it must follow that professional learning leads to changes in student behaviour. There are many webs of interaction between the professional learning and the outcome that influence the result. As Cunningham (2001) notes, cause and effect empirical studies presume that change in schools occurs in a linear fashion and that the context remains relatively stable, which is not the case. In Latvia the lack of stability, as schools and teachers need to adapt to new politically driven initiatives, seesawing between democracy, communism and back to democracy, is obvious. Even in NSW where there is a stable democracy, the school context changed as the DEC moved from segregation, to integration, inclusion and finally celebrating diversity. Empirical studies treat elements such as those relating to teacher skills, knowledge and assumptions, as if they are independent. It is reductionist in approach assuming that these elements can be distilled or extracted and a universal “best practice” identified. Many of the elements influence each other. A linear cause and effect approach assumes that an effect can be explained by a list of causes and that the causality is one way.

This study is based on the assumption that causality is circular, includes feedback and reciprocity, consists of many webs of interactions and operates as a multi-directional process that includes the global, national and local. Causality is not a simple input of new knowledge leading to the output of new teacher skills. As A. Šapkova states “teacher further education must also focus on the inner readiness of teachers to accept reforms, not just acquiring certain skills and abilities” (2014, p. 141). The world of teachers and schools is not a linear one. Neither students nor teachers are empty vessels waiting to be filled with learning, either academic or social, but rather learning takes place because of the dynamic interactions that lead to a joint creation of new knowledge, to co-evolution, not just recycling old. It was the interaction between university staff and teachers in NSW, as part of *The Quality Teaching Model (TQTM)*, which led to the development of new educational strategies in schools. This included Service Learning which had positive outcomes for students with behaviour support needs, but also modified teacher approaches to curriculum, encouraged them to see these students in a new light and impacted on how university staff viewed working with schools and the incorporation of practice-based strategies into their courses, in other words, a web of interactions not just a single element.

Teacher beliefs about behaviour support and their classroom management practices are part of a two-way relationship where teacher cognition plays a major role. Teacher cognition may help to shape events but events also shape cognition. S. Borg defines teacher cognition as consisting of the teacher’s knowledge, beliefs and thoughts. New or changed student behaviours develop in classrooms not just through the application of new knowledge or skills but through the interaction of this knowledge with teacher beliefs, the adaptation to meet the needs of the classroom, the on-going feedback provided through interaction with students and colleagues: “...teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (Borg, 1999, p. 81).

As Morrison states “researching causality in the social world is better undertaken in terms of understanding multi-directional causal nets, webs of conditions and contingencies operating in specific contexts and wholes, and in the identification of multi-levelled contexts, events and triggers of causation” (2012, p. 27).

Complexity Theory is a theory of change, evolution and adaptation. There is no single “key” element, rather the elements work together with no single element being more important than another. In NSW changes to access to professional learning for teachers were central to the introduction of a social model of student assessment for students with behaviour support needs. However, equally important were policy and procedural changes, the establishment of learning communities or collaborative professional learning, resource re-alignment, Commonwealth and State regulations, teacher union responses and demands, memoranda of understanding between departments and agencies and most importantly, the interaction between these and other elements, which involved feedback and reciprocity, modifications and open communication.

Systems that lend themselves to Complexity Theory analysis are dynamic. There is balance between stasis and entropy and change can be sudden. They are open systems impacted on by the environment; they involve feedback so that what will happen depends on what happened previously, and they are networked wholes not the sum of its parts. They are also self-organised, a key feature of Complexity Theory, where the catalyst for change is often the organisation itself. Schools and school systems meet these criteria. Interaction between global, national and local webs can lead teachers and schools to a state of disequilibrium, which needs to be resolved. How it is resolved is not the result of policies or reforms but how teachers and schools interact with these through their current contexts. The Quality Teaching Model (TQTM, 2003) in NSW is a case in point. It developed out of broad global and national concerns about the quality of lessons and the dependence on the teacher as the source of teaching/learning activities, an approach which can be less than engaging for students with behaviour support needs. The model was developed through consultation, but its distribution across state schools was managed through a top-down process. Teachers were introduced to the concepts but changes in their lessons resulted from their co-operative ventures with the universities, developed and designed to meet the needs of their schools within the current context of the school. No two projects were the same. Teachers were the catalyst for change so that what started as a top-down strategy culminated in a bottom-up approach with teachers, through their interactions, becoming the catalysts for change.

A school or education system may change its form of behaviour in order to maintain its identity in the face of change. Such systems are composed of a diversity of agents (teachers, students, parents, administrators) that interact, mutually affect each other and continually

adapt to the system around them. Change in one part of the system or school can have implications for the whole school or system (Cunningham, 2003) and new adaptive behaviours emerge or old ones change. Complexity Theory seeks the reasons for this change in the dynamic interactions amongst elements or agents within a particular environment. These agents and elements include teachers, students, teacher unions, the school community, the state and its education department, lobby groups, funding structures and so on. A teacher may believe that the student with behaviour support needs would best be educated in a segregated setting but may implement new strategies more likely to support inclusion because of the interaction between state regulations, departmental policies, teacher unions, parent and community lobby groups, colleagues and resourcing availability, which in combination generate the momentum for change, and eventually the new way of behaving may lead to a change in beliefs.

Complexity theory places emphasis on dynamic interactions, holism rather than atomistic parts, networking and feedback, connectedness that needs distributed knowledge, adaption and emergence of new, self-organised behaviour, which may be quite different from that of the component parts and nested organisation, where one element is embedded within, and partly constitutes, another (Cilliers, 1998, p. 72). Schools are such complex nested organisms.

This study explores webs of interacting elements rather than single elements. Capra (1996) suggested that conventional units in educational research such as teachers, institutions and education departments should merge so that the unit of analysis becomes a web focussed on a particular area. According to Morrison (2012, p. 26) there are five such webs. For the purposes of this study the five pertinent webs can best be described as:

- the web is that of **external elements** such as the teacher's prior experiences, pre-service training, access to professional learning and global impacts
- the web of **personal elements** such as perceived challenges and prior experiences of teaching these students, understanding of pedagogy, self-efficacy, own experiences of schooling, locus of control orientation in class and knowledge of strategies;
- **school elements** make up a third web including school policies, which address students with behaviour support needs, school procedures, availability of support and resources, school leadership and management;

- the **Education Department/Ministry** forms the fourth web including elements such as departmental views of discipline and behaviour support, reliance on normative testing, nature of the curriculum and expected outcomes, clarity or otherwise of departmental expectations as expressed in policy and support documents, student diagnosis and assessment based on labelling, impact of teacher unions, and availability of resources;
- a fifth web of **production and reproduction of reinforcing conditions** may include teacher stress and burn-out, dissatisfaction with teaching, low aspirations such as working only to be able to afford a better car, holiday, fear of violence and personal safety, lack of access to knowledge or professional learning, and reliance on top-down models for change.

With its focus on interactions rather than static categories, Complexity Theory provides a means for considering the process involved. It is not only interested in current interactions but histories of interactions through time. As there is no single element that causes a change, Byrnes (2005, in Haggis, 2008, p. 167) suggests it might be more appropriate to focus on effects rather than causes. Consideration of the effects of processes of interaction, such as top-down or bottom-up change, between the web of elements at a departmental level and those at a school or teacher level, may provide more pertinent information than just seeking causes. Learning new strategies to use with students with behaviour support needs does not, by itself, lead to change. Instead webs of interaction between external, personal, school, departmental and situational elements at a particular point in the history of these interactions may lead to the emergence of new behaviours, which effect changes in the classroom and more positive outcomes for students. In Latvia the re-affirmation of independence and the return to democracy provided a particular point in history. Teacher beliefs could be challenged; practices were questioned when the Ministry released new guidelines and regulations. This ministerial web interacted with global webs created by inclusive education. These then interacted with the school web consisting of processes and organisation, curriculum demands and changes, leadership styles and also teacher personal webs of understanding and knowing.

These interactions do not always result in universal changes, something that can be readily replicated elsewhere, rather different environments provide different opportunities for reciprocal adaptation and change. Complexity Theory is at its most useful as a post hoc theory. This usefulness lies in the breadth and depth that it provides for understanding a

phenomenon that cannot be adequately explained by a linear, single-direction, cause and effect analysis. It can, however, also be used to recommend actions and situations which would promote change and development and thus it contributes to the identification of the principles that underlie a shift in teacher beliefs.

Complexity Theory suggests that changes in schools come about by increases in connectivity, networking, feedback and that knowledge needs to be distributed. Importantly though, what leads teachers and schools to change is self-organisation, where a new environment is created through the interaction of teachers and their students or teachers and their colleagues, not the introduction of a single element such as professional learning.

2.1 Integrating information

This research is interested in the variables that maintain teacher beliefs or promote change in them. A theory of causality, which sees causality as a matter of regularities, cannot account for the dynamic complexity which leads teachers to make the choices they do with respect to students with behaviour support needs. As Sayer (1992) notes, social science has yet to discover the regularities or laws suggested as causal by deterministic theories, which implies that this is a mistaken view of causation. Rather this study seeks to identify causal processes and effects as a part of contextual interactions in specific situations (Maxwell, 2008, p. 218).

Earlier models, such as the one below (Lewin, in Guskey, 2002, p. 383), using a linear causality, are unable to provide sufficient explanation of how changes take place:

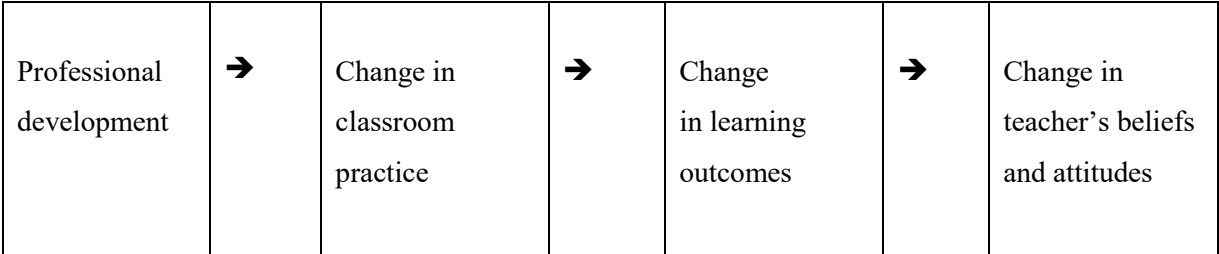


Figure 3: Linear models

This study brings together the Glonacal Agency Heuristic and Complexity Theory to both analyse contextually-specific shifts and to predict the principles which underpin such shifts. The agents and agencies are influenced by the dynamics of a nested organisation with

teachers and students operating within classrooms, nested within schools that belong to an educational system. Teacher beliefs are influenced by the pressures emanating from all of these domains, but reciprocity occurs and teachers, either through individual or collective beliefs, influence the domains and the nested elements of their organisation. Furthermore teacher beliefs are subjected to pressures that may arise from the stasis or entropy operating within their systems, schools and classrooms. To this needs to be added the impact of their personal biography, that is their paradigm experiences as a student and a teacher. The end result will be either a maintenance of existing beliefs or a shift in beliefs depending on their involvement in teacher capacity building, access to support and leadership, knowledge of discipline/behaviour support theories/models including their relevance to their beliefs about locus of control in the classroom. The neat linear model obscures the reality, which is better represented as follows:

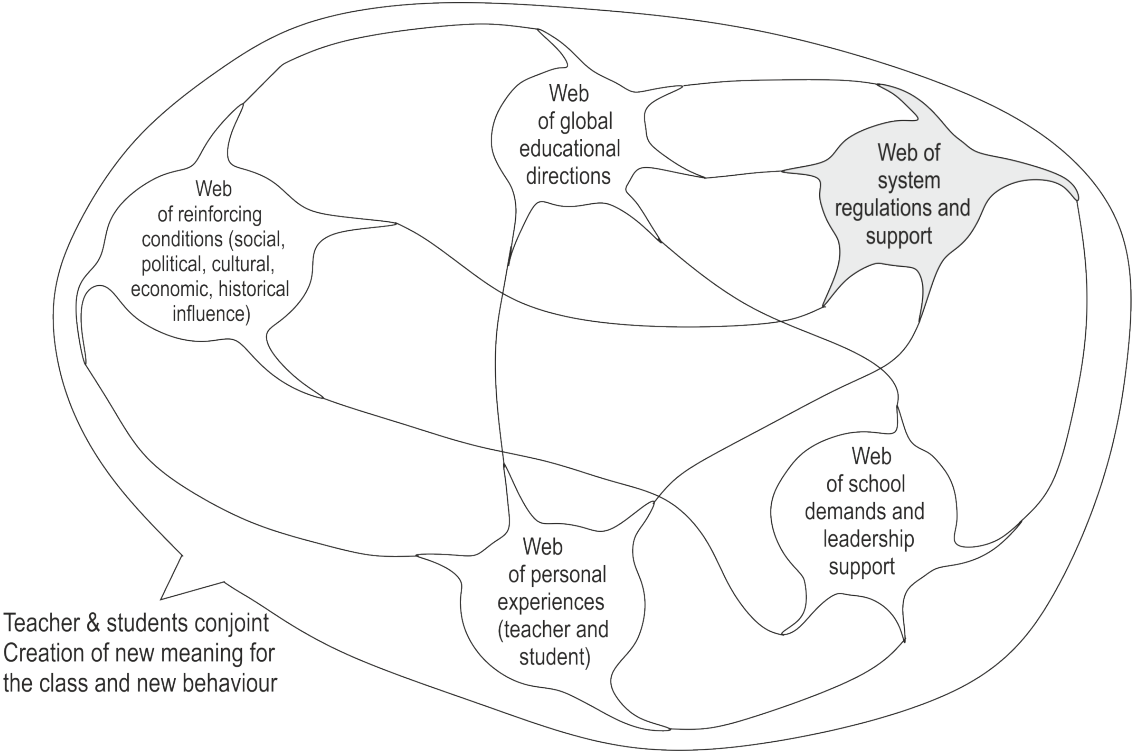


Figure 4 : Interacting webs of influence

The following table summarises how Complexity Theory, operating within the Glonacal Heuristic, can provide new insights into understanding how teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs can be modified.

| Complexity elements | Shifting teacher beliefs within school and education department systems |
|--|--|
| Holism rather than atomistic approach | Changes to teacher beliefs based on modification of single elements are likely to fail as they are based on a linear model and ignore the dynamism and interaction that occurs within and between systems (schools, departments etc) and agents (teachers, students, parents etc) |
| Open systems and networked feedback (Cunningham, 2001) | Schools and education systems are open systems impacted on by the environment; they involve feedback so that what will happen depends on what happened previously in that environment or in a system within which it is nested |
| Nested, interacting systems and continual evolution (Sanford, Hopper and Starr, 2015) | More than one system interacts with another and is nested within larger systems. Classrooms are nested within school systems, which in turn are nested within education departments which, in turn, are nested within national systems. The interaction between these systems and agents creates change but change is on-going, not a single event |
| Multidirectional causal webs relying on networking, feedback and connectedness within and between systems (Morrison, 2012) | What occurs in one part of a web is influenced by, and also influences other webs as a form of on-going feedback. Teachers take certain actions by means of their environment, not just simply in an environment. The process of adjusting one's beliefs is an on-going one |
| Adaption through self-organisation (Mason, 2014) | Sense needs to be made by teachers, schools and systems of changes. New meaning is created conjointly between teachers and students, teachers and the school administration, teachers and colleagues etc. Teacher beliefs are not dependent upon teachers being exposed to new demands or knowledge but the sense that is made of these |
| Stasis and entropy balance (Johnson, 2008) | Interaction between global, national and local webs can lead teachers and schools to a state of disequilibrium, which needs to be resolved. Teacher beliefs are subjected to pressures that may arise from the stasis or entropy operating within their systems, schools and classrooms. |

Table 3: The Glonacal Heuristic, Complety Theory and teacher beliefs

Using Speer's concept of "collections of beliefs" in combination with the Glonacal Agency Heuristic and Complexity Theory to guide analysis, the examination of discipline, behaviour support and teacher beliefs sought to:

- investigate the relationship between major behaviour support theories/models, school discipline and teacher beliefs;
- study webs of influence from the three interconnected domains;
- determine what agencies from the three domains were central to the maintenance or shift in teacher beliefs;
- establish which situations and processes contributed to the underlying principles for achieving a shift in teacher beliefs.

2.2 Discipline: duelling opposites of extrinsic and intrinsic or interwoven?

Classroom management and student ‘control’ have always been an area of concern and activity for ‘policy-makers, schools and their teachers’ (Powell & Tod, 2004, p. 1). To some extent ideas about school discipline reflect those about learning. Some learning theories, such as Behaviourism and Cognitive Psychology, place the teacher at the centre of the process as a transmitter of knowledge to ensure that students understand the correct solutions to problems. Others promote the teacher as facilitating inquiry so that the student plays an active role in instructional activities and works out the solutions to problems. Most of these theories usually acknowledge the role of interactions and context. These theories include Constructivism, Socio-Constructivism, Social Learning Theory, Experiential Learning, Multiple Intelligences and Situated Learning and Community of Practice (UNESCO - IBE, 2010). In a similar vein, discipline can be seen as the responsibility of the teacher as the direct transmitter of knowledge, therefore, controlling the situation to ensure the correct social response or as a process of personal development involving thinking and reasoning. One view of discipline is that of a system of management, the technology that allows schools to maintain control (Maguire et al., 2010). It is also described in terms of a student’s overall personal development and fostering the ability to act as an autonomous and responsible member of a group, in other words, the students ability to control adverse personal performance (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014, p. 146). Finally the term discipline can be used negatively to describe punishment. Students may, at times, be described as being “disciplined” for a misdemeanour. Which of these approaches resonates with teacher assumptions and beliefs about students with behaviour support needs will determine the teacher’s view on discipline, although at times the education system and teacher preferences may diverge.

The role ascribed to discipline is also broad. Charles (2011, p. 3) states that discipline has a role in keeping students on task, helping them to establish responsible behaviour and insisting on their exhibiting good human relations. “Discipline is intended to suppress and redirect misbehaviour” and to prevent misbehaviour from occurring. It also has a role to play in teaching right from wrong but it should not be equated with punishment, although many schools employ punitive strategies like detention and suspension (Thorson, 2005, p. 2). The role of discipline, however, has also been defined as allowing for, or promoting learning by reducing resistance and encouraging student engagement (Urbis, 2011, p. 3). For the purposes of this study discipline is considered in terms of the overarching conviction that teachers hold

about how to regulate behaviour either through self-regulation or through management strategies. Teachers will determine this based on external requirements such as school or education department procedures and their beliefs as to the locus of control in a classroom. This locus of control ranges from the teacher being the controlling factor in the classroom, the one who decides rules, consequences and who intervenes. Alternately, they may believe that their role is to facilitate self-discipline. There is also a middle ground of beliefs between these two extremes, which has the teacher interacting with students rather than intervening.

G. Hegel (1991) proposed that you have to be socialised to be human. Discipline has a major role to play in the process of socialisation however, what the nature of that role is and how the term discipline is conceptualised and put into practice varies according to divergent philosophical and psychological approaches which define the relationship between the individual and society. “A school’s social curriculum is chosen and administered based on a set of assumptions about what discipline is supposed to accomplish and how it can be accomplished” (Irby & Clough, 2015, p. 153). These assumptions might be guided by mentalist psychology (Freudian), reflexological psychology (Behaviourist) or from the dynamic and reflexive sociocultural perspective (Dewey, 1916; Vygotsky, 1986). How this socialisation is achieved will vary accordingly and teachers will base their actions on the perspective that resonates most clearly with their beliefs.

Teachers who see this socialisation as part of developing self-responsibility would favour an interactive process between the teacher and student or student and student and would focus on an organised set of practices and activities that allow for adaptation by the student. As Vygotsky states “every thought moves, grows and develops, fulfils a function, solves a problem” (1986, p. 218). Knowledge is about acquiring ways of behaving that help cope with reality, not a static set of universal truths. The social environment provides the means by which human beings become human, therefore, discipline is not something that happens to students but rather it is something that they choose to do (Dewey, cited in MacAllister, 2017, p. 83). In that sense it is positive because students have control of their own actions and actively take responsibility for their own learning and development. Along with Dewey, Vygotsky rejected the behaviourist, atomistic views of human development and the concept that behaviour was directed by a series of stimulus and response chains. They, separately, theorised that the social environment provided the basis for the individual becoming who he or she was.

With the exception of Foucault (1995) who posits that discipline, like all forms of institutional power, is disempowering and oppressive, most scholars identify discipline, intrinsic or extrinsic, as important for individual learning and societal wellbeing and see it as contributing to a positive and productive classroom environment (Bear, 2010, p. 1). As A. Mayworm and J. Sharkey (2014, p. 693) state, “effective discipline practices are necessary to maintain classroom order, promote student learning, and ensure the safety of students and teachers” but these practices can be either be established through discipline as technology or through the development of self-discipline.

C. Wolters and S. Daugherty (2007) argue that as society (and schools) have become more informal, this has fostered a greater need for individual self-control than during the time when people’s lives were more heavily guided by traditions, strict formal rules and sharp social divisions. Informality has led to more efficient and flexible means of internal self-control. The emphasis on maintaining rules and consequences has been replaced by respect for self and others. For this scenario social justice and the development of discipline through learning rather than control are crucial, as is the development of resilience in students. Even if policy documents identify this as a goal, most education systems are yet to achieve this. In NSW, for instance, policies address both discipline as control along with that of self-control, with discussion of respect, equity, diversity and an emphasis on developing student resilience. The system reflects movement towards the view held by Wolters and Daugherty, but the system is still straddling the old and the new, leading to what can be a confusing mix of policies for teachers at times.

James MacAllister (2014, p. 3) believes that it is time to reclaim school discipline as an educational concept and suggests that discipline can be genuinely educational when it is conceived of as a valuable personal quality, the possession of which allows students to set important goals and see them through even in the face of adversity. In this sense it differs sharply from discipline as control. For this approach to be successful the students needs to be self-reflective and self-directing. Order is created through the student’s engagement with learning rather than by following the instructions of the teacher.

The contrary view, that of control, however, appears to be dominant. “There is, first, the almost universally agreed view of classroom organisation which relies centrally on ‘control’ (Clark, 1998, p. 289). In this scenario, control needs to be established beforehand so that

curriculum can be delivered. The teacher is expected to retain power through the manipulation of extrinsic factors such as rewards and consequences. P. Wilson (1971) argues that discipline is about adherence to authority and that in a school setting this means following rules and policies, which are replacements for traditional teacher authority.

The use of rules is not, *per se*, a negative thing as rules and consequences can be established using democratic principles but, according to Clark (1998, p. 291), what tends to happen in practice is a focus on the control of the learner rather than attempts at a broader educational approach (self-discipline). Sets of procedures are advocated that have to be followed systematically in the classroom, and consistently throughout the school in order to ensure student compliance. Student behaviours are managed through stepped sets of rewards and sanctions. The belief is that rewards and consequences can be used to foster and maintain discipline. Discipline is about an external locus of control, manipulation and explicit instruction (Irby & Clough, 2015, p. 157). Clark (1998) and other authors (Thorson, 2005, p. 11; Irby & Clough, 2015, p. 167) state that the extrinsic approach to discipline as control is the dominant one used by schools and this is true of NSW and Latvia.

External controls, though, appear to be a double-edged sword. According to M. McCaslin and T. Good (1992) and P. Wilson (1971) external controls help to maintain pro-social behaviour but do not appear to foster individual responsibility in students. A study by R. Lewis, P. Montuoro and P. McCann (2013, p. 285) indicated that the use of external controls led to narrow obedience and impeded the development of self-regulation. There is also some concern that teachers may become preoccupied with power and control instead of learning and development (Dinkmeyer and Dinkmeyer, 1976, p. 664; Richmond, 2002, p. 55).

The Lewis, Montuoro and McCann study also revealed, however, that adolescents see most forms of misbehaviour as relatively benign, including vandalism and criminal acts. Studies on the adolescent brain have shown that while adults in a confronting situation use the pre-frontal cortex to reason and find a solution, the adolescent brain relies on the amygdala, closely linked to the “flight or fight” response. This leads to a series of self-preservation tactics such as denying responsibility, argument and shifting blame (Mears, 2012, p. 34). If these intrinsic deficits exist in internal control, it suggests that some level of external control is warranted. It may then not be a question of a discipline dichotomy, but more so one of when and how are external controls used and for how long, and do these controls need to be structured in a particular way.

It may be possible to combine the two aspects using some external controls, which support the development of internal ones. Just as teachers merge direct knowledge transmission in teaching/learning with the teacher as facilitator which appears in the constructivist approach (TALIS, 2013), so too they may work towards student self-discipline through the use, at times, of some levels of external controls providing for a continuum of support, not a series of separate discipline events. These controls focus on the social curriculum (Skiba & Petersen, 2003, p. 87), which is specific to each class or school and includes class/school rules and consequences, expectations and values. Craft (1984) identified the two different Latin roots of the English word “education”. These are *educare*, to train or to mold, and *educere*, meaning to lead out. These terms reflect the discipline dichotomy. On one side there is the concept of discipline as control and shaping young people through this. On the other, there is the concept of “walking alongside” young people, of working with them not on them. Wubbels (2011, p. 113) suggests that the ideas of both *educare* and *educere* operate in schools with a need to establish both an orderly environment and to enhance student social and moral growth. The important element then is how to maintain a balance between the two approaches. G. Bear discussing the duality in approach, of growth and order, warns “it is not uncommon to find approaches and models of school discipline in which only one aim receives much attention” (2011, p. 8). Education departments and schools may subscribe to this duality in approach but need to find and promote a way of achieving a balance between the two views, otherwise one approach will dominate and attempts to implement strategies closer to the alternative view may be neglected, misinterpreted and interfere with true duality being achieved, as opposed to just appearing on paper in policies or guidelines.

To whichever view teachers, schools and systems subscribe, it is important to remember the argument of M. Maguire, S. Ball and A. Braun that “In-school disruption may be as much, if not more, to do with aspects related to the inadequacies of the curriculum on offer, inappropriate pedagogy or the marginalisation of (some) young people rather than ‘poor’ or ineffective discipline policies” (2010, p. 166). In this they echo the words of R. Jones and N. Tanner (1981, p. 497) “Discipline should be viewed as an educational problem, not just an administrative or managerial problem”. Student discipline is then not so much a matter of a dichotomy as of achieving balance. It should promote student moral growth but some external controls may be needed before students can achieve self-discipline, the ideal state in many system and school documents. The focus of discipline should be on educating the students rather than using student management as compensation for inappropriate curriculum or

teaching/learning strategies. It is, however, no easy matter for teachers to achieve this balance within a framework of global, national and local pressures.

Moving the focus from controlling discipline policies to ways of engaging students (Maguire et al., 2010) offers opportunities for teachers to prevent unproductive student behaviours and reduce a reliance on managerial strategies. Engagement through teaching/learning strategies and a focus on educative ways of providing behaviour support also means that the problems are being addressed, rather than the symptoms. Students with behaviour support needs communicate the fact that they lack the skills to deal with complex classroom situations through their behaviour therefore discipline issues cannot be solved by placing police in schools or excluding students.

Currently education systems in NSW or Latvia have yet to achieve the balance between the theory of discipline as a technology for control and the theory of discipline as a transactional process that leads to student self-discipline. In NSW the policies on student welfare and wellbeing appear to be a part of preventative strategies but disappear from use once discipline as control strategies such as suspension and exclusion are invoked. The importance of these duelling opposites lies in the impact that comes from education systems espousing one or the other, or attempting a combination of both, which may be beset by uncertainty in how to combine them and how this interacts with teacher beliefs. The foundation level of discipline, which is the choice of behaviour support theories/models by teachers, reflects the impact of this interaction as teachers choose to intervene and correct behaviour, or take a non-interventionist stance and support students to develop self-control or, finally, have an interactive approach which shares the responsibility for behaviour between the student and the teacher. The NSW experience demonstrates the challenge that having two policies with opposing viewpoints can create, however, when compared to the Latvian experience of minimal support, this may not be the main issue. Policies do provide guidance and, as the section on teacher beliefs demonstrates, teachers can accommodate compound beliefs. Teachers in Latvia are left with scant guidance, which may be a much greater issue.

An overview of the dual stance on school discipline that appears in the literature and systems' policy documents and how elements relating to this duality are treated in this study appears below.

| Element | Criteria | Comments on usage in this research |
|--|--|---|
| Regulatory framework | Legislature, normative acts, regulations and policies determine the direction and parameters of school discipline | External and national documents contribute to the context which impacts on teacher beliefs and reflects each society's norms. This in turn impacts on educational borrowing and teacher ability to undergo shifts in beliefs |
| School philosophy: Meeting student and teacher needs | Discipline as a process to help students learn consists of consideration of student discipline (interventionist theories – Sugai, 2008), welfare (interactionist theories – Dreikurs 1982, Glasser, 2007) and teacher job satisfaction (the role of teacher beliefs-Guskey, 2002) | Crucial to the implementation of innovative practices is teacher understanding of locus of control in their classrooms. This facilitates choice of complimentary strategies and mitigates against flawed implementation of theories |
| Discipline goals: Managerial (school safety) and instructional (Personal and social development) | School safety and the quest for order is the focus of many Systems' documents in NSW, UK, USA, NZ (as well as theories of ABA) Teacher beliefs influence whether teachers accept one or other approach-pathognomonic or interventionist (Wenzel et al., 2017) | Schools need both 'educare' and 'educere'. What is important is that policy documents do not place student wellbeing in opposition to discipline as this leads to uncertainty amongst teachers and parents and places additional stress on students and teachers. Both concepts should be incorporated in an understanding of discipline as a continuum of socialisation, not a strategy or event. |
| The Discipline Plan: Actions taken to create a productive learning environment that prevents disruptions. Actions taken to elicit changes in student behaviour. Actions taken to help students fulfil their responsibilities | Nature of the Behaviour/Conduct Code, rules and sanctions either promoting self-discipline (reflected in Restorative Justice practices) or focussed on systematic procedures used consistently through the school (using ABA, PBIS). Classroom management procedures for prevention, correction and remediation based on interventionist, non-interventionist and interactionist approaches (Porter, 2007) The choice of procedures need to be consistent with teacher beliefs about how students learn (Levin et al., 2005) | The approach selected should reflect the teacher's current belief about how students learn and about the locus of control in their classroom but should also include rules, routines for transitions, feedback, opportunities for participation and engagement, use of appropriate intervention strategies selecting least intrusive approaches initially, building positive relationships and attending to social, cultural and emotional factors. Procedures for monitoring and review using data decision-making from office referrals, suspensions, exclusions etc which indicate flaws in the Discipline Plan or its implementation are important for teacher shifts in beliefs |
| Teacher knowledge and skills, their beliefs contribute to views of self-efficacy which can impact on teacher choice of strategies | Teacher beliefs are central to teacher actions (Richardson, 1996) Professional learning which is on-going, provides access to new skills and knowledge which is crucial for innovative practices to be established and maintained (Tsouloupas et al., 2015) Multiple conflicting agendas in systems and schools can overwhelm teachers (Le Fevre, 2010) Achieving change in teacher pedagogical practices is difficult (Fullan, 2007) Professional learning is a reciprocal process (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) | Any form of change needs to be a planned transitional process. Mandated changes need to involve teachers in determining what they can do within their current class structure and approach as new approaches are nudged into existence. Self-initiated changes need administrative support. Teachers need to understand their own belief structures as this may open up a greater range of possible choices. Richly developed, as opposed to simplistic, training about student behaviour support in preservice courses is crucial. Professional learning is an ongoing process with the teachers' ability to learn from it influenced by personal history and contextual elements. It is not a simple linear cause and effect process for change. |

| Element | Criteria | Comments on usage in this research |
|---|---|--|
| Student perceptions of behaviour support strategies | Students, like teachers, believe that too much time is spent on managing rather than teaching (Infantino & Little, 2005) Students associate positive comments and rewards with academic tasks and do not reject teacher comments for improvement but associate behaviour with sanctions (Payne, 2015) and negative feedback impacts on the class environment (Burnett, 2002). Students' perceptions of their teachers' interpersonal behaviour, in particular perceived control, varied according to subject matter (Telli, 2016) | Managerial systems of discipline often pay insufficient attention to student voice as they focus on institutional requirements and power. Teachers need to achieve a balance between instructional and managerial language, regardless of the theory of behaviour support used. Teacher capacity to use feedback needs to be improved so that students do not associate behaviour only with sanctions. Inappropriate behaviour needs to be understood as communication, a mistake, rather than as a personal flaw |

Table 4: Concepts used to frame school discipline and behaviour in this study

2.3 Behaviour support theories and models

At the point of choosing behaviour support strategies, discrepancies can arise between the intent of the theories and the outcomes of strategies selected by the teacher. The teacher may hold a segregationist view about students with behaviour support needs, yet try to implement theories or models which would support incorporation of these students. A discrepancy may also exist between an education system's directions and desired practices and what actually happens in the classroom. These discrepancies lead to flaws in implementation of innovative practices which follow on from laws, regulations, policies and guidelines, and, when implementation does not bring the expected results, the implementation may be partial or result in the new practices not becoming an integrated component of classroom practices resulting in disuse in the long-term and reinforcement of existing beliefs.

If teachers are to make a shift in beliefs between segregationist, or pathognomonic approaches and inclusive ones, the theories and models they choose must have certain qualities. This study is not concerned with the inclusion movement but rather the issues and processes associated with identifying what needs to happen to support shifts in beliefs if students with behaviour support needs are to be a part of the class, engaged and experience belonging in the classroom. For this to happen there needs to be systemic change which will be explored later. This section will focus on possible local level changes associated with behaviour support theories/models.

Regardless of the theory or model, certain criteria need to be met if there is to be effective behaviour support for students that facilitates their incorporation and engagement in the classroom. These criteria include: promoting inclusion as an on-going process, not a single event; developing a positive classroom environment incorporating values education, modelling positive interactions and actively developing productive relationships and social engagement (Scottish Government, 2013; Liberante, 2014); taking functional steps to promote personal and academic development through effective scaffolding and instructional methods (Luiselli, Putnam & Handler, 2005); addressing barriers to participation and engagement to avoid marginalisation of students (Thornton, 2011); and providing a safe and supportive environment by avoiding inconsistent and punitive practices and unclear expectations (Lindsay, 2007).

A key factor is the fact that the process of inclusion is a never-ending process (Ainscow, 1999) not just a one-off intervention. Unpleasant as it may be for some teachers who are seeking removal of the student, the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs requires on-going commitment, with adoption, adaption and re-adaption of strategies, on-going monitoring and flexibility. Theories and models need to reflect this on-going process and not lead the teacher to think that a single intervention will suffice.

Incorporation of these students also requires taking active steps to promote their overall wellbeing as well as their personal and academic development through a positive classroom climate, which is welcoming of diversity but is focussed on improving the educational quality for all students. Further discrepancies can arise between teacher expectations of student behaviour in the classroom, the pedagogical core of communication and cooperation and the strategies used to achieve these. Teachers must establish a positive climate where there are opportunities for students to build social networks and where reciprocity is a fundamental value and process (OECD, 2009, p. 310) along with respect for rights; participation; concern for community, sustainability, non-violence, trust and emphasising the competence and contribution of all students (Hulgin & Drake, 2011, p. 390). The prospect of developing such values is important for students with behaviour support needs as their inadequate communication and social skills often have a negative effect on friends, peers, family members, teachers and themselves, as well as their academic achievement, which precludes success in the classroom (Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016, p. 8). Theories and models, therefore, which do not facilitate social interactions and networks in the classroom, or cannot be linked

to programmes that do this, are not likely to develop strategies which foster inclusion of these students. Rather, theories and models should be sought which actively develop productive relationships and social engagement.

A further criterion relates to values but there needs to be more than discussion or consensus about values, settings need to be created which are consistent with these values. This involves the development of participatory decision-making, increased focus on social responsibility by class members and responsive, flexible structures. This incorporates processes which sustain the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs, without placing the responsibility for change entirely on their shoulders. A positive classroom climate should aim at strategies that allow for adaption of the school environment to the needs of individual students, rather than making the student fit in the school system (Heath, Petrakos, Finn, Karagiannakis, Mclean-Heywood & Rousseau. 2004, p. 241). The behaviour support theories and models, therefore, need to provide strategies for examining environmental factors such as regular classroom dynamics (Dyson, Farrell, Polat, Hutcheson & Gallannaugh, 2004, p. 14) so that students are included rather than “modified”. A social model for assessment and on-going education of students with behaviour support needs can displace the current belief of indiscipline, the view that students are disruptive or disrupted (Araujo, 2005, p. 245) which places the ownership of the behaviour with the student rather than the interaction between the student and environment.

Another criterion is the reduction of barriers to the inclusion of students with behaviour support. This includes any strategies that would hinder student participation, engagement and belonging. Any theories or models, therefore, that fail to address the student’s social competence, communication skills or attitudes based on faulty thinking, along with challenging faulty beliefs and assumptions of other class members, need to be considered carefully.

School safety is a concern for school communities, education departments, the media and governments. All students should feel safe and supported at school, including students with behaviour support needs. Safe classrooms and schools have an orderly environment; well-defined, consistent expectations and associated procedures that are clearly communicated and implemented as intended; active and engaged teachers and students; anti-bullying programmes; procedures for identifying system or contextual factors, which may influence

behaviour; processes for incorporating and addressing behaviour issues through the curriculum so that skills are taught; and, include a crisis response plan. Behaviour support theories and models need to provide strategies to address behaviour from the viewpoint of safety in the classroom, or a package of support needs to be developed which links various theories or models.

Behaviour problems are often complex and the use of simple and general approaches does not address this complexity. Sometimes the approach is blamed when, at times, unrealistic outcomes are expected and more attention needs to be given to the nature and focus of the intervention. Sometimes supportive but indirect approaches are used, such as counselling or improving self-esteem, yet used in isolation these approaches are insufficient to address complex behaviours (Walker, Colvin & Ramsay, 1996, p. 197). Solutions need to be comprehensive. While individual theories and models may not be able to address complex behaviour problems, a combination from various sources may be useful. The use of an eclectic approach with students who have behaviour support needs is possible, if teachers are aware of their own beliefs about the locus of control in the classroom and also those beliefs that underpin the various theories.

Behaviour support models are based on a range of beliefs about the role of the teacher and students within classrooms, how students learn, what they should be taught and, as with overarching discipline concepts, whether the teacher is a purveyor of knowledge or a guide facilitating learning. Teachers may have a developmental view of student behaviour, believing that students must progress through stages of behaviour or they may believe that the behaviour is due to within the child pathological factors (Tillery, Varjas, Meyers & Smith Collins, 2010, p. 87). Conceptual models are commonly used and include psychodynamic (Tuma & Sobotka, 1983), psychoeducational (Dreikurs, 1982; Glasser, 1986, 2001), humanistic (Ginott, 1972, 2003; Gordon, 1974, 2003), ecological (Doyle, 1986), behaviourist (Skinner, 1953; Alberto & Troutman, 2005; Canter & Canter, 1976) or cognitive behavioural theories (Kaplan & Carter, 1995; Wragg, 1989; Ellis, 1980). Rather than using the above conceptual models, for the purposes of this study theories have been grouped based on teacher beliefs about student behaviour and their role in managing it, the locus of control in the classroom (Porter, 2007; Glickman & Wolfgang, 1978).

Teachers need to understand their own ideologies of student management in order to make effective choices about behaviour support that are consistent with their assumptions and beliefs. By understanding whether they believe teachers should be in control of managing student behaviour, whether it is a shared responsibility or whether it is up to the student to demonstrate self-control helps them to identify their thoughts about the locus of control in their classrooms. Knowing this can make the difference between choosing approaches that are likely to be successful or doomed to failure in their classroom. Teachers who believe that they should intervene to correct student behaviour would not be comfortable with strategies that are based on student self-control, especially if the student’s behaviour is not the “correct” response. Similarly teachers who believe that students need to solve their own problems, the non-interventionists, are unlikely to be successful at implementing sanctions. There are also teachers who believe the responsibility for student behaviour is a shared one, with students taking responsibility through interactions with the teacher. The following table summarises how key theorists relate to the three types of teacher behaviour: interventionist, interactionist and non-interventionist.

| Approach | Premises | Key Theorists | Focus | Prev * | Sup * | Cor * |
|----------------------|--|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| Non-interventionists | Based on disparate psychoanalytic approaches and humanism; Believe behaviour is the result of unresolved inner conflicts; The student is able to solve their own problems with support; The teacher’s role is to facilitate and support; Children are inherently good and constructive | Alfred Kohn | Non-competitive environment | ☐ | ☐ | |
| | | Thomas Gordon | Effective relationships | | ☐ | |
| | | Haim Ginott | Positive communication | ☐ | ☐ | |
| Interactionists | Based on social and developmental psychology. Students learn to behave through their encounters with the world, so teachers and students need to have reciprocal relationships; Students need to understand that they must abide by the rules that are acceptable to all. | Jacob Kounin | Group management | ☐ | ☐ | |
| | | Rudolf Dreikurs & P. Cassell | Mistaken goals | | ☐ | ☐ |
| | | William Glasser | Communication, needs and choice | ☐ | ☐ | |
| Interventionists | Human actions are a matter of external conditioning; Reinforcement guides behaviour so behaviour results from | Alberto and Troutman | Reinforcement | | ☐ | ☐ |

| Approach | Premises | Key Theorists | Focus | Prev * | Sup * | Cor * |
|----------|--|-----------------------------|--|--------|-------|-------|
| | inadequate rewards or punishments; The teacher sets the standard and shapes the behaviour; Children are incapable of self-control and teachers are enforcers. Evidence-based decision making Measurable outcomes | Canter and Canter | Teachers responsible for managing behaviour through clear behaviour expectations | | ☐ | ☐ |
| | | PBIS (Sugai and associates) | Focus on fixing problem contexts and not problem behaviours | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

*Prevention, Support, Correction

Table 5: Behaviour support theories/models based on interventionist, non-interventionist and interactionist beliefs and locus of control

Teachers must understand not only their own beliefs about students with behavior support needs, but they must also understand the underpinning beliefs of each model or theory. This needs to be followed by a clear understanding of whether they are attempting to prevent behaviour issues from arising in their classroom, support students struggling with behaviour issues or control and correct their behaviour. If all of these factors are clear, teachers may be able to use an eclectic approach because they would then be able to identify which strategy they can use for a particular behaviour and specific situations. Without such clarity, the end result would be failing strategies and failing students, reinforcement of existing beliefs and maintenance of existing strategies, which are not meeting the student’s or teacher’s needs.

It is this lack of synergy between the teacher’s beliefs and the foundations of the selected strategy that partially contributes to failed borrowing of approaches. Implementing strategies because there is an immediate effect, such as removal of the troublesome student, or success of the strategy in another setting, will not help teachers to become expert at supporting previously unfamiliar behaviours. Being clear, however, about their own approach (interventionist, non-interventionist, interactionist) provides the foundation for becoming experts in their own classrooms.

The non-interventionists, Kohn and Gordon, while promoting self-discipline, each have their own perspective. Alfie Kohn (1995) believes that student interest should guide learning. The classroom has to be a strong, caring community where problems are solved collaboratively with teacher respect for the students and the teacher facilitating student connections or

networks. Students need to learn how to make good choices by actually making choices not being told about them. Teachers should focus their energy on ways to prevent behaviour problems by emphasising curiosity and co-operation so that discipline and behaviour support are unnecessary. Kohn's approach is long-term based on "What sort of person do I want to be?" While his "Beyond Discipline" approach creates a caring positive environment which allows students to have choice over their learning, it relies on students having the skills to manage freedom and provides little guidance in situations where student behaviour is challenging, therefore, used in isolation it does not address all of the criteria that help accommodate students with behaviour support needs.

Thomas Gordon's (2003) ideas are consistent with humanism. He stated that students could solve their own problems, like Kohn, and they could become self-disciplined if they were supported by teachers rather than coerced or punished. He stresses the importance of developing meaning and mutually beneficial relationships. While conflicts may occur in the classroom, they need not destroy relationships. He proposes a "behaviour window" for resolving conflict which consists of three steps: determining if there is a problem and who owns it, student or teacher, and what skills will help solve the problem; if the student owns it then the teacher needs to engage in active listening; if the teacher owns the problem then the teacher should use "I-messages" to communicate with the student and avoid confrontation. The final step is "no lose conflict resolution". His "Teacher Effectiveness Training" (TET) stresses that behaviours satisfy needs and therefore should not be viewed as good or bad. This approach relies on a certain level of self-control that students with behaviour support needs do not often possess. It also relies on significant time to work with the student, counselling him/her and the teacher also requires sound background knowledge. The focus is also on resolving conflicts rather than preventing behaviour issues. Teachers also have to be careful with the use of "I-messages" as they can become manipulative rather than positive, requiring the student to take responsibility for another's behaviour rather than their own. This approach, while having elements that would provide a supportive environment, needs to be used in an eclectic manner with other approaches in order to meet all of the criteria that aid the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs.

Interactionists, Kounin (1970), Ginott (1972), Dreikurs and Cassell (1974) and Glasser (2001), also vary in their approaches. Kounin's focus is on identifying teacher behaviours that would maximise time on-task. He promoted teacher "withitness" where the teacher was aware

of what was happening in the classroom while teaching a lesson. He also discussed the “ripple effect” where a teacher’s intervention with one student has an effect on others in the class. A further consideration was the teacher’s group management skills that referred to the teachers ability to maintain class engagement through lesson momentum, smooth transitions, group alerting, requiring student accountability and the teacher’s ability to run overlapping lessons. He also warned against satiation, when students become bored or frustrated from repetition. While Kounin has influenced classroom management theories, his focus on the teacher’s behaviour provides strategies for engaging students but no alternatives once the student’s behaviour becomes challenging, therefore this approach is appropriate for preventing behaviour issues and supporting students but does not correct the situation in any way. It too needs to be used in combination with other strategies.

Haim Ginott’s (1972) approach, “Congruent Communication” is about communication and relationships. It relies on harmonious conversations where feelings are expressed and focusses on the problem rather than the student’s personality with the aim of guiding the student away from self-defeating behaviours. In the ideal classroom the teacher is a facilitator of conversations that include all class members and address important issues. He stresses brevity as this minimised interruptions and, like Christine Richmond (2007), believes that teachers speak too much. If problems arise in the classroom, the teacher should address the problem rather than focus on the character of the student and should guide the student to making good choices rather than criticise him/her. Ginott also recommends “I-messages” and dealing with behaviour issues in private, suggesting that the teacher should choose which behaviours need attention. Punishment should be avoided and Ginott suggests that praise should only be used if it is authentic. This matches Dreikurs’ (1982) use of encouragement above praise, and Hattie’s (2009) use of feedback rather than praise. Similarly M. Hodgman (2015, 46) suggests using process praise over person praise. While Ginott’s ideas are supportive and would add to a positive classroom climate, they rely on the student him/herself knowing how to communicate his/her ideas, a factor with which students with behaviour support needs often struggle. Some students may also flounder in an open environment and still others would take advantage of it. There is no mechanism built in for those students who continue to misbehave, nor is there any assessment to determine why students misbehave. His approach, however, can readily be combined with those of other theorists.

Rudolf Dreikurs' (1982) "Goal-centred theory" or "Democratic Discipline" is based on identifying student needs, which are behind student misbehaviour and then negotiating alternative ways of getting their needs met. To implement "Goal-centred theory" teachers need to engage the class in discussion about needs satisfaction, provide choice about rules, consequences and academic tasks, model responsible and consistent behaviour, make boundaries and expectations clear, use natural and logical consequences not punishment and encourage effort rather than achievement. Dreikurs' stated that inappropriate behaviour aimed at achieving group belonging and is motivated by unconscious needs, e.g. to gain attention, exercise power, exact revenge, or display inadequacy, which become the goals for misbehaviour and a way that students learn to understand their own motives and modify their behaviour by learning appropriate ways to meet their needs. Teachers need to disclose the goal to the student to help them understand their behaviour.

He also maintained that students learn through interaction with the environment therefore natural (occurring in the environment) or logical consequences (connected to the misbehaviour in some way) should be used rather than arbitrary punishments such as sending a student to the principal's office. Encouragement, moreover, is preferable to praise as it builds student's commitment to the learning process. Praise usually involves a focus on the student rather than the student's behaviour. Taylor (1979) notes that praise stimulates rivalry, focusses on the quality of the performance, is judgemental, fosters dependence, fear of failure and selfishness at the expense of others. Alternatively encouragement stimulates co-operation, focusses on effort, does not evaluate a person and emphasises the specific contribution, thereby fostering acceptance and self-discipline. P. Burnett (2002, p. 5) found that praise was not related to classroom environment or teacher-students relationships but that feedback was.

Dreikurs' approach is based on group belonging yet not all students may have, or want, a connection with the class group. Teachers may not have the skills to recognise complex reasons motivating specific behaviours. Dreikurs promoted democratic classrooms and a democratic teaching style based on mutual respect, however some student may not have the required competencies to participate. The focus on goals of misbehaviour places the responsibility with the student, reminiscent of segregation or integration where the student must change, therefore this theory needs to be combined with other approaches in order to provide an inclusive environment where the total context is considered, not just the student. Natural consequences are difficult to use as they need to occur naturally in the environment.

Logical consequences may work to halt a specific behaviour but this may be replaced with another negative behaviour as there is no surety that it will be replaced by a positive behaviour. Logical consequences may also not be sufficiently strong to overcome the reinforcement provided by very challenging behaviours. The positive features of this model are those of providing students with choices and helping students to understand their own motives. As well, it does contribute to a positive culture with its emphasis on encouragement, empowerment and democratic principles. It also provides for the long-term change in beliefs, which may not meet the needs of teachers who want a quick solution. This is another theory that needs to be used in combination with others to meet all the criteria necessary for a shift in beliefs towards incorporation and engagement.

William Glasser proposed “Choice Theory”, initially “Control Theory”, and “Reality Therapy”. These are strongly influenced by psychoeducational theory. Glasser’s key concept is that all behaviour is an individual’s best attempts at addressing needs: survival needs; belonging; power; freedom and fun. In the classroom his approach is mostly a preventative one, where teachers guide or lead students through appropriate behaviour choices. Behaviour support should be designed to help students make better choices. Students cannot be forced to change what they believe about how best to satisfy their needs as coercion leads to mistrust. Instead there must be a warm, supportive classroom environment where students can complete quality work and feel good about themselves. This should be coupled with classroom rules, which are developed in, not for, the classroom. Non-judgemental class meetings are a central strategy as they provide students with the opportunity to learn how their behaviour has affected others, to hear alternative strategies and to receive feedback from their peers. The most important aspect of this theory is ensuring that students realise how their choice of behaviours affects others.

Teachers who use this theory acknowledge that the behaviour issues lie within the classroom environment and the relationship between the students and teacher. Teachers need to build positive relationships by supporting, encouraging, listening to and accepting, respecting and negotiating. They should never criticise, blame, complain, threaten, punish, or bribe, since inappropriate student behaviour develops when learning environments fail to meet the five basic needs.

Glasser's approach is positive in that it has students involved in developing classroom procedures and he stresses that learning should be fun and interesting. He makes an important contribution to behaviour support, proposing that the focus should be on the effect that teacher actions in the classroom have on student behaviours and promoting positive methods of behaviour support rather than coercion. There is some confusion over his concept of student motivation. He states that motivation is intrinsic and that teachers can establish environments that support students to meet their needs and thus improve motivation, If the teacher, however, is helping to meet the need then the control is not intrinsic but rather comes from what the teacher does, which is external. Glasser's approach needs to be implemented as a school-wide programme, which requires that every teacher is committed to this approach and familiar with its strategies. It also requires time and effort, for instance, to develop the relationships with students that allow for non-judgemental class meetings or for individual planning meetings with students who need individualised support. This is another approach, like Dreikurs' "Goal-centred theory" which is focused on long-term change and it has few strategies for dealing with very challenging behaviour except through longterm relationship building.

"Assertive Discipline" (1976), Lee and Marlene Canter's approach is based on establishing a plan and maintaining order to facilitate learning. Teachers have the right to determine the class structure, rules and procedures and to expect students to comply to the class standards. Students do not have the right to interfere with the learning of others therefore teachers need to prepare a plan of rules, routines and discipline strategies for the class. Then they need to determine whether they are going to be nonassertive and surrender to their students, become hostile and respond aggressively or be assertive by calmly insisting that students meet their expectations. They definitely should not accept excuses for misbehaviour. They should use positive and negative consequences and not feel guilty about applying negative consequences.

The "Assertive discipline" approach has been modified over the years. The name of the programme went from Assertive Discipline to Assertive Discipline: Positive Behavior Management for Today's Classrooms demonstrating the change in direction, as it now includes determining student needs through conversations with students and teaching students how to behave. Canters' approach also specifies a plan for dealing with more challenging behaviours. This includes, first, a private conference with the student, not to punish him/her

but to provide guidance. Second, building a relationship with the student to show that the teacher genuinely cares. Finally an individual behaviour plan is developed.

The addition of relationship building between the teacher and student and getting to know the student are positive elements of this approach. Teachers also responded well to the notion that they have the right to teach and that students should comply with their plan for the class. The negative side, however, is the use of punishment that is arbitrary with consequences like threats and warnings, to coerce students to comply. This can have negative effects and make the problem behaviour worse in the long-term. Furthermore there is no positive reinforcement when students are complying. Again, aspects of this approach may work in a given situation but care has to be used with this approach and, as it does not address all of the criteria that would help include a student with behaviour support needs, it needs to be used in conjunction with other strategies.

P.A. Alberto and A.C. Troutman (2005) use Applied Behaviour Analysis (ABA). In this approach consequences are key because they control behaviour. Reinforcement strengthens or maintains behaviour and can be either positive or negative, both of which increase behaviour. Alberto and Troutman suggest that students should choose the positive reinforcement, that there are naturally motivating reinforcers such as food and there are also reinforcers that are learned and conditioned such as tokens or stickers. There are many factors that need to be considered when using an ABA approach, such as whether the reinforcement will be continuous or intermittent, issues of satiation with reinforcers and concerns arising from the use of extinction of inappropriate behaviours.

Punishment is also seen to weaken behaviour. Alberto and Troutman define punishment as “The contingent presentation of a stimulus immediately following a response, which decreases the future rate or probability of the response” (Alberto & Troutman, 2009, p. 426) thus for any action to be considered as a punishment, there must be a decrease in the behaviour. Punishment, however, is often poorly implemented in busy and complex classrooms and its use requires skilled teachers. In the long run, it usually encourages students to disengage rather than behave differently (Soodak, 2003, p. 331) yet the aim of behaviour support strategies is to re-engage the student. R. Lewis (2001, p. 312) notes that coercive approaches to discipline are found to increase students’ aggression and disrupt their learning and that it is more effective to engage the student in discussions about his/her behaviour. It is

therefore to be used on a limited basis and only in conjunction with procedures that increase socially acceptable behaviour.

A positive focus of this approach is that teachers need to examine how their behaviour reinforces and teaches inappropriate student behaviours. Functional Behaviour Assessment (FBA) has grown out of ABA and requires teachers to examine the context for the behaviour as well as the actual behaviours in order to try and identify the reasons for, or functions of, the student behaviour. It is based on the belief that all behaviour has a purpose such as gaining peer or teacher attention or avoiding it (Lewis, Jones, Horner & Sugai, 2010). ABA has been criticised as being mechanistic but FBA provides a clear framework and a set of strategies for teachers to use to assess the problem by establishing under what circumstances the behaviour is most likely to occur e.g. when, where, with whom and what time. It also helps to identify the outcomes of the behaviour thus guiding teacher decision about what needs to be adjusted to support students. The framework also includes ways to address behaviour by reconstructing the student's thinking. The complexity of student behaviour requires teachers to continue the process of collecting information, identifying the reasons for the behaviour and testing these out through adaptations and modifications to the contexts, thus it is not a one-off process. As with the other theories and models, ABA needs to be linked with other elements if all of the criteria for classroom inclusion are to be addressed.

Positive Behavioural Intervention Support (PBIS) or School-Wide Positive Behaviour Support (SWPBS) is not a behaviour theory but a prevention-oriented framework that helps teachers and school staff to adopt and implement evidence-based behaviour interventions into an integrated continuum that addresses academic and social behaviour. It is guided by the concepts of prevention, evidence-based practice and a system-wide implementation (Senge et al., 2000; Warren, Edmonson, Griggs, Lassen, McCart, Turnbull, & Sailor, 2006). There are components for the individual student, class and whole-school (Sugai & Horner, 2006). These include prevention, maximum participation, ongoing monitoring and person-centred planning supporting behavioural and academic outcomes (Lewis, et al., 2004; Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008). PBIS was used with students with disabilities initially but it has been expanded to general education settings. The major issue with this approach is that it needs whole school implementation, with all teachers trained in using functional assessment and other elements of the approach, as well as being committed to its implementation.

Without this commitment and professional learning to support the use of this approach, implementation may be partial, half-hearted and flawed.

For students with behaviour needs it provides the structure and clarity that they often seek as positively stated expectations are taught, reviewed and, importantly, supervised. This is an important feature as teachers need to have on-going commitment to monitoring how their strategies are working, otherwise there is the potential for a flawed implementation when the initial energy of attempting a new strategy begins to fade, especially if the behaviour remains unchanged when on-going adjustments are not made.

If the commitment to this approach is there, then the approach provides teachers, as well as students, with guidance through the establishment of procedures for teaching expected behaviours and a continuum of strategies to acknowledge appropriate behaviour and respond to inappropriate behaviour. By using the functional assessment of behaviours and basing their decisions on collected data, teachers may also feel justified in their choice of strategies.

Research on the efficacy of behaviour management approaches in the classroom has been limited (O'Neill, 2014, p. 2) as high integrity implementation of models in classrooms is difficult to achieve (Emmer & Ausiker, 1990, p. 130). Teachers by nature are like bowerbirds selecting strategies and approaches based on appeal to their beliefs, experience of other teachers with these techniques and ease of implementation.

Of the above theories and models the only one with a strong evidence base for the theory, as opposed to specific elements of it, is Applied Behaviour Analysis (Alberto & Troutman, 2013). PBIS, similarly, is evidence-based as it is rooted in ABA (Maag, 2012). J.W. Maag (2012, 2001) notes that evidence from research on Assertive Discipline has been missing or misleading. E.T. Emmer and A. Ausiker (1990) noted that research evidence for the use of Reality Therapy/ Choice Theory has been mixed and that for Teacher Effectiveness Training, its efficacy is yet to be proven. This does not mean, however, that theories and models should be dismissed because of the lack of research evidence. Although most models have not been proven to be effective as a total package, they may contain specific practices that do have empirical research support, such as the formation of rules (Lasley, 1987, p. 287-289). M. Drugli, G. Clifford & B. Larsson, in a study of children with conduct problems, found that teachers base their work with these children on “subjective and individual perspectives and

preferences, rather than professional evaluations”, and as such were more attuned toward “practice-based evidence” than evidence-based knowledge and methods (2008, p. 289-290). Teachers will choose strategies that work for them and their classes rather than necessarily those substantiated empirically. They may find a particular theory or model effective in their classroom because it aligns with their classroom orientation towards the locus of control and therefore it is implemented with integrity. The opposite is also true, leading to flaws in implementation that impact on student behavioural outcomes and teacher beliefs.

The background to the theorists/models also needs consideration. Approaches such as PBIS, which is very comprehensive, may result in flawed implementation by teachers who react to its ABA foundation. While the PBIS framework is broad and incorporates factors such as student engagement, which take it beyond ABA, teachers may disagree with ABA principles that underpin it.

As the theorists/models specifically address behaviour, it is not surprising that they are not focussed on student academic development. Teachers, however, need to ensure that their behaviour support strategies are an adjunct to their teaching/learning ones. While the focus of this study is not on academic engagement through teaching/learning activities, students with behaviour support needs often have difficulties with learning and these needs must be considered along with behaviour support. “The interfering nature of problem behaviour tends to overshadow learning difficulties these children experience, which could result in even more problems in this area.” (Stoutjesdijk, Scholte & Swaab, 2012, p. 101). It is important for teachers to address learning needs and not to use classroom management and behaviour support strategies as a means of managing a classroom situation, which is created by ineffective or inappropriate teaching/learning.

While there are differences between the theories and models, there are specific concepts or themes that appear across theories and models that are consistently identified in studies as important for the creation of effective, positive classrooms. These include having as the core a focus on prevention (Oliver, Wehby & Reschly, 2011, p. 6) that includes establishing and using rules (OFSTED Report, 2012/13; Rogers 2011; Špona, 2006); setting high expectations for behaviour; and, fostering positive relationships with students (Pennings et al., 2014) as these facilitate the impact of preventative interventions. Low quality teacher-student relationships lead to conflict and discord (Spilt, Koomen & Thijs, 2011). Responsive

approaches which feature across theories and models include using encouragement (Dreikurs, 1982) or feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hattie, 2009) as well as consistent consequences (Alberto & Troutman, 2005; Algozzine, 2007; Canter & Canter, 1976; Dreikurs, 1982; Ginott, 1972; Glasser, 1986, 2001; Kohn 1993; Sugai & Horner, 1999, 2006). These variables or themes will be examined in greater detail in the chapter relating to the adaption of behaviour support theories or models in Latvia, with NSW as a point of reference.

While there is no strong evidence base for many of the theories and models, there is also no one theory or model of behaviour support that is the correct one. The success or otherwise of implementations does not depend on empirical research but rather on the teacher's approach to implementing the theory or model. Which ones appeal to specific teachers will depend on the teachers' knowledge of the theories or models and their beliefs about the locus of control in the classroom. As J. Zueli (1994, p. 53) notes, many teachers only consider research when it matches their personal experience and will accept strategies arising out of research only once they have assessed whether they can be translated into procedures that work in their classrooms. Similarly T. Guskey (2002, p. 387) states that teachers retain and repeat strategies or practices that are useful in their classroom as they currently function.

If teachers have a sound knowledge of the theories or models and are able to match practices from them to their classroom behaviour support orientation, an eclectic approach may provide the best outcomes for specific students in specific contexts. T. Lasley, (1987, p. 289) suggests that if teachers use only one approach to discipline, they are unable to help students achieve self-discipline. Furthermore, Barth states that teachers

“can not afford the tidy luxury of running classrooms which comply with an ideology. For them the question is not which banner to wave or which model has the most to offer children and adults but rather, ‘When method A doesn’t work for Johnny, what can I try next? B? C? D?’” (cited in Glickman & Wolfgang, 1979, p. 7).

In order to select the most appropriate method from B, C or D, however, teachers need to understand their own beliefs about teaching and learning, student behaviour and the locus of control in their classrooms, as teacher beliefs are important and will influence and guide their priorities and actions in dealing with discipline and behaviour support. Furthermore, teachers need to consider the total environment in their classrooms as students, a central aspect of the environment, can frustrate teacher attempts to implement change in the classroom. While this

will be considered in more detail in Chapter 7 on how approaches are adopted and adapted in Latvia and NSW, it must be said that the theories/models are only part of the picture and that change in the classroom also answers to the nature of reciprocity between the teacher and students. The final outcome of any new approach will depend upon the self-organisation that emerges; the new meaning made by the students and teacher together.

The following table list criteria from the literature that would assist with the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs. None of the theorists/models address all of the needs, therefore teachers need to consider what combination will work best for their situations taking into account their beliefs about locus of control in the classroom and what stage, prevention, support or correction, they are seeking to address.

| Criteria | Strategies |
|--|--|
| Inclusion as on-going | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student intervention plans have provision for monitoring and regular evaluation allowing for adjustments (Sugai et al., 2000) • Providing a package of on-going support which addresses preventative, supportive and corrective behaviour strategies (Rogers, 2000) |
| Positive classroom environment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Including values education: rights and responsibilities; non-violence, trust, contribution and participation in society/class; concern for the community (Hulgin & Drake, 2011; Roffey, 2012) • Modelling positive interactions (Benninga et al., 2003) • Facilitating social interaction and classroom networks (Botha & Kourkoutas, 2016) • Stressing social responsibility of class members (Wentzel, 2010) • Teacher self-knowledge and conscious endorsement of both personal values and socialisation values - the ones they want their students to endorse (Bami et al., 2018) |
| Functional steps to promote academic and personal development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scaffolding to support academic learning and behaviour (Gunter et al., 2000; Skiba et al., 2016)) • Selection of instructional methods to facilitate learning (Kern et al., 2002) |
| Addressing barriers to participation and engagement of the student | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching and reinforcing social competence and emotional literacy (Main & Whatman, 2016; Boon 2014) • Improving student-teacher relationships ((Alderman & Green, 2011; Spilt, Koomen & Thijs, 2011; Liberante, 2012; Cornwall, 2015) • Addressing student faulty thinking about other student or teacher intent (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1974;, Glasser, 2001) • Teaching problem-solving (McCaslin & Good, 1992) • Teaching and facilitating participatory decision-making (Osler, 2000) • Expecting changes involving the classroom environment, not expecting just the targetted student to make changes (Orsati & |

| Criteria | Strategies |
|---|--|
| | Causton-Theoharis, 2013) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeking student opinions and co-evolution of classroom behaviour approaches, involving teacher and students, (Ginott, 1972; Leren, 2006) |
| Safe and supportive classroom environment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Well-defined and consistent expectations and procedures which are clearly communicated and implemented (Canter & Canter, 1976; Freiberg, 1983; Algozzine, 2007) • Anti-bullying programme (Bradshaw, 2015) • Dismissing any inconsistent or punitive practices (Bear, 2010) • Strategies for examining classroom environmental factors that may be contributing to inappropriate behaviours (Kounin, 1970; Lyons et al., 2014) • Addressing behaviour through the curriculum as an aspect of democracy, safety and health education (Skiba & Peterson, 2003) • Data-based decision-making (Anderson & Rodriguez, 2014) • School leadership which fosters inclusion (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010) |

Table 6: Criteria for inclusion of students with behaviour support needs

2.4 The web of interactions dominated by teacher beliefs

Students with behaviour difficulties need a supportive environment, one that fosters belonging and engagement. J.A. Fredericks, P. Blumenfeld & A. Paris. (2004) identify teacher support, classroom structure and positive relationships between the teacher and students as important for engagement. Whether or not a teacher can create these supportive conditions and the way that he/she teaches will depend on his/her beliefs (Guskey, 2002, p. 771; Palak & Walls, 2009, p. 419).

Teachers may hold strong beliefs about their students and what their students are capable of in terms of learning achievement possibilities (Milner, 2005, p. 770). These beliefs can become labels for features that are attributed to the student, which in turn may enhance or limit learning possibilities. A teacher may, for example, label a student as impulsive believing that they have a short concentration span, and this may restrict the teaching/learning strategies to a limited repertoire with little opportunity of extension to deeper knowledge activities as the existing belief suggests that the student would not be able to manage these. This has consequences for both student and teacher.

Teachers make choices about behaviour support strategies based upon the theories and models that resonate with their understanding of discipline, that is, as the technology of control, a

transactional process leading to self-regulation or a combination of the two. Their understanding of discipline and the ability to effectively implement new strategies is mediated by their knowledge and beliefs, leading to the belief that they hold about students with behaviour support needs. As J. Nespor (1987, p. 321) notes, while knowledge often changes, beliefs tend to remain static. If teachers believe that they do not have the skills to teach these students, that the reason for the display of inappropriate behaviours rests with the student or family and that a specialised setting is needed, and if their self-efficacy beliefs are challenged or threatened, then their ability to implement strategies that would provide on-going support for the inclusion of these students would be severely compromised.

D. Kagan (1992, p. 85) stressed the importance of teacher beliefs suggesting that beliefs may lie at the very heart of teaching, calling them personal knowledge. Teacher ability to implement innovative practices and to interpret new information and experiences is mediated by their beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 119), which in turn are formed by interactions with contexts, experiences, knowledge and colleagues. Levin et al. (2013, p. 213) concludes that numerous sources, including teaching experience, implicit teaching philosophy, personal values, stereotypes, and colleagues all influences teacher beliefs. Furthermore, teacher beliefs about students, teaching/learning and the school are also passed on by teachers to their students and the interaction between teachers, students and school organisation is just that, an interaction that moves in both directions. Teachers pass on their beliefs to students and students their beliefs to teachers, all within the context of the interaction between individual teacher beliefs, group beliefs and system beliefs.

Not all beliefs are, however, created equal. M. Rokeach (1976, quoted in Levin & Wadmany, 2006, p. 173) notes that some beliefs are more central and resistant to change than others. These are the beliefs which are developed early in life and those acquired in direct encounter with the object of that belief, therefore, teachers who have experienced challenges when working with students with behaviour support needs and believe that this is the student's fault, will find it difficult to achieve a shift to inclusive beliefs with respect to these students (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002, p.129). M. Pajares also observed that "human beings have differing beliefs of differing intensity and complex connections that determine their importance" and those of the highest importance are difficult to change (1992, p. 318).

What the teacher believes acts as a filter for his/her behaviour, assumptions about student

learning and behaviour and the nature of his/her interactions with others and can either promote or impede change (Prawat, 1992, p. 366). M. Wenzel (2017, p. 45) in his study of middle-school teachers, their beliefs and the effect of these on differentiated instruction identified two contrasting types of teacher beliefs. Teachers with pathognomonic beliefs (Jordan, Lindsay & Stanovich, 2003) are unwilling to accept the student's behaviours, have no open lines of communication, are unwilling to modify requirements, believe that their students are beyond their expertise and thus beyond their help resulting in referral of these students for help outside of their classrooms. Alternatively there are teachers who intervene. Jordan and Stanovich name these interventionist teachers, however as this term is used in this study to define a style of behaviour support, to avoid confusion the term intercessionist has been used instead in this study. In contrast intercessionist teachers accept the student and prepare to address his/her needs, are willing to adapt and modify, continually monitor the student, have good communication with students and believe that, as teachers, they are responsible for removing barriers in the classroom. For students with behaviour support needs to be successfully included, teacher beliefs need to be intercessionist rather than pathognomonic. It is therefore important to determine what maintains pathognomonic beliefs and what elements facilitate change to intercessionist beliefs.

Achieving a shift in thinking about students with behaviour support needs is a complex matter because the formation of teacher beliefs in itself is a complex process. As Kuhn (1970, p. 175) indicated, paradigms control the methods, questions, and standards of a community, as well as the broader constellation of its cherished beliefs, values, and techniques. These belief systems are complex as they include affect, not just knowledge, knowledge that may be incomplete or inaccurate. Emotions play a role in teacher beliefs by influencing the kinds of beliefs that are salient in a particular situation (Ajzen, 2011, p. 1116). Furthermore beliefs develop intuitively through day-to-day social interactions (Flores, 2001, p. 145) and contextual constraints can have an impact.

Schools maintain a "culture of caution" (Barth, 2007, p. 212) and teacher self-identity, important for their interactions with students and their ability to apply new strategies, benefits from constancy in the environments. Changing educational views is therefore a gradual process and multiple conceptions co-exist in the transitional stage (Levin & Wadmany, 2006, p. 174) with old beliefs co-existing with new ones. This can lead to inconsistencies in teacher behaviour, in turn impacting on how successfully changes are implemented. Additionally, this

compounding of beliefs has implications for teacher professional learning suggesting flexibility is necessary so that there is no need to relinquish old conceptual ideas initially, challenging taken-for-granted teacher beliefs about social reality and self (Pajares, 1992, p. 309). Instead the repertoire of ideological ideas needs to be extended and refined, re-organised and a coherence developed between the old and the new.

This transitional stage provides another opportunity for flaws in implementation of innovative practices as teachers attempt to make sense of the old and the new. This co-existence of multiple conceptions is another indication that reductionist approaches which focus on contrasting dimensions such as teacher-centred versus student-centred educational beliefs provide limited explanation of complex processes and why it is important to focus on multidimensional approaches (Valcke et al., 2010, p. 627).

A range of elements influences the development of beliefs. While teachers can, and do, learn from one another, they are also influenced by their own current and prior experiences at school, the context in which they live and work and professional learning. Globalisation encourages knowledge transfer, but teachers must understand what exactly they are borrowing, since strategies, theories and approaches are accompanied by belief substructures which have developed in contexts that may differ markedly from their own. Effective innovation and improvement has been linked to taking risks with new strategies (Lyng, 2005; Zinn, 2008) and teacher beliefs are a key factor in teacher risk taking.

If teachers are to implement innovative practices, there needs to be either a shift in beliefs which encourages a different view of why students with behaviour support needs behave the way they do, which is the approach taken by many professional learning providers, or, strategies that they implement have to have a positive effect on behaviour leading them to new beliefs (Guskey, 2002, p. 384). This, however, need not be a linear or exclusive process as teacher learning, as opposed to a professional learning opportunity, is not a singular event and is reciprocal in nature (Opfer, Pedder, & Lavicza, 2011, p. 451). It is on-going, based in the work of teaching, reflective, focussed on participation with practice opportunities and continuing collective collaboration (Doecke et al., 2008; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman & Yoon, 2001; Timperley, 2008; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007), it acknowledges and builds on prior experiences (Aizsila, 2010) and organisational structures need to be developed that support teacher professional learning (Black 2007; Seashore Louis,

Leithwood, Wahlstrom & Anderson, 2010). As K. J. Sanford, T. F. Hopper and L. Satt writing on pre-service teacher professional learning state, “We need to re-imagine how courses are conceptualized and connected, how learning is shared and how knowledge, not just “professional”, but embedded knowledge in authentic contexts of teaching and learning is understood, shaped and re-applied” (2014, p. 26)

Teacher learning, including how teachers access knowledge, is an important contextual factor that impacts on beliefs. C. Ernst and M. Rogers’ (2009, p. 318), for example, found teacher knowledge gained through professional development or experience in inclusive classrooms facilitated more positive beliefs towards inclusive practices. For any change to take place there must be access to knowledge (OECD, 2009; Doecke et al., 2008; Fullan, 2007) but how this occurs also has an impact.

Teachers maintain beliefs about students, their learning and their behaviour but they also have beliefs about themselves as teachers. Student behaviour can challenge teacher beliefs about their ability to manage students with behaviour support needs, which can impact on their concept of self-efficacy. The stronger sense of self-efficacy that a teacher possesses, the more likely it will be that he/she will be able to assimilate new theories and implement innovative practices (Stein and Wang, 1988, p. 174). It also has implications for student outcomes as self-efficacy is a part of the teacher’s professional self-concept and it is this self-concept that determines how the classroom is constructed as a social practice (Hansen, 2012, p. 95). Student engagement is influenced by the teacher’s own engagement and enthusiasm (Bryson & Hand, 2007, p. 360) and their effort, persistence and commitment (Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008, p. 177). These are unlikely to be present if the teacher perceives that they do not have the skills to work with students with behaviour support needs or that these students should not be in a regular class.

Teacher self-efficacy is also linked to professional learning. Knowledge can lead to the development of new skills and thus impact on teacher self-efficacy. Without opportunities to learn new skills, teacher belief in their efficacy suffers (Lambe & Bones, 2006, p. 525), which can leave them powerless to implement new practices, unwilling to take risks with new practices and thus maintain the status quo. This, in turn, impacts on student outcomes, as these will not improve if the teacher struggles with modifying existing strategies. This places

the students and teacher in a spiral of ineffective behaviours, which influence both student and teacher self-concept and self-efficacy.

Professional learning is just one contextual element that is important for the development of teacher beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 475). Contextual factors such as organisational conditions, the amount of change and the phenomenology of change, in particular the effect on teacher emotions, self-efficacy and teacher expectations related to educational change, are also important.

A. Hargreaves and D. Fink (2008, p. 694) identified the negative effects of overload in change, in the amount and pace of change. Attempts to implement multiple, sometimes even conflicting, agendas (Le Fevre, 2010, p. 57) can be overwhelming for teachers. Teachers tend to react in different ways to changing their practices: reluctantly, selectively, or not at all (Terhart, 2013, p. 491). When numerous different initiatives for professional learning and school reform occur simultaneously, the multiple goals for teacher learning can be at the expense of deep and coherent learning leaving teachers feeling vulnerable and uncertain. This is a very real issue for teachers in Latvia as the transition to democracy and democratic school processes has occurred at a fast pace and this change followed on from the change to Soviet educational structures after the initial period of democratic schooling, all within the space of one lifetime. Consistency not change supports teacher concepts about themselves and a challenge to their self-efficacy or self-concept can leave them confused and unsure. At such a point teachers are unlikely to implement new strategies with integrity and again flaws may appear which mitigate against change in teacher or student behaviour.

M. Fullan suggests that the reason behind the failure of educational reforms or changes is neglect of the phenomenology of change. Teachers often experience change differently than it was intended and while it can lead to improvements and be energising teachers may also experience anxiety, fear, loss and panic. "For better or for worse, change arouses emotions" (Fullan, 2001, p. 1). R. Heifetz and A. Linsky state that when it appears that teachers are resisting introduced change or reforms, they are actually resisting the loss that is allied with the change (2002, p. 12). The introduction of new approaches may not only challenge existing beliefs but also lead a teacher to consider their previous approach as wrong. Rejection of an approach that has long been in use, challenges teacher concepts of self-efficacy and arouses emotions. As Hargreaves notes "The emotional dimension of educational change is not a frill

but a fundamental of successful and sustainable school improvement and deserves increased attention” (2005, p. 293). The introduction of a new strategy or practice means the rejection, or at least modification, of an existing one. The angst that may occur with this process is another factor that may impact on the teacher’s ability to move towards inclusive beliefs or implement innovative practices.

There are further contextual factors which impact on teacher beliefs. National and educational system directions, such as those required for successful inclusion as opposed to integration, may clash with the current beliefs held by teachers. Teachers in NSW have had to move from beliefs and actions associated with segregation, to integration, to inclusion and currently to celebrating diversity, which is the inclusive approach applied to all settings, special and regular classes. At every change there has been a requirement for different thought patterns and different actions. Significant resources have been directed at each change, which include human resources, professional development, policies and support documents. Even with the significant support that has accompanied these changes, the volume of change can be overwhelming and leave teachers stagnating, unable to implement new strategies.

Other elements such as concepts of pedagogy, epistemological theories about teaching and learning, and changes in curricula interact with teacher knowledge of students with behaviour support needs. At times it is not the element itself but its interaction with other factors that maintains existing beliefs or leads to change. A departmental policy such as zero tolerance requires implementation in conjunction with existing policies, such as student wellbeing. While teachers can understand and agree or disagree with the foundation sentiments of each policy, the web of interaction between the two can leave teachers confused and questioning how these disparate approaches can be effectively implemented thus muddying the path to belief change and activation.

Education system approaches to vulnerable students such as those based on a medical as opposed to a social model can also impact on teacher beliefs and actions. The continuation of categorisation of students with behaviour support through medical labels can reinforce the teacher belief that these students need to be “fixed” (Slee, 1994, p. 149) which strengthens teachers’ pathognomonic beliefs and mitigates against inclusive classroom practices.

Another element that influences beliefs is the context in which teachers live and work. This includes not just the current culture and environment but also factors from the past. As Nespor (1987, p. 324) notes emotions associated with past events continue to resurface and intrude on current behaviours and beliefs.

Teacher beliefs can promote or hinder change, but they can also help teachers to understand their contexts. They provide teachers with a way of making sense of complex and confusing situations, “contexts and environments within which teachers work, and many of the problems they encounter, are ill defined and deeply entangled, and that beliefs are peculiarly suited for making sense of such contexts” (Nespor, 1987, p. 324).

Beliefs are not facts, rather, they are perceived as factual by the teacher and this suggests deeply ego-involving systems, which require complex and multifaceted approaches in order to achieve a shift and establish new behaviour support strategies. Any change in beliefs provides a challenge to teachers as once a belief is established it resists change (Woolfolk & Burke-Spero, 2005, p. 346) and these beliefs can lead teachers to persist in using ineffective practices. The reasons for this are complex and include cognitive bias, the tendency for people to engage with new information in a way that confirms their existing beliefs. As well there are psychological costs involved in acknowledging that long-held beliefs are wrong or create difficulties (Timperley & Robinson, 2001, p. 291). “Teachers are just as vulnerable as children to the loss of self-esteem, particularly if they experience an abiding sense of failure” (Scanlon & Barnes-Holmes, 2013, p. 376). Teacher beliefs about themselves as teachers, their role, skills and abilities, and effectiveness, are just as important as their beliefs about vulnerable students as this can impact on their capabilities in achieving positive outcomes for students with behaviour support needs. Teachers who do not believe that they can make a difference may end up by discounting challenging social, behavioural and academic student outcomes and moving instead to unnecessarily low goals for these students, which has implications not only for learning outcomes but also the level of engagement with learning that these students can develop. Furthermore, not only do individual teachers hold problematic beliefs, they can also exist collectively at a school or faculty level. Collective thought may have positive outcomes as N. Mercer notes, thinking needs to be “recognised as a collective as well as individual activity, ...which recognises the distinctive human capability for combining the power of individual brains so that we are able to achieve more collectively than we can do alone” (2016, p.15) but through the automatic mirroring of actions that takes

place in groups people become aligned in terms of goals and actions which can lead individual teachers to accept problematic beliefs through the influence of the group. This again demonstrates the complexity surrounding teacher thoughts and beliefs.

Teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and their behaviours and actions are interrelated, but this is not only in a cause and effect, linear interaction. Instead this is an intricate reciprocal process. New ways of behaving may lead teachers to new ways of thinking therefore consideration needs to be given to how innovative practices can be implemented which can achieve this goal. This requires consideration of existing beliefs, especially the locus of control in a classroom, and the use of strategies which can co-exist with this belief initially, as achieving a change in beliefs requires a process of transition when both the old and new belief may co-exist. There are, therefore, no right or wrong theories or models of behaviour support, only ones that may be right or wrong for a particular teacher, faculty or school. The element that is important, however, is the use of strategies that will lead to the teacher becoming a teacher who intervenes rather than pathognomonic: accepting the student and preparing to address his/her needs; willing to adapt and modify; continually monitoring the student; having good communication with students; and, believing that, as teachers, they are responsible for removing barriers to learning in the classroom. This means seeking out theories that provide for emotional and behavioural engagement with learning activities (Skinner & Belmont, 1993, p. 580). Without teacher behaviours that support these, the gap between the intention to re-engage learners and the actuality will remain, therefore, it is important to investigate the contextual elements that maintain pathognomonic beliefs and hinder the development of inclusive ones. The following table summarises factors from the research about teacher beliefs and their formation and identifies criteria, which in interaction with one another would help to shift teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs.

| Factors from the research literature | Evidence | Criteria for shifting teacher beliefs |
|--|---|---|
| Beliefs are formed through ongoing interactions (Fives & Buehel, 2012) | Negative interactions between the teacher and student reinforce existing beliefs and prevent the use of new behaviour support strategies as they are intended | Leadership and collegial support to establish positive relationships with students with behaviour support needs |
| Beliefs can become labels for students (Milner, 2005) | Teacher labels such as “disruptive” can have the same influence as medical labels and interfere with the | References to student behaviour using the vocabulary of communication rather than |

| Factors from the research literature | Evidence | Criteria for shifting teacher beliefs |
|---|--|---|
| | implementation of new strategies | emotive labels |
| Medical labelling of students can reinforce beliefs by implying that students need “fixing” (Slee, 2009) | Teachers may consider themselves unable to support such students and seek to refer them elsewhere. They may also expect new strategies to fail. | Avoidance of labelling in system and school documents and processes |
| Not all beliefs are equal, beliefs from early experiences and created through personal interactions tend to stay the same (Pajares, 1992) | Teacher experiences of disruptive behaviours in their class when they were students may continue to influence the way they support students with behaviour needs currently | Building teacher capacity needs to include strategies that help teachers establish positive reciprocal relationships in the classroom |
| Beliefs can promote or impede change (Pravat, 92; Jordan, Lindsay & Stanovich, 2003) | Pathognomonic beliefs promote the status quo : Teachers with these beliefs are unwilling to accept student behaviours, lack open communication, are unwilling to modify lessons and see these students as being beyond their expertise Beliefs which support the teacher intervening promote change: These teachers accept student behaviours as an expression of need, address these needs, adapt and modify, monitor interventions, have open communication and see the teacher’s role as removing barriers to learning | Ongoing individual professional learning plans implemented collaboratively with collegial and leadership support. Maintenance in the belief that teachers must intervene to provide behaviour support through collaborative learning communities or similar |
| Emotions influence the saliency of beliefs (Fullan, 2001; Warren & Hale, 2016) | How a teacher reacts to challenging behaviours will be influenced by the emotions that the teacher feels, reacting differently to the behaviours in different situations | Opportunities to acknowledge and discuss emotions and their role in decision-making as part of the transition process |
| Teachers can hold compounded beliefs during periods of transition (Gunstone, 1994) | Current beliefs may be difficult to give up and may be associated with a sense of loss, fear or panic | Transition processes must include opportunities for modification, reorganisation and refinement of old beliefs. Coherence needs to be developed between the old and new |
| Teacher beliefs impact on risk-taking and thus on the ability to employ new strategies (Lyng, 2005) | Teachers who are experiencing anxiety or other negative emotions are unlikely to take risks yet this is a prime factor in implementing innovative approaches | Transition planning with reduces the sense of risk |
| Teacher learning impacts on beliefs (Ernst & Rogers, 2008, Black, 2007)) | One-off or isolated professional learning experiences do not support deep learning of new strategies | Professional learning needs to be ongoing, reciprocal, focussed on participation and collaboration and needs organisational structures that support this approach |

| Factors from the research literature | Evidence | Criteria for shifting teacher beliefs |
|--|---|--|
| Student behaviour impacts on teacher self-efficacy beliefs (Ross & Bruce, 2007) | Teachers can hold varying self-efficacy beliefs and may be confident in implementing a new curricula but struggle with investing in new behaviour support strategies | Addressing self-efficacy beliefs needs to be part of the transition plan |
| An overload of change/reforms can impact teacher beliefs (Hargreaves, 2008) | While new policies, regulations and laws may aim to facilitate the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs. They will not succeed if teachers are subjected to change overload | Leadership teams need to manage the rate and amount of change in their schools |
| Teachers engage with new behaviours in ways that reinforce existing beliefs (Nespor, 1987) | Teachers may select only those aspects with which they feel comfortable when implementing innovative practices | Transition plans need to include support strategies for teachers to promote institutionalization rather than just implementation |

Table 7: Teacher beliefs and their implications for this study

2.5 The complexity of shifting beliefs

Synthesis of information from the literature on discipline and behaviour support, teacher beliefs and the Glonacal Heuristic and Complexity Theory indicates that reductionist and linear approaches are insufficient to explain complex classroom situations or provide insight into how shifts in teacher beliefs can be achieved. Teachers hold particular beliefs about discipline and behaviour support and suitable pedagogical practices. These influence which behaviour support strategies teachers can implement with integrity and how they view discipline in their classrooms. They may be placed in a situation where the education department or school expects a particular approach, which does not coincide with their beliefs about the locus of control in the classroom. Under such circumstances suggested strategies may be implemented partially and never become an integral part of the class routines leading to eventual disuse and no behaviour change. This reinforces the teacher's beliefs about the student, indeed perhaps all students with behaviour support needs, and leaves the student in a cycle of vulnerability. This study suggests that the theories/models need to be understood through the prism of teacher beliefs as they determine which strategies teachers are prepared to implement and whether the strategies are implemented with fidelity.

Teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and their behaviours and actions are interrelated, but this is not only in a cause and effect, linear interaction. Instead this is an intricate reciprocal process. New ways of behaving may lead teachers to new ways of

thinking therefore consideration needs to be given to how innovative practices can be implemented which can achieve this goal. This requires consideration of existing beliefs, especially the locus of control in a classroom, and the use of strategies which can co-exist with this belief initially, as achieving a change in beliefs requires a process of transition when both the old and new belief may co-exist. There are, therefore, no right or wrong theories or models of behaviour support, only ones that may be right or wrong for a particular teacher, faculty or school. The element that is important, however, is the use of strategies that will lead to the teacher becoming a teacher who intercedes: accepting the student and preparing to address his/her needs; willing to adapt and modify; continually monitoring the student; having good communication with students; and, believing that, as teachers, they are responsible for removing barriers to learning in the classroom, rather than pathognomonic in approach. This means seeking out theories that provide for emotional and behavioural engagement with learning activities (Skinner & Belmont, 1993, p. 580). Without teacher behaviours that support these, the gap between the intention to re-engage learners and the actuality will remain. It is, therefore, important to investigate the contextual elements that maintain pathognomonic beliefs and hinder the development of inclusive ones.

Changing teacher beliefs is a complex process and requires more than just a sharing of knowledge as beliefs are linked to teacher concepts of self-efficacy, which are constantly being reinforced or challenged by classroom interactions. Any innovative approach may challenge existing classroom strategies and teacher beliefs about the usefulness or correctness of existing strategies leaving the teacher struggling with their concept of their self-efficacy. Improvement or maintenance of positive beliefs about self-efficacy are not only important for teachers, but also for student outcomes. Student engagement is influenced by the teacher's own engagement and enthusiasm (Bryson & Hand, 2007, p. 360) and their effort, persistence and commitment (Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008, p. 177). These are unlikely to be present if the teacher perceives that they do not have the skills to work with students with behaviour support needs or that these students should not be in a regular class. Professional learning or development opportunities are designed to improve teacher knowledge, develop new skills and thus improve beliefs about their self-efficacy but this will only occur if such learning is on-going and accompanied by a support structure.

Chapter conclusions

This chapter established that:

- The discourse about discipline needs to be phrased in educational terms as opposed to management terms and needs to reflect a continuum not a dichotomy. As such indiscipline needs to be understood as a mistake or error in learning.
- This continuum includes student learning: social skills, emotional literacy, character education and an eclectic use of behaviour support theories based on teacher locus of control.
- Social justice principles must apply so students are not disadvantaged by membership of the category of behaviour support needs.
- Teacher/student interactions and conjoint making of meaning are central to providing behaviour support in the classroom. The understanding of discipline for a particular class needs to co-evolve through the interaction of the teacher and students each influenced by their own belief systems which manifests itself in the relationships within the classroom.
- An eclectic approach to the use of theories/models aligns with complex teacher beliefs and thus can provide for on-going support to students.
- Professional learning needs to acknowledge the phenomenology of change and incorporate consideration of emotions not just skills.
- A linear approach with a direct line between causes and effects does not explain student behaviour in complex and dynamic situations such as classrooms.

Contextual factors impact on teacher beliefs. These factors include broad social norms, such as the pressure in some states for zero tolerance, along with historical and political factors such as the brief for education being the maintenance of an authoritarian ideology and regime. Other contextual factors include: knowledge gained from pre-service and in-service professional learning; the amount and speed of change required by education authorities or schools; school policies and procedures; and, education department practices such as the way that students with behaviour support needs are identified and labelled. As Complexity Theory demonstrates, these factors are not linear but rather it is the interactions within and between them, which help determine what beliefs a teacher holds. The following chapters will examine how context shapes teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs.

Section two: The impact of contexts

Chapter Three

The broader context: The external web and teacher beliefs

3.0 The importance of context

To understand teacher beliefs it is important to explore the context of educational systems as this impinges on the way education systems, schools and teachers address issues of discipline and behaviour support. Any review of education systems, their processes and crucial strategic approaches, must consider each system within a context of history and the impact of global and local political, social and economic factors. Such consideration leads to the identification of elements that form webs of interaction that impact upon, support or act as a barrier to change at the school and classroom level, as schools are not closed systems. Consideration of context helps to ascertain when and under what circumstances education systems are responsive to new ideas from elsewhere and helps elucidate the formation of teacher beliefs. This chapter examines the influence of broad contexts including historical, political and economic ones, with system and local influences on teacher beliefs remaining for later chapters. It seeks to establish how the broad context influences teacher beliefs that lead to marginalisation or exclusion of students with behaviour support needs.

There are similarities between Latvia and NSW. There are parallels in shared values, the experience of being colonised or occupied, and the compliance with universal ideals such as the Salamanca Agreement and the rights of the child and, since Latvia's return to the status of an independent nation, the influence of capitalism and globalisation on the education system. Latvia and NSW share Western values based upon classical philosophy and rational thought, Roman law, separation of spiritual and worldly power and Western individualism. While there are shared Western values across both territories that have shaped modern institutions such as schools, how they function is also determined, in part, by their historical, social and cultural legacies. As J. Sprague noted "classroom talk takes place within a school bureaucracy, within an economic system, within a political system, within a culture, at a given moment in history" (1992, p. 17). Latvia has transitioned from a centralised planned economy and authoritarian government toward a free market economy and democratisation.

NSW has partially moved from a centralised education system to one reflecting the free market mantra that came with neoliberal thought. History and culture have determined how the transitions have taken place and impacted upon teacher beliefs.

A country such as Latvia which, relatively recently, has had its history re-written three times in the space of one lifespan: initial independence; Soviet occupation; and, regaining of independence, has experienced significant re-orientation of attitudes to the individual and the education system, all of which has required shifts in teacher beliefs and has effected teacher self-concept and self-esteem. The shifts required of teachers in NSW on the other hand, have occurred within a relatively stable political environment, albeit with some challenges brought about by the significant level of multiculturalism of Australian society. What do these contexts contribute to the formation of teacher beliefs, if anything, and how does this relate to the formation of the principles underlying teacher beliefs?

The largest education system in the southern hemisphere, the NSW state education system (Department of Education and Communities or DEC), is a substantial and complex one. Currently there are more than 740,000 students of whom 27% have a language background other than English, 5.5% are of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent and 2.0% are refugees. More than 76% of students with confirmed disability are enrolled in public schools: 90,000 students (12%) have a disability or additional needs such as a learning difficulties or behaviour disorders; 77% of students with disability, learning or behaviour difficulty are enrolled in regular schools. These students are accommodated in 2,200 schools, taught and supported by 95,000 teachers and other employees. (NSW, Department of Education and Communities, 2011).

In contrast in Latvia in the 2013/2014 school year, there were 10,865 students with disabilities enrolled in schools. Of these, 5,805 attended a special school and 5060 were enrolled in regular schools. Students with special needs made up 5.49% of the total school population (Ministry of Education and Science data).

It is obvious that the NSW system has the advantages of size and more funding which means more services and initiatives, more choice. However it also has disadvantages. Changing traditional ways of identifying, placing and teaching students with disabilities including behaviour support needs means changing teacher beliefs, something which is difficult to

achieve in a large and geographically dispersed school system. Latvia can be classified as a small state (Crossley, 2010, p. 424) and this has its own challenges. Latvia is an independent nation but as a small state, this statehood exists in a context of dependency, especially external economic dependence. Its institutions lack economies of scale and it faces tensions of national, regional and international nature, which results in opportunities but also challenges. Challenges include human resource limitations and a ‘brain drain’ when students choose to study, and perhaps remain, overseas. The small size of its public school sector could, however, be an opportunity, as distributing ideas and initiatives is easier across a smaller number of schools. For instance, there are 313 high schools currently and the aim is to reduce these to 130 by 2023 whereas NSW has 811 high schools. Membership of the European Union, while creating some challenges with respect to global directions such as inclusion in education, also helps Latvia, a country with a population of approximately 1,960,000, counteract some of the impact of being a small state.

3.1 School education in Latvia: mediated by nationhood, occupation and renewed independence

Schools, curricula and education that were distinctly Latvian commenced with the first period of independence from 1918 to 1940. Latvia gained independence initially in 1918 after a long period of being governed by Germans, Russians, Poles and Swedes. It turned to schooling, as many nations had previously, to help with identity creation and with the process of forming the state (Viķe-Freiburga, 2010, p. 12).

This was an interesting period in Latvia’s history when pluralistic democracy was actively pursued. In education the state promoted the establishment of schools for ethnic minorities, with teaching in their native language. All types of schools were maintained by municipal or state authorities and school boards were established which co-ordinated economic matters with the district and pedagogical matters with the Ministry of Education. School inspectors were introduced. Overall, in the inter-war period (1918–1940) a modern, unified system of education developed in Latvia, consisting of primary education, secondary education, specialist secondary education, vocational education and higher education. The minority education system was one of the most advanced in Europe. The overall rate for illiteracy was 11% in 1935, making Latvia one of the most literate nations in Europe (Kestere, 2005, p. 183).

The Progressive Education (Reformpedagogy) movement of Europe was reflected in Latvia and Latvian education synthesised the humanistic paradigm with national romanticism. The teacher's professional mastery was linked to socio-emotional aspects and empathy, with the aim of carefully promoting the child's overall growth (Belousa & Uzulina, 2010, p. 84). Teacher beliefs and practices were based on child-centred schooling and an acceptance of some level of diversity.

Some changes to the system were evident after the 1931 economic crisis and from 1934 when an authoritarian regime under Karlis Ulmanis was established in Latvia. Instead of pursuing pluralism, the idea of unity, national spirit and the concept of a leader (vadonis), as opposed to a Prime Minister, were strengthened (Kļoķe & Saleniece, 2015, p. 48). School autonomy ceased and regulation was enhanced. Methods that encouraged participation were abandoned in favour of more traditional approaches, as they were elsewhere in Europe (Abens, 2015, p. 170).

Vīķe-Freiberga (2010, p. 35) notes that from 1934 Latvian culture and education featured discourses on the balance between Latvianness and internationalism along with a stance based on Marxist populism and authoritarianism, which was critical of some aspects of democracy. The main function of education became upholding the leading socio-political ideology and its chief focus was on upbringing at schools, a key feature of Latvian pedagogy.

It must be noted though, that a positive image of Ulmanis has stayed in the minds of many citizens. The events after 1940 led to his period of dictatorship becoming a myth about the good times under a benign dictatorship. People were attracted to his nationalism "Latvia for the Latvians", although this was accompanied by the slogan "the Latvian sun shines equally on everyone" and there was stability and relative prosperity. This led, however, to a form of delusional positivism that made Latvians vulnerable to events post 1940.

Sensing that war was imminent, Latvia, along with the other Baltic countries, announced neutrality in 1938 but this was impossible to maintain. What followed was a period of Soviet occupation (1940-1941) that focussed on sovietisation where local leaders were replaced by loyal Soviet leaders and the Soviet legal, military and public systems were introduced. Centralisation continued but was now linked to the Soviet system with all educational directions coming from Moscow. The education system was totally controlled so that both teachers and students were unable to express opinions that differed from the official policy.

Teachers were considered potentially dangerous and were often deported or fired.

This was followed by a period of Nazi occupation (1941-1944) when Hitler's ideology was promoted and the cultural policy was to make the local population more Germanic. Soviet education reforms were eliminated and religious instruction was brought back. This was followed by another period of Soviet occupation (1940-1990) leading many intellectuals, including pedagogues and cultural and religious leaders to flee to the West.

Incorporation into the USSR meant a re-orientation of education in Latvia to reflect soviet ideological and political principles. Teachers were required to teach using Bolshevik strategies "good-heartedness was not fitting a Bolshevik" (Žukovs, 2013, p. 203). The approach to teaching and upbringing was now based on authoritarianism and destructive emotions. Discipline was maintained in the classroom through threats, anger and disdain. The teacher-centred approach and authoritarian relationships dominated in the educational process and this continued for 50 years, inculcating a totalitarian way of educational thinking which clashed with the views of students and teaching within a democratic system. As has been established, long held beliefs and those formed early on in life are the most resistant to shifts and teachers educated within the Soviet system may find the teacher-centred and authoritarian expectations difficult to shift.

The existing infrastructure and educational traditions were used by the new power for its own purposes as the totalitarian regime strove to delete any memory of an independent Latvian state. This led to mass deportations and repression of people who retained this memory, such as educational managers and inspectors. The majority of teachers, approximately 6000, could no longer teach and were replaced by a new generation of teachers trained to implement a Soviet upbringing. This led to teacher shortages, especially as 2666 teachers and 191 higher education instructors had fled to the West. Teachers were imported from elsewhere in the USSR. In 1940 teacher institutes were liquidated and replaced by pedagogical institutes, but these offered only secondary school training as they could not meet the demand for overall training.

Teacher institutions, based on a unified Soviet plan, offered two year courses but as there was a shortage of teachers, pedagogy classes were opened in Latvian secondary schools in 1945 to prepare teachers for pre-schools and primary schools. This approach negates the importance of initial teacher professional learning. The teacher shortage did not improve when general

secondary education was introduced in the 1960s. A statement from the Latvian SSR Minister of Education stated that:

“ The most effective measure would be such: regions choose the most appropriate candidates from their secondary school graduates...and command them to study at the pedagogical institute” (Žukovs, 2013, p. 204).

Teachers form many of their beliefs about pedagogy and student support during their initial periods of training along with beliefs about their self-efficacy (Christophersen, Elstad, Turmo, & Solhaug, 2016, p. 243). This period of Soviet education, including a state designed curriculum forwarded from Moscow, did little to convince teachers of their self-efficacy.

The educational spotlight now was on politically dogmatic instruction, work education and moral education and, as J. Anspaks (2003, p. 376) argues, led to destruction of the education system of the first period of independence period, eradicating its pedagogical ideals. Teachers remaining from that period, who still were employed in the Soviet era, could not share their memories and strategies. These ideals no longer formed any part of teacher education, which now centred on behaviourist educational theory (Elliott, 2002, p. 283) and the teacher role was that of manager of the teaching/learning process following normative prescriptions. The form of communication between the teacher and students was linear and was based on an authoritarian teaching paradigm, which allowed for the use of negative and destructive emotions. As V. Viķe-Freiberga noted everything was black and white. Everything that was Russian was correct and everything from elsewhere was chauvinistic, bourgeois, nationalistic and counter-revolutionary. Teachers had to learn, teach and publically commit to a new history, one that coincided with Soviet ideals (2010, p. 51-54) not with facts.

For many, the West and the period of Latvian independence became a sort of Nirvana, the incarnation of the nation. As G. Lascombe notes “Lacking other political traditions national leaders often modelled their ideas and actions of those of the interwar period” (1997, p. 309). These factors, Soviet objectives and a view of past independence as the ideal, have impacted on the direction of education and teacher skills and attitudes in the post-Soviet era and need to be considered when looking to Western strategies to support shifts in beliefs by teachers in Latvia. The Soviet system relegated the role of the teacher to that of transmitter of an officially sanctioned curriculum, which had repercussions for the teaching/learning process and teacher self-esteem. In general the Soviet regime was one of continuous social

antagonism: workers against the bourgeoisie; capitalism versus socialism, again setting up a social environment almost diametrically opposed to the beliefs espoused in Western systems. This on-going social antagonism and de-professionalisation of the role of teachers, and diminishment of their agency, had an impact on teacher self-efficacy beliefs both then and now.

With the regaining of independence in 1990, the educational system and the nature of teaching had to change once again. The education system had to become both democratic and Latvian as opposed to autocratic and Russian in nature, style and organisation. The normative paradigm gave way to the humanistic, where emotional literacy stood alongside skills and knowledge and became student-centred again as it had been during the initial period of independence. Learning was no longer described as an action but a transaction, which incorporated emotional and intellectual synthesis (Belousa & Uzulina, 2010, p. 92). This required a different way of preparing teachers, professional learning to support the development of new skills and attitudes and an education Ministry and administrators who were capable of delivering a new system of school education and embedding democratic principles across teachers, students and the school community. Teachers and students needed to be prepared for freedom and democratic schooling and this required other plans and structures than the preparation needed for being dominated and occupied. At the same time joining the EU meant that the Ministry had to keep pace with globally accepted educational thinking and practices, such as inclusion, with which democratic countries enjoying stability still struggled. The methods chosen by the Ministry were those of swift change but unfortunately not supported by any obvious planned transition, leaving teachers and schools to make decisions without any real background, learning or skills in doing this, again impacting upon teacher beliefs about the new requirements and their self-efficacy.

Like Australia, education in the Latvian post-socialist era has been influenced by neoliberalism. There is, however, no pure form of neoliberalism but rather, as N. Brenner and N. Theodore state, neoliberalism is expressed through contextually specific strategies (2005, p. 102). M. Hilgers states that there is a distinction between theoretical and practical neoliberalism and practical neoliberalism is influenced by historical, social and economic factors (2012, p. 80). Latvia's determination to reduce Soviet influence and the dominance of the Russian minority acted as a political justification for the absence of traditional welfare provisions placing it within a neoliberal orientation as economic justice, opposed to social justice, is a key feature of neoliberalism. Linked to this was its emphasis on education,

especially the expansion of tertiary education, which was politically motivated as education provides a way of building national identity. What stands out in the Baltics is the dependence on foreign capital and innovation and perhaps for this reason as D. Bohle and B. Greskovits (2007, p. 462) suggest, the Baltic States experienced the most radical forms of neoliberal marketisation. Ferge even suggests that in the transition countries, there is 'a higher degree of compliance with the new (neoliberal) ideology than in the developed democracies of Western Europe' (1997, p. 32).

Latvia's history, social and economic contexts have an ongoing influence on schooling and teacher beliefs. Initially the German nobility influenced and often controlled what occurred in Latvia until WW1. The education system of the newly established republic in 1918 paid homage to the German system and educational thought. A far greater influence currently is the Soviet legacy. As E. Krull and K. Trasberg state when discussing Estonian education

“the Estonian educators’ understanding of principles, content and organization of general education was, and still is, influenced by a Soviet legacy... almost fifty years of Soviet rule and its accompanying ideological totalitarianism caused serious biases in Estonian educational policy and research” (2006, p. 15).

The same can be said of Latvian education. It is not surprising that Latvia looked to the West after the totalitarian and centralised regime of the Soviets, but direct borrowing is unlikely to work without some hybridisation to meet local needs. Witness the current resistance by some Latvian teachers to authoritative approaches to behaviour support possibly because it reminds teachers of the authoritarian ones of the soviet era.

Then there is the problem of inculcation of soviet ideology, the idea of schooling to produce the ideal soviet citizen, one committed to the common good and to collectivism. The state determined the curriculum to meet these outcomes. The ideology behind most behaviour support theories from the West is in opposition to this. It is built on concepts of the individual around whom the education system is built. While not all teachers necessarily committed to soviet ideology, indoctrination does occur and is difficult to change. Latvian teachers have had to make many shifts in practice from periods of independence to occupation and back to independence and shards remain from the past. At times strategies from the West such as collaboration and collegiality in teacher professional learning may have different overtones for teachers in Latvia and bring forth memories of collectivism. Teacher beliefs, especially

those that have been held for a long time, are very difficult to shift.

Finally, there is the problem of expertise, or rather the lack of it. Krull and Trasberg (2006) discuss Estonia as a transition state, moving from soviet to democratic structures and processes. Currently Latvia has the appearance of still being in a transition phase as it struggles to incorporate global directions such as inclusion. The Ministry of Education and Science and administrators, based on their personal beliefs rather than research, often make educational decisions in Latvia. Initiatives are habitually based on uncritical acceptance and little attempt at hybridisation, which leads to poor implementation or failure of such initiatives. This leaves teachers in the belief that such initiatives are unrealistic and that they do not provide the answer to the issues of concern for them and that the Ministry and administrators are out of touch. The long-term consequence of such beliefs is rebuffing of top-down approaches to change. Hybridisation means that the Ministry (or department, school, teacher considering changes in their classroom) need to consider the rhetoric of the borrowed policy or model as opposed to the reality; consider how the policy/model emerged and what problems it was intended that it would solve; identify who are the winners and losers of implementing this policy/model; and, consider the broader effects of the policy/model (Diem, Young, Welton, Cumings Mansfield, & Lee, 2014, p. 1083).

3.2 Using the NSW experience as counterpoint

An element that deserves closer consideration is that of the impact of political and economic stability as opposed to the instability experienced by Latvia in order to identify differences that could help explain the decisions taken and the beliefs behind these. A cultural revolution took place in NSW between 1967-1974. Post-war Australia was seeking social and educational reforms. Neo-progressive or neo-Marxist ideas appeared in education which led to a spread of school based curricula, activity learning and child-centred teaching. From this point on neo-progressive theories have battled with those of liberal humanism, a social justice and a vocational approach in determining directions for education in NSW schools. As a result, in the late 1970s, DEC statements in documents about the aims of education become unclear. This, in part, also explains why the DEC is constantly dealing with dichotomies.

In NSW during the 1960s and 1970s the quest continued for greater freedom and openness in education. Henry Schoenheimer, education correspondent for *The Australian*, 1965-1975, believed that it was time to question everything: structures, institutions and beliefs. Public

support for expenditure on education reflected the economic growth and the relatively high levels of employment that followed the war years. Security in the political arena and employment opportunities, along with the influence of the progressive education movement, meant that changes were made in schools, which were opened up to parents and the community. Teachers had to learn to move from the self-protective autonomy of the closed classroom door to collaboration and team teaching and they were helped through this process with policy documents and professional learning opportunities. Parents and carers have also been offered further learning opportunities through the Parents and Citizens (P&C) association. While not all teachers in NSW may experience a shift in beliefs and welcome collaboration and team teaching, they have been supported to do so. The opportunity for this to happen has not been available to Latvian teachers. Instead reforms have been hurried, the implementation of reforms at times has been unclear to teachers and the community and very little guidance has been provided. The NSW experience reveals implications on two levels. While it is not possible to control political and economic stability, the impact of any instability on teacher beliefs needs to be taken into account at the level of educational borrowing and needs to be reflected in the local hybridisation of borrowed policies or strategies. Secondly planned reforms, including the introduction of innovative practices, need to consider the impact of these teacher beliefs and support shifts in beliefs with transition plans, not just statements.

A number of interest groups developed in NSW and by the 1980s these interest groups, based on feminism, gender, culture or ethnicity, were seeking in education acceptance of, at times, conflicting ideas. This was accompanied by high youth unemployment (as opposed to adult employment), a 73% increase in sole parenting and a decline in unskilled jobs (Barcan, 2010, 9). These factors impacted upon directions in education and the quality of education. There was a drift to private schools. In the 1980s a shortage of adolescents with technical skills, a booming economy and massive immigration saw a growing demand for vocational education but also the educational slogan “back to basics” appeared. There was a concern that neo-progressive approaches had led to a decline in literacy and numeracy. Neoliberalism began to influence public policy, including education, and it has continued to do so into the twenty-first century. It started as part of the second cultural revolution of the 1980s that accompanied economic growth and a globally oriented economy. The approach to discipline reflected these changes moving from authoritarian to child-centred to authoritative but often included mixed strategies from various theories, such as discipline as control as opposed to transformative

self-regulatory discipline which continue to compete as a result of global “travelling policies” encountering local policies.

Neoliberalism, which also reached Latvia in the 1990s, promotes privatisation of public resources and functions, deregulation of markets, and liberalisation of trade. It favours individual competition, accountability, management and efficiency (Acton & Glasgow, 2015, p. 107). It is driven by an economic justice, rather than social justice paradigm, which reduces the state to regulation as its main instrument (Avlijaš, 2015, p. 10). Interestingly, in Australia the discussion is centred on economic rationalism rather than use of the term neoliberalism.

An important element of neoliberalism was economising by cutting back the welfare dimension of the state (Mladenov, 2015, p. 446). This coincided in NSW with a period of thought that promoted normalisation for students with disabilities (Schiefelbusch, 1987), a belief that these students should be able to attend their local schools with their peers and eventually this led to a focus on inclusive schooling. Regardless of the aetiology, the era of integration of students with disabilities, and later inclusion, was firmly underway. Teachers had to make a shift in beliefs with respect to students with behavioural issues: if they continued to regard students as the source of the problem, integration and later, inclusion would be doomed to a half-hearted implementation without commitment. To help teachers make this shift, DEC employed additional resources, policies and professional learning. The inclusion debate was re-focussed on diversity, engagement and participation regardless of the setting and DEC began to celebrate diversity rather than focus on inclusion. The NSW move from segregation to celebrating diversity through the process of inclusion again demonstrates the importance of hybridisation. The DEC neither rejected concepts of inclusion totally nor special settings. Instead it chose to borrow from inclusion and apply principles of social inclusion to all settings, a process that had meaning for the NSW context.

From this brief comparison it would seem that political stability is a central factor to facilitating shifts in teacher beliefs as it provides the environment for a planned, supported and orderly transition from one policy to another. On the other hand changes in economic growth can have a deleterious effect on curricula and services available to students with additional needs. In the hunt for economic gain, a technical/managerial approach to schools as opposed to a participative/professional one (Angus, 1994) has resulted in de-professionalisation of teachers, the limiting of teacher agency and the de facto exclusion of students with behaviour support needs with its concomitant affect on teacher beliefs. This

suggests that elements which support growth in teacher agency such as professional learning based on a collegial school-based approach are crucial to counteract the outcome of the managerial approach.

As the previous chapter demonstrated, the construction of the concept of discipline varies and context contributes to these variations. In NSW discipline as control has featured since the convict era, as has segregation. While NSW was the first Australian state to implement neoliberalism, which then led to schools being managed in the same way as businesses, it did not accept decentralisation, a key neoliberal feature, wholeheartedly. Instead NSW has a hybridised approach where it maintains many features of a centralised system. This has meant that control over school discipline and major education initiatives rests with the DEC not its schools. Principals must follow central policies and local school discipline codes must reflect the *Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy* (2006, 2016). This means that state policies are an exercise of power and they have direct influence on schools and teachers. They are distributed through multiple layers such as the centralised structure of state, regional and district office and through agencies such as principals' networks, which all interact. These webs of influence contribute to how well a policy is understood and how it is implemented. While the intention is to funnel information to teachers through their principals to ensure the message of the policy is clearly comprehended and implementation is consistent, other conditions and layers such as media reports, community reactions, teacher ideology, local issues, response from the teacher union and others, all impact on the actual influence of the policy and contribute to fault lines which can lead to flaws in implementation. With so many variables at play, teacher beliefs about the needs, rights and responsibilities of students with behaviour support issues are the determining factor in the incorporation of students with behaviour support needs and, unsurprisingly, in a state as regulated as NSW, beliefs about discipline as control remain dominant.

The issues arising from the NSW's system highlight the importance of developing plans and structures which promote the concept of a continuum rather than disparate elements which are patched together without consideration of the bigger picture. A focus on student welfare in NSW began in the 1980s and has developed alongside existing views of discipline as control. *The Student Wellbeing Framework*, released in 2016, encourages student engagement and connection, the focus is on emotional, social, cognitive, physical and spiritual wellbeing and amongst the suggested approaches is the provision of choice as it "supports self-regulation, self-discipline and achievement" (2016, p. 3). This reflects J. Ozga's statement that

“Education is the favoured site for the development of self-regulation and responsibility” (2003, p. 6). This focus on self-discipline and self-regulation in education is a global direction that has become a “travelling policy” (Ozga, 2003, 3) which many governments have chosen to commit to, including NSW. This means that shared features of the “travelling policy” eventually encounter existing policy. The NSW dichotomy between discipline as control and transactional discipline leading to self-discipline is an example of this. It is clear that the existing policy of control remains important in NSW as there is no choice when it comes to serious discipline offences, when control measures such as zero tolerance apply above others, such as student wellbeing. The meeting between the existing policy and the “travelling policy” requires compounding of teacher beliefs and an understanding that both approaches can contribute to discipline but it can also lead to flaws in implementation of strategies that are linked specifically to one or other of the approaches.

The DEC uses policies to frame new directions or reinforce existing attitudes. Policies provide guidance for schools and teachers but at times teachers are faced by dichotomies that are difficult to resolve and which lead to disconnection. While each policy is clear within itself, it is the combination of policies that can evoke confusion and that allows for flaws to develop where, in an attempt to implement documents which have links that have not been clearly specified, the school and teacher end up implementing a diluted version of what was intended where neither policy is completely implemented as projected.

The NSW experience also demonstrates the various elements based in a specific context which impact beliefs, actions and outcomes, not just as single elements, but also as a part of webs of influence. Webs of external elements, for the purposes of this study referred to as Web 1, interact with DEC departmental elements (Web 4), and school elements (Web 3). External factors such as global directions for inclusion in education, national and state anti-discrimination laws and government use of league tables for defining effectiveness of schools work together to produce a web of influence, itself composed of contradictory elements. While no single definition of inclusive education is operational worldwide, the need for social inclusion is broadly accepted. This places a demand on schools and teachers to accept, engage with and maintain students with behaviour support needs in their classes rather than to seek their placement elsewhere. Government anti-discrimination laws endorse this direction. Into this mix is added, however, government support for the use of league tables based on student results in national testing in literacy and numeracy, as a measure of how well teachers teach and schools function. Students with behaviour support needs have issues associated with

learning and require support in that area as well. These are rarely the students who do well in basic skills tests and therefore not the students who will contribute to a positive view of student outcomes as per the national testing regime. This places schools in the position of needing to include all students, but in order to maintain a valued place on the league table, preferring that these students are not involved. The external web also has elements from the media, which support the anti-discrimination direction for students with disabilities yet less so for students with behaviour support needs.

This web of external elements, which already contains conflict, interacts with the DEC web. The DEC must reflect government policy and does so with its own procedures. As noted earlier, DEC policies may present conflicting, or difficult to align views. Similarly their procedures based on zero tolerance of serious or violent acts and insistence on use of suspension and exclusion create further conflict as they discriminate against students with behaviour support needs and remove them from participation in learning (Rausch & Skiba, 2005, p. 6) and social engagement, the very elements that the *Student Wellbeing Policy* is promoting. As well, contextual elements specific to NSW such as the centralised education system favouring a hierarchical structure, the history of labelling students with disabilities and practising segregation and the replication of historical elements of English schooling, such as the continued favouring of discipline as control, all contribute to the departmental web and the influence of that web. These webs do not just intersect; they interact. The DEC's insistence on suspension and exclusion is part of a feedback loop with the web of external factors. Media reports are influenced by the DEC stress on safe schools, which is framed in terms of the necessity for suspension and exclusion. Media reports impact on parents and school communities. Community concerns are also government concerns, therefore government policies are often aimed at meeting these. League tables may have developed out of neoliberalism's managerial and empirical approach to schools, but they are also maintained by community opinions.

This block of interacting elements becomes an integral part in the formation of teacher beliefs, beliefs that may be reinforced by the attitude of colleagues and the school community which encourage teachers to maintain existing beliefs about the inappropriateness of having these students in the class.

These two webs then interact with the web at the school level. This web consists of school level policies and codes, school organisation and procedures, the leadership team, the

approach to students with behaviour support needs (punitive, tolerant, engaging), the school's acceptance of, and reaction to, diversity, the approach to pedagogy.

In combination all of these webs interact with the web of teacher personal factors such as their attitude to pedagogy, their beliefs about the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs, their skills, prior experience, memories of their schooling, level of comfort or discomfort when working with these students and so on. While these factors will be explored in more detail in the chapters on adapting behaviour support strategies and local influence, it is clear that there is no single, linear cause and effect process at work here with respect to context. Influence is reciprocal, schools are nested or in a hierarchical structure where the school is also a part of the DEC which in turn is part of the State government organisation and do not stand alone. Layers of influence come from a hierarchical structure of global, national and local influences but also, through feedback and reciprocity, influence is multi-directional. DEC procedures impact on the web of external elements, teacher choices of behaviour support strategies and outcomes and the associated parental and DEC support or rejection of these approaches influences school and Departmental webs. These interacting contextual webs are a crucial element in the creation of teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and the resulting actions they take.

This overview provides an indication of the difficulties faced by teachers in Latvia as they have had to move from one set of ideals and system to another and, using problems demonstrated through the DEC approach to discipline, how these difficulties can be multiplied by the system itself. The rotating door approach in Latvia of what is the purpose of schooling, the teacher's role and what students should learn forms part of the external web of influence and every change in the elements which make up this web can lead to flaws in implementation of laws and regulations. While many young teachers have only experienced education after renewed independence, many teachers were educated within the Soviet system. Fifty percent of the respondents to the survey, for example, indicated that they had been teaching for more than twenty-five years. There were challenges to their self-concept as the role of teacher changed, this impacted on their views on their own self-efficacy as teachers which in turn has an impact on how they work within their classroom. Each change provides examples of where flaws could appear in implementing innovative practices. Requiring a teacher to move from a teacher-centred to student-centred approach requires changes to assumptions, beliefs and attitudes and requires ways of behaving, that may not be completely understood by the teacher, or perhaps even accepted. Teachers may retreat to the familiar and

may manage classes in the same way that their teachers managed their class. When the demand for change is so significant that it impacts on the teachers beliefs, skills and actions, then it may be easier to retreat to what is known and try to keep using familiar strategies and approaches. As Daniela (2009, p. 2) notes some teachers in Latvia are not prepared to accept the demands of the new era and continue to work as they always did, and other teachers are moving towards approaches but are still not ready to work with students to promote self-regulated learning. There remain the teachers who see their role as teaching a subject not students and these teachers can be found in most education systems.

The web of external influences interacts with the personal web of each teacher. Although it is tempting to think of history as a linear process, Ho (1997, cited in Nóvoa & Yariv Mashal, 2003, p. 434) suggested that the “here and now, contains in its essence a myriad of there and thens”. It is important to explore how histories and times are connected or disconnected (Nóvoa & Yariv Mashal, 2003).

The present belief that Latvian teachers hold about students with behaviour support issues is not only a process of considering their experiences during the initial period of independence and the soviet era as past experiences. These experiences are not only in the past. They project into the present and impact on teacher expectations. There was a disconnection between teacher experiences during the first independence and what happened in Soviet education. Similarly there is a disconnection between teacher understanding of discipline and behaviour support in Soviet schooling and the way that teachers are attempting to understand and cope with student behaviour now. These disconnections can lead to flaws when attempting to introduce new practices as teachers also have different “presents” in which they operate. Elements from the past keep re-appearing in the personal web along with ones such as the pressure, self-imposed or external, that teachers may feel to successfully manage student behaviours along with their own level of emotional literacy.

There is the national present, independent Latvia reforming its education system but there is also the global Latvia where the present includes EU requirements and also benefits from EU funding. Finally there is the teacher’s own present, the local situation in which he/she teaches, their prior experiences and their expectations, where cultural practices impact on how problems such as student misbehaviour are defined as well as what possibilities are acceptable as solutions and innovations. Interaction occurs between webs emanating from the global, national and local domains and it is this interaction that leads to the decisions that teachers

make about which behaviour support strategies will support access to, and achievement in, student learning. It is not that the Soviet school system focussed on maintaining the dominant ideology or managed student behaviour through constraints alone which has led to teachers struggling with student behaviour now. It is the elements that teachers remember or which reappear from that period, interacting with other webs of influence. The Soviet system specified what had to be taught but teachers determined how it would be taught. It is interesting that when Latvian teachers, who were a part of the VISC project, were asked to identify the type of behaviour support strategies that they preferred, they focussed on those strategies which were about building relationships with their students, something that they could do even in the Soviet era. This was a connection which was maintained and which can be built upon to introduce new strategies.

The problem that Latvian teachers face in including students with behaviour support needs in their classes is attached to their present situation, but it also possesses a history.

3.3 Pedagogy: Latvia and NSW

The concept of pedagogy is another element of the external web of influence that impacts on how teachers think about students with behaviours support needs. The divergence between Anglo-American concepts of pedagogy and those of Continental Europe is significant and as a contextual element it impacts on teacher beliefs and actions. Pedagogical science is frequently called pedagogy and, in Western education for a long time it was equated with what would best be called didactics, instructional theories. This leads to a marked difference between the concept of pedagogy as it is understood in Latvia and Australia. In Australia pedagogy is often described as the art, craft or science of teaching, which can lead to a disconnection of theory and practice. In Latvia it equates to bringing up a young person, not merely instructional theories. Pedagogy is seen as a way of developing a student's abilities rather than providing for knowledge transfer as the aim. It is central to physical and mental development of the learner, the establishment of attitudes, views judgements, values and behaviours (Žogla, 2017). Latvian pedagogy is focussed on a teacher's understanding of human development and his/her ability to select the tools that would best meet the diverse needs of learners within a specific situation. In NSW the concept of pedagogy, a term that is rarely used amongst teachers, intermingles with other elements of the external web to place the emphasis of schooling onto structure and processes. Pedagogy is about instruction, school discipline is about control and there are procedures at the school level to support this and

teacher and school performance is to be judged against normative national tests.

There are two historical pedagogical traditions. One follows on from ancient Greek society where there was a distinction between the activities of pedagogues (*paidagōgus*) and subject teachers (*didaskalos*). Pedagogues were the moral guides who taught children how to behave, teachers taught them their letters and lacked the close contact that pedagogues had with their students (Hamilton, 1999, p. 138).

In continental Europe concern with the process and content of teaching and instruction led to the development of didactics. Comenius in *The Great Didactic*, available in Czech in 1648 and English in 1896, elucidated rules for teaching and set out the basic principles which were reinforced by Herbart who saw teaching as the core element of education (Gundem, 1992, p. 62).

A comparatively new intellectual tradition for Latvia is that of Educational Sciences. B. Simon (1981, p. 139) argues that in Britain there was less emphasis on intellectual growth and more on containment. Alexander (2004, p. 11) agrees, noting that pedagogy as the process of teaching, remained in a subservient position due to the prominence of curriculum, a curriculum that had at its centre delivering content and testing to see whether it had been mastered. This starkly demonstrates the difference between pedagogy as it is understood in continental Europe and in England, the USA and Australia. Continental Europe had pedagogy and didactics. Elsewhere didactics appeared to equate to pedagogy.

Latvia followed German traditions of pedagogy, which relied on a broad understanding of the role of pedagogy. As stated in the briefing paper *Pedagogy – a holistic, personal approach to work with children and young people, across services: European models for practice, training, education and qualification*, in Europe “pedagogy is about bringing up children, it is ‘education’ in the broadest sense of that word” (Petrie et al., 2009, p. 3). Up-bringing is the crucial factor. The learner, regardless of age, is understood to be a social being who is connected to others but maintains his/her own individual features and teachers need to work with all of these features: the body, mind, feelings, spirit, creativity and behaviour (Žogla, 2017). T. Gabriel (cited in Petrie, 2013, p. 4) translated *Erziehung* not as upbringing but as personal, moral and social education.

Pedagogy is thus much broader than the art, craft or science of teaching. It is a means of relaying cultural and social norms. This is a very real distinction that needs to be considered with “travelling policies”. While both the NSW and Latvian education systems would state that their aim is students reaching self-actualisation, in NSW this equates to control through a national curriculum, regular external standardised testing to demonstrate mastery in Literacy and Numeracy and an approach to student diversity through the prism of psychometric testing. It is a reductionist approach to understanding the teaching/learning process. This may go some way in explaining the focus on discipline as control.

The following comments on pedagogy from the DEC reinforce that it is about instruction and teaching and that there is no direct link to upbringing. In a speech on *21st Century Teaching and Learning*, Michelle Bruniges, the then Secretary of the Department of Education stated:

“Pedagogy in the 21st century has to put the emphasis on the 4Cs – collaboration, critical thinking, creativity and communication...Our challenge as educators is to ensure quality pedagogy works within the world of contemporary students and to keep upskilling our teachers to meet these needs...With the avalanche of information available online, the teacher is now more the facilitator of learning than the holder of all knowledge...The teacher poses the questions, provides the tools and research methods, as well as delivering subject content and guidance for problem-solving in a collaborative environment. It is an evolution in teaching practice that offers exciting possibilities” (March 11, 2015).

This diversity in approach to pedagogy, in turn, has implications for teacher beliefs and their actions in the classroom. Teachers in Latvia have a long history of considering the student’s upbringing as a part of their role. For teachers in NSW it is an additional task, one that they were not prepared for in their initial training.

In a discussion paper (2003) on the Quality Teaching Model in NSW schools, pedagogy is defined as having three dimensions:

- pedagogy that is fundamentally based on promoting high levels of **intellectual quality**
- pedagogy that is soundly based on promoting a **quality learning environment**
- pedagogy that develops and makes explicit to students the **significance** of their work.

These three dimensions form the basis of the model for pedagogy in NSW public schools. The model does recognise student prior learning and cultural differences, but its focus is on achieving prescribed learning outcomes, albeit in a positive climate.

Again, this model was introduced using the centralised structure in a top-down process. As the process of developing this model involved consultation and teachers were encouraged, through the provision of funding, to collaborate with academics to establish innovative practices at their schools. The influence of this model was perhaps broader than intended as suggested by Complexity Theory. Government schools were directly influenced by this model, but university pre-service courses were indirectly influenced through the consultation process between the DEC and academics in establishing the model. The model is reflected in the way that teachers now plan and write programmes in NSW, however, the Latvian concept of “audzināšana” or up-bringing would help to make behaviour support practices integral to all curriculum areas rather than supplementary.

In Latvia the focus on upbringing meant that, as Pestalozzi stated, pedagogy was more than reaching prescribed learning outcomes. It is also a matter of head, hand and heart, about the whole person and their physical, mental and psychological development (Brühlmeier, 2010: p. 5).

In 2016 the Latvian Cabinet of Ministers released regulations on *Instructional guidance of learners and information about teaching aids, materials and teaching methods, and educational assessment procedures*. These make it clear that upbringing is a crucial part of pedagogy in Latvia. These regulations describe upbringing as part of purposefully organised educational processes, an integral part of comprehensive education, encouraging moral development and the formation of attitudes. The upbringing process is directed at acquiring social and cultural experiences, the development of the learners’ emotional intelligence, self-control, values, the cultivation of virtues (values education), developing relationships, cooperation, civic responsibility and being a successful member of the community. Education is closely linked to self-education (self-knowledge and self-improvement).

Pedagogy as upbringing has been influential in Latvia since the initial period of independence. While its focus may have changed to the creation of model soviet citizens, it has remained a part of schooling. This is another historical connection that has remained, although not exactly in the same form, which has implications for the ability of teachers to

integrate behaviour support into their everyday interactions. While there are “klases audzinātāji” (year advisors), it is not their role alone to consider student up-bringing, all teachers are responsible.

This diversity in approach to pedagogy means that teachers in NSW might be seeking answers to questions of behaviour support in quite different ways to those in Latvia. The Latvian teacher, based on his/her understanding of pedagogy, will be seeking ways to interact with learners that will support the development of the total child. Teachers in NSW will be seeking ways that are focussed on instructional methods leading to academic gains, thus viewing behaviour issues as not part of their core business and better addressed elsewhere rather than the regular class.

These different perspectives on pedagogy indicate the importance of another contextual element, that of teacher preparation. Studies of beginning teachers indicate that they enter teaching with an existing set of beliefs, which are influenced by their initial training. Eventually their experiences at school will either maintain these beliefs or challenge them. The Latvian Ministry of Education and Science and administrators need to keep in mind differing concepts of pedagogy, for instance, when they are enacting reforms or initiatives that have been borrowed from elsewhere. This requires a reliance on the advice of people with expertise not just their own beliefs. Again the issue of hybridisation to address local need arises.

3.4 The need for hybridisation

Australia is committed to a Western approach to individualism originating from Greek, Hebrew and Christian thought. People are like atoms, isolated and discrete (Jarvis, 2009, p. 296) and rely on relationships to learn “to be”. Cultural rhythms are learnt incidentally. Imitation of other group members provides knowledge of expected behaviours and attitudes and instruction is proactive and planned and occurs through interaction, for example, children learn through play how to behave in adult roles in a specific culture (Jarvis, 2013, p. 8). The first two generations in Australia of descendants of post-war immigrants from Latvia are a testimony to this incidental process. They were usually raised in homes that used the Latvian language, stressed Latvian values, culture and traditions. Many speak Latvian, attend Latvian cultural events and regularly travel to Latvia and yet, they are distinct in their behaviours and thoughts from the descendants of the people who were raised in Latvia. Cultural rhythms,

including school and classroom ones, are learned incidentally and impact on teacher beliefs and interactions with students. They also, at times, subvert global educational transfer.

Individualism is a part of the Latvian psyche but it has been mediated by the period of soviet rule when teacher compliance was achieved through fear and strict control, the repercussions of which were teachers who either admitted to, or internalised, feelings of powerlessness. Under authoritarian rule the goals are designed to strengthen the power of the ruling elite at the expense of the beliefs and ideals of individual citizens (Abens, 2015, p. 179) Currently, as J. Tomiak states:

“The aims of education in the Baltic states tend to reflect both a national tendency to respect the distinct personalities of the individual student and the determination to provide a proper institutional framework for the cultivation and unhampered development of national language, culture and literature” (1992, p. 32).

This includes changing the role of the teacher from that of a passive mediator to that of an initiative-taker, an active participant and decision-maker not only in the classroom, but also in the school community, based on a shared vision for the school and the educational system.

As Peter Senge, addressing the importance of the establishment and maintenance of professional learning communities, notes “the practice of shared vision involves the skills of unearthing shared ‘pictures of the future’ that foster genuine commitment and enrolment rather than compliance, (1990, p. 9). The use of the word “unearthing” is important, as it makes clear that these visions cannot be imported, but need to be located in the school community.

This goal of a shared vision, of establishing a knowledge society through teacher, and other, continuous learning has underscored the strategies undertaken by the Department in NSW over the last decades. All state schools have a vision or mission statement, which is usually developed by the entire school community. All professional learning is linked to the vision for the school as well as supporting the school’s plans and the Education Department’s priorities. This is a significant difference from the direction taken during the Soviet years or even the approach currently in Latvia.

DEC policies are directed at achieving a different mind-set amongst teachers about, amongst other things, the teaching of students with disabilities and difficulties, including those with

behavioural support issues. The way that the DEC has chosen to achieve this is through empowerment of teachers, the direct opposite of what occurred during Soviet occupation. Crucial to this empowerment process is teamwork and networking, the establishment of professional learning communities, or similar and a culture of collaboration in regions, districts and schools. As Michael Fullan has found "numerous studies document the fact that professional learning communities or collaborative work cultures at the school and ideally at the district level are critical for the implementation of attempted reforms" (2001, p. 74). This approach benefits teachers by reducing their isolation and, as will be seen later, links in with the strategies the DEC uses for its *Every student, every school* support framework, a crucial part of achieving a shift in teacher beliefs in NSW government schools currently. These teachers are familiar with the professional learning community approach that is linked to their professional learning but for Latvian teachers, used to authoritarian control and threats, this requires a significant shift in perspectives and, as stated earlier, might suggest perhaps Soviet collectivity.

After 1991 and the return to independent statehood, Latvian teachers could not directly transfer skills from their previous school experience to the needs of a new, dramatically different situation. Democracy and the demands of joining the European Union required different skills and held new challenges (Kõrge & Saleniece, 2015, p. 51). Students had to learn the skills and knowledge that would help them become functioning citizens in a democracy and would allow them to recognise anti-democratic use of power and injustices, and teachers had to facilitate this process, their role had to be a transformative one which helped students make meaning from the new situation. As Iveta Kestere notes "taking down a physical wall is simpler than taking down a wall which surrounds the mind" (2014, p. 844). If Western strategies are to support educational change in Latvian, the process truly has to be one of hybridisation where global trends that may have application in Latvia are transformed through local values, norms, culture and materials otherwise the process will provide too many opportunities for flawed understanding and implementation and more likely encourage resistance to implementation. It has to be focussed on building teacher capacity through mediation, negotiation and collaboration between different stakeholders within the local level. At the local level there may be differing priorities, perspectives and problems from national or global webs Reforms and innovative practices cannot be imposed (Crossley & Watson, 2003, p. 137).

Furthermore hybridisation also needs to take place at the classroom level. Just as borrowing

directly “best practice” from elsewhere without hybridisation is likely to lead to flawed or partial implementation, the same issue arises when teachers borrow and implement innovations at the classroom level. When teachers use “best practice” or any innovative theory/model or practice in their classroom, it is not merely a question of implementing the suggested strategies and expecting the same outcome as has been achieved elsewhere. The classroom is also a context that has local and specific needs. The end result of the implementation will not only rely on teacher skills, knowledge and the meaning that they make for themselves, but also on the nature of their relationships with the students. Only through reciprocal processes between the teacher and students, which hybridise new strategies to classroom contexts, is new meaning made for the classroom which is likely to support implementation of new approaches. As Iliško states “teachers need to become transformative agents who treat students as active agents (and) utilise dialogic methods of teaching” (Iliško, 2007, p. 17). Students need to be supported to learn how to become part of a dynamic system, rather than replicating the reliance on student compliance or control that appears in some theories/models of behaviour support.

The table below analyses the influence of external webs on teacher beliefs and the implementation of innovative practices for students with behaviour support needs specific to the Latvian situation. Appendix 8 contains the same analysis of context and impact on teacher beliefs in NSW for comparison. The external web needs to be considered in association with other webs: departmental, school and personal level reinforcing conditions.

| Latvia: External contextual Web Elements Influencing Teacher Beliefs and Actions | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| Interacting elements | Implications for discipline and behaviour support | Possible teacher beliefs | Possible Outcome |
| Interaction between pluralism, Soviet mono-culturalism and current predominant unease with dualism (Latvian/Russian). Change between Western individualism or soviet collectivism and back to | Move between authoritative (teacher-centred but positive environment) to authoritarian (only one “right” belief, actions) and humanistic approach (student-centred) to students and their behaviour. Current focus on democratic strategies in | Confusion in teacher beliefs as external demands change and extant beliefs are challenged along with teacher views of self-efficacy. Students need to be disciplined through threats, anger and disdain (Soviet). | Confusion over the teacher’s role and diminished self-efficacy. Flawed or partial implementation of new regulations and strategies. Maintenance of status quo and use of |

| Latvia: External contextual Web Elements Influencing Teacher Beliefs and Actions | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| <p>individualism accompanied by increased regulation (dictatorship), centralisation (soviet) and de-centralisation (return to independence).</p> | <p>schools, the rights of students at times forgetting the responsibilities of students.</p> <p>Currently devolved decision-making and responsibility to a local level can lead to flawed implementation of legislature and regulations if local level knowledge and understanding of new approaches is incomplete.</p> <p>Need for Professional Learning</p> | <p>Belief that teachers do not have the right to correct or discipline students (recent).</p> <p>The sense that everything to do with school education in the previous system needs to be replaced as it</p> <p>Unrealistic belief that democracy will provide the solution to school based problems</p> <p>Belief that new strategies are the correct ones or, alternatively, that they are inappropriate for Latvian schools</p> | <p>familiar strategies.</p> <p>No shift with respect to students with behaviour support needs.</p> <p>Continued marginalisation of students with behaviour support needs.</p> |
| <p>Global influence and the reform of education so that it reflects EU norms and is “modern” by Western standards.</p> <p>Pedagogy as central to physical and mental development including attitudes, views, beliefs, judgements.</p> <p>Teacher’s role to select the appropriate tools for specific situation.</p> <p>Professional Learning not tied to individual teacher or school needs but to free choice from a smorgasbord of topics associated with current reforms.</p> | <p>Too many reforms in a short time period as every aspect of schooling is re-organised</p> <p>Move between learning as an action (Soviet) or as a transaction (independence) which is learner-centred</p> <p>Opportunity to incorporate behaviour support across the curriculum not as an additional activity-broad view of pedagogy</p> <p>Modernism and introduction of educational science challenges existing broad approach to pedagogy (audzināšana) and could lead to a reductionist understanding of pedagogy</p> <p>Teachers may not have</p> | <p>Confusion in teacher beliefs about their role and their efficacy</p> <p>Belief in educating the whole child, not just teaching a subject</p> <p>Belief that some PL strategies are too authoritarian e.g. behaviourism, a reminder of Soviet control</p> <p>Belief that new strategies are not relevant, do not work or nothing works with these students</p> | <p>Higher levels of teacher stress</p> <p>Opportunity to implement a cross-curriculum approach to behaviour that is a part of everyday teaching/learning if teachers believe they are responsible for educating the whole child</p> <p>Ineffective or flawed implementation of strategies as teachers are introduced to new behaviour support strategies which do not reflect procedures currently in use</p> <p>No shift achieved and students remain marginalised</p> |

| Latvia: External contextual Web Elements Influencing Teacher Beliefs and Actions | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | access to effective strategies for behaviour support or lack the knowledge needed to apply relevant strategies, such as understanding the locus of control in their classrooms | | |

Table 8: External Contextual webs and teacher beliefs in Latvia

3.5 The intricacy of contextual influences

This chapter examined external webs of influence including historical and cultural ones. In Latvia what was desirable under Soviet rule educationally, socially, economically and politically differs from that in the first and second periods of independence. They are mostly diametrically opposed ideals. Currently teachers and students are trying to understand the meaning and effect of democracy. The desire to purge all things Soviet has meant the dissolution of structures, methods and approaches without a real replacement, or any preparation for replacement, including preparing teachers to become change agents, leaving teachers in a state of limbo where the skills and beliefs they have concerning students with behaviour support needs are unlikely to address the conditions they now face.

The Western ideal of individualism was frowned upon in Soviet times. If the professional learning that developed in NSW was reflective of the need to incorporate various theories and models, then in Latvia it was about replicating one model based on Russian structures and Soviet political ideology. Teachers had no experience in initiating change. They just had to follow the state initiated curriculum (Iliško, 2007, p. 19). When the second period of independence began, the need for democratic approaches and individualism again resurfaced but the social and economic changes were swift, with limited planning and, in the case of schools, unaccompanied by any support.

Neoliberalism arrived in Latvia with renewed democracy and, like NSW, the focus was on economic rationalism with the difference being Latvia's high dependence on foreign capital which impacts on decisions and processes. Neoliberalism also promoted corporate managerialism that turned schools into businesses, focussed on management and accountability, introduced competition and was accompanied by a concomitant decrease in welfare spending. The associated de-professionalism of teachers results in impact on teacher

self-efficacy beliefs and their desire to maintain the status quo.

In NSW, in the 1980s, the education department moved from the control of education specialists to political control. Currently this is also the case in Latvia. Political control of education has meant that in NSW responses to educational decisions have been driven by political needs. In response, for example, to the public belief that discipline in schools is not sufficiently strict, zero tolerance was introduced even though there were concerns about its negative effect, especially on students with behaviour support needs. Decisions based on political need rather than research can also result in inept use of “travelling policies”. Such policies need to be hybridised so that local needs are addressed, but politically driven changes are often hasty and, in Latvia, lacking support for schools and teachers.

The hybridisation of educational borrowing requires knowledge, skills and a sophisticated approach. It is not simply a question of replacing one element of an innovation with a local practice. It requires deep understanding. Context influences beliefs. Latvian pedagogy or “audzināšana”, for example, facilitates the incorporation of a student with behaviour support needs, whereas borrowing Anglo-American approaches to pedagogy can lead to a focus on didactics rather than educating the whole students, again reinforcing an exclusionary mindset. However, for teachers who as students experienced Soviet education, the incorporation of “audzināšana” or upbringing may have another meaning, one linked to soviet ideology, sacrificing individuality for collectivity and being a good worker (vospitanie). This focus to teachers raised in the Soviet era, may be a reminder of Soviet education a period to be forgotten and avoided, whereas for anyone who remembered initial independence, it may be a worthwhile and favoured strategy.

Historical memory shapes teacher receptiveness and willingness to experiment with new practices, their maintenance of these practices and whether these practices slide into disuse. In the Soviet era the teacher was the transmitter of the sanctioned curriculum, which may resound with the move to a national curriculum in NSW, however the role of the teacher is different with the current focus in NSW being on enabling learning rather than transmitting it. To enable learning the attention is on teacher empowerment, and the development of self-efficacy and self-worth, through networking, professional learning communities and collaboration, which reflects similarity to elements of the earlier mentioned Reformpedagogy. The Soviets attempted to impact on the attitudes and mentality of its citizens through fear, ideological pressure or enticement. When to this is added the social antagonism of the Soviet

regime, the impact on teacher self-esteem and social and emotional literacy could be marked. The Soviet perspective of teachers was more likely to lead to poor teacher self-worth or the frustration of having to teach one ideology and believe in another and, as A. Rahi-Tamm and I. Salēniece note, “The main counter-strategy teachers used was to distance themselves from what was going on through passiveness, double thinking, and conservatism” (2016, 466). The use of these strategies currently, however, is more likely to contribute to maintenance of existing beliefs rather than a shift in beliefs and to work against the implementation of innovative practices.

Contextual elements interact at the external, departmental, school and personal level within webs of influence. They are not linear influences and the interaction within themselves and between themselves, and with agents such as teachers can lead to discrepancies in what teachers believe. This, then, impacts on what strategies they are prepared to implement, and differ from what was intended in global and national visions. While individual elements within the webs may be directed at supporting inclusive education for students with behaviour support needs, when these elements interact with others within the web, conflicting messages may be sent and rather than encouraging new directions, existing beliefs and behaviours are reinforced.

Chapter conclusions

This chapter established that the following are important for a shift in teacher beliefs:

- a democratic approach to schooling and innovations based on empowering teachers;
- professional learning in a context of collegiality and collaboration;
- hybridisation of travelling policies or educational transfers based on understanding of the impact of external, systems and personal webs of influence and the difficulties of adaptation. This needs to occur at a system, school and classroom level;
- acknowledgement of the past to reduce the impact of earlier legacies, such as the Soviet legacy;
- recognition that strategies from one context and era may be inappropriate for another one;
- the importance of considering the complexity of contextual webs which influence teacher beliefs and not relying on linear, reductionist approaches;

- recognition of the impact of managerialism in schools and the accompanying de-professionalisation of teachers.;
- planned and supported introduction of changes to schools and teachers to mitigate the use of existing strategies inappropriate to the desired changes.

The following chapter will examine system's webs of influence, the impact they may have at a school and teacher level and on teacher beliefs.

Chapter Four

The influence of the system's web on beliefs about behaviour: documents and their dissemination

4.0 Webs of interaction influencing inclusion of students with behaviour support needs

As demonstrated in the previous chapter, NSW and Latvia have been influenced by external webs and global priorities such as inclusive education, a concept, which leads to some difficult situations for teachers when it comes to the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs. This chapter seeks to identify the ways in which system level decisions influence teacher beliefs and actions. Are there elements at the system's level which contribute to the beliefs that teachers hold which lead to marginalisation of students with behaviour support needs or ones that contribute to teacher on-going pedagogical support of these students? It also strives to establish what needs to occur at a system's level in order to improve teacher development in Latvia as building teacher capacity is crucial to the change process.

Together the education systems of both NSW and Latvia point to the importance of legislature for the change process. As Skrtic (1991) argues, schools and systems need external pressure in order to bring about change. Education systems across the world have seen the impact of a range of international declarations and conventions. Declarations that have influenced governments to develop national legislature have included: the *UNESCO Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)*; the *Convention against Discrimination in Education (1980)*; the *Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)*; the *UNESCO Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action in Special Needs Education (1994)* (more commonly referred to as the 'Salamanca Agreement'); the *UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006)* and the *UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education (2009)*. OECD documents that discuss inclusion are *Inclusive Education at Work: Students with Disabilities in Mainstream Schools, (1999)*; *Education Policy Analysis, (2003)*; *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools, (2012)*. These various documents interact and create webs of influence which impact on educational system actions.

The 1994 Salamanca World Conference on Special Needs Education (UNESCO) endorsed inclusive education, arguing that regular schools with an inclusive orientation are the most effective means of changing discriminatory attitudes and achieving education for all. While this study is not focused on inclusion *per se*, it is a significant issue for students with behaviour support needs and their teachers and contributes to teacher attitudes towards including students with behaviour support needs. Inclusion of these students is challenging and often stressful for teachers, and is complicated by the fact that there is no universal definition or understanding of inclusion that varies from country to country. Many countries have found it a difficult concept and hybridisation has resulted in various interpretations. Inclusion is associated with the placement and education of students with special needs in regular classes, diversity in education by removing the barriers, which can lead to marginalisation or exclusion, or can be seen as an issue of human rights (Göransson & Nilholm 2014, Slee 2011, Mittler, 2012). Students with behaviour support needs often struggle to meet the expectations associated with wellbeing in schools, that of belonging, engagement and connectedness, which can lead to their exclusion rather than inclusion.

Inclusive education is not just an ideology but also a process. This process consists of many complex, interacting elements including elements related to leadership, teaching and learning, collaboration and support. Regardless of which specific view of inclusion is held, by the system, school and teachers and whether a specific group of students is to be the focus, all staff, students and the school community need to be involved in the process. Leadership processes, whether at a system or school level need to include mobilising opinions, building consensus, setting achievable goals and validating and recognizing, nurturing staff and buffering them from external pressures (Hoppey & McLeskey, 2013, p. 253). Barriers to the process, such as existing attitudes and values, lack of understanding or knowledge, inappropriate organisation and limited resources need to be addressed or dismantled by mentoring of new teachers, teacher professional learning, provision of common planning time and other resources, establishing clear communication, supporting teamwork and encouraging teacher ownership of the processes and outcomes (Florian, 2012; Smith & Tyler, 2011). Teachers need to believe that all students are capable of learning and can participate and contribute to the class (Sharma, 2012, p. 53). “In order for teachers to successfully work within the inclusive education framework, there needs to be a change in the attitudes and values “ (Kauliņa, Voita, Trubina, & Voits, 2016, p. 41).

Teachers need to be flexible in their delivery of curricula and be prepared to individualise learning for different needs, where difference is seen as part of the human condition (Osberg & Biesta, 2010, p. 605). Furthermore the targeted students themselves need to be involved in the process (Messiou, 2012, p. 1319), as do other students in the class, otherwise the process is exclusionary with a focus just on the targeted students when other students are also part of the process of making students feel sufficiently comfortable to participate in lessons. The process of inclusion is complex as opposed to linear, dynamic may seem overwhelming and, as can be seen from above, provides multiple opportunities for flaws in implementation of innovative practices. The leadership team, at a system's or school level, is crucial to resolving these flaws and addressing barriers. If, for instance, there is a lack of common values, these can be replaced by a focus on common interests as a way of establishing ownership and focus but only a team that is committed to inclusion will seek solutions. Too often inclusion is tokenistic, rather than implemented and institutionalised, as is demonstrated by global and national/state level documentation.

The *Salamanca Agreement* promotes inclusion as the best way for all students to learn, not just marginalised or targeted ones, stresses diverse needs and promotes inclusion as a human rights issue. Similarly, the *UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education* (2009) has a focus on educating all students and considers the collaboration of all stakeholders in the process of inclusion as important. On the other hand, the OECD, reflecting neoliberal influence, links inclusion to economic productivity rather than promoting it as a human rights issue. Inclusion is about the achievement of certain skill levels in order to be a productive individual. The OECD compendia indicate that inclusion is not a high priority for the OECD as neither the *Education at a Glance*, (2012) nor *Education at a Glance*, (2013) reports mention inclusion in any detail. As can be seen, within the external web at a global level, interaction between agencies can lead to the release of documents that may leave a sense of uncertainty about inclusion. The national/state webs interact with these to produce, at times, even more uncertainty.

The complexity of the inclusive education process influences national/state systems, schools and classrooms. State/national laws, policies and documents need to address inclusion. In Australia the *National Disability Strategy* (2010-2020) works in conjunction with DEC policies in NSW: *The Wellbeing Framework for Schools* (2016); *Student Welfare, Good Discipline and Effective Learning, Values in NSW Public Schools* (1996); *Funding Support –*

Students with Disabilities in Regular Classes (2004); *Inquiry into the Provision of Education to Students with a Disability or Special Needs* (2004); and, *Every Student, Every School: Learning and Support* (2012). A closer look at these policies indicates how the DEC has moved away from discussion of inclusion. The *1996 Student Welfare Policy* mentions an inclusive environment that values diversity. The more recent *Wellbeing Framework for Schools* (2016) and *Every Student, Every School* (2012) make no mention of inclusion. The focus is on student engagement, participation and other elements linked to inclusion but the term ‘inclusion’ does not appear. When the DEC does use the term, as in *Funding Support* (2004), it uses the term narrowly to refer to students with disabilities. The DEC currently promotes celebrating diversity rather than inclusion. The terminology of inclusion appears to have been fraught with too many uncertainties, too many opportunities for misunderstanding, for flawed implementation. Instead NSW, a state that practices neoliberal economic rationalism, is following the trend set by the OECD. It is not about human rights or the end of exclusionary practices. It is about students achieving skills levels linked to productivity. The interaction of global and state webs leave schools and teachers at the local level focussing on celebrating diversity, which at times clashes with the drive for excellence in standardised tests. Teacher beliefs become convoluted by the need to consider student wellbeing, including engagement with learning, while applying exclusionary practices such as suspension. The DEC has applied many of the processes necessary for inclusion such as mobilising opinions, building consensus, setting achievable goals, encouraging mentoring of new teachers, providing opportunities for teacher professional learning, re-aligning resources, supporting teamwork and encouraging teacher ownership of the processes and outcomes but this has been hybridised to celebrating diversity.

The following table provides an overview of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) associated with the way that the DEC planned for and then distanced itself from inclusion but not inclusive practices.

| | Opportunities | Threats (or barriers) |
|-----------------|---|--|
| External | <p>Global directions. Commonwealth and State laws. Integrating the perspectives of various stakeholders e.g. the teacher union, community support groups. Introduction of the NSW Institute of Teachers requiring continuing accreditation and specifying teacher competencies. Requirement for annual reporting to the Commonwealth on the progress of individualised plans for students with an EBD sign-off.</p> | <p>Aspects of Western individualism which place the ownership of the behaviour with the individual rather than in response to the environment. Categorisation of students required to access Commonwealth funding. Media reports of student violence. Society and school norms that are not inclusive. The teacher union's view that insufficient funding and resources have been applied to support inclusion. Neoliberal managerialism applied to schools. Ministerial decisions not based on DEC policies.</p> |
| | Strengths | Weaknesses |
| Internal | <p>Policies that promote engagement of students. Support for schools with the introduction of new policies (Human, financial, document-based). Personalised teacher professional learning plans. A planned process of transition for new policies. Enthusiasm of some teachers and community members. A history of implementing planned change e.g. from segregation to integration. The cultural diversity of Australian citizens and teacher familiarity with diversity along with the need to address diversity in curriculum and lesson plans. Use of aspects of a social model in placement of students. The implementation process used with the TQTM which began as a top-down process but incorporated teacher ownership at the local level. Broad access to professional learning through on-line courses for teachers and other school staff. Professional Learning Communities that provide for collaboration amongst staff. School leadership teams that facilitate change, encourage professional learning and provide for collaborative planning time and on-going support.</p> | <p>A focus on nationalised testing and vocational preparation in schools. Use of "league tables" to rate schools and teachers. Policy dichotomies (discipline in the wellbeing framework or that of control) leading to policies that are not aligned with one another and can challenge teachers. Narrow focus on the meaning of inclusion so that teachers come to associate it with special education rather than human rights. Teacher beliefs that students with behaviour issues should be educated in segregated settings and the associated lack of commitment to the inclusion of these students. The clause in the DEC enrollment policy allowing principals to refuse enrollment of students with a history of violence and those students who would cause undue hardship to the school. Mandated change using top-down professional learning which does not allow for teacher ownership of new approaches. Exclusionary policies and processes e.g. suspension. The maintenance of views by some teachers reflecting an integration perspective where the students needs to change to fit into the classroom situation rather than it is the responsibility of the classroom environment and everyone within it to change. School and classroom structures or processes that do not accommodate individual needs. Teacher stress associated with educating students with behaviour support needs in their classrooms. Limited resources to support students in regular classes except for those who have a disability diagnosis.</p> |

Table 11: A SWOT analysis of the DEC process of inclusion

According to Sherman, Rowley and Armandi (2007, p. 170) a SWOT analysis which results in threats and weaknesses outweighing the strengths and opportunities leads to retrenchment and this is what happened in NSW. The retrenchment was away from inclusion *per se* while still applying principles of inclusive education. These principles apply in special and regular schools rather than through the elimination of special schools. Parents, the community and other stakeholder groups have a mixed approach to special schools. Some parents believe they provide the best educational opportunities for their students; others disagree and want their child educated with his/her peers. Eventually *Every Student, Every School* meant that inclusive practices were to operate across all schools but special schools would remain and the DEC ceased to discuss inclusion.

Latvia has still to come to terms with inclusive education. Nimante (2008, p. 1) describes inclusive education “as a multidimensional process” and that three perspectives influence Latvian teacher opinions: inclusion of students with disabilities, inclusion as integration and inclusion as inclusive education. Tihomirova (2011, p. 96) found that teachers believed students with disabilities should be educated in specialist settings which corresponded with their needs and that more specialist teachers were needed with more effective preparation. Interestingly, one of Tihomirova’s findings was that the process of integration was progressing slowly, reiterating Nimante’s claim that inclusion is sometimes misunderstood as integration. This indicates uncertainty about the meaning and process of inclusion in Latvia, and explains why the Ministry sought to develop and release a position paper, which is influenced innately by the people guiding this process and their skills and knowledge. Clarifying what inclusion means in Latvia is one step, but, as indicated above, the process involves many actions with leadership as a strategic element. The Ministry and the limited Latvian Education Department have provided little leadership or even guidance after declaring that something should occur. The position paper was released in November 2017 again with no support processes or transition planning. The transition plan for *Skola 2030* perhaps might be an exception to the rule, as long as it moves beyond an on-paper expression of intentions and addresses teacher professional learning as an ongoing need and not a one-off event.

This chapter analyses documents at a national/state level to clarify expectations and resultant processes for the education of students with behaviour support needs and the way these

influence teacher beliefs. Again parallels and differences are sought through comparison with the NSW experience, which may help to establish principles, which underlie a shift in teacher beliefs.

Australia is viewed as a highly governed nation because there are national Commonwealth laws that apply Australia-wide, there are state laws and policies and then there are local municipal regulations. In the field of education, local councils have no say in the management of state schools unlike in Latvia. The Commonwealth government is influential as it holds the purse strings for many state education programmes. The state government has the most influence as it is officially responsible for schooling for the state.

In some ways Latvia is in a similar position. As it has joined the European Union it is also influenced by EU decisions and regulations, which is similar to the Commonwealth level in Australia. National regulations take the place held by state regulations in NSW. The major difference is that municipal councils are responsible for funding education programmes and ensuring the education of students including those with disabilities living in their local area.

4.1 Latvian normative acts and guidelines related to discipline

Documents such as the EU ratification of the *UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with a Disability* and *Europe 2020*, as well as the adoption by the *European Commission of the European Disabilities Strategy 2010-2020* specify expectations with respect to the education of students with disabilities.

Global and European conventions have led to legislature and regulations in Latvia that both describe and prescribe learning opportunities for all children including those with disabilities. The legislature has included: *The Latvian Constitution of the Republic* (1922/2010) that affirms that everyone has the right to an education; *The Children's Rights Defence Law* (1998) that states that children have the right to living conditions which support their physical and mental development; the *Education Act* (1998) that guarantees access to special education programmes for students with special needs; the *General Education Law* (1999) which stipulates that students with special needs can receive support in any school setting that is registered to deliver the specific special education programme, which the school is responsible for meeting the needs of the students and that they must have an individualised

learning plan. Individualised education plans are a common feature of services for students with disabilities across jurisdictions. This leads to a quandary on the road to inclusion as they are perceived, by many regular class teachers, as part of the reason why the student with disabilities should be educated in a special setting.

The *General Education Law* also stipulates that the support provided by an educational institution should be such that the learners can access educational programmes, taking into account their health needs, ability and developmental level. It states that special education programmes should ensure that learners with inherited or acquired functional impairments can access general education, taking into account their special needs. Similarly the *Education Law* (1998) states that learners may study at any institution which can provide education commensurate with their health needs and developmental level. In NSW the laws state that students with disabilities need to be accommodated by regular schools if parents so choose, with the proviso that if the necessary accommodation causes 'undue hardship' then the school can reject the request for enrolment. In Latvian legislature the need for a registered special education programme, which meets the student's health and developmental needs, provides a similar escape clause to total inclusion.

There is another Cabinet Regulation on the *Provision of basic education and general secondary education addressing learners with special needs, 710* (2012) which focusses on the integration of students with disabilities. The language in this document is that of integration, rehabilitation and special needs. It states that a student with special needs may be integrated into a regular or special class as long as a registered special education programme is available, that staff should be trained and that rehabilitation with the support of health staff should be a part of the programme if needed. In other words this document focusses on the elements that inclusion is attempting to overcome. Integration and inclusion are different concepts with integration inferring changes by the student to correspond with the operations of the class whereas inclusion is about environmental adjustments that include everyone not just the student.

Furthermore, Cabinet Ministers' Regulations (2003-2010), specify that exemplary special education settings would be granted the status of Centre of Development for students with special needs, and networks would be established among integrating schools to support these students. These actions reflect an important element of the Salamanca Declaration, which is

the need to establish educational support systems for students with special needs to facilitate their inclusion. A similar move has taken place in NSW where special schools are being re-badged as Centres of Expertise as part of the *Every Student, Every School* initiative, discussed later.

Finally, the *Education Development Guidelines for 2014 – 2020* address a broad spectrum of special education issues including the educational rights of students with disabilities, the need for a solutions-based approach and the role of society in securing the inclusion of students with special needs. This document indicates a move to focussing on solutions not just the disability, an important element for the education of students with behaviour support needs. In 2016 a new project commenced as part of these guidelines (Project 9.2.1.3./16/1/001), which targetted the development of a support system for children with communication difficulties, behaviour difficulties and who were exposed to family violence. As a result a central team is available to provide support to teachers working with students with behaviour issues but only if those students are exposed to family violence.

The above legislature addresses students with disabilities in general, including those with EBD. However, while many students with behaviour support needs, require assistance to manage the behaviours, which disrupt their learning, they often do not meet the criteria for any diagnosis. The Welfare Ministry has support documents, which have been developed as part of the new Child Protection Consultative Committee measures and, which are directed at students with communication and behaviour difficulties living in a violent family. These are discussed in the chapter on mapping resources however it should be noted that these documents appear more bureaucratic than supportive of teacher needs or, alternately, their intended audience is social workers or psychologists rather than pedagogues. The other reference to behaviour is in *Cabinet Regulation 1338*, which addresses what needs to be done if a learner threatens the safety, health or life of another. This lists the steps as: the teacher informs the principal about the behaviour (5.1.1); the principal ensures that the student is placed in another room and taught by the social pedagogue, educational psychologist or another teacher either for one lesson or until the end of the day (5.1.2); the principal informs the parents in writing of the behaviour and the need for collaboration between the school and parents (5.1.3); the principal specifies the role of support personnel in developing a support plan which meets the student's needs (5.1.4); the principal has the right to call on the support of specialists to ensure improvement in the student's behaviour (5.1.5); the relevant

municipality must ensure specialist support, if such a person is not available at the school (5.1.7). This provides an overall perspective on what needs to be done, the only concern is that if this is not then supported by a crisis intervention plan which specifies the name of the person who will assist, how they will be summoned, what happens if someone is injured and so on, and the teacher remains unsupported. The moment of crisis is not the time to be unsure of what to do or how to summon help.

These normative acts, Cabinet Regulations and guidelines documents provide the direction for education of students with disabilities and minimally for those with behaviour support issues but without a medical diagnosis. Latvia does not have departmental policy documents that support the implementation of new laws or regulations. Furthermore, there is some concern about the language of the documents themselves, which appear to be framed by concepts associated with integration rather than inclusion even though the documents were created in the age of educational inclusion.

The language in Latvian system documents needs to be considered. Language influences thought. By continuing to use the words 'special needs' and 'rehabilitation', these documents are excluding, rather than including, a group of people. They stress difference, which some teachers may come to understand as reinforcing the need for special programmes, for placing the student in a special setting rather than making programme adjustments and incorporating him/her into a regular class. They may come to question their own teaching skills as these students have 'special needs'. The global ideology of inclusion may have been a precursor to the development of these documents but the teachers' resultant actions may be contrary to this. Students with behaviour support issues evoke strong teacher emotions and, often, stress. As noted earlier, these students are amongst the most difficult to include in regular classes. Terminology, which indicates that the students are special, rather than requiring teacher or classroom adjustments or support with access and participation, only increases the chances of flawed implementation of the Act or practice.

There may also be resistance and resultant flawed implementation because the influence of global statements or policy directions on national policies may be seen as an imposition. Countries have different national imaginaries thus concepts which are crucial for the inclusion of students with behaviour support issues, such as plurality, discipline and civility, may be seen differently.

The *Latvian Education Development Guidelines 2014-2020* have moved from a focus on integration to the rights of students with disabilities, to include discussion of the role of society in promoting inclusion and offers a solution-based approach. Not all documents use the terminology of special needs, but what is needed is uniformity across documents to support schools and teachers. Normative acts and guidelines are part of the same collection or ensemble (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002) they need to promote a unified vision, which combining the language of inclusion with that of integration does not accomplish. The situation in NSW demonstrates the difference inclusive language and planned transition associated with document release can have.

4.2 NSW legislature and DEC policies: what do they indicate?

The NSW Department of Education and Communities is bound by, at the Commonwealth level, the *Disability Discrimination Act* (1992) and the *Disability Standards for Education* (2005). The standards cover enrolment, parent choice, access and participation, curriculum development, accreditation and delivery, student support services, and the elimination of harassment and victimisation. The standards require schools to treat students with disabilities on the same basis as students without disability and include obligations for making reasonable adjustments to student's learning programme and /or learning environment. Parents and, where appropriate, students with disabilities must be consulted on the personal adjustments that will be provided. It should be noted here that the term "reasonable adjustments", however, allows schools to decline enrolments if such an enrolment would create undue hardships or interfere with the learning of other students.

The definition of disability in these Acts, and the *NSW Anti-Discrimination Act* (1977), is very broad and includes students with mental health issues and behaviour disorders as well as those with a "confirmed disability". The Acts also provide that it is unlawful to discriminate against a student at enrolment by developing a curricula that limits the student's access to curriculum on the grounds of his/her disability.

At a state (NSW) level the Department and its schools are also bound by the *Education Act* (1990) which provides that the Minister may control and regulate student discipline in schools, prepare guidelines for fair discipline codes that provide for the control and regulation of student discipline in government schools. The Minister may not, however, suspend or

expel anyone, that remains the principal's responsibility or that of Executive Directors (regional leaders) or Directors (superintendents) of schools. Then there is the *Ombudsman Act* (1974) and the *Disability Inclusion Act* (2014) and the *NSW Disability Inclusion Plan* (2015).

As well there is the *Work Health and Safety Act* (2011), which defines the duty of care of schools. Meeting the Department's duty under the Act requires a proactive approach to implementing safe systems and processes. It may also require assessment of any risk that may be posed by a student's behaviour after an incident has occurred. This involves the identification and implementation of strategies designed to eliminate or control the identified risks. The DEC requires schools to keep detailed information of such incidents including decisions taken, interagency co-operation, investigation of the incident, any risk assessment, any reasonable adjustments considered or implemented and consultation with the parents or caregivers. While the identification of risks may help address safety, the fact that these risks are student behaviours again places the problem with the student rather than the broader environment.

These acts, and the theories associated with their institution, have had a significant impact on the services provided by the DEC over the years as it has moved from a disability category focus prevalent in the 1960-1970s to the current functional needs focus, where personalised learning adjustments are key.

DEC policies have had a central role in supporting the implementation of legislature and changes in departmental and school thinking can be seen in these documents over time. The discussion paper *Pupil Welfare, Policy and Principles* (Department of Education, NSW, 1985) and the *Student Welfare Policy Statement* (Department of Education, NSW, 1986) required each school to have a written policy on student welfare and that part of this policy had to be the implementation of programmes that include developmental, preventative and remedial education including for behaviour. The programmes should lead to the development of self-discipline amongst students. Interestingly, while the focus was student welfare, there was still a strong element of control. Student behaviour can and must be modified through school-based welfare programmes rather than being discussed as an educational issue. Another document released in 1989 was *The Fair Discipline Code* and it too had interesting components. Matters such as uniforms and appropriate dress were included in this document and parents were told that if their children did not comply, they may be excluded from

activities such as excursions. This is another example of control being the subtext to discipline within the government sector.

In 1989 the DEC released a policy and support documents in an area that was seen as being closely linked to that of behaviour, the improvement of school attendance, *School Attendance – Policy and Procedures*. Attendance had been an issue since the *Public Instruction Act* of 1880, which stated that attendance at school was compulsory for 6-14 year olds. As a result new ways of educating truanting children had to be found and the Guildford Truant School was established in 1916. The segregation of students sent a very particular message to teachers, these students do not belong in regular schools and need specialised support. This had consequences when the DEC wanted to move towards inclusive education, as teacher thinking was still linked to segregation with some teachers feeling de-skilled when it came to educating students with any form of disability or disorder.

By 1990 the DEC had revised most of its relevant policy documents. In 1996 the DEC released the *Student Welfare, Good Discipline and Effective Learning Policy* which was a revision of the Student Welfare Policy of 1986. Prior to this behaviour support had not focussed on addressing curriculum and learning, it was all about behaviour. It was an acknowledgement that a raft of additional programmes and services was incomplete if learning needs were not also addressed.

In the 1990s discussion around behaviour support in schools had begun to focus on how to make schools safe, physically and emotionally. This was a response to the perceived levels of indiscipline reported by the media and resulting community concerns. This added to the complexity of addressing the needs of students with behaviour support needs.

The United Nations' *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (United Nations, 1991) describes the importance of protecting children's quality of life and their rights to be educated in a safe environment, free from all forms of violence, victimisation, harassment, and neglect. In 1994 a national inquiry into school violence, aggression, and bullying commissioned by the Australian government concluded that although insufficient data were available from which to reliably estimate the extent of school violence, aggression, and bullying, bullying appeared to be a significant national problem (Commonwealth Government of Australia, 1994). Bullying was not a new concept. Olweus' (1978) wrote about bullying in the pioneering *Aggression in*

the Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys. Since then, a growing body of research has indicated that both bullying and being bullied has physical, social and mental health consequences, along with an impact on academic achievement.

The *National Safe Schools Framework* (NSSF) was endorsed in 2003 by all Australian Ministers of Education, in response to this inquiry. The framework aimed to raise awareness of the importance of a shared vision of physical and emotional safety and wellbeing for all students in Australian schools. This framework has had an impact on policy development in NSW government schools as DEC and school policies now include community consultation and school teams as part of the development process and shared a focus on valuing diversity and implementing safe and supportive school environments.

In 2004 legislation was passed that required all schools to align their policies with eleven guiding principles of the NSSF:

1. Affirm the right of all school community members to feel safe at school.
2. Promote care, respect and cooperation, and value diversity.
3. Implement policies, programmes and processes to nurture a safe and supportive school environment.
4. Recognise that quality leadership is an essential element that underpins the creation of a safe and supportive school environment.
5. Develop and implement policies and programmes through processes that engage the whole school community.
6. Ensure that the roles and responsibilities of all members of the school community in promoting a safe and supportive environment are explicit, clearly understood and disseminated.
7. Recognise the critical importance of pre-service and on-going professional development in creating a safe and supportive school environment.
8. Have a responsibility to provide opportunities for students to learn through the formal curriculum the knowledge, skills and dispositions needed for positive relationships.
9. Focus on policies that are proactive and oriented towards prevention and intervention.
10. Regularly monitor and evaluate their policies and programmes so that evidence-based practice supports decisions and improvements.
11. Take action to protect children from all forms of abuse and neglect.

The DEC released, in 2005, the *Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy*. Once again this policy required that each school develop its own school discipline policy and that this contained: the discipline code or school rules; strategies and practices to promote positive student behaviour, including specific strategies to maintain a climate of respect; strategies and practices to recognise and reinforce student achievement; strategies and practices to manage inappropriate student behaviour. A specific anti-bullying policy, *Bullying: Preventing and Responding to Student Bullying in Schools Policy*, followed in 2010. DEC has also released the *Behaviour Code for Students*, the latest version being in 2015.

An analysis of the student discipline policy indicates that it has a dual orientation, that of defining responsibilities with respect to student discipline and the elements which are associated with behaviour: standards, expectations and fairness. The policy stresses consultation with the community when developing and implementing the school policy. This policy needs to be considered alongside the *Behaviour Code for Students*.

The *Behaviour Code for Students* asserts that students are expected to be respectful, safe and engaged whilst at school. It details that students should: treat one another with dignity; speak and behave courteously; cooperate with others; develop positive and respectful relationships and think about the effect on relationships before acting; value the interests, ability and culture of others; dress appropriately by complying with the school uniform or dress code; take care with property; model and follow departmental, school and/or class codes of behaviour and conduct; negotiate and resolve conflict with empathy; take personal responsibility for behaviour and actions as well as attending school every day and actively participate in learning.

These two policies make behavioural expectations of students clear in language which is precise and which specifies behaviours that are observable. Respect, a behaviour which can have a range of interpretations, is mentioned but then the behaviours which demonstrate respect are listed. This code also makes clear that behaviour is judged not just by interactions with others but also by attending school regularly, arriving on time and prepared, wearing the correct school uniform. This gives a clear insight into the DEC's desire for a controlled and ordered environment and school discipline codes as a way to specify and achieve this.

DEC documents differ from those of Latvia. While there are normative acts and limited guidelines documents in Latvia, they do not take schools and teachers through the process of implementing the requirements. Conversely, the DEC has chosen to specify not only what is required but how it can be achieved, thus reducing the opportunities of flawed implementation and teacher uncertainty about what needs to be done. Shifts in beliefs are unlikely to occur if teachers feel themselves insecure, unsure of how to achieve the desired outcomes and unsupported by the hierarchy.

The *Every Student, Every School* (2012) initiative introduced a learning and support framework to ensure personalised learning and support for any student with special needs. This initiative aims to provide better support for students whose learning is impacted upon by disability, including behaviour support issues. DEC personalised learning and support has four elements: collaboration; assessed individual need; adjustments and the impact of adjustments; and is solution-focussed. As J. van Swet, J. Wichers-Bot & K. Brown, (2011, p. 920) point out “the concept of using a solution-focused approach in an assessment process widens the prospect of potential results” and as there are no universal solutions, it leads the teacher to work in a reflective manner collaborating with parents, students, school personnel, peers and outside providers in order to determine learning needs and address these needs. Again this framework makes expectations clear to teachers and provides support to teachers in implementing a solution-focussed approach, in absolute contrast to the process used in the Latvian system.

Since the introduction of the NSSF, DEC policies have been updated and new ones keep appearing in an attempt to be proactive in addressing issues that may arise. Currently the following DEC policies relate to students with behaviour support needs: *Student Discipline in Government Schools and Support Material; Behaviour Code for Students; Guidelines for the Use of Time-Out Strategies including Dedicated Time-out Rooms; Suspension and Expulsion of School Students Procedures and Information for Parents; Anti-Racism Policy; Assisting Students with Learning Difficulties; Bullying: Preventing and Responding to Student Bullying in Schools Policy and guidelines, Planning Document and Plan Template; Student Welfare Policy; People with Disabilities- Statement of Commitment; Disability Inclusion Action Plan; and, the School Attendance Policy*. Policy documents are often accompanied by guidelines of other support materials. These policies indicate the complexity of educating students with behaviour support needs, but the fact that they include implementation guidelines, planning

documents and templates also indicates an understanding of ongoing support needs of teachers and schools in order to successfully bring about change.

In 2016 the release of *The Wellbeing Framework for Schools* replaced all student welfare policies. It set about to shift teacher thinking about teaching and learning to a broader perspective including the direction that is encompassed by Latvian concepts of pedagogy. The framework lists the following elements: teaching and learning; behaviour, discipline and character education; learning and support; professional practice; effective leadership; and, school planning.

The total package supporting wellbeing includes the *Framework*; the *Behaviour Code for Students*; *Supported Students*, *Successful Students* and the *Student Wellbeing Literature Review*. It specifies what schools and teachers must do to achieve excellence in wellbeing. There is a clear path that needs to be taken. Schools and teachers determine the strategies that meet local needs but they are supported with implementation, not left wondering how to implement this reform, what they must do and how they will know if they are achieving the expected outcomes. The literature review gives them access to further reading and strategies and the DEC offers further support through financial assistance. Under the *Supported Students*, *Successful Students* package, the NSW Government allocated an additional investment of \$167.2 million from 2015 to 2019 for counselling and wellbeing services. This includes:

- \$80.7 million to employ 236 additional school counselling service positions bringing the total to 1026;
- \$51.5 million of flexible funding, equivalent to an additional 200 Student Support Officers;
- \$8 million to provide more than 500 graduate scholarships to boost the recruitment of school counselling service and other wellbeing positions;
- \$8 million to implement the Connected Communities Healing and Wellbeing program;
- \$4 million to support refugee students who have experienced trauma and their families;
- \$15 million to support the implementation of Positive Behaviour for Learning in public schools across NSW.

This Framework is the first time that the DEC has incorporated discipline and behaviour support as part of student wellbeing and finally brings together the elements of discipline as control and self-discipline, hopefully helping those teachers who hold compounded beliefs. It also demonstrates commitment to the reform processes by providing additional resources both human and financial. In contrast to this, teachers in Latvia have their initial teacher education incorporating “audzināšana” and on a practical level there is material available on the VISC site to support teachers with the concept of upbringing, including a planned programme of themes and expected outcomes across the grades. The programme covers: self-concept and self-actualisation; national belonging; active citizenship; career choice; health and the environment; and safety. This guidance provides a good starting point. That is all that it is however, a starting point: stating something does not make it so. Teacher implementation of these themes is open to levels of interpretation with unintended outcomes that could be circumvented, at least in part, if more direct guidance were available.

What the NSW policies and support documents demonstrate is the advantages of specific guidelines that let teachers and schools know what is expected and how they can attain the desired outcomes. Teachers are not left to manage behaviours in a vacuum. While the NSW approach can reflect over-management by the system, it does provide support and clear directions. Teacher beliefs are not exposed to bald statement and the expectation that the law or regulation will be implemented. Instead they are massaged through the implementation process with supporting documents and additional resources increasing the chance of successful implementation. Success with implementation is more likely to support a shift in beliefs.

4.3 Comparing visions of student support needs

Examination of Latvian documents in the light of the methods used in NSW has identified the need for a structured and supportive approach to accompany any new legislature, regulations and policies to reduce teacher and school stress or confusion. The documents, however, influence teacher beliefs in other ways as well.

Latvia and NSW have statements pertaining to people with disabilities, which includes those students with behaviour support needs. In Latvia the *Cabinet Regulation 710* addresses, as previously noted, what regular schools must do to ensure appropriate education for learners

with special needs. The language of this document is about integration and special classes or special programmes. The vision expressed through the language of this document is that of segregation. The student has “special needs” and needs “rehabilitation” and this can be provided by specially qualified staff. This document was released in 2012, in an era globally of inclusion, yet neither the language of the document nor the intent, support the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs. Instead this document clearly demonstrates that the underlying philosophy is one of difference and specialisation unlikely to convince teachers that they should include students with behaviour support needs in their classes.

The NSW documents addressing disability are in stark contrast. With the global concern for inclusive education, DEC replaced *The Special Education Policy* (1993) with *People with Disabilities – Statement of Commitment*, first released in 2006 and updated in 2016. The language and intent of this policy differs dramatically from that of Latvia. It discusses a process of normalisation, rather than the students being special or having special needs. It states that the DEC is committed to assisting people with disabilities gaining knowledge, skills and understandings so that they can participate as citizens. The focus is on improving access, participation and outcomes and providing the same opportunities as other people have to take part in a range of educational experiences. It also discusses strategic alliances and the need for co-ordinated service delivery, or wraparound delivery, so that families who have children with disabilities are not required to visit a round of various government departments and agencies, getting separate advice from each of them and trying to make sense of it all.

Furthermore, this statement of commitment applies to the adults in service with the DEC as well as students. The DEC demonstrates its overall commitment to people with disabilities. In the last few years DEC has also been revising the form of its policy documents. Whereas policy documents were once wordy documents that discussed the issue in detail, they are now written in point form. Documents for internal use remain detailed. In general, NSW government bodies have been encouraged to review their websites to improve readability for people with disabilities in pursuance with the Commonwealth Acts sending a clear message about the necessity to incorporate the needs of a diverse population. It promotes the inclusion of people with disabilities through the language rather than excludes them.

If the previous chapter discussed the influence of context, then two systems’ documents provide a demonstration of this: the DEC policy, *Values in NSW Public Schools* (2004) and

Latvia's *Cabinet Regulation 480* (2016) which deals with *Guidelines and Information on the Upbringing of Learners, Evaluating Resources and Materials*, a document which addresses the overall goals of upbringing and the virtues or values that need to be developed. An analysis of the two documents indicates that the Latvian document places greater emphasis on moral and ethical behaviour. In the NSW document it is mentioned nine times but in the Latvian one it is referred to twenty-two times. The NSW document places greater emphasis on teaching/learning in values development and also on the role of the family and community. References to democracy and freedom are the same but NSW places slightly greater stress on collaboration. The Latvian document refers to personal qualities such as wisdom and courage and also refers to Christian values, which do not appear in the NSW document. It should be noted, however, that schools were forbidden to celebrate Christmas and other religious holidays during the Soviet era, therefore, the reappearance of Christian values may also be a statement about independence as well as a value. The greatest difference, however, is linked to the nation, national identity and citizenship. The NSW document has five references to these whereas the Latvian one raises these twenty-two times.

Declan McKenna (2015, 1) notes that all policy processes are inherently political and involve compromises and concessions. The NSW values document presents reality as it is in Australia. NSW is a plural democracy with a high immigrant population and multiple religions. The DEC policy documents reflect this. Similarly, collaborative learning practices have influenced the work of teachers in schools through approaches such as *Friendly Kids, Friendly Classrooms* (Helen McGrath & Shona Francey, 1991). All policy development is also collaborative and teachers are encouraged to co-operate at various levels, so it is not surprising that the document reflects this. The DEC began to stress teaching/learning activities with the introduction of *The Quality Teaching Model* in 2003. Most policy documents refer to the role of teaching/learning, therefore, it is not surprising that the values document stresses teaching values not just supporting them.

In the same way the Latvian document reflects the Latvian context. Issues of nationhood have been central in Latvia since the re-establishment of independence. It is not surprising that in a country where the Latvian identity was denied and the focus was on becoming Russified, that once independence was again achieved, the nation and national identity take a key position in all discussions. It also reflects the state of play at the dawn of the Republic of Latvia, in

1918, when the role of the school in developing national identity was emphasised and this period was looked to for guidance when Latvia re-gained independence in 1991.

Interestingly there is also a greater stress on moral and ethical behaviour. Again this is context related. During the initial period of independence pedagogues were expected to educate students to be good citizens working for the national good and virtuous, honest and decent people. During the Soviet era the goal was to prepare citizens who could build and protect communist society (Kestere, 2005). The focus was on discipline and order, not self-discipline. For some, honesty and being virtuous meant nothing and especially after the return to independence, there was a distinct move from Soviet solidarity to individualism. The emphasis on moral and ethical behaviour may be a reflection of these changes in society and a desire to return to the era of raising productive, honest and participating citizens.

Each document reflects its context but it also sends a message to its students, teachers, schools and the community. Teachers in NSW are encouraged to believe that teaching can make a difference, a message, which is reinforced through the focus on teaching values not just holding them. It also stresses collaboration within the school, with other agencies and the community encouraging teachers to believe in the power of collegiality. The Latvian document has a stronger focus on constructive personal qualities, which help create a positive national identity. This may encourage teachers to seek, and believe in, the importance of personal qualities in students and when students do not demonstrate such qualities, such as students with behaviour support needs who may present with negative characteristics, they may not see the value of persevering with these students.

4.4 The influence of language: the impact of labels

There are also national/state practices that impact on the meaning that teachers make of an act and its implementation and how they view students with behaviour support issues. One such practice is the use of categorisation in regulations, departmental policies and guidelines referring to students with behaviour support needs. These can reinforce teacher beliefs.

There has been on-going discussion in the literature around the use of labels or categories to define those students who do not reflect the accepted socio-cultural constructs of what is normal (Metcalf, 1995; Eriksen & Kress, 2006; Slee (2009, 2012; Riddick 2012). D.

Armstrong and F. Hallet (2012, p. 78) note that labels are social and cultural artefacts, which exist in a culture, time and place and lead to inferences being made by teachers, administrators, parents and carers, and students. It is how these labels are interpreted that can lead to negative or positive beliefs about students with behaviour support needs. In NSW the culture of segregation, which has existed since the early days of public education, supported the use of a medical model of labelling which reinforced the “otherness” of vulnerable students (Van Swet, et al., 2011, p. 911) contributing to teacher beliefs about these students and their placement. While there has been a move to a social model of support, beliefs are difficult to change. L. Graham and N. Sweller (2011, p. 951) note that “there is a shrinking conception of normality that has taken hold in our schools” referring to schools in NSW.

Foucault (1974, p. 140) describes how *discursive practices* “form the objects of which they speak.” To define vulnerable students, including those with behaviour support issues, special education drew on discourses from medicine and psychology. As B. Harry and J. Klinger (2007, p. 16) state there had to be ‘proof of intrinsic deficit’ in order to gain access to special education services. Labels differentiate vulnerable students from their peers and the causal nature of medical models places the responsibility for change with the student. “A concern raised about mainstream policies and practices related to student behaviour is that they invariably locate ‘the problem’ within individual students, rather than in the context of classrooms” (Sullivan et al., 2014, p. 45).

In NSW, even when advocates for children with disabilities had gained the right for children to be educated in regular classrooms with integration as the goal, the aim was to place the student in a class with minimal changes to the pedagogical practices, school environment or philosophy (Anderson, Klassen & Georgiou, 2007, p. 132). The student had the problem, he or she had to change and the environment and student-to-teacher or student-to-student interactions were not considered. This is unsurprising since the medical model is aimed at identifying a problem or disorder and the solution is to cure the problem (van Swet et al. 2001, p. 910).

Traditions, such as those associated with student diagnosis, access to support services, and placement, impact on how teachers view students with behaviour difficulties and how they view their own ability to meet needs. In NSW the labels may have changed over the years, no-one would use “imbecile” as a label currently whereas it once was an acceptable part of

categorisation, however the impact of labelling remains. The determination of disability (the who, how and what) is an important contributor to this impact.

In Latvia special education support is enshrined in the General Education Law in Article 3 (*General Education Law*, 1999). Article 1 of the Education Act specifies the range of people who require the support of special education (*Education Act*, 1998). It states that special education services create the opportunities and conditions for students with special needs to be able to access any educational institution and to receive an appropriate education which takes into account their health needs, capabilities and level of development, all the while providing educational, psychological and medical adjustments, preparing them for work and life in the community. The term, "special needs" is defined in Article 1 as being "a need for support and rehabilitation which, when provided, facilitates the student's access to the curriculum, while taking into account the state of the student's health, his/her capabilities and level of development" (*Amendments to the General Education Act*, 2011). The term "rehabilitation" again reinforces that the problem rests with the student.

With such a broad definition of special needs, it is the role of the State Pedagogical Medical Commission or local government pedagogical medical commissions to ensure that students with special needs can access a quality education based on equality and equal rights. These commissions determine who meets the special needs criteria and can access additional or different services. As was mentioned earlier, the Soviet approach to people with disabilities was one of defectology and, to a lesser degree, these commissions reflect this approach by looking at within-child factors. This, however, is not an unusual approach.

In NSW, almost from the earliest days of public education, the dominant discourse concerning the education of students with EBD has been based on a deficit model, which implies that the individual needs "fixing". The process of securing a diagnosis for students with EBD by a health professional has been the responsibility of the school, particularly the school counsellor. The diagnosis is just part of the process, but consideration for placement in support classes or additional funding does not occur without the diagnosis. Diagnosis alone is not sufficient for special placement. As in Latvia, the student's case, but not the student, is reviewed by a student support services committee at a municipal level to determine placement. Part of the deliberation of the committee involves consideration of the environment that the student will be going to, impacts on other students, and any special

physical needs or resources. The committee does not prescribe the special education programme as it does in Latvia; that is left to the school's learning and support team and the class teacher/s.

While disability categorisation in itself may at times be useful, by providing common understanding of concepts assisting with the sharing of information, of concern is how meanings and values are constructed that accompany the diagnoses; how education systems, schools and teachers use this information and how it impacts on the way that students are taught. Underlying discriminatory beliefs are the principal source of the problem, rather than the label itself. Also of concern is the perpetuation of the belief systems that underpin the acceptance of the use of medical or psychological labels for educational purposes (Erten & Savage, 2012, p. 222).

The medical model has consequences for students and teachers. Prior to the period when integration or mainstreaming was popular, students placed in segregated classrooms were often excluded when it came to whole school activities or had specific playground areas identified for their use. Special classrooms became 'dumping grounds for those students viewed as untouchable or undesirable' (Reddy, 1999, p. 11). This led some regular class teachers to believe that the students did not belong in a regular classroom either because their own education suffered or that of their peers did. Students suffered because often they experienced lowered expectations with respect to their academic and social achievements (van Swet et al, 2001, p. 911). In NSW the expression "dumbing down the curriculum" identifies an issue that needed to be addressed, particularly with students with behaviour support needs as often their learning suffered, but this was not due to any cognitive deficit but rather that teachers equated the EBD label with generalised lowered expectations. L. Metcalf (1995, p. 5) noted that students often ended up living up to their labels. Teachers and parents may also cling to a particular diagnosis or label because it provides an explanation for the student's behaviour, which dissociates them from the problem behaviours and encourages the belief that the problem resides with the student. The use of a disability label alone without a solution-focussed approach contributes to social oppression and is essentially a discriminatory process (Reindal, 2008, p. 138). This is the opposite of the current global thrust for inclusive schooling. Diagnosis purely from the perspective of the medical model simply does not fit into any model of inclusive education (van Houten, 2007, p. 7).

A further consequence of the use of a medical model in NSW is demonstrated with the durability of labels. Students with EBD can be diagnosed with a range of mental health issues but these conditions need not be permanent. Teachers must understand that any label or diagnosis is contextual and not lifelong otherwise it may negate their belief that change is possible. Unlike diagnoses, like having the mumps or influenza, which are understood by teachers as short-term illnesses, students who attract labels such as conduct disorder or post-trauma stress disorder, without the context being used as a mediator, are treated as permanently having this disorder as it is recorded on student files, repeated by one teacher to another during handover and discussed at school and faculty meetings. Furthermore, F. Orsati and J. Causton-Theoharis (2013, p. 509) observed that labels, such as ‘serious misconduct’ and ‘aggressive behaviour’, are used by teachers routinely but in an unexamined way.

Labels can be used for many purposes outside of their alleged medical definitions. The label becomes a shortcut to shared understanding leaving no need to explore specific circumstances relating to each student. This can impact on teacher expectations of the student and their beliefs on how best to educate the student. Furthermore labels can impact on teacher beliefs not just about one student but all students with the same diagnosis or label. A teacher can come to believe that all students who have a diagnosis of conduct disorder will be the same, setting up false assumptions or fears about students. K. Eriksen and V. Kress (2006, p. 204) also state that the use of a label can diminish student beliefs in themselves as unique individuals. Labels, furthermore, are not just attached to individual students but can be coupled with a deficit approach to families and whole communities. Teachers perceive that students from disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to have behaviour support issues and therefore can be stereotyped as such (Araújo, 2005, p. 248). The labelling process has led some teachers to believe that they were not sufficiently skilled to teach these students as the focus was on individual deficits.

The NSW government school system labelled specialist classes for students with mental health problems as “emotionally disturbed” reinforcing the idea that it is the student who has the problem. However there is another issue. In NSW students with behaviour support issues are either treated as if they have a disability and labelled as such, or, they are not considered to meet any of the disability criteria that would lead to a specific diagnosis and therefore teachers view them as just naughty or difficult students. Such students can be seen as having no excuse for the way that they are behaving as they have no identifiable medical or

psychological condition. In this case, without the redeeming feature of a medical label, they earn a quasi-label such as rude, disruptive, disobedient, ill-disciplined (Graham, in Mowat, 2010, p. 634). If teachers believe that students are choosing to misbehave, then this impacts on how they interact with these students, what interventions they are prepared to implement and works against any shift by teachers. The use of labels stops teachers from examining atypical behaviour, rather it encourages teachers to compare pears (the students with behaviour support issues) with apples (those without behaviour support issues) and to expect the pears to become apples based on socio-cultural constructs of what is normal behaviour. This can also lead teachers to label students as “failures”. While labels per se may be useful in providing some information to teachers, how they are understood and used can work against teacher understanding of students with behaviour difficulties and also negate belief in their ability to manage such students.

As the medical model placed an emphasis on deficits, there has been a gradual move during the last few decades, especially amongst educators, towards a way of determining need without relying on a deficit model but rather by addressing the barriers that the student may face. As Van Swet, Wichers-Bots and Brown state, “The ways in which individuals with disabilities are viewed has been an evolving global debate. The World Health Organization (WHO) revised its International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) in 2001 to consider the impact rather than the cause of the universal human experience of disability” (2001, p. 909). The social model, which emphasises the need to address the environmental barriers, whether they be physical, psychological or mental, provides an alternative. This alternative does not place all of the onus on the student to change as implied by the medical model but takes a more collaborative approach to seeking solutions which will address these barriers.

This focus changed the emphasis of diagnosis for educational purposes. Within the medical model, individuals who were specifically trained for that purpose, who held the knowledge and therefore also had the power, undertook the diagnosis. Yet, if the behaviour that teachers find challenging is a social construct and is a result not of a deficit within the student but the overall social and learning environment in the classroom and relationships in the classroom, then this total environment needs to be considered, not just the student (Orsati and Causton-Theoharis (2013, p. 509). The need to consider context means that a co-operative network of teachers, parents, the student and other professionals has the responsibility for the assessment

process, for determining the nature of support and interventions aimed at optimal educational outcomes for the student (Watkins, 2007, p. 37). The use of a label in isolation does not do justice to the complexity of cognitive development and the use of an expert eroded teacher beliefs in their ability to make appropriate educational decisions about vulnerable students.

It was only in the 2000s that the DEC embraced an interactive, solution-focussed perspective with a social model for providing support to students which reflected student needs, environmental adjustments, teacher professional judgements and personalised learning plans. This social model removes the emphasis on the behaviours of concern as being exclusively the domain of the student to that of the student's functioning within an interactive environment. (van Swet, et al., 2011, p. 910). During the years when the DEC practised segregation and integration, the locus of the problem rested exclusively with the student. During the phase of inclusion and currently, celebrating diversity, the focus relocated to factors relating to the student within a specific environment. The student remained central but positive changes were to be sought through the context. Under these circumstances, the benefit from the use of a disability label is minimised, if barriers relating to the student's functioning can be removed through changes to the context.

In Latvia labels persist and students with special needs are allocated to one of nine special education programmes which specify the support to be provided for students with physical, sensory, intellectual disabilities and language, learning and behaviour difficulties. Apart from the intervention team, which is part of the child protection services and which works with municipalities, schools and the family, there are no formal requirements for a team approach in the assessment of educational need and the development of support programmes in schools. While some knowledge about a student's diagnosis may provide relevant information, this is not sufficient to address all of the barriers to effective learning that a student may face in the complex and dynamic environment of a school. This can only lead to flawed intervention plans. Any approach that places the blame for the behaviour totally at the feet of the student, is unlikely to promote a shift in teacher beliefs about incorporating the student into the class.

4.5 National/State level knowledge sharing in NSW and Latvia

Another significant element in structuring teacher beliefs is the access to information about students with behaviour support needs, especially information related to pedagogical

practices. As K. Christophersen et al., (2016, p. 249) note, pre-service professional learning impacts teacher views of self-efficacy with respect to students with behaviour support needs and teacher views of their self-efficacy contribute to what actions teachers take in their classrooms and their ability to implement new approaches.

In NSW there are seventeen providers who provide pre-service teacher education. Of these, the majority provide stand alone units on classroom management, four have integrated classroom management into other units of study. Classroom management units generally run for twelve to thirteen weeks and consist of thirty to thirty-nine hours of study. The philosophies underpinning these units vary. These include a focus on: concepts of equity and justice; a social justice approach; valuing or responding to student diversity; equity and inclusion; environments to enable all students to participate fully and achieving a balance between the rights of members of the school community with acknowledging respect and responsibilities for all participants.

Teaching methodology used for knowledge sharing in Classroom Management differs between providers from student-directed to teacher-directed approaches, with all providers incorporating elements of both. The majority of units adopt an approach that covers a range of theories, but focusses on classroom practice. Teacher education students are given the opportunity to think critically about these theories and practices, to implement these in professional experience placements, reflect on their successes/areas for improvement and devise their own classroom management philosophies and plans. Some universities ground their work in specific models such as the Quality Teaching Model or Positive Behaviour Interventions and Support (PBIS), Applied Behaviour Analysis and Inclusive Education. Several providers in their Christian/biblical perspective offer “biblical approaches” to behaviour management and ethical difficulties that arise in school settings.

In most courses creating a positive classroom environment is stressed, and are links made to good pedagogy and a preventative focus. Some institutions still refer to behaviour management rather than behaviour support, a shift in terminology, which aimed to signal the importance of developmental processes that result in pro-social behaviour rather than just control.

In Latvia of the major universities, the University of Latvia, Liepāja University, Daugavpils University and Rezekne Academy of Technology offer pre-service and in-service courses. Globally lifelong learning has become prominent and this is the case in Latvia as well. Furthermore, Latvian teachers must complete thirty-six hours of professional learning over three years to maintain their accreditation. Reforms continue within the school system, such as the introduction of competency-based teaching/learning, and these require professional learning support. Overall, universities have a significant role to play in providing for lifelong and professional learning. A review of what is being offered in the 2017/2018 academic year provides little in the way of support for teachers with student behaviour. Rezekne offers in-service courses in: inclusive education for students with mental disorders, which includes a holistic approach and planning for individual correction; students with special needs in inclusive settings, which includes how to reduce students' behaviour problems through the teaching/learning process; using collaborative teaching/learning in inclusive classrooms which includes how to reduce behaviour problems and resolving conflict in the classroom; the teacher's role in inclusive education, which includes inclusion for students with developmental disorders; a unit specifically on students with autism spectrum disorder; and, values education integrated with teaching/learning and upbringing. The University of Latvia offers in-service courses on teaching students with multiple or moderate to severe disabilities (although this is unlikely to include students with EBD); characteristic features of the pedagogical process when working with children with disorders in mental development, psychological problems and learning disabilities; and social skills and emotional literacy (audzināšana) in school.

Undergraduate degrees offer little in the way of pre-service courses on behaviour support. Liepāja University offers courses that prepare sport and dance teachers, music teachers, history and social studies teachers, primary and special education teachers. The degree in special education offers a course in diagnosing and correcting mental disorders but not behaviour support, the remainder mention no courses on classroom management or behaviour support. Daugavpils University also offers undergraduate courses for teacher preparation. This programme lists courses in the basics of up-bringing (audzināšana), pedagogical psychology, the psychology of communication and safety at school. From this list it is difficult to determine what, if any, element of classroom management and behaviour support are included. The University of Latvia offers undergraduate courses for those students wishing to be teachers in pre-school, primary, work as special education teachers or subject

teachers. These courses all state as aims: the development of student teacher skills in both up-bringing and teaching/learning; ensuring that they understand students cognitive and socio-emotional development based on the latest theories of developmental psychology; that student teachers recognise disturbances in the child's cognitive and socio-emotional development, how to reduce these and work collaboratively. The courses also require the students to demonstrate their own social skills and emotional literacy. Rēzekne Academy offers courses for primary teachers, social pedagogues and special education teachers. All of these courses include a unit on theories of up-bringing and didactics and an introduction to special education and psychology for social pedagogues. Special education teachers have these two units and also a course on the basis of psychotherapy and psychosomatic disorders.

There are some interesting features of these units or courses. There is nothing that could be specifically identified as dealing with classroom management and/or behaviour support. There are units that deal with developmental disorders and these may include behaviour support needs of these students but that is not specified. It is also interesting that these units have a weighty emphasis on psychology and developmental theories. Overall the courses leave an impression that the solution to any difficulties lies with the teacher understanding the student's needs and correcting (the universities' term) shortcomings. That demonstrates a direction quite different from the social model that accompanies inclusion. Of course, student needs must be considered, but so should teaching/learning adjustments, the classroom environment, the interactions between, and with, other students. These units seem more suited to a medical model of student diagnosis and intervention, one that again stresses difference rather than diversity. This has implications for teacher beliefs. Teachers are not being provided with suitable educationally sound, as opposed to psychological approaches, to students experiencing difficulties, regardless of the aetiology. Teachers are not psychologists, they have a totally different brief. As discussed earlier, medical categories may provide valid and useful information, but to use them to drive educational programmes is a mistaken direction unlikely to foster inclusive practices. Collaboration is the key, between psychologists and teachers, with teachers basing their decisions on educational factors. Instead, through the strong focus on psychology, the message that teachers might hear is that these students are different, need specialist support, should be in a special setting not in a class with regular students and so on. This hinders rather than promotes a shift. It also means that beginning teachers are entering the workforce with beliefs and skills that are more suitable to segregated and integrated settings than inclusive ones.

Pre-service preparation of teachers with respect to behaviour support was the one area that the majority of responders to the survey, those teachers who prepared intervention plans and took part in seminar discussions, experts, specialist teachers and beginning teachers all agreed on. The Latvian teachers and experts stated that current preparation is insufficient in this area with too little attention being directed at behaviour support.

4.6 Reducing marginalisation of students with behaviour support needs at a system level

The review of system level support and documentation indicates that the following criteria need to be met if teachers are to become more inclusive of students with behaviour support needs in their classrooms:

- provision of specific, sequenced and detailed support documents and guidelines;
- on-going reference to key issues in system level and school documents;
- avoidance of the vocabulary of specialisation;
- in depth commitment to inclusion of a diverse population by incorporation of key principles, such as document readability, in all documents;
- rejection of the use of medical labels which produce barriers to the engagement of students with behaviour support needs and which reinforces existing teacher beliefs;
- leadership team support for on-going teacher learning and systems' structures that fosters this.

4.7 What has been ascertained through comparison of Latvian and NSW documents

National and State documents demonstrate the nation's or state's thinking about students with behaviour support needs and other disabilities. Documents such as policies and guidelines also demonstrate systems' willingness to support schools with the implementation process to ensure that legislature is executed as intended.

This study began with the aim of determining how to achieve a shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs to a more inclusive vision of their presence in regular classrooms. Central to this process is the interaction of various webs and agents. The following webs emanate from, or influence, the national/state level: the web of global directions and statements including confusion over the meaning and implication of the

inclusion movement for each state or nation; the web of national or state laws, regulations and policies including the interaction between laws, regulations and policies and schools, teachers and the community; the web of national/state documents which may perform as a unified cadre or as a series of spasmodic responses as part of the political agenda; the web of collaboration between government departments and agencies; and the web of pre-service and in-service learning. Teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs are unlikely to shift if they see innovative practices as an imposition emanating from the state in response to political needs rather than educational ones, have no understanding about how the State views significant ideology such as inclusion, are unsupported in their attempts to implement new practices at a national level, school level or by prior or current learning.

This chapter demonstrated the range and content of policies in NSW addressing the schooling of students with behaviour support needs and compared it to that of Latvia. The result is striking. NSW has policies that address issues from various angles so that concepts from the laws that deal with discrimination, for example, are re-iterated in the *Student Discipline Policy*, the *Behaviour Code*, the Policy on preventing and responding to bullying, and the *People with Disabilities – Statement of Commitment*. This allows for an ongoing focus on discrimination by teachers and for DEC to scaffold the implementation through policy and support documents repeatedly. In other words it is an on-going process.

These documents have not been released as one package in a linear flow, rather they have emerged through the interaction of existing policies, the community, schools and teachers. This interaction is another important element. Such interaction has led to the identification of policies that need modification or the development of new policies to reduce the possibility of flaws in the implementation of legislature. The interaction includes feedback from consultations, media responses and the reception by teachers and administrators of professional learning opportunities.

As a result of this intersection between the theory or legislature, and practice or the school community, the DEC moved to an alternative to inclusion, which still promoted the concepts associated with inclusive practices such as participation, welcoming diversity, differentiated instruction, equity in access to teaching/learning and opportunities for participation and contribution. In doing so it provides an example of glocalisation in action, of global

directions being hybridised to suit the local context and of the impact of multidirectional flow of intersecting elements and agencies.

Examples of this interaction in Latvia between legislature, guidelines and various agencies involved in the consultation process can be seen in the development of some documents, such as those developed by the office of the Valsts bērnu tiesību aizsardzības inspekcija (VBTAI) or Children's Ombudsman. As yet there is little indication that this process has been part of other national documents, which indicate that they have been created by experts or as Cabinet Regulations.

There is, however, another important element associated with policy implementation beyond the associated support documents and professional learning, that being, the combining of a DEC policy document with other policies forming a composite set. Policies relating to discipline need to be read within the context of other policy documents relating to students with disabilities, behaviour support needs, learning support and so on, as they usually all promote a similar message, share related knowledge and communicate correlated expectations. This is not the case in Latvia.

Latvia has a few guidelines relating to students with disabilities or behaviour support needs, some of which are not directed at the needs of teachers but other specialists, and none have been developed by the Ministry of Education and Science. These guidelines, moreover, do not have the same scaffolding structure as NSW policies where schools and teachers are steered through each step of the implementation process. Schools in Latvia may be told what is needed, but there is no document detailing how to achieve this and again flawed implementation may be the result.

Support for students with disabilities, including behaviour support needs in Latvia, is provided through Cabinet Regulation defined specialised programmes rather than making teaching/learning adjustments. This again reinforces these students as being special with special needs. The need for a special programme takes the onus away from the teacher to adjust teaching/learning in order to provide a relevant, engaging and quality programme for all students in the class and reinforces that it is the student's problem not the teacher's or the result of a specific situation, context or environment.

Another element that is crucial for a teacher to make a shift in beliefs and implement innovative practices is that of how students are categorised. Defining students with behaviour support needs through medical labels has encouraged teacher assumptions that medical interventions are needed, yet a diagnosis is not sufficient. Societies determine what behaviours are acceptable and under what circumstances institutions, like schools, can be discriminatory. A model, therefore, which pays attention to the removal of obstacles to participation, be that physical, social, emotional, educational, such as the social model provides a more complete approach. Reliance just on a diagnosis would lead to flaws in the development and implementation of support programmes which would mitigate against success and leave the students in a cycle of vulnerability, which is experienced by many students with behaviour support needs.

Some elements which are supportive of teachers making sense of legislature and its implementation are missing or confusing in Latvia's national documentation. By comparing documents from both systems, it is clear that while the intention of national/state laws might be similar, that is provision of support, access to teaching/learning and participation for all student including those with disabilities, the differing contexts and sensibilities are impacting on outcomes so that the results are not the same.

Chapter conclusions

This chapter established the following as important for achieving a shift in teacher beliefs:

- teachers need on-going support and direction in order to make a shift in beliefs including provision of specific, sequenced and detailed support documents and guidelines;
- documents developed by systems need to use the language of inclusion and avoid the vocabulary of specialisation;
- there needs to be on-going reference to key issues such as the incorporation of students with behaviour support needs in system level and school documents;
- removal of categorisation of students using medical labels reduces marginalisation of students;

- pre-service and in-service learning opportunities provide opportunities for shifts in beliefs if key criteria for the inclusion of students with behaviour support needs are addressed;
- the leadership team and system structures contribute to whether or not teacher beliefs shift.

The following chapter will examine local webs of influence on teacher beliefs, specifically those associated with the adaptation of behaviour support strategies.

Chapter Five

The local webs:

Behaviour support and its adaption in Latvia with comments from the NSW experience

5.0 The student behaviours causing concern

Everything that a teacher does to build a positive climate in the classroom works towards student behaviour support (Gage, Larson, Sugai & Chafouleas, 2016, p. 493). The observable face of classroom climate is the interaction, which takes place between teachers and students and amongst students themselves, which is framed by the normative behaviours that are acceptable in that classroom. Underlying this are the shared beliefs and values, which set the parameters for the normative, acceptable behaviour (Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013, p. 599) and these shared beliefs and values may differ across classrooms and schools. Behaviour is not a given, but each classroom and school constructs or generates its own understanding of acceptable behaviour within a particular socio-cultural context (Ravet, 2007, p. 334). Is it then possible to generate universal elements that apply to all teachers, which may help to shift beliefs about students with behaviour support needs and provide the ongoing pedagogical assistance that these students require? In comparing research from Western countries with the responses provided by Latvia teachers it would appear so.

Research undertaken by B. Johnson, M Oswald and K. Adey (1993, p. 289) found that teachers reported a pattern of minor discipline problems as of concern. These included idleness and work avoidance, talking out of turn and hindering others. Serious behaviours were relatively uncommon. While most of the behaviours were relatively minor, the fact that they were repetitive and interrupted learning caused stress for teachers (Sullivan et al., 2014, p. 44). Australian studies have found that 76% of secondary teachers' time is directed at dealing with disruptive behaviour and that 10-20% of students display behaviour difficulties (Infantino & Little, 2005, p. 493). Similarly Latvian teachers who responded to the survey indicated that they believed inappropriate behaviour was a problem in their class (70%) and over half of the teachers (59%) indicated that they spent more time with these students than others.

In their reflections and intervention plans, completed as part of the VISC project undertaken in 2012, Latvian teachers identified the following behaviours as most desirable: students seek help with arguments and conflict; they are friendly and courteous; they follow the rules especially, taking turns, listening to the teacher and raising their hand. They added that they wanted students to take responsibility for their behaviour. As with teachers elsewhere, the focus is on low-level behaviours not on violence. Likewise, in their responses to the survey questions Latvian teachers identified the main behavioural concerns as (from highest to lowest concern): problems with paying attention; lack of respect for other students; hyperactive behaviour; lack of respect for the teacher; and seeking attention in inappropriate ways. Interestingly R. Hastings and M. Bham (2003, p. 123) surveyed 100 British primary and secondary teachers and reported that disrespectful student behaviour predicted teacher emotional exhaustion. Lack of respect displayed by students is an issue for all teachers, however, for Latvian teachers whose authority was absolute in the Soviet era, this is doubly challenging especially when added to the work pressures created by a system that, since the return to democracy, seems to be constantly reforming itself in a somewhat *ad hoc* manner.

Literature from Western countries demonstrates that it is the frequency of behaviours that leads teachers to be most concerned with the low level behaviours. In the UK, concern about levels of student violence led to the *Elton Enquiry into Discipline in Schools* (Department of Education and Science, 1989). Contrary to concerns raised by the media about violent behaviour, the behaviours that were identified as most of concern were ‘talking out of turn,’ or ‘calling out,’ as identified in US studies, ‘hindering other pupils’, ‘calculated idleness or work avoidance’ and ‘verbal abuse towards other pupils’. Similar results were identified in Australian research, which showed that different forms of behaviour such as distractibility and hindering others cause teachers greatest concern (Stephenson, Linfoot, & Martin, 2000, p. 233). Similarly, A. Sullivan et al, (2014, p. 43) discussing behaviour in Australian schools found that teachers identified “talking out of turn” and similar low level behaviours as of most concern and also as the main behaviour of the most troublesome students. Interestingly students also identified this behaviour as the most troublesome and most frequent (Infantino & Little, 2005, p. 498). Boys were consistently identified as causing more difficulty for teachers than girls. Other relatively minor disruptive behaviours were disobedience, idleness/slowness, making unnecessary noise, and aggression (Little, Hudson, & Wilks, 2002; Stephenson, Linfoot, & Martin, 2000). These affect teacher stress, wellbeing, and confidence, and also impact negatively on student learning time and academic achievements

(Clunies-Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008, p.693). The Latvian teacher survey responses indicated that they also believed inappropriate behaviour impacted on other student learning (84%) and 62% believed that misbehaving students made them less enthusiastic about teaching as a career.

The issue is the frequency of relatively low-level behaviours that disrupt the learning of other students and the student's engagement rather than extreme behaviours. As these are, however, linked to teacher emotional exhaustion as well as student disengagement, the behaviours need to be addressed. The remainder of this chapter will examine how the major concepts identified in the literature review such as prevention of behaviour issues (rules and positive teacher/student relationships) and responding to them (using consequences and feedback) are understood and implemented by Latvian schools and teachers, with the NSW experience providing insights.

5.1 Addressing the major behaviour support concepts in Latvia

5.1.1. Concept: use of rules

In NSW school rules are mandatory and classroom rules, if expressed as an ethos such as “Respect one another”, are accompanied by a list of student responsibilities, as suggested by Bill Rogers’ *Positive Behaviour Leadership* model (2011). Rogers states behaviour support plans should be based on rights, respect and responsibilities. Students are seen to have rights, but they also need to fulfill their responsibilities. A rule may state, for example, that students must respect teachers, one another and property and this is accompanied by their responsibilities such as listening, turn taking, sharing of equipment, keeping their hands and feet to themselves and so on. Darcy Road Public School (PS) in NSW states, for example, in its Student Welfare Policy that three values underpin all actions and policies: respect, fairness and excellence. It then goes on to list expectations under the headings “Be a Learner”, “Be safe” and “Be respectful”. Each of these is expanded with a list of student responsibilities. Under “Be safe” the following appear: “Be in the right place; Walk in buildings and on hard surfaces; Keep your hands and feet to yourself; Don’t do anything to cause injury; Follow school routines; Wear a hat when outside”.

In Latvia the APU (*Atbalsts Pozitīvai Uzvedībai*, or Support for Positive Behaviour) project promotes the use of rules. This project, which closely resembles Sugai's Positive Behaviour Support (PBS), is based on the assumption that for students to change or manage their behaviour, they must first know what is expected and for this reason school rules need to be established which are short, positive and clearly state what is required (APU, 2013). Rīgas 53rd High School, which has introduced APU, also lists rules under headings, in this case "Safety". "Responsibility" and "Respect". The requirements under "Safety" include students looking after equipment; only bringing the equipment they need to school in their bags; keeping only what is necessary for the lesson on the desk in class; keeping their bag near the desk; hanging their jacket in the cloakroom or on the back of their chair; entering and leaving the classroom quietly, holding the door; on entering the classroom moving directly to their seat.

It can be seen that the direction of the two schools from Latvia and NSW in the example is similar. They stress values (Be Safe, Be a Learner, Be Respectful or Safety, Responsibility and Respect) and expand these by defining expected behaviours. Some behaviours are context specific, such as the need for students to wear a hat in the playground in NSW due to the strong sun or the need for students in Latvia to use a cloakroom for their overcoats, rarely needed in NSW. Safety at Darcy Road PS is framed in terms of physical and emotional safety (walking rather than running, keeping your hands and feet to yourself and not injuring others) as well as compliance (being in the right place, following routines). At the 53rd High School safety is framed by the use of equipment (looking after it, where it is kept, what is brought to school) and entrance to the classroom (entering quietly, going to your seat). At Darcy Rd PS being respectful includes being honest and truthful, working and playing fairly, being helpful to others, listening to the person speaking, responding to all school staff politely, wearing the school uniform, behaving responsibly, keeping the school clean and tidy, taking care of buildings, furniture and grounds, practising recycling and caring for animals. At the 53rd High School respect is defined within a range of situations: in class, in walkways, the cloakroom, cafeteria, the sports' hall, the toilet, on public transport, during excursions, in the teacher's/principal's office, before and after school, in the playground and at the library. In the classroom it involves greeting people on entering the class, talking only when it is your turn, talking quietly and politely, arriving to class before the bell, leaving class at the end of the lesson only with the teacher's permission and keeping mobile phones on silent. Again context specifies some responsibilities. In NSW all government school students wear

uniforms, which is not the case in Latvia. Similarly it is expected that students greet all adults in the school in Latvia as well as those students that they know. The same expectation is less evident in government schools in NSW.

Rules appear in most theories and models as it is not the rules themselves but how they are formed and implemented which is reflective of the locus of control in the classroom. Class rules need not be seen as the imposition of a teacher's will, but rather as a means for establishing and maintaining daily routines that help students understand social norms. APU states that rules should be collaboratively formulated and need to apply across the school.

Špona (2006) discusses rules places them in categories: specific directions, those focussed on the environment, and those dealing with relationships. She reflects the literature which states that rules should be specific, observable and measurable, when she comments that it is easier for students to self-manage if the rules are concrete, thus increasing the likelihood of developing self-discipline. In both the NSW and Latvian example Špona's categories are clearly evident with rules relating to the environment (care for buildings, furniture and equipment, practicing recycling), specific directions (arriving on time, walking in buildings) and relationships (greeting people, speaking quietly and politely, listening, taking turns to speak) and again they reflect the influence of the web of context. The need to speak quietly and politely and to greet people appears in almost every category within the 53rd High School. This reflects the concern with respect that teachers in the Latvian survey identified. Similarly the rules from Darcy Rd PS reflect concern with the environment, reflective of the directive from DEC that all schools develop and implement a school environment management plan that is meaningful to the whole school community. The difference lies not in the absence or presence of rules, but in the context that influences the development of these rules.

5.1.2 Concept: use of consequences

Rules are accompanied by consequences. In some schools in NSW there are uniform consequences across the school, usually in the form of a levels' system. Rules make clear behavioural expectations and following these rules leads to rewards and privileges and consequences for not following the rules. There are criteria for advancing to the next level where the student will experience more desirable contingencies. The primary advantage of a

levels system is that it specifies a hierarchy and can alleviate teacher stress in being unprepared for the behaviours that they confront and therefore, this process stops teachers from using reactive strategies. Reactive strategies can be inconsistent with an inclusive environment (Soodak, 2003; Mayer, 1995). It does rely, however, on extrinsic teacher control and thus may not align with some teacher beliefs. It also needs to be considered carefully in the context of NSW's current approach of celebrating diversity, which is based on a social model, focussed on individualised problem-solving.

In Latvia the APU project also refers to consequences. Rules are not only collaborative but their implementation is also a collaborative process. Teachers at the school determine the associated reward system and agreed upon strategies for use when rules are not followed. The project also focusses on ways to teach the rules and how to encourage students through positive communication.

Consequences for following the rules are just as important as those for breaking the rules. Positive reinforcement can be in the form of: a token economy, where a tangible item is linked to a reinforcing event; social reinforcement, which is teacher approval and attention; primary reinforcements, where edibles are used after appropriate behaviour, or, contingency management, which basically implements Grandma's law allowing a favoured activity once a set task is completed. The APU project in Latvia discusses a hierarchy of positive reinforcement which includes extrinsic reinforcement, through edibles, stickers and so forth, special privileges and social reinforcement through smiles, certificates and intrinsic motivation which is the student's own desire to be successful and believe in his/her own abilities. Stress is placed on the availability of these reinforcements to every student regardless of their academic and social skills. It is interesting to compare this use of reinforcement with the responses of teachers who took part in the survey. They shied away from edible or tangible rewards but were comfortable with verbal praise, and this provides another illustration of how it is possible for a flaw in implementation to arise when a suggested, new strategy or approach does not align with personal and cultural beliefs.

Other flaws may arise with teacher use of consequences. This could be due to teacher lack of consistent use of consequences, or the choice of inappropriate consequences or insufficient understanding of how the particular selected theory uses consequences. Dreikurs' logical

consequences (1974) are quite different from Canters' "three strikes and you are out" approach (1976) or Alberto and Troutman's control of consequent events (2003).

In NSW to circumvent such flaws in implementation, expectations of teachers and the consequences for inappropriate behaviour are often clearly dictated by the school. At Darcy Road PS, for example, the policy states that:

"individual teachers will be responsible for the promotion of positive behaviour management in the classroom. The following management strategies will form the basis of an effective classroom climate:

- A few short, simple and positive classroom rules (or class contract). These will be developed in collaboration with students; contain both positive and negative consequences; be prominently displayed within the room and students will be actively taught what the rules mean.
- Classroom routines (or protocols for learning) will be established and regularly reinforced. This includes movement into and out of room, distribution of materials, placement and care of resources and individual requirements, and routines for roll marking and money collection.
- Students will be provided with leadership opportunities and responsibilities
- A developmental management plan for disruptive students with special needs.
- Teachers will provide a positive role model of consistent, caring and controlled behaviour".

The policy then goes on to specify a system of awards:

The merit system aims to improve self-esteem and to encourage contribution, effort and achievement.

- *Sufficient Bronze Awards will be available to all teachers in the school, which will allow the possibility for every child to receive one award per term.*
- *A Silver Award is presented on receipt of 5 Bronze Awards. Parents are invited to attend the award assembly and names are acknowledged in the newsletter. Silver Award assemblies are held each term.*
- *Upon attainment of 4 Silver Awards, a Gold Award is presented. Parents are invited to a special assembly, name is acknowledged in newsletter and in the office foyer and a special Principal's morning tea is held during term 4 of each year.*
- *Students carry the accumulation of awards from one year to the next.*

- *Students, in Year 6, who have attained 2 gold awards will be taken on a special excursion in term 4. The Principal is to decide on the venue.*

This is followed by clear instructions on the consequences if student behaviour is disruptive:

- *“When a student is behaving unacceptably in the classroom, the teacher will give the student warnings. Direct comments or signals will be used to remind the student to act appropriately.*
- *The student will be placed on the second level of behaviour plan (Blue Light). This is to signify that they are now participating in the Thinking Light process. Students will be warned that if the behaviour continues, they will be moved onto the next light.*
- *Yellow light signifies time out in the classroom. Each classroom will have a chair or table that students will move to when inappropriate behaviour occurs.*
- *Orange light signifies time out in the buddy class. The student will spend 5 – 10 minutes in an adjoining room. The student will spend this time reflecting on his/ her behaviour. The buddy teacher will discuss the behaviour with the student and strategies that may be employed to correct the behaviour.*
- *Red light warrants time out with an Assistant Principal. The student has chosen not to correct his/ her behaviour despite participating in the Thinking Light process. The Assistant Principal will decide the appropriate consequence for the student relative to the misbehaviour. Parents may be contacted if necessary.*
- *The Principal will be notified of repeated and continued unacceptable misbehaviour. Documentation will be provided as a point of reference. Parents will be contacted.*
- *Suspension for continued disobedience according to the DEC Guidelines.*
- *In the case of violent, extreme or dangerous behaviour, the teacher will assess the situation and seek the help of the principal or other executive staff. Parents will be contacted immediately.*

Students do not remain on current level/light beyond a teaching session.”

The information from Riga’s 53 High School is limited in comparison to the detail concerning consequences and requirements of teachers which is available from Darcy Road PS. It does however state that:

- *The school has clear rules of conduct;*
- *All rules are related to safety, responsibility and respect;*

- *Students will learn the rules for behaviour with their teachers;*
- *Students will be able to receive awards for positive behaviour;*
- *All school staff will respond to violations of the rules in a uniform manner.*

The direction of the two schools with respect to rules and consequences is similar. There will be consequences for following the rules (awards) as well as consequences for violations of the rules. These consequences will be uniformly applied. The differences that are most marked are the attention to detail in NSW in terms of stating clear expectations of teachers, not just students, and elaborating the consequences making it clear to teachers, student and parents what can be expected and what will happen. The other difference is the number of rules. In the Darcy Rd document there are six responsibilities under “Be a learner”, six for “Be safe” and eleven for “Be respectful”, twenty-three responsibilities in all. In the Latvian school, each of the three values (Safety, Responsibility, Respect) is divided into fourteen categories such as in class, in the cloakroom, at the bus stop etc. Each category has between five and nineteen obligations that the student must fulfill, totalling 135 altogether. While some of these responsibilities are repeated, especially greeting people, talking quietly and being polite, it is still an almost overwhelming number. Teachers have learned to divide academic tasks into smaller ones so that students who are overawed by large tasks can complete them in smaller, manageable portions and, therefore, will attempt the task rather than giving up on it. This approach needs to be applied to behaviour as well. The main object of the rules, that is, being safe, responsible and respectful, may be glossed over by students with behaviour support needs who are overawed by 135 responsibilities and, influenced by their own faulty beliefs, may think that they can never master so many and give up before even trying.

Again the interaction between contextual webs of influence and the agents, be they teachers, schools, parents or students can be seen. NSW has a centralised approach to school education which is reflected in the Darcy Road policy document. The interaction between the school and the broader web of departmental policy results in a replication of the centralised approach to education taken by the state. The school specifies in its local policy how teachers are to manage student behaviour rather than leaving it to individual teacher choice. The authoritative approach reflects the perspective of The Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation (CESE) documents on classroom management such as: *The Classroom Management Fact Sheet* (2014); *Classroom Management Literature Review* (2014); *Summaries of Key Research Articles* (2018) and *Professional Teaching Standards Relating to Classroom Management*

(2018). The documents stress the need for student engagement, rules, routines, praise and consequences which need to be implemented with fidelity as part of a whole-school approach. Interestingly, the documents were released by the Centre for Educational Statistics and Evaluation, rather than the part of the DEC organisation which focusses on students with behaviour support needs, reflecting the neoliberal fuelled search for empirically proven “best practice”. It should, however, be noted that these documents exist and do provide teachers with guidance.

These two publically available documents demonstrate a commitment to the use of consequences, although the one from Latvia provides little detail. The survey response of teachers from Latvia reflected this commitment with over half stating that they reminded students of the consequences of inappropriate behaviour and about a third considering this a useful strategy. When it came to a more structured approach, the use of a classroom discipline plan and a hierarchy of consequences, a half indicated that they rarely, if ever, used this approach. This again points to a discrepancy between the approach taken in NSW and in Latvia. To increase the fidelity of implementation and reduce flaws, Darcy Road PS specifies the consequences, the hierarchy of consequences and the plan for implementation. While the centralised approach of the NSW document may remind Latvian teachers and schools of the centralisation of the Soviet system, it does provide teachers and schools with clear directions. This is another example of how a contextual element in an external web can either support (NSW) or hinder (Latvia) the implementation of new strategies.

The VISC responses also indicated a commitment to consequences. The teachers believed that the teacher must maintain control in the classroom and not give it over to the student. They believed teachers could best do this by using consequences consistently, as well as using proximity as a deterrent. Consequences need to be used broadly. Teachers need to be aware of the student when he/she is using appropriate behaviour and acknowledge this, not just focus on inappropriate behaviours. These comments show an awareness of the importance of paying attention to all behaviour, to “catch them being good” and the significance of encouragement and feedback, not just an application of a consequence for not following the rules.

5.1.3 Concept: providing feedback

While the use of rules and consequence help to establish a positive class climate by specifying expectations and providing guidance, teacher-student communication and their relationship also contribute to the class climate. The feedback that teachers provide students about their behaviour and attitudes is a key element of communication and one that can help to develop self-discipline. Feedback should not be confused with praise and is close to Dreikurs' recommendation to use encouragement, which helps students with developing an authentic understanding that they are accepted, capable and belong (1974). The reverse of encouragement is discouragement. Discouraged students are those who feel they cannot cope with the demands that schools place upon them and this leads to problems in the classroom. Students who are confident of their ability will generally use socially accepted and constructive means to become part of the group. Those who fear being unsuccessful will turn to other ways, usually disruptive, of belonging and gaining recognition.

The provision of feedback is an important strategy for students with behaviour support needs who misinterpret and misread situations. Dinham (2008a), discussing the work of John Hattie states, expert teachers monitor student problems and assess what they have understood, thus are more adept at providing relevant and useful feedback and this applies to their behaviour and attitudes as well as academic responses. Feedback has to be frequent and precise so that it provides the student with a way to improve either social or academic behaviour. It needs to be based on the professional judgement of the teacher and be practical. In this way it differs from positive reinforcement or praise. It is specific and provides future direction. As Dinham asserts " In the case of feedback, however, I'm prepared to state categorically that if you focus on providing students with improved, quality feedback in individual classrooms, departments and schools you'll have an almost immediate positive effect" (2008a, p. 23). Again this is an area for potentially flawed implementation if teachers are relying on praise or fail to provide feedback on behaviour, only doing so for academic learning.

Latvian teachers' survey responses indicated that they believed that strategies that encouraged students and provided feedback were useful, but that they also used praise. Two thirds of the teachers identified verbal praise as a useful strategy and one that they used, but they were more reticent to use stickers, group rewards or special rewards such as extra computer time. They distinguished between handing out stickers for positive behaviour and developing individual motivational programmes where stickers may form part of the planned reward system. A third of teachers encouraged students through coaching them in the use of positive

social behaviours. In general, they appear to be more comfortable with verbal praise rather than using tangibles, which may reflect the cultural context, whereas teachers in NSW are used to hierarchies of awards and, especially with primary school students, the use of tangibles as rewards. As the Darcy Road policy reveals, schools in NSW use reward programmes as a way of providing feedback on positive behaviours. It should be mentioned, however, that experience demonstrates that the most frequently used comments in classrooms are “Good work, good girl or good boy”, which provide little in the way of feedback or direction for future improvement.

The teachers completing the VISC reflections, however, indicate that Latvian teachers may focus their feedback, as opposed to praise, on academic tasks. The responses indicated that the need for systematic feedback for academic tasks was accepted but this was missing in the area of behaviour and beyond suggesting praise, their other strategies for feedback on behaviour performance were the use of positive reinforcement for on-task behaviour and a points system. Interestingly looking at the context, the old Soviet system placed significant emphasis on academic excellence. Perhaps this is one reason why the teachers identified systematic feedback on academic performance as important.

5.1.4 Concept: reciprocity and teacher-student relationships

K. Main and S. Whatman (2016, p. 1056) state that how teachers teach may be more important than what they teach. This includes the nature of the relationships that they establish with their students. Student-teacher relationships are another important element in building a positive classroom climate and providing behaviour support. S. Roffey (2012, p. 11) asserted that a sense of belonging and quality relationships are the foundations of excellent pedagogy, therefore, equally important for all students. Relationships between the teacher and students provide the social framework for academic learning (Liberante, 2012, p. 2). “The best teachers don’t simply teach content, they teach people” (Walker, 2009, p. 122). Modelling appropriate social interactions by developing supportive relationships is one tool teachers can use to improve students’ sense of belonging and social competence. Environments where relationships are important are crucial for implementing innovative practices. Teacher-student relationships provide the framework within which behaviour support is provided. They can bring about changes that are critical for students’ meaningful existence in schools, (Cornwall 2015, p. 64).

One of the needs that people have, as identified by Glasser (1986, 2001), is that of belonging. E. Deci and R. Ryan echo this in their Self-Determination Theory, noting a human being's tendency towards wanting 'to feel connected to others; to love and care' as well as needing to experience feeling competent and autonomous (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 231). Positive relationships with the teacher help to meet these needs as well as promoting healthy emotional development and improving academic achievement (Walker, 2009, p. 123) and impacting on social performance (Portilla, Ballard, Adler, Boyse & Obradovic, 2014). This means that these relationships act as a protective factor, especially for students who are at-risk of failure, such as those with behaviour support issues (Baker, 2006, 211; O'Connor, Dearing & Collins, 2011, p. 120; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt & Oortet, 2011, p. 493).

The nature of the relationship between the students and teacher has an effect on both. Negative relationships, as opposed to no relationship, between students and the teacher can lead to conflict caused by students feeling distressed and insecure, but also feature as an issue for those teachers leaving the profession (Pennings et al., 2014, p. 183).

Reflecting the need for connection raised by Deci and Ryan (2001), G. Alderman and S. Green (2011, p. 39) discuss how improvements in teacher/student relationships can lead to student improvements in their social interactions, their social competence, an enhanced sense of wellbeing and reduce school failure, all elements that are crucial for students with behaviour support needs. Teachers, therefore, of students with behaviour support needs must be aware of the variables which impact on teacher/student relationships with nondirectivity, empathy, warmth, and encouraging thinking and learning being particularly important (Cornelius-White, 2007, p. 134). This includes understanding that the relationship between the teacher and students does not operate only in one direction and that it can change over time. The quality of the relationship, for instance with adolescents, tends to decrease (Niehaus, Rudasill & Rakes, 2012, p. 446) probably impacted upon by changes that occur as part of a move to a new larger school, to multiple subjects with multiple teachers (De Wit, Karioja & Rye, 2010, p. 452) at the same time as puberty and the physical and emotional changes associated with it. Yet H. Pennings et al., (2014, p. 184) found that stability in interactions was important to achieve positive student teacher relationships, which may be difficult with adolescents. Other factors which impact on teacher-student relationships are student and teacher characteristics. Students with externalising behaviour support needs are

often in conflict with the teacher, which is likely to prevent a close teacher/student relationship from occurring (Nurmi, 2012, p. 191). Teachers need to foster three elements in their relationships with their students these being: genuineness, caring, and empathic understanding while working towards connectedness, competence and some level of autonomy.

Teachers demonstrate these elements in their relationships in a number of ways. One of the most obvious ways to promote responsible behaviour amongst students is through a teacher's display of self-discipline. R. Lewis and M. Lovegrove (1985, p. 324) note that students classify those teachers who remain calm when reprimanding students as the "best" teachers. Ginott (1972, p. 77) presents a similar view. Teachers must be civil. Teachers do not lose their tempers, insult others or resort to name-calling. They are not rude, sadistic or unreasonable. Instead they strive to model the behaviour they expect of students in their classrooms. They are polite, helpful and respectful. They handle conflicts in a calm and productive manner. In the face of a crisis, good teachers show reasonable behaviour and not uncivilised responses. This is important since students always wait to see how adults handle difficult situations. As Horne (1980, p. 228) points out, acceptable social behaviour may be acquired through teacher rules but only if the rules are consistent with the teacher's behaviour.

Implementation of innovative strategies when they involve concepts that are not central to the local environment can be flawed. In the Latvian teacher survey over a third of teachers indicated that they never modelled self-control strategies for the students and a quarter did not consider this a useful strategy. Fifty of the teachers who took part in the survey had been teaching for twenty-six years or more, which means that their training took place within the soviet system and they went to school in Soviet times. The authoritarian relationships which were expected within the Soviet system could still be influencing thought patterns and this, along with the absence of a planned and supportive transition by Ministry personnel to support the introduction of new procedures, regulations and approaches, impacts on teacher beliefs.

Špona (2006, p. 181-182) states that the following impact on teacher-student interactions: teacher commands which indicate that the teacher is in control; threats; insults; using negative comparisons between the student and others in the class; asking too many questions about the

behaviour; not listening to the student but instead giving advice. Teachers need to find ways to demonstrate that they are critical of the behaviour but not the student. An important variable is that of not giving up on students regardless of how they behave. Communication with students about behaviour should be concise and specific, as vague requests can confuse students and lead to non-compliance. Teachers can also become pre-occupied with power and control instead of learning and development. Unfortunately, power does not bring student cooperation but stimulates more resistance (Dinkmeyer & Dinkmeyer Jr, 1976, p. 664). Obviously the preferred environment is one where both teachers and students practise self-discipline.

Teachers agree that relationships are important and that supportive and positive relationships between teachers and students help to establish a balanced classroom climate that promotes engagement (Liberante, 2012). J. Hattie (2009, p. 119) observed that classrooms where there was more student engagement and respect, and fewer resistant behaviours, teachers focussed on positive relationships.

The teachers who took part in the VISC project reflect these ideas in their discussions during the course and their intervention plans for their classes. They indicated that interactions with students should be based on a good understanding of the student, his/her learning and behaviour needs and any specific health needs. They believed that interactions with students should be firm, but friendly. They suggested that teaching students to be optimistic would help with positive behaviour, which diverges from the usual suggestions such as teaching social skills or anger management.

They believed that they could develop good rapport with students through demonstrating their interest in the student's activities and showing that they cared about the student. It was also suggested that teachers should ensure that students with behaviour support needs had positive experiences at school each day and that they should avoid referring to past negative incidents. Good relationships with students could be maintained by using humour and remaining calm in class. Positive interactions, they believed, would be reinforced by devising classroom rules jointly with the students, informing parents of these rules and encouraging parents to follow the same rules if appropriate.

The VISC project teachers stressed awareness of their own behaviours and modelling desired behaviours, as important. In contrast other survey responders did not see the value of teachers modelling self-control. This variation in views may be explained by the fact that the teachers designing and implementing the intervention plans had just completed a thirty hour course on behaviour support, which incorporated teacher modelling of behaviours. If this is the case then the survey responses may be more indicative of teacher beliefs when teachers have not been exposed to courses that are designed to build their capacity.

Private interactions were also identified as important by VISC teachers, from preventative strategies like using private cues to prompt students, to engaging students in private discussions to address behaviour problems, as these contributed to positive relationships.

If Alderman and Green's approach to the "social power" model (2011) is applied to the responses of the Latvian teachers, it indicates that of the four types of social power, Latvian teachers suggested use of "expertness", that is teachers helping to solve problems, taking time to engage with and actively listen to the student as a favoured strategy. As they also wanted the student to develop a sense of belonging, they supported "manipulation" which allows the student to think that he/she has come up with the answer by, for example, giving the student choice or using a different tone of voice. The third type of power "coercion" was only reflected in the suggestion that a points system be used for reinforcement. This is coercive only in the sense that the teacher is in control and that this is clear to the student. They did not support strategies that involved any form of threat, which may be in-line with current approaches to engagement or could also be a response to the coercion that was experienced within Soviet education. The fourth social power "likability" was not raised at all. "Likability" refers to students viewing a teacher as personable or fun and this increasing the prospect of co-operation with the teacher. Perhaps for teachers who had experienced the Soviet system, either as teachers or students, this was not an approach that had previously been important and so had not entered their belief systems.

According to Ravet (2007, p. 359) social and emotional literacy is central to the process of forming positive relationships. Emotional literacy is the ability to recognise and manage feelings (Weare, 2004, p. 2) and what makes a difference to wellbeing and relationships is feeling connected and a person's ability to develop social and emotional skills (Main & Whatman, 2016, p. 1062). As Olweus (2011) notes, teachers can create a positive emotional climate in the classroom by teaching students social and relationship skills and helping them

to develop emotional regulation. Student with behaviour support needs, however, may not receive the support that they require in the classroom. A student's ability to respect class rules and interact positively with the teacher can impair the student-teacher relationship. This can lead to negative perceptions of the student. Teacher perceptions of individual students have a significant impact on classroom behaviour patterns (O'Brennan, Bradshaw & Furlough, 2014, p. 135). In such cases the teacher-student relationship does not serve as a protective factor (Gottesman, 2016, p. 318). Teachers can become, instead, more controlling indicating that teacher social and emotional literacy is also important.

Programmes based on social and emotional literacy (SEL) have been introduced in many schools, including NSW and Latvian schools. In Latvia, teaching social and emotional literacy is a relatively new concept. One formal trial of this approach was introduced alongside the APU project mentioned earlier. This was the Social and Emotional Upbringing project (*Socialālā emocionālā audzināšana*, SEA, Martinsone & Niedre, 2013), which aimed to teach students to understand and use emotions and explored the pedagogical uses of this approach. This social and emotional learning programme included elements from various programs from other countries, but in a combination that was matched to the cultural context of Latvia. The major themes were emotional self-regulation, positive social interaction, setting realistic and positive goals, and problem solving. This project was designed to be self-sustaining and involved teacher professional learning, the integration of the topics into the curriculum and local districts taking over responsibility for the project's ongoing implementation.

Teacher-Student relationships are dynamic and reciprocal, therefore not the result of the teacher's behaviour alone. School students are part of the interactive web at a local level that influences teacher beliefs and decisions. H. Marsh (2012, p. 162) lists the teacher behaviours that students identified with positive teacher-student relationships. These included a friendly and flexible approach, which provided choices and showed that teachers respected students. They expected teachers to display fairness and respect for the individual and saw their own misbehaviour in terms of other events that were taking place, for example teachers yelling at them (Garner, 2010, p. 310). They felt humiliated and inadequate when this happened (Lewis, Montuoro & McCann, 2013, p. 275). Students believed teachers should be enthusiastic and engaging in their delivery of lessons, using a range of activities and finding out how students liked to learn. As well teachers need to check for student understanding of the work, make the

students feel comfortable and ask about their interests outside of school so that students want to come and talk to the teacher. Finally with respect to classroom management, students suggested direction and clear control from the teacher, but discipline that is natural not forced. They did not think that a lot of “ridiculous rules” added to relationships but treating all students equally and fairly was important as was creating a relaxed atmosphere in the class and involving all students. D. Trotman, S. Tucker & M. Martyn, 2015 (2015, p. 247) found that students valued variation, flexibility, and tolerance and expressed a need for fun in the classroom but accepted that they needed to work, behave properly and make progress. They also recognised that their behaviour had an impact on teacher responses and accepted their part in increasing tensions and adding to the problems in class.

If these elements voiced by students are compared to interacting external webs of influence such as departmental policies or global directions, it is possible to identify where faults or flaws may develop that lead to disengagement and behaviour issues. Students express the need for teachers to deal with them with respect, provide them with choices or opportunities for decision-making and not use forced discipline. DEC policies, similar to those in other Anglo-American settings, stress control, zero-tolerance and managerial strategies such as hierarchies of consequences and response-cost, reflecting what students would consider to be forced discipline. Respect means taking time to talk with students and finding out their interests. Relationships with students are built through talk, focused on curriculum or unofficial, yet teachers find relationships with students who have behaviour support needs difficult (Graf, 2009, p. 441; Gottesman, 2016, p. 11) and struggle at times to include them even in the official curriculum talk of the classroom. The interaction between these two disparate views, those of the students and the DEC, leaves teachers open to flawed implementation of new policies or strategies, as the expected result may never materialise.

The teachers in the VISC project indicated their preparedness to listen to student voice albeit in an organised framework. They suggested teachers could create a safe and positive environment by: giving students responsibilities in the class; listening to criticisms from students; teaching appropriate behaviour; applying consequences consistently; ensuring students understood the importance of antecedents and consequences when behaviour problems were discussed; and redirecting the student when inappropriate behaviours were used. As part of the project teachers had to structure the class in such a way that students developed a sense of belonging and it is obvious from their response that Latvian teachers place value on having positive relationships with students, perhaps this was the only aspect of

teacher/student interaction that they could control during the Soviet era and so they seek to continue it.

The above discussion of teacher-student relationships indicates that this is not a simple, linear process of interaction, of direct transmission from the teacher to the student. Instead students are active participants in building relationships and this again provides an opportunity for flaws to appear in teacher ability to address the needs of students with behaviour support issues and take on innovative strategies. While it is positive that teachers seek to improve relationships with their students, they do not single-handedly control the nature of this relationship. Instead two different webs of influence, those associated with the students and those associated with teachers interact. Moreover, a third web of influence, that of the educational systems, also holds sway. Many education department documents from various countries (Australia, US, Ireland, England) illustrate, schools are usually encouraged to give more prominence to issues of control than to the skills needed to meaningfully connect with students (Roffey, 2012, p. 14). Teachers may be using strategies to build positive relationships, yet students may be retreating from such relationships due to factors associated with adolescent development or a history of conflict with teachers. There is no clear linear cause and effect sequence for teachers to use as guidance. The focus on building relationships through strategies such as implementing social and emotional literacy learning in the classroom, using restorative justice practices and promoting belonging through engagement, does not have a lock-step process. Complex multidirectional interactions between a range of agents: teachers; students; administrators; schools; education departments and governments along with factors relating to teacher beliefs, skills and knowledge mean that the potential exists for a breakdown in teacher understanding and implementation of preventative strategies based on relationship building. This may leave teachers in a state that may more reflect chaos than a new balance between the *status quo* and innovations.

5.2 Intervening, supporting or punishing?

Preventative strategies aim to establish a positive classroom climate but some students may need more behaviour support, thus interventions need to be planned to avoid the use of reactive or punitive strategies. Just as with discipline, the strategies used for behaviour support should aim to teach the student, not to punish (Skiba, Ormiston, Martinez, & Cummings, 2016, p. 122). When students are displaying noncompliant and disruptive

behaviour, a teacher's reaction may be to choose strategies that allow them to avoid an uncomfortable or a confronting situation (Sugai & Horner, 2002, p. 25), such as a punishment like the removal of the student. The literature details punishment as arbitrary and reactive, and suggests that it usually encourages students to disengage rather than behave differently (Soodak, 2003, p. 331; Clunies-Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008, p. 693).

A clear, proactive intervention plan is needed for students whose behaviours warrant such support and for Latvia this includes all students who have been identified as needing additional support by the state pedagogical-medical committee. Taking on board the current focus globally on a social model, this plan should not only support the student to understand, accept, internalise and use new or alternative pro-social behaviours but should include adaptations within the classroom which will support this process. In NSW for those students who have behaviour support needs linked to a mental health diagnosis, teachers are required to do this through a learning support team for each such student and to report on the outcomes of the interventions annually to the Commonwealth government. Teachers need to be familiar with the content of the plan and be able to apply strategies from the plan in the classroom while maintaining a focus on teaching/learning activities. They need to display Kounin's "withitness" (1970). The implementation of a clear, well-thought out and inclusive plan should assist teachers not to resort to arbitrary punishment.

As with preventative strategies, intervention plans can be based on a range of theories. Alberto and Troutman (2005), Skinner (1939), O'Leary and O'Leary (1977), Wheldall, Merrett & Borg, (1985, p. 72) have suggested behaviour modification as an intervention that helps teachers control behaviour and motivate students. The essence of all behaviour modification is that behaviour is shaped by consequences. Therefore the teacher must be aware of the various consequences that are deterrents, which activities and situations work as reinforcement and for which students. The teacher needs to be aware of the range of circumstances surrounding inappropriate behaviour so as to be able to apply the most appropriate corrective measure. Essential to the behaviour modification process is the need for the behaviour that is creating difficulties to be specifically defined, its frequency to be measured and a reinforcement schedule to be devised and consistently implemented. These requirements place additional stress on the teacher. Collecting data while teaching is a complex process and teaching in itself is sufficiently complex. The process is simplified if another person can collect this data.

In NSW support teachers are available to every school whose role is specifically to assist with programmes for students with behaviour or learning difficulties. They assist with data collection, the development of an intervention and its implementation in the classroom. However, teachers have become accustomed to managing their own classes and running them as they see fit. An extra teacher in the classroom can make these teachers uncomfortable, thus affecting the success of any intervention. The extra teacher may also have different beliefs about students with behaviour difficulties than the class teacher. This can impact on the development of any intervention programme. The support teacher may believe that cognitive behavioural approaches are best suited to modifying student behaviour. The focus of the intervention would then be on teaching students constructive thinking skills, addressing mistaken student beliefs and doing this through behaviour strategies such as social reinforcement (rewards and punishments). The class teacher, on the other hand, may place more emphasis on student emotions. Any jointly developed intervention would need to take into account any such conflict in beliefs if it is to be successful. It provides yet another opportunity for flaws to appear in the teacher's implementation of suggested strategies.

Some interventions are a part of a formal contract when a student is having persistent behaviour issues or the student is returning from a suspension or exclusion. Every transaction between two people is based on some form of agreement. In an educational setting this transaction can be formalised through a contract. There are several advantages attached to contracting. It is helpful in structuring relationships to provide a clear sense of direction; may allow students a greater voice in designing and implementing a plan for change; and, fostering self-direction it may appeal to educators from a wide range of philosophies. There are no advantages, however, attached to a contract where the student has not been a part of establishing the expected behaviours, or these behaviours are punitive or vaguely expressed.

The Latvian survey responses show a mixed response to individualised plans with an almost equal distribution between the teachers who rarely used this approach and those who regularly used it. In terms of usefulness, more teachers believed it to be a useful strategy than not. The question then remains as to why, if teachers consider it a useful strategy, more teachers are not choosing to use it? Context plays a part in this, not only perhaps are beliefs influenced by Soviet attitudes, which classified such students as “morally defective” (Byford, 2017, p. 603)

but also the everyday pressures in a school, collective beliefs and the impact of ongoing reforms to schooling.

The survey shows that Latvian teachers do use educative approaches as part of their interventions by teaching students social skills (59%) and believed this to be useful (61%) as well as teaching students how to manage their anger (72%). Only, however, 58% considered this to be a useful strategy. It is difficult to deduce why some teachers are using a strategy that they do not find useful. It could be that this is a relatively new concept in their classrooms and they have had little school or system's support to help implement strategies, that they are still in a transition stage and not fully implementing the process or that they are not seeing the outcomes that they were expecting. Their beliefs about the usefulness of this strategy could be influenced by any of the above factors and could also be influencing how completely they implement the necessary practices. Some teachers are also guided by the belief that it is their job to teach subject material only and may resent strategies that are outside of this field.

Teachers have resorted to punitive strategies, often when they feel they are not getting anywhere with other methods. As stated in *Positive Discipline in the Inclusive Learning-friendly Classroom* (UNESCO, 2015) the use of punishment may teach the student that the use of verbal, physical or emotional force, is acceptable; it does little to encourage inner control but rather engenders anger and resentment and can increase aggression, which creates more problems for the teacher and other students.

In order to avoid teacher use of reactive and punitive strategies, both NSW and Latvia have instituted a proactive approach to behaviour support. As stated earlier, 39 Latvian schools are using the APU approach to whole-school behaviour support. A similar approach is in use in NSW: *Positive Behaviour Intervention and Support* (PBIS/PBS), which is known as *Positive Behaviour for Learning* (PBL) in NSW thus adding another dimension focussing on learning outcomes not just behaviour. PBIS/PBS was developed in the USA and many US school districts choose to use this approach. This is a proactive approach. Unsurprisingly it is managerial in nature, a feature that corresponds to DEC's reliance on neoliberal focus on management. Its foundations lie in applied behaviour analysis. It focusses on clearly defined outcomes and research-based practices supported by data-driven decision making. It is not based on punishment but on modifying contexts and teaching students appropriate behaviour. It usually begins with an analysis of the situation using functional behavioural assessment,

which helps teachers to identify the purpose or function of the behaviour. A range of data is reviewed to obtain a precise definition of the problem and the context. Competing behaviour pathways are identified and form the basis of intervention strategies (Sugai & Horner, 2002, 36). In a sense, through its insistence on data driven decision making, it may be impacting on another element that influences student behaviour, that of teacher emotions.

PBL was systematically introduced into the Western Sydney Region of the Department starting from 2005. In 2008, a report, *Positive Behaviour for Learning: Investigating the transfer of a United States system into the New South Wales Department of Education and Training Western Sydney Region Schools* was presented. This report found that for success of implementation and sustainability of outcomes, PBL should maintain consistency and rely on collaborative leadership models. Maintaining consistency is difficult as it is often compromised by teacher beliefs and an unconscious manipulation of variables that could lead to consistency. The authors suggested that PBL teams should consider involving students in some of the decision-making processes as well as encouraging a sense of school staff ownership of the process. In general the report stated that implementing PBL had made significant positive changes to the capacity of Western Sydney Region schools to respond effectively to student behaviour. The result was the implementation of PBL in schools across the state, which was made part of the *Framework for Student Wellbeing* in 2016.

No matter, however, how many suggestions are provided, the task of behaviour support must remain for each teacher a personal invention. (Hansen, 2012, p. 91). Theorists may argue that behaviourist or cognitive behaviourist strategies are supported by evidence. Others will present humanist or social learning theory approaches. The determining factor as to the usefulness of any approach is the relationship between the theory or model and the teacher's beliefs about locus of control, as well as whether this is a whole-school approach or a single teacher trying to bring about change in his/her classroom. To the thus many interacting webs of influence, the personal webs of the teacher and students, and the system's web, the web of external influences such as the relevant behaviour support theories and models needs to be added.

An examination of the following table of Latvian teacher survey responses indicates that supporting student behaviour is not a matter of having a "one size fits all" attitude to behaviour in the classroom. Teachers need to base their behaviour support on knowledge of

the student at times seeking engagement at other times seeking to manage situations as per the discipline continuum. They need to be aware of contributing factors when selecting a technique for a particular student in a specific situation. Teachers need to be aware of the behaviour as communication, as a function of the current environment and as an expression of need. Next teachers need to consider the technique itself, whether it aligns with their current beliefs or whether it would conflict with these. Teachers need to take into account the constructiveness of the technique, its disruptiveness, how easy it is to administer and what allowances it makes for recognising and channelling the teacher's frustration or anger. The potential for flaws occurring at this level is great as teachers are attempting to reconcile their beliefs about students with behaviour support needs, with knowledge of support strategies, and maintain an actively engaging teaching/learning environment for all students in the face of behaviours that are not only challenging but can evoke strong teacher emotions. With this range of multivariate stresses interacting with the teacher, a clear understanding of the teacher's own classroom management orientation or belief about the locus of control is essential in order to choose approaches that help to re-establish balance. This table indicates that Latvian teachers use a range of strategies but that there are also many strategies linked to control, which are identified in the literature as effective, that are not used. This has implications for the introduction of interventions that rely on authoritative approaches.

The strategies chosen show some desire to correct student behaviour through coaching in the use of positive behaviours or anger management. Their lack of coaching students in emotional literacy, even though they considered the approach to be useful, may be due to their own skills shortage in this area or a lack of confidence. It may also be outside of their beliefs about the role of the teacher. Teachers may have considered it closer to counselling as there is little evidence in discussions with teachers that they consider teaching skills related to emotional literacy as a teaching task. It is almost as if teachers hold the belief that students will know how to behave without support from them. Perhaps for this reason they do not consider modelling self-control as important or see a need for transition planning. This may indicate that not all Soviet era thinking has been discarded.

Their strategy choices also indicate a resistance to involving others, either parents or the leadership team, in their approaches. Teachers in NSW showed a similar reluctance to involve parents before schools became more focussed on collaboration with the community, and resources were directed at schools, and the community, to establish collaboration and increase

parent engagement with school and teacher acceptance of this engagement. It may also be the result of the message delivered by leadership teams at some schools that makes it clear that teachers need to manage their own student behaviour support issues.

Respondents to the survey believed that the leadership teams at their schools often were not providing effective discipline at a whole-school level and that they ignored low-level behaviours. They believed that this had implications for student behaviour in their classrooms. This indicates an understanding that effective collaboration between the leadership team and teachers on matters of discipline and behaviour support is not in place. It also demonstrates a lack of teacher capacity building by leadership teams. These factors impact on teacher willingness and ability to implement innovative practices and maintain them as part of their repertoire in the classroom. The following table summarises these responses aligning them with discipline as control, corrective behaviour strategies and behaviour support directed towards self-discipline.

| Goal of the strategy | Examples of interventions | The majority of Latvian teachers responding to the survey: |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| Control | Using tangible rewards, Threatening to send to principal, Use of consequences, Reprimand | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did not threaten to send the student from class nor consider this useful; • Did not call parents about inappropriate behaviour although they considered it a useful strategy; • Did not ignore non-disruptive inappropriate behaviour nor consider this useful; • Created individual motivational plans and believed them to be useful – although a large group did not use this strategy; • Reminded students of consequences and believed this a useful strategy; • Did not write home or call parents about appropriate behaviour even though they considered this useful; • Taught students how to ignore inappropriate behaviour and considered this somewhat useful; • Did not believe public comment on the inappropriate behaviour of a student to be useful nor did they use this strategy. |
| Remedy a deficit | Teaching specific social skills, anger management | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used anger management strategies and believed them useful to some extent; • Considered coaching to help students understand their emotions to be useful but did not use this strategy; • Taught social skills and considered this useful |
| Engagement leading to self-discipline | Coaching, Preparing students for transitions, Refocussing students on work | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Believed verbally redirecting students to be useful and used this strategy; • Chose to praise positive behaviour and believed it to be a useful strategy; • Did not prepare students for transitions and did not |

| Goal of the strategy | Examples of interventions | The majority of Latvian teachers responding to the survey: |
|----------------------|---------------------------|--|
| | | consider this useful; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gave clear, positive instructions and believed these to be useful; • Did not send students from the classroom to calm down and did not consider this a useful strategy. • Did not model self-control strategies and did not believe this to be useful; • Promoted acceptance of diversity in class and considered this very useful. |

Table 10: Latvian teacher use of behaviour support strategies and perceptions of usefulness

Layered onto teacher understanding of their own concept of locus of control in their classrooms, is the need to understand the focus of key theories and models. Some are focussed on group management (Redl and Wattenberg, 1959, Kounin, 1970, Richmond, 2007, SEL theorists), others on support for the student while he/she tests the limits (Canter and Canter, 1976, Ginott, 1972, Skinner, 1953, Glasser, 1986, 2001) while still others seek to correct the situation (Dreikurs, 1974, Canter & Canter 1976, Glasser, 1986. 2001). Teachers need to be focussed on their specific classroom needs, which may be a combination of all of the above, understand their classroom management orientation and use this information to build a vision of behaviour support in their classroom; develop an intervention plan, implement, monitor and evaluate it. This requires knowledge, reflection and often a shift in beliefs. It also may require teachers to challenge their existing beliefs and dismiss strategies that they have used over many years, which is difficult and challenging. It is especially difficult in circumstances such as those in Latvia. Most teachers in Latvian schools have some level of experience of the authoritarian, Soviet system. The re-introduction of democracy meant a sharp shift in beliefs and actions.

5.3 The significance of student voice

Studies indicate that students seek classroom discipline and express the need for teachers to be good role models but 50% believe teachers spend too much time on order and control (Mitchell & Bradshaw, 2013; Infantino & Little, 2005). Much like teachers, students identified talking out of turn and talking back as the most troublesome behaviours, however, they were not as concerned about idleness or distracting others (Infantina & Little, 2005, p.

502).

When discussing deterrents they listed being sent to the principal, detention and unfavourable reports home as the most effective (Infantino & Little, 2005, Payne, 2015). However, R. Payne (2015, p. 488) stated that students linked the use of rewards to work and sanctions to behaviour. When discussing effective incentives students identified positive communication with parents, free time, being trusted to find a solution to their misbehaviour and discussing their behaviour with teachers as important (Infantino & Little, 2005; Lewis, Rom, Katz & Qui, 2008). They sought experiences at school which would be rewarding and make school seem worthwhile (Cefai & Cooper, 2010, p. 193). Interestingly they also responded well to control discipline strategies such as reward and recognition especially those students with EBD who preferred teacher-imposed classroom management, which was clearly stated and fair. In a study that asked students to predict what their behaviour would be if controlling factors such as rewards and reports to parents were removed, 35% of primary school students and 13% of secondary school students predicted that their behaviour would become worse (Lewis, Montuoro & McCann, 2013, p. 285).

Students were likely to label and blame other misbehaving students and often were the harshest critics of them. The strategies that they chose to suggest were often Draconian, such as dismissing the whole class. Students defined an ideal student as one who is quiet and stays out of trouble, passive complying with requests. This was especially true of students who came from a school with a strong regulative discourse (Hempel-Jorgensen, 2009, p. 12). Some young people had unrealistic expectations and believed they would settle down in Year 10 but they did value mentoring, anger management classes and opportunities to have their say. Some also reflected Dreikurs' theories about the goals of misbehaviour, identifying that they use poor behaviour to gain attention (Trotman, Tucker & Martyn, 2015, p. 344). D.Tuggle and R. Hatley found that "students' view their teachers were much less custodial than the teachers themselves" (1995, p. 121).

The passive student is a phenomenon that complements behaviourist ideas (Payne, 2015, p. 484). As DEC documents reveal, the discipline discourse is about management and regulation, reflective of behaviourist approaches. This places NSW teachers in an invidious position. The documents lead them to expect that students will behave passively, with the anticipation of external consequences providing the stimulus to follow rules. This expectation is followed by the policies related to learning which require them to teach in a way that is

engaging, provides for deep learning and has significance for the students. This is not indicative of a passive learner. Similarly, students are not just recipients, they make choices about whether to comply, ignore, sabotage. How can teachers reconcile the two expectations: an active learner but a passive class member and is it even realistic to expect this? Character and values education provides a partial answer. Another is to support the development of student resilience. Although the teacher is the means for developing these qualities, it still rests with the student to change.

Student beliefs about discipline, relationships and behaviour also form part of an interacting web of influence that impacts at the local level. The fact that students identified rewards with academic progress but sanctions with behaviour is an indicator that teacher feedback about behaviour is one-sided and lacking in strategies that teach or encourage students to behave. When teachers are considering which behaviour support theory or model to use in their classroom, attention needs to be given to the beliefs and expectations of the students in that class. How the new approach is finally implemented will also depend on student response to the approach and how both students and the teacher, collectively, make sense of the approach. Students are not like a blank page but bring their own beliefs and issues to the climate in the class. Any new behaviour support theory or model cannot be considered as something that is just applied to the students, rather how successful or flawed the implementation will be depends upon what meaning the entire class, each with their own personal webs, constructs through the interaction of its members with the new approach. Teachers may select theories or models based on culturally normative values but, as complexity theory indicates, how these operate in the class is not a direct result of these values but the interaction of these normative values with teacher and student beliefs. This can result in a new understanding, which may not correspond totally with the teacher's initial expectations. This lack of consideration of the webs of influence that emanate from students is one reason why innovative practices cannot be directly transferred from one setting to another with the expectation of achieving the same results. This has implications for the current focus on "best practice", which is usually constituted without any reference to the views of students.

5.4 Criteria related to school discipline and the NSW and Latvian experiences

The literature identifies criteria that contribute to school discipline. The following table specifies the steps taken by the education system in NSW and Latvia, which align with these criteria. This points to the detail that exists in the DEC approach and the very limited support

available to Latvian teachers. There are, however, elements such as the provision of feedback on behaviour, the impact of student voice and character education, which need to be explored more by both systems.

| Aspects of discipline | Criteria from literature | The NSW experience | The Latvian experience | Comments |
|--|---------------------------------|---|--|---|
| Creating a productive learning environment | Classroom rules | School and classroom rules are developed and used | School and classroom rules are developed and used | Comparison of the nature of the rules and the processes for their establishment identify differences in understanding and use of rules between NSW and Latvian teachers. Some resistance to authoritative approaches in Latvia, probably as a result of the experiences of Soviet schooling |
| | Routines | Planning for transitions within class, between classrooms and to other venues encouraged by system documents and theories | Little evidence of transition planning at a systems, school or class level from the documentation except in individual theoretical approaches such as APU and potentially the staged introduction of <i>Skola 2030</i> | Highly structured NSW approach contrasts to the minimalist approach in use in Latvia which has implications for the successful implementation of innovative practices |
| | Encouragement | Teachers tend to use praise such as “good work” rather than encouragement. System and school documents identify the need for positive reinforcement | Identified as important in <i>APU</i> schools, mentioned in the text <i>Klasvadība</i> but no system documents address it specifically | Comparison indicates that there is no clarification of the differences between praise, encouragement and feedback in Latvia. Lack of guidance on the use of encouragement in system or school documents |
| | Building positive relationships | System documents such as <i>The Wellbeing Framework</i> identify the importance of positive relationships with students | No system document identifies positive relationships but teachers completing the VISC intervention plans and responding to the surveys identify this as a key feature in the classroom | The reason for the strong Latvian teacher belief in the importance of relationships needs to be explored but could be related to experiences during the Soviet regime |
| | Explicit | <i>The Quality</i> | <i>Skola 2030</i> stresses | The potential impact of |

| Aspects of discipline | Criteria from literature | The NSW experience | The Latvian experience | Comments |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|---|---|
| | and high expectations | <i>Teaching Model</i> stresses the importance of appropriate goal-setting | learning goals, including cross-curricula values | <i>Skola 2030</i> is difficult to judge as it is still in the consultative stage but there is some concern that it will be introduced using standard practices and a top-down model, which has implications for its implementation |
| | Facilitating meaningful learning | <i>The Quality Teaching Model</i> stresses the importance of deep learning and meaningful learning | <i>Skola 2030</i> focusses on meaningful learning | <i>Skola 2030</i> is accompanied by a transition plan which indicates acknowledgement of the need to prepare teachers, parents, the community and students for change so that it is meaningful and not just a superficial application |
| Eliciting change in student behaviour | Use of consequences | System and school policies address the use of consequences to modify student behaviour. Some consequences, such as suspension and zero tolerance, are exclusionary contrary to the aims of inclusion | No system guidelines address the use of consequences. Teachers are unable to use exclusionary practices | Teacher views of consequences are influenced by their beliefs about discipline as a management technology or a transactional process and the locus of control in their classrooms. Both views appear in Latvia and NSW. The predominant focus in both systems is on discipline as control |
| | Feedback | There are no system documents addressing feedback as opposed to encouragement or praise. Teachers are competent when providing feedback in academic areas | There are no system documents addressing feedback as opposed to encouragement or praise. Teachers are competent when providing feedback in academic areas | Students associate positive feedback only with academic tasks, indicating that teachers in both systems need to improve the feedback given with respect to behaviour and attitude |
| | Least intrusive interventions | DEC policies indicate that the least intrusive interventions need to be considered first | There are no guidelines on the use of least intrusive strategies. Teachers completing the VISC intervention plan indicated a preference for the use of less intrusive strategies first but this decision is taken | This requires understanding of locus of control in classrooms and the need for teachers to select strategies that align with this. It also requires a planned approach to behaviour support in the classroom, which provides a tiered approach to interventions that is not indicated in Latvian school |

| Aspects of discipline | Criteria from literature | The NSW experience | The Latvian experience | Comments |
|---|---|---|--|--|
| | | | on an individual teacher level | documents. It appears to be a consideration that most Latvian teachers have not been required to contemplate |
| | Attending to social, cultural and emotional needs | <i>The Wellbeing Framework</i> and preceding Student Welfare policies have stressed this. Introduction of programmes to schools which focus on mental health, such as <i>MindMatters</i> , have supported this approach. All school teaching/learning programmes are required to reflect Aboriginal and multicultural perspectives. Social skill development is supported through system projects such as <i>One, Two, Go!</i> and others | The legislature on values education mentions acknowledging diversity but no guidance has been provided directly to schools, with the exception of those schools which participated in the SEL project, nor are there resources to address this | Comparison of the two systems identifies glaring differences, which could be explained by the multicultural nature of society in NSW and the basically dual culture dominated society in Latvia. Addressing these needs is an important element in understanding student behaviour and the provision of effective behaviour support |
| | Appropriate interventions for students with challenging behaviour | Schools may provide multi-tiered approaches, Departmental documents stress the development of individual intervention plans including crisis plans | There is no Ministry guidance on the development of intervention plans although there are guidelines for crisis intervention | There is a discrepancy in what Latvian teachers and those in NSW know, consider and can implement with respect to intervention plans. Teachers in NSW are provided with more guidance and support, although at times the direction taken by a school may conflict with the teacher's own beliefs. Supporting teachers to develop and implement intervention plans is important for students with behaviour support needs |
| Helping students fulfill their responsibilities | Displaying mutual respect, reciprocity | <i>The Wellbeing Framework</i> and the <i>Student Discipline Code</i> provide | No Ministry documents address this. | While NSW policies discuss this, teacher beliefs about locus of control and the teacher's role impact on |

| Aspects of discipline | Criteria from literature | The NSW experience | The Latvian experience | Comments |
|-----------------------|---|--|--|---|
| ities | y | guidance | | implementation. Contextual elements need to be examined in both settings |
| | Teaching social skills and self-regulation | Multiple social skills programmes are available to teachers and social skills are included in curriculum documents. Programmes such as Anti-bullying and Anger Management are also available | There are no Ministry documents addressing social-skills development. The guidelines that address values provide an overview of criteria linked to self-regulation | In NSW and Latvia self-discipline is mentioned as a goal. NSW programmes indicate a preference for teacher directed behaviour while the goal may be self-discipline. Latvian teachers have little access to resources to help students achieve self-discipline. Consideration of diversity in students' knowledge, customs and skills is important. |
| | Character education – teaching goal setting | Values education along with curriculum documents provide some direction | The guidelines that address values provide an overview of elements that contribute to character development and goal-setting | This is a relatively unexplored area with respect to students with behaviour support needs in both settings |

Table 11: Criteria contributing to school discipline and their application in NSW and Latvia

Recurrent concepts emerge from the theories and models related to behaviour support. The concepts include: preventative strategies such as rules, and consequences; building relationships with students; teaching social and/or emotional skills; and, alternatives to reactive strategies. As these concepts appear in most theories and models, it may be possible to borrow from several of the theories, if the teacher is aware of his/her own management orientation. There are, however, other factors that impact on the success or otherwise of such borrowing.

Classrooms, like schools themselves, are complex adaptive systems. They are dynamic and emergent, sometimes unpredictable, non-linear organisations that operate in a changing external environment. They shape and adapt to macro and micro societal changes and through self-organisation respond to and shape the environments of which they are a part. This process involves learning, adaptation and development but it is not a linear cause and effect

process. Teachers seeking to make changes in their classrooms are often frustrated in this process by the environment, that is, the students themselves. A collective, self-organised order can emerge when teachers, seeking to implement innovative practices, intensify interactivity and connectivity between themselves and the students. Knowledge gained from professional learning or through educational borrowing, is thus transformed or adapted to create an order that is specific to that classroom. This means that there is no blueprint that can be applied to implement change in the classroom. It relies on interaction between the various agents: the teacher, students, school community, administration, education department, media and so on and their intersection with local, national and global elements and is facilitated through the intensified interactivity and connectivity of the teacher. Student behaviour in a classroom may lead to disequilibrium and this may act as a catalyst for change. The return to balance, however, can only be achieved through self-organisation, which grows out of the interactions in the classroom between the teacher and students, and between the students themselves as they interrelate with new strategies, structures and processes.

As a result, when teachers are seeking to make changes in their behaviour support tactics, they may not achieve the results that they expect. This is due to the many levels of interaction and intersection, which may lead to inaccurate or incomplete transfer of practices as a result of flaws which develop during the process where teachers interpret situations, strategies, policies and laws through the lens of their own beliefs. They lack skills or knowledge or are unsupported in their efforts and either resist change or succeed in only partially implementing it. Partial or incomplete implementations may result in resistance and work against the establishment of new routines in the class, leaving the teacher with a sense of failure and probable reinforcement of existing beliefs perhaps even that of “nothing ever works with these students”.

Cerit and Yuksel’s (2015) comparative study of Latvian and Turkish teachers concluded that Latvian teachers tended to use interactionist theories and models when managing student behaviour. Latvian teacher survey responses, intervention plans and seminar discussions support this. Elements crucial for this approach are: negotiation and achieving consensus; good communication skills; effective feedback and teacher talk that encourage engagement with learning. Negotiation also requires empathy skills and other social and emotional literacies. Not only do students have to learn, understand and use these skills, but so do teachers. This indicates another area where the teacher’s intention and outcome may not align.

Interesting, the same study identified that teachers in Australia were much more likely to be directive and to choose interventionist theories of behaviour support. Teachers in NSW, firmly based in a stable, long-term democracy, living in a state that has three tiers of government, are more likely to use authoritative approaches, to direct and seek more control over classroom interactions. Yet teachers in Latvia, moving from a Communist, authoritarian state to a democracy are often afraid to discipline students, believing that authoritative approaches are inappropriate for a democratic classroom and end by becoming confused where either their actions, or inaction, result in behaviour issues in the classroom (Daniela, 2009).

Chapter conclusions

This chapter detailed how the impact of interacting webs of influence including external and system's webs have had an influence on teacher beliefs and actions at the local level. It has also indicated the importance of the interaction between the teacher's and students' personal webs which determines how well innovative practices can be implemented and in what format. The outcome may be quite different from the intention as a result of these interacting webs. Appendix 9 provides a summary of how webs of influence converge to impact on teacher beliefs, actions and in turn outcomes in the classroom.

To successfully implement behaviour support strategies teachers not only need knowledge of theories and models but also an understanding of their own beliefs about students with behaviour support needs, and an ability to reflect and deconstruct how these beliefs have been influenced by regulations, policies, laws, their personal and professional experiences. They also need to understand that the ultimate result of their changes in behaviour support will depend on the interaction between these changes and the students in their class. This points to the importance of teacher capacity building, of learning communities and professional learning opportunities. The next chapter will continue to explore the interaction of webs of influence at the local level, specifically those elements which help to build teacher capacity so that they can provide ongoing support to students with behaviour support needs.

This chapter detailed the following as important for a shift in teacher beliefs:

- context and history impact on how teachers understand, implement and teach new behaviours and their beliefs about their usefulness;

- new approaches need to be central to the needs of the local environment in order to impact on teacher beliefs;
- teachers, just like principals, can create the environment for change, but there is no blueprint that can guarantee outcomes. Teachers who believe in blueprints are more likely to maintain existing segregationist beliefs;
- positive relationships between teachers and students provide the framework for behaviour support interventions. They contribute to new meaning being made in the class. Teacher attempts to implement innovative behaviour support strategies are likely to fail without the co-evolution of new meaning of what the strategies signify for the class. The co-evolution is crucial as a classroom environment is dynamic and students are not objects who can be “modified”;
- the total environment and all behaviours need to be considered when providing behaviour support. Teachers should provide feedback on appropriate behaviour. Inappropriate, low-level behaviours should not be ignored. The need for clarity and transparency should guide the formulation of rules and consequences and their implementation;
- changes to behaviour support do not occur in a vacuum but are influenced by complex, multidirectional interactions between teachers, students, leadership teams and education system officers, policies and regulations.

Section three: Improving teacher capacity to include students with behaviour support needs

Chapter Six

Personal webs: Building teacher capacity-human and financial capital

6.0 The importance of resources: human and financial

The previous chapters examined how external, departmental and local webs influence teacher beliefs impact strategies that teachers choose to use with students with behaviour support needs. Teachers need to involve these students, include them in their instructional practices and seek their active participation and engagement rather than just tolerate their presence in the classroom. K.S. Sutherland et al.,(2008, p. 223) observed that teachers perceive direct interactions with students with behaviour difficulties as overwhelming. Interactions can be tense and aversive, something to be avoided. These expectations and attitudes are communicated to students. These are the students who are associated with the highest levels of teacher stress and burnout, the ones with whom teachers do not want, or do not know how, to build relationships and the ones whom they consider responsible for hampering learning, not only their own but that of other students. Yet ignoring these students reduces the opportunities for these students to learn new behaviours, to communicate in better ways or to achieve self-management and thus keeps them in a cycle of vulnerability.

Students with behaviour support needs create a challenge for their teachers. The challenge is not to see these students as the problem in the classroom but rather meeting their needs as an opportunity to modify and change what is currently not working “Teaching is shaped by the particular needs, experiences and interests of a community of learners. The curriculum does not dictate who belongs.” (Hulgin & Drake, 2011, p. 393). Students also need to be included in this collaboration. It is important that teachers stop seeing the student as the problem but as part of the solution, yet a discipline model of control, a coercive classroom management style, may prevent teachers from thinking about students as responsible contributors and may lead them to disregard opinions voiced by the students.

It is clear that contextual elements from a global to local level interact to create the ideas, values, norms and frameworks that motivate and regulate teachers contributing to teacher views of, and response to, students with behaviour support needs. This chapter examines some key elements for building teacher capacity. If teachers are to undergo a shift in their beliefs about students with behaviour support needs, something needs to change. This could be the level and nature of school or system support, the relationships in the classroom, the chosen strategies for behaviour support, teacher beliefs about their role and student engagement and anything else that contributes to teacher empowerment and student-teacher connectivity. Teachers, furthermore, may use new behaviours either because the situation in their own class has become so complex or chaotic that previous approaches no longer suffice, there is disequilibrium in the class and they act to restore balance, or, due to a mandated change such as the move from segregation to integration in NSW or the introduction of competency-based teaching/learning in Latvia. Teachers are more likely to provide the on-going pedagogical assistance that students with behaviour support need if they are comfortable interacting with these students and that is only likely to occur if teacher capacity to do so is improved. Elements that contribute to this are provided in the figure below.

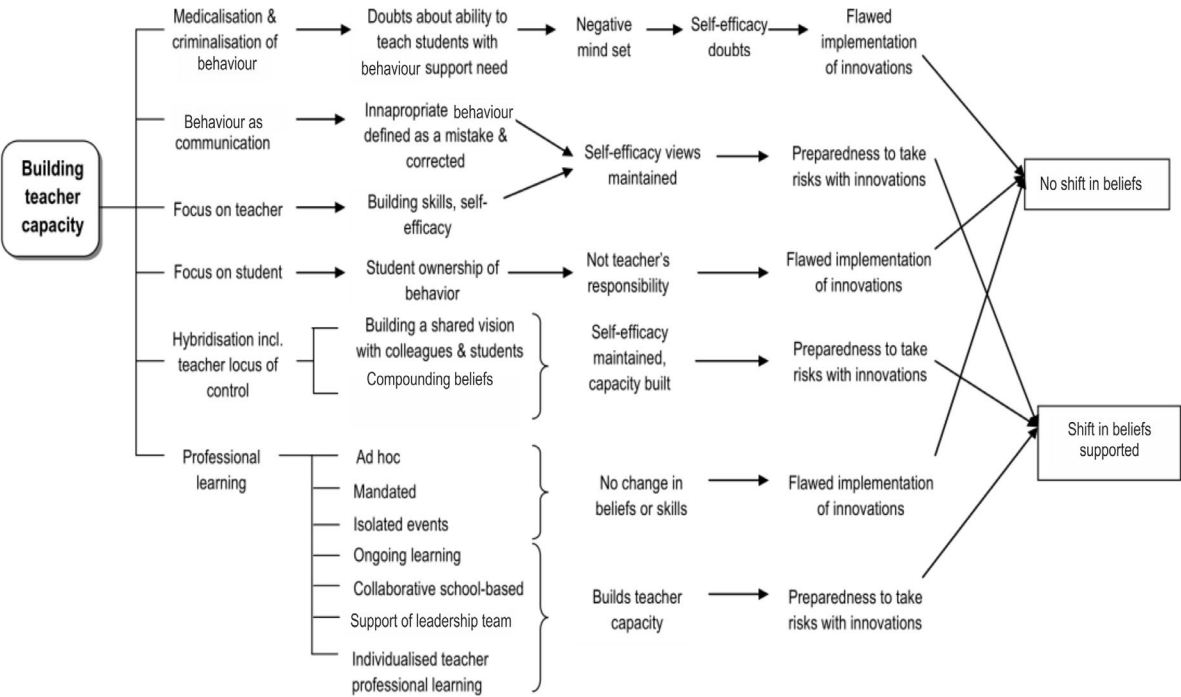


Figure 5: Building teacher capacity to facilitate a shift in beliefs

6.1 The effect of additional resources

Change occurs in response to many elements some of which are related to teacher knowledge, beliefs, skills and some to system or school processes. One such element which can stimulate change in actions, is that of resources: human, financial or other tangible ones such as support documents. This is particularly important for mandated change, which teachers can perceive as an imposition (Clement, 2014, p. 44). The absence of resources to support the implementation of new approaches can be perceived as a lack of commitment from the government, system or school and can nurture the belief that reforms are transitory, best ignored, as they will soon be followed by another new idea.

The range of resources to support students with behaviour support needs, their teachers and schools is significant in NSW and limited in Latvia. The size of the two systems has impacted this, as has the fact that Latvia has had to re-invent its entire approach to schooling, including discipline and behaviour support, when it regained independence and reverted to democratic government. There are, however, resources within the Latvian system which would benefit schools in NSW such as the holistic concept of pedagogy and the presence of social pedagogues in schools. The name, social pedagogues, is important as it acknowledges the importance of social learning, not just academic.

A review of the resources in NSW, including professional learning opportunities, indicates that when there are mandated changes in direction or policies then additional support either through professional learning opportunities, physical resources or additional human resources, are a part of the process. The move from inclusion to celebrating diversity provides an example. DEC ensured principals and school were introduced to the concept and processes, provided online training to all staff in schools, produced written documents to support the process, provided information on their website not only for schools but also for parents and the community and re-adjusted the support teacher network by amalgamating support teachers (learning) with support teachers (behaviour) and introducing a single co-ordinated service.

A review of resources in Latvia indicates that while there are projects and opportunities aimed at supporting teachers and schools with discipline and behaviour support, these are limited and not co-ordinated. The exception is the plan for the introduction of competency-based learning as demonstrated by the neoteric *Skola 2030*. Currently, it is difficult to ascertain whether it will follow the path identified for professional learning in this research or continue to use the current reductionist strategies.

6.1.1 Resources for vulnerable students with behaviour support needs in NSW: Lessons to be learned

The 1980s also saw integration of students with disabilities into regular setting and the introduction of the concept of ‘normalisation’ of these students, including those with EBD. Students with disabilities were supported to join regular classes and the real world. Of course, it was the student who was required to change, to undergo skills training, so that he/she could “fit into” the regular class. There was no onus on the teacher or other students to make adjustments. The attempt was to create as little disruption to the functioning of the class as possible (Anderson, Klassen & Georgiou, 2007, p. 132). This did not require a significant teacher mind-shift. Still, first steps were being taken to broadening the concept of “normal” and include students with disabilities in regular schools. This provided a new challenge for teachers.

One way to support teachers to change their mindset is to assign additional resources targeted at facilitating new approaches. A range of specialist services has been created by the DEC during the decades from the 1980s. Many of these services were available to schools to support the needs of students with any diagnosed disability, including emotional disturbance (ED). Some were specifically for students with behaviour support needs who had no diagnosed disability.

| Date | Service | Description | Availability |
|-------------|-------------------------|---|---------------------|
| 1980s | Integration Teachers | Support integration of students with disabilities into regular classes | Regular schools |
| | Integration Aides | Support integrated students | Regular schools |
| | Integration Consultants | Assist with integration including with applications for Commonwealth Schools Commission Integration Funding for individual students. | Regular schools |
| | Resource Teachers | Work directly in schools with students and teachers, initially withdrawing students but later working in a team teaching model in class | Regular schools |
| | Itinerant Support | Work directly in schools with teachers | Regular schools |

| Date | Service | Description | Availability |
|-------------|---|--|---|
| | Teachers (Behaviour) IST(B) | providing advice, modeling strategies in class, helping to develop individual behaviour plans but also whole class plans | |
| | Support classes (ED) | Specialist classes established on a needs basis for students with a diagnosis (ED) | Usually established in regular schools |
| 1990s | Outreach Teachers (ED) | Work in a similar way to IST(B)s but can only support students with an ED diagnosis | Regular schools |
| | Challenging Behaviour Team | Advise class teachers re students with moderate/severe disabilities and behaviour difficulties often associated with specific syndromes or autism | Support classes in regular or special schools |
| | Schools for Specific Purposes (Behaviour) | Established for students with no confirmed diagnosis but with significant behaviour disorders | Available for students from regular classes |
| | Support classes (ED) | Specialist classes established on a needs basis for students with a diagnosis (ED) | Usually established in regular schools |
| | Home school liaison officers (HSLOs) | Specially trained teachers who are authorised attendance officers. They work with schools, students and their families to resolve attendance issues. | All schools |
| 2000s | Support classes (ED) | Specialist classes established on a needs basis for students with a diagnosis (ED) | Usually established in regular schools |
| | Learning and support resources | Learning and support teachers (LST) available to each school along with flexible funding to support students with Learning Difficulties, Mild ID, Language disorders, Behaviour difficulties, mild level support needs for autism or mental health. The teachers previously were Learning Support Teachers or ISTsB. | All regular schools |
| | Schools for Specific Purposes (Behaviour) | Continued operation of classes established for students with no confirmed diagnosis but with significant behaviour disorders | Available for students from regular classes |
| | Home school liaison officers (HSLOs) | Continued operation of specially trained teachers who are authorised attendance officers. They work with schools, students and their families to resolve attendance issues. | All schools |

Table 12: Additional services for students with emotional or behaviour disorders in NSW government schools

Once the dominant discourse became one of inclusion, it was no longer viable to maintain the *status quo* in the classroom and somehow fit in the student with the disability or disorder. The DEC moved to re-align resources to match the new needs. The introduction of *Every Student, Every School* was accompanied, in 2013, by structural change. 1800 Learning and Support Teachers (LSTs) were allocated to schools, which was partially achieved by restructuring the itinerant and support teacher programs that already existed to support teachers working with students with learning or behaviour difficulties. The new Learning and Support Teachers worked collaboratively with classroom teacher to support students with disabilities. Flexible funding to support students with disabilities was also made available to every regular school.

Another service, which is important for students with behaviour difficulties, is that of the school counsellor. Not only do they provide support for students and undertake psychological assessment, they also provide advice to the school executive and to classroom teachers. School counsellor numbers have increased but there is no formula for this increase and it is sporadic. In 2015, \$167 (AUD) million became available to the DEC through the *Supported Students, Successful Students* project. This meant an increase of 45% of counselling and wellbeing services across NSW.

No single resource element aimed at providing support for initiatives can be identified in this situation that would promote a shift in beliefs, rather it is the interaction between a combination of these elements and the school or teacher. Policies are often accompanied by supporting documents that assist schools with the process of change, additional support staff positions are established or re-structured to focus on the new direction and school executive and teachers are provided with opportunities for professional learning.

The NSW experience suggests that the allocation of additional resources broadcasts a message of support to teachers. Teachers can see that the educational system is committed to the changes it is instituting rather than requesting that teachers do more for less. Establishing additional teaching positions specifically for assistance with students with behaviour support needs in regular schools can, however, deliver an unintended message that these students can not be managed by regular classroom teachers, but need specialist support. The focus, therefore, of this model in NSW, is on collaborative teaching and planning which results in building the capacity of classroom teachers. The current model is partially in response to the *Disability Standards for Education 2005*, which require all schools to make adjustments to

cater for the specific learning needs of students with disabilities, LSTs, therefore, also help teachers develop Learning Assistance Profiles, previously known as individual educational plans, for targeted students. The previous chapter discussed the importance of language in delivering the required message. The DEC change from individualised plans to Learning Assistance Profiles is a point in case. The previous label was linked to special education services and regular class teachers saw it as an imposition, something that did not belong in a regular class. The current language is more inclusive.

6.1.2 Resources for vulnerable students with behaviour support needs in Latvia

In Latvia, just as in NSW, there is a difference in resources and support for students with behaviour support needs depending on whether there is an official diagnosis of a mental health problem or not.

Special education schools for students with intellectual disabilities, hearing or vision problems, intellectual disabilities and behavioural disturbances developed in Latvia during the first period of independence, 1918-1940 (Kestere, 2009, p. 188). Concepts and attitudes towards schooling changed during this period. Rote learning and strictly regulated student/teacher relationships were replaced by learning through participation, research and discussion. Pedagogy, which included the focus on upbringing, also incorporated aspects from psychology especially relating to the intellect, will and feelings and discussion of the role of the teacher's personality. It was influenced by the Progressive Education movement that came from Europe and saw the establishment of experimental classes, schools and opportunities for teachers to meet, converse, hear international speakers and so on. The aim of the new schools became the harmonious mental development of individuals. The school's role was to help students reach their goals through helping them to develop their will, motivation, creative powers, supporting their attainment of knowledge and providing opportunities for success. The focus of upbringing was on a combination of the learner's individual needs and aspects that promoted the public good. (Kestere, 2005).

As I. Beloussa and S. Uzulina note "the teacher was valued as an advisor, facilitator, cooperation partner who understands the child's needs and provides emotional support" (2010, p. 84). During the first period of independence, professional mastery was viewed not only in terms of professional knowledge and skills but also in terms of empathy for students.

This reflects the approach promoted by many systems now: a combination of quality teaching/learning and social and emotional literacy.

This somewhat idyllic view, however, was interrupted by the paternalistic dictatorship established by Ulmanis. While many aspects of schooling continued, there was a shift to a tacit but perceptible authoritarianism so that the aim of upbringing became the popularisation and support of the leading socio-political ideology. Emphasis was placed on student behaviour and discipline as control, practical learning tasks and vocational education along with standardisation and unification of the learning process (Bleiere, 2013, p. 136).

J. Anspaks (2003) argues that the Soviet era led to the destruction of the education system eradicating its approaches and pedagogical ideals. Special education became dominated by the science of “defectology”, which was built upon the work of Vygotsky. Vygotsky rejected the assumption made by Piaget (1959) that it was possible to separate learning from its social context. Instead, in social constructivism learning occurs as the result of the interaction between the individual and a situation, with the resultant knowledge a product of the activity, context and culture in which it is formed. Learning is best understood in terms of others within an individual's world. This interaction Vygotsky describes as the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). The zone of proximal development involves the learner being provided with assistance by a more knowledgeable adult or peer. During this process the more knowledgeable adult offers cues or scaffolding which helps the learner to move on. Vygotsky's zone of proximal development requires a teacher's understanding of the type of interaction and level of scaffolding that a student needs to achieve a task in a particular context. This requires a high level of care and understanding of the student involved.

Vygotsky did not frame behaviour in terms of responses to stimuli, nor did he see it as governed entirely from within, but rather it was mediated by the scaffolded, social interactions (Bakhurst, 2009, p. 199). He described a comprehensive approach that combined physiological, psychological, and social aspects, pedagogy was the “cure”. In the Soviet era the focus was reduced to only on the medical and psychological, which led categorisation of learners thus special education became medicalised and became “a pedagogy for defective, anomalous, sick children in need of correction” (Iarskaia-Smirnova & Romanov, 2002, cited in Phillips, 2009, p. 64). This issue was not unique to the Soviet Union, but it did have an effect on how students with behaviour support needs were perceived and treated.

The instruction of students with special needs was undertaken separately within the Soviet system, as the general curricula did not address their requirements (Phillips, 2009, p. 14). H. Daniels and I. Lunt (1993, p. 81) note that the concept of emotional and behavioural difficulty did not officially exist in the old Soviet system. This may have been partially due to the fact that during the Soviet era primary disabilities were addressed, thus a student may have had an intellectual disability (psychologically defective) and a behaviour difficulty, however only the disability that was considered primary would be recorded and addressed.

While the Constitution of the USSR stated that all children were entitled to an education, some students with special education needs were classified as unteachable and were excluded. Such students could be kept at home or placed in social institutions. Boarding schools for truanting students were also opened at this time (Kestere & Krūze, 2013).

Students with diagnosed special needs were educated in special schools. Students within regular classes were rated regularly on their behaviour just as they were for academic performance. According to Bleiere (2008, p. 136) the main task for teachers during the Soviet era was to ensure discipline and that all students worked intensively during the lessons. School inspectors reported that in some instances students were disciplined and polite in class but, once it was break time, started running around wildly or started screaming and yelling. This was deemed inappropriate and in 1953 the Education Minister, Kozlovs, complained that teachers quietly retreated to their staff room rather than supervised these students (*Izglītības ministrijas kolēģijas protokols, 07.12.1953. LVA, 700–4–50, [1]^[1]_{SEP}p. 88).*

Students could only be excluded from school under special circumstance and there were limited options for schools in regulating student behaviour, especially if parents were not engaged with the school. Some schools resorted to non-pedagogical, punitive approaches which were severely criticised in the 1950s.

The second period of independence (from 1990) brought changes again to schools and the education system. As Daniela (2009, p. 1) notes, the educational environment changed from a authoritarian one to a democratic one, reflecting changes in society and there was a concomitant belief that any discipline problems would disappear with the introduction of democratic ideals in schools.

At present there are 3.5 schools for students with behaviour health needs. One of the schools offers a morning programme to students with a range of special needs including behaviour and they then return to their regular schools in the afternoon, hence the half programme.

Unlike NSW there are no special classes that provide integrated programmes in a regular school setting. The responsibility for providing a range of specialist programmes rests with the municipal authority rather than being centralised as it is in NSW. While there are specialist programmes for students with behaviour health needs, numbers attending these programmes are limited. It may be that, just like during the Soviet era, the primary disability is considered to be a learning difficulty and students end up attending these programmes rather than those specifically for behaviour.

Currently there are nine special education programmes however as Malofejevs (2008, 5) writes, services for students with mental health problems have only existed in Latvia for the last twenty-five years. The present nine special programmes are those for students with: hearing loss, vision problems; physical disabilities; somatic disorders; language disorders; developmental and learning disabilities; mental health disorders; intellectual disabilities; and, severe or multiple disabilities.

The student is assessed by the Pedagogical/Medical Commission. The commission then determines the relevant special education programme and the level and nature of support needed. The Pedagogical Medical Commission determines the support measures, based on the opinion of a speech therapist about any language disorders, reading and writing disorders and that of an educational or clinical psychologist concerning learning difficulties. The student can then attend a school that is accredited to teach the specified programme.

The specified additional support identified in Regulation 710 is summarised in the following table.

| Item | Specialised setting | Inclusive settings |
|--------------------|---|--|
| A specialised area | A relaxation room and, if necessary, the presence of an educational or clinical psychologist or social pedagogue must be organised. | A relaxation room and, if necessary, the presence of an educational or clinical psychologist or social pedagogue must be organised. This is the same as for students in segregated settings. |
| Support services | Access to activities which promote rehabilitation and if necessary, individual | Access to activities which promote rehabilitation and if necessary, |

| Item | Specialised setting | Inclusive settings |
|-------------------|---|---|
| | or group teaching/learning activities and (or) consultation with a psychologist. The use of protective strategies as part of the individual teaching/learning and upbringing processes for that student. For students with behavioural problems, an individual behavioural correction plan must be designed. It must be noted that for Latvian teachers, pedagogy includes both teaching/learning design and implementation and student upbringing. This is addressed in more depth later in the study. | individual or group teaching/learning activities and (or) consultation with a psychologist. The use of protective strategies as part of the individual teaching/learning and upbringing processes for that student. For students with behavioural problems, an individual behavioural correction plan must be designed. Again, this is a repeat of the provisions in special education classes. |
| Support personnel | An educational or clinical psychologist. Access to a child psychiatrist, teacher's aide, social pedagogue is also desirable as is the provision of therapeutic exercises. | An educational or clinical psychologist. Dependent upon the student's needs, access to a special education teacher or specialised pedagogue, child psychiatrist, teacher's aide, social pedagogue is also desirable as is the provision of therapeutic exercises. |

Table 13: Additional support for Latvian students with special needs

Schools in Latvia also have social pedagogues to support their work with students with a range of needs including behaviour support. A social pedagogue works with students, teachers and the family aiming to improve the environment in which the student lives and studies. Their role is to help the student with the socialisation process, to help him/her learn how to participate in society, to understand him/herself, to make choices and to make decisions.

The assumption in Latvia is that a child comes to school with knowledge, skills and behaviours that she/he has mastered at home and that school provides opportunities not just for learning academic skills but how to live and behave in society. An educational institution is not only a repository of knowledge, but also an institution for social contact (VISC). A major focus for the school pedagogue is on social skills. Social skills are important because they help students to work collaboratively and engage with their learning. By sharing their skills and experiences, students learn from one another, build their self-confidence, become aware of the diversity and uniqueness of others and develop empathy. Social pedagogues help with this process especially if situations arise that interfere with learning. A social pedagogue focusses on the whole child, not just formal learning or academic needs and always has the student's rights at the forefront of their action.

Social pedagogues work closely with class mentor-teachers (*klases audzinātājs*). Each class in Latvia must have their own mentor-teacher. The main task of the class mentor-teacher is to ensure that the classroom creates favourable conditions for the education, development and upbringing of students. A plan is designed for the class with the focus being on upbringing (*audzināšana*). The teacher takes into account all of the students in the class, their different attitudes, opinions, interests and abilities. The plan addresses aspects such as student attitudes to learning and schoolwork, their communication skills and it stresses a healthy lifestyle. The teacher may need to collaborate with the school psychologist, parents and other organisations in order to ensure the safety of all students.

Like schools in NSW, Latvian schools have school psychologists/counsellors. They often combine with a special education teacher, speech pathologist and social pedagogue to provide co-ordinated support to students with special needs.

Recently new child protection measures were introduced. This included a consultative team which works with municipalities to support children who need the help of social services and who are experiencing behaviour or communication difficulties. This team helps to design an intervention and support its implementation for one year. It is available only to those students who have come to the attention of social services. The European Union project, *Support System Development for Children with Communication Problems, Behaviour Disorders and Violence in the Family* has led to the release of a handbook entitled *Collaboration in Providing Consultancy Support to Children with Communication Problems and Behaviour Disorders*. This provides guidelines for collaboration amongst agencies specifying each person's role and includes resources such as a data sheet for detailing a student's behaviour problems which can be used by the team. Another document that is available to schools is the *Methodological Materials for Schools when Working with Aggressive School Children*, which has been developed by the National Inspectorate for the Protection of Children's Rights (Children's Ombudsman). This specifies the type of support that is available inside and outside of school including the police, social services, home schooling, government organisations, support personnel, and the Children's Rights Court. It discusses the need for corrective approaches to include an individualised education plan. It lists available literature, which includes Australian author Maurice Balson's *Understanding Classroom Management* (1997). This is the only educational text, as opposed to psychological text, listed.

Another document emanating from the Child Protection initiative is the *Guidelines for state and local government specialists working with children with addiction problems and behavioral disorders*. This document provides an overview of theories relating to adolescent development, addiction and behaviour. The approach to behaviour is that it is learned, impacted upon by rewards and punishments. Learning of behaviours occurs in a social context and student learning is impacted by the student's interests, motivation, prior experiences. Feedback is a crucial part of the process. It goes on to describe resilience and protective factors. The guidelines contain interesting and relevant materials but teachers would need assistance to apply the knowledge to their classrooms as it is directed at specialists and takes a more psychological perspective, thus providing another opportunity for flaws to appear. Interestingly, such material has been developed by Ministries other than Education and Science.

As can be seen, with each political change teachers are being asked to make a shift in beliefs and actions and these changes tend to be diametrically opposed. Normally to maintain some stability and credibility organisations change gradually by amalgamating the old with the new. The opportunities to do this in Latvia have been very limited. Some of Ulmanis' more restrictive approaches in education were maintained, but mostly the old system disappeared as many teachers were deported or worse. In the second period of independence (from 1991) the aim was to change everything to reflect democratic process. With such massive change teacher professional learning is crucial to achieve a shift in beliefs. Without this shift the implementation of innovative strategies and approaches is unlikely to take place. The table below indicates the changes and challenges that have faced teachers in Latvia with different political systems and demonstrates the need for professional learning opportunities to support changes in teacher mindsets.

| | 1st period of independence | Soviet era | 2nd period of independence |
|----------------------------|--|---|--|
| Locus of control | Locus = Teacher | Locus = Teacher | Group management |
| Role of the teacher | Advisor | Sage – transfer of ideology and knowledge | Facilitator |
| Role of the student | Active participant | Passive vessel to be filled | Active participant |
| Relationships | Formal, Teacher as | Teacher as boss | Engaged, teacher as leader |

| | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|---|
| | leader | | |
| Context | Authoritative | Authoritarian | Collaborative |
| Assumptions about behaviour | Problems indicate a deficit in the student | Defectology | Moving to a social model where the situation contributes to the student's performance |
| School Climate | Plural democracy then conformity | Conformity | Moving to diversity |
| Special or general education | Student requires a special setting | Student requires segregation or exclusion | Segregation continues but the majority of students with disabilities are in regular schools |

Table 14: Discipline and behaviour support in Latvia: a snapshot

6.1.3 Teacher professional learning in NSW: what does it suggest?

Professional learning is crucial for building teacher capacity and implementing innovative practices which accompany mandated change as well as teacher initiated change. With each change in policy, teachers are being asked to make a shift in their beliefs and behaviours and, as can be seen, at times the requirements of separate policies can be confusing. This is to be expected as policies are developed in response to political and economic needs and are open to change as these needs change (Taylor, 1997, p. 29). However, to maintain some stability and credibility organisations change gradually by amalgamating the old with the new. Without significant personal learning opportunities teachers would struggle to manoeuvre through the minefield of policies and support documents; achieving a shift in their beliefs would become a remote possibility. The table below indicates the changes and challenges that have faced teachers as the DEC introduced new concepts and demonstrates the need for professional learning opportunities to support changes in teacher beliefs.

| | Segregation | Integration | Inclusion | Celebrating diversity |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Locus of control | Locus of control= Teacher | Locus of control= Teacher | Group management theories | Personalised learning |
| Role of the teacher | Sage – transfer of knowledge | Sage – transfer of knowledge | Coach – design experiences to meet student needs | Participant - Actively learn through working collaboratively |
| Role of the student | Passive vessel to be filled | Student needs to change to meet the demands of the regular classroom | Students bring experiences, knowledge and skills to the task | Actively learn new skills personalised to the student's needs and the situation |

| | Segregation | Integration | Inclusion | Celebrating diversity |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Relationships | Teacher = boss | Teacher = boss | Teacher = boss | Teacher = leader |
| Context | Authoritarian | Normalisation | Authoritative | Collaborative, inclusive of all |
| Assumptions about behaviour | Deficit within student, or family | Deficit model – the student must change to fit in | Social model – behaviour is situation specific | Social model – situation specific, personalised setting to reflect educating the whole child |
| Climate | Conformity | Conformity | Universalism | Diversity |
| Specialised or regular setting | Students require special setting | Integration into regular classes to achieve normalisation | To engage and support in regular setting | Personalised to address needs regardless of the setting |

Table 15: Behaviour support in NSW: a snapshot

Most research shows that the successful introduction of reforms is directly related to the implementation strategies used by teachers and their knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs and ability to collaborate (Florian, 2008, p. 276). As teachers have a crucial role to play as change agents (Fullan, 1993; Senge, 1990; Timperley, 2011) it is not surprising that the DEC over the years has invested significantly in a range of professional learning programs for teachers and school executive.

How a teacher thinks about, perceives or evaluates him/herself can change and is linked to how he/she develops and grows as a teacher. This, in turn, determines whether a teacher continues to marginalise students with behaviour support needs or is able to interact with these students and provide the on-going support that they need. “From my point of view, the teacher’s professional self-concept has an important impact on how the classroom is constructed as a social practice and to what extent the classroom – and the teacher – can handle diversity” (Hansen, 2012, p. 95) The educational change literature emphasises that participation, information, education, communication, involvement, support and agreement are necessary for change (Dinham, 2008b). However, teachers need more than these opportunities in order to accept and implement change. As Fullan and Hargreaves point out teachers need to be provided with opportunities to “confront the assumptions and beliefs underlying their practices, avoid faddism” (1992, p. 5), and to develop a common purpose through on-going discussions with one another. Individualised professional learning plans for teachers provide an opportunity for this. They, and the associated meetings with their supervisors, also provide an opportunity for teachers to express how they are experiencing the

expected changes and reflect on the impact the changes have on the teacher's previous *modus operandi*, which can be quite challenging.

In the 1980s DEC started to tackle teacher beliefs and practices through a series of professional learning projects that were linked to students with behaviour support needs. The list below records some major initiatives but it is not exclusive. There were many localised, district and school level professional learning opportunities.

| Date | Professional Learning Resource | Description |
|-------------|--|--|
| 1980s | Behaviour and Attendance Pilot Projects (BAPPS) | Each of the 10 regions established their own projects e.g. Metropolitan South West Region designed and implemented BACME (Building Appropriate Classroom Management Ecosystems). The team worked in each high school for six months. They presented training and development workshops and advised teachers. It used an eclectic approach to classroom management encouraging teachers to choose strategies that matched their teaching style. Regional strategies but often shared further. |
| | Working Ideas for Needs Satisfaction (WINS) | Reality Therapy and Control Theory approaches in schools. Statewide. |
| | Talk Sense To Yourself | A cognitive restructuring approach. Material provided which can be used with students. Statewide. |
| | Designing a management programme for the disruptive student | Classroom management strategies. Regional level, but again shared. |
| | Masters' Study Cadetship 1 year F/T | Teachers undertaking Special Education study have their fees paid and receive their salary for that year |
| 1990s | Strategies for Safer Schools | This project added to the resources developed by BACME, maintained the whole school focus and relied on developing a team within the school who could continue to provide training and development support in the school with respect to classroom management. Statewide. |
| | Talk, Time, Teamwork: Collaborative management of students with ADHD | This resource was developed by DEC staff along with key paediatricians. Statewide and also used by other education systems in Western Australia, South Australia |
| | Special Education Masters' Cadetship | Teachers complete the programme over 2 years, part-time. Their fees are paid and they have extra release time from face-to-face teaching. |
| 2000s | Positive Behaviour for Learning | Evidence-based whole school systems approach, which addresses the diverse academic and social needs of every student. It enables |

| Date | Professional Learning Resource | Description |
|------|-----------------------------------|--|
| | | schools to establish a continuum of supports that are intensified to meet the needs of every student. It is team driven, using a problem solving approach (data, systems and practices) that engages students, parents and all school staff. Statewide, online. |
| | The Quality Teaching Model (TQTM) | This project focusses on defining pedagogy in NSW state schools. It had three aspects: promoting high levels of intellectual quality; promoting a quality learning environment; making explicit to students the significance of their work. Statewide. |
| | Suite of supported online courses | Nine modules detailing the ESES initiative, Disability Standards e-learning (47,550 courses) and courses to assist with the implementation of Personalised learning and support such as: understanding autism spectrum disorder; understanding and managing behavior; Inclusion of learners with speech, languages and communication needs; understanding dyslexia and significant difficulties in reading; understanding co-ordination difficulties (24,000 courses). The courses are registered with the Institute of Teachers as ongoing professional learning (a requirement for maintaining teacher accreditation). |
| | e-learning resources | These can be accessed through My Professional Learning (MyPL@Edu). MyPL organises the administrative and business processes for planning, managing and recording professional learning. |
| | ESES Sponsorship | Teachers who complete a Masters in Special Education are supported through funding (\$5000 per each year and a \$3000 completion grant). |

Table 16: DEC professional learning directed at student behaviour support

Additional professional learning is organised by schools as they are required to have incorporated professional learning into their school plan. As M. Ainscow and A. Sandill state

“...the starting point must be with staff members: in effect, enlarging their capacity to imagine what might be achieved, and increasing their sense of accountability for bringing this about. This may also involve tackling taken for granted assumptions, most often relating to expectations about certain groups of students, their capabilities and behaviours” (2010, p. 412).

School based professional learning makes this easier to achieve as it is personalised.

School based professional learning can also help to address gaps in teacher knowledge and understanding of strategies that assist students with behaviour support needs. These gaps are the result of limited access to instruction about behaviour support at the pre-service level. Like their Latvian counterparts, Australian teachers report limited pre-service courses that

address classroom management and teachers overall feel unprepared or apprehensive when they commence teaching. They also criticise their pre-service preparation for being too theoretical, with not enough opportunities for practice and insufficient practical strategies (O'Neill & Stephenson, 2014, p. 16).

Professional learning need not be limited to formal instruction. Teacher capacity is also built through engagement with the literature. Access to a variety of opinions and approaches can stimulate discussion with colleagues or encourage reflection, both of which can encourage a shift in beliefs. Apart from the publications that emanate from the DEC, the private and Catholic school systems also release documents. Individuals and organisations contribute as well. The Department of Health released a series called *MindMatters* and later *KidMatters*, which provided workshop material that can be used with teachers and students to promote student mental health and which connects well with the recent DEC focus on student wellbeing. Individual authors have released programmes that have been implemented across whole schools. There are also many journals that teachers are able to access such as those from the Council for Students with Behavior Disorders (CCBD), which publishes both practical and academic journals, along with 16 journals that are published in Australia that focus on students with disabilities or behaviour support and classroom management.

Professional learning also provides a means of making mandated changes more palatable for teachers as it provides an opportunity for teachers to define their own reform agenda in relations to government or departmental policies. The collaborative school-university projects that were a response to *The Quality Teaching Model* were inclusive of the teachers' purpose, reflected their priorities and were sensitive to the conditions surrounding the teachers' implementation of this model. Thus collaboration demonstrated respect for teacher professionalism along with valuing of their skills while, at the same time, employed and developed these skills through involvement in the projects. The projects allowed for teachers to have some control over the change process even though they had not initiated the change, thus modifying the top-down effect of this mandated change. This empowerment of teachers through their control of the direction of the projects is more likely to result in a positive emotional response by the teacher to the mandated change and a shift in beliefs, especially if the projects they initiated were successful.

6.1.4 Teacher Professional Learning in Latvia

Cabinet Regulation (No. 662) on the *Educational and professional qualifications required by teachers and the professional development of teachers* relates to ongoing professional learning for teachers. These regulations specify the types of programmes and the number of hours of professional learning that need to be completed. All teachers, including those who teach vocational subjects or interest groups, must complete thirty-six hours of professional learning over a three year period unless they are completing a higher degree. This needs to be planned with the Head of the institution where the teacher works. On completion of the professional learning the institution needs to record the teacher's achievement on the National Educational Information database.

Professional learning courses are offered by the universities, local municipalities and private organisations. The Education and Science Ministry also offers courses across the Latvia's four main regions (Kurzeme, Vidzeme, Latgale, Zemgale). This year's Ministry courses include assessment and teaching of students with special needs including autism. There are none specifically addressing behaviour. VISC (the National Centre for Education) also organises courses and lectures. It also maintains an extensive series of video lectures and workshops. This includes a series on discipline and behaviour support.

Teachers and schools also have the opportunity to take part in major professional learning projects funded through the EU. The *APU* project discussed earlier is one such project which involves staff development at a whole school level. Currently it involves 39 schools. The *SEA* programme focussing on social and emotional literacy is another.

| Years | Programme | Description |
|-----------|--|--|
| 1918-1940 | | No specific PL addressing students with behaviour support needs (however it was a period of experimental classes and schools with new resources being designed and used). This would impact on student behaviour |
| 1940-1990 | | PL was provided through a central system emanating from Moscow. No specific PL directed at students with behaviour support needs. |
| 2000s | Support for positive behaviour (<i>Atbalsts</i> | This is a whole school, preventative behaviour support programme and only available as such to schools. It |

| Years | Programme | Description |
|-------|---|---|
| | <i>positīvai uzvedībai, APU)</i> | provides strategies for teachers on how to develop and implement school and class rules, how to support the use of positive behaviours and how to implement a unified system of consequences. |
| | Social and emotional literacy (<i>Sociāli emocionālā audzināšana, SEA</i>) | The programme aims to develop student emotional intelligence and develop empathy. Lessons focus on developing self-control, problem- solving and goal setting skills along with establishing positive communication patterns. |
| | Establishing a system of support: planning and implementation of processes for students with behaviour disorders | This series of lectures and workshops aimed to introduce teachers in Latvia to a range of behaviour support theories, assist them to analyse their own classroom management orientations and design preventative, supportive and corrective strategies for their classes. It involved implementation of selected strategies in their schools. |
| | Support System Development for Children with Communication Problems, Behaviour Disorders and Violence in the Family | Apart from materials available to teachers on collaboration with other agencies, the project includes a central team which works with municipalities to develop behaviour intervention plans for those students who are at risk of violence at home. |
| | <i>Skola 2030</i> | While this is not specifically targetted at students with behaviour support needs, the focus on student competencies, the cross-curricula skills and the inclusion of values and beliefs as part of the 5 year plan has the potential to modify teacher and student behaviour. |

Table 17: Professional learning in Latvia directed at student behaviour support

There are also support materials available to help assess the quality of professional learning that is offered. The *Methodical tool for assessing the quality of professional development for pedagogues* was developed as a joint initiative between the British Council and the Ministry of Education and Science as part of the *Providing quality in continuing education of teachers in Latvia* project (April 2004 - March 2007).

Over a third of teachers responding to the survey and the majority of those who completed intervention plans and took part in seminar discussions, did not believe that the professional learning in behaviour support available to them met their needs. This points to the problem with uncoordinated professional learning, which is undertaken on a course-by-course basis rather than in response to identified teacher needs and a plan of action. Courses are offered but do not always align with teacher needs.

The VISC project provided insight into some of the problems associated with relying only on professional learning to achieve a shift in beliefs. Of the 94 submitted intervention plans, only 16 indicated that teachers had made a genuine effort to apply their selected strategies or had reflected on the process and adapted information, or hybridized it, to their situation. As the evaluations at the end of the courses were entirely positive and requested further similar learning opportunities, it can be assumed that the presentation itself did not contribute to the lack of qualitative intervention plans. Similarly the course consisted of 30 hours in total (including preparation of intervention plans) so there was sufficient time to address strategies in detail, to discuss, workshop and plan and seek answers to questions. However, it is possible that this process requiring teachers to prepare, implement and submit feedback on their activities, was foreign to the participants and this in itself impacted on the results.

Discussion with experts and some of the participants suggests the following as issues that could impact on the implementation of professional learning strategies:

- Latvian teachers are not familiar with the requirement to complete and report on tasks for “homework” as courses tend to be confined to the lectures or seminars on the day. They require preparation for this.
- The copying of intervention plans, as opposed to collaboration on plans, suggests that some teachers were only interested in completing the required professional learning hours.
- Some teachers were actively seeking answers to issues in their classrooms. The course was eclectic in content, thus allowing for interactionist, interventionist and non-interventionist teachers to select strategies that aligned with their beliefs and provided direction for teachers seeking answers. This suggests the importance of individualised teacher professional learning plans as those teachers who were seeking help were more responsive with the interventions.
- Support was available online to participants while they completed and implemented their intervention plans. Few chose this option suggesting that local school-level support as a better option.
- Teachers attended the professional learning singly or in pairs. The opportunity for group participation would have facilitated collaboration back at school and provided support for the development and implementation of intervention plans. However, this

requires professional learning on collaborative practices to be available to Latvian teachers, many of whom function at a level of self-protective autonomy.

This experience reinforces the need for a broad range of professional learning opportunities with on-going support that can be undertaken in a collaborative manner preferably at the whole school level.

Professional learning is not only about attending courses or workshops. It can involve collaboration with other teachers, discussions, teacher reflection and readings. While there are many journals and books that deal with student discipline and behaviour support in the English language, there are very few in Latvian. There are no specific journals in Latvian that address the needs of students with behaviour support needs. Ausma Špona has written a text *The Upbringing Process in Theory and Practice* which addresses student behaviour issues as a part of upbringing in the pedagogical sense. There is also another text specifically on classroom management (*Klasvadība*) published by Dita Nimante in 2007. APU and SEA materials were only made available to schools taking part in the project therefore there was limited access to materials for private study unless the teacher can read English. Currently any school can purchase the programme but that in itself can be an issue, especially if the school is not convinced about the correspondence between the programme and staff beliefs and needs. Appendix 10 provides a comparison of professional learning opportunities aimed at behaviour support in Latvia and NSW.

6.2 Capacity building and professional learning

Courses and workshops that are directed at new skill development are important but are insufficient to bring about change in the classroom, as witnessed by the numerous behaviour support models which have been partially implemented or rejected in the long run by teachers. The focus needs to move away from professional learning based on skills development to that which is directed at building teacher capacity to work with students with behaviour support needs. Teacher capacity building means a wider scope in the nature and content of professional learning, the opportunity for teachers to build specific individual skills rather than universal ones and easy access to professional learning.

The size of the NSW system has meant that the DEC has had to have a strategic approach to the introduction of innovative practices, including those for students with behaviour support needs. This strategic approach has incorporated a plan for dissemination of any new directions or information, support for teacher and principal professional learning and additional resources, at times human resources. The introduction of MyPL, a professional learning tool available online, allows teachers to track their professional learning as well as access many courses. This has made the process of navigating professional learning options easier. Professional learning reflects the needs of the system, the school and the teacher. As legislature is explained through policies and schools devise ways of implementing these, they go through a process of evaluating their own needs alongside the system's needs. The end result is a school plan for the following year, which incorporates teacher professional learning. While some professional learning that takes place at the school either on-line or face-to-face will be universal, other learning will be specific to particular teacher needs.

Use of professional learning, based on the teacher's professionalism and providing a platform for interaction between the teacher's own reform agenda and the departmental or ministerial reform agenda, promotes a shift in beliefs. It allows for the teacher to make meaning of the change and explore new ideas in relation to their own ideology.

Additional resources facilitate the interaction between the teacher's needs, the system's priorities and the additional resources facilitates a greater chance of a shift in beliefs as it can reduce teacher distress at their prior approach being deemed obsolete or insufficient.

Professional learning for teachers which focusses on skill development and incorporates on-going support is also an important part of modifying teacher beliefs. Without new skills teachers may have reduced opportunities for positive interactions with students with behaviour support needs leading to negative interactions that reinforce existing beliefs about these students. To the mix of skills, knowledge, professional learning and resources must be added another crucial element, the consideration of teacher self-efficacy, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

Professional learning which is delivered in a solitary way, as a requirement to fulfill a number of hours or as a mandated course, with no real commitment from the teacher, is more likely to hinder a shift in beliefs, as it can be viewed as an imposition. Rather than encouraging the

teacher to think “Yes, this could make a difference with students with behaviour support needs”, it is more likely to reinforce feelings of “Yet another thing that has to be done that won’t work”.

There are some resources to support students with behaviour support needs that are common to both systems. School counsellors are in schools in Latvia and NSW. Latvia has class mentor-teachers who are somewhat like Year Advisors in NSW high schools, except that they have to work with a whole Year group and Year groups may consist of 300 or more students. The Latvian concept of a social pedagogue is foreign to the NSW system, although not to other European systems. The concept of special schools as centres of excellence for professional learning appears in both systems.

Teachers in NSW have had to undergo shifts in beliefs as NSW moved from segregation to celebrating diversity but this has always been within a stable political system. In Latvia teachers have had to come to a totally new understanding of their role, how to teach and what to expect of students with every political change. They moved from having absolute control in the classroom, and an expectation of students as passive vessels, to one where they must rebuild their credibility every lesson as students and teachers attempt to understand education in a democracy, and struggle with elements such as student rights and their responsibilities. This requires a shift in beliefs amongst teachers and students. Yet both have little support to achieve this. Teachers now need to come to terms with new ways of teaching, of teaching through competencies, of teaching social and emotional literacy. Professional learning to support such significant changes has been limited, although *Skola 2030* promises some. Perhaps more of concern is the fact that while the teacher co-ordinates course participation with the head of his/her institution and the result is centrally recorded, this is not part of a coordinated plan to professional learning which links the needs of the teacher with those of the school and of the Ministry. While NSW has a centralised system with some levels of local control, it does provide a strategic approach to support for schools and teachers. In Latvia it would appear that teachers have to complete 36 hours of professional learning but what they choose and how it supports their ongoing professionalism and school needs is unclear. Teachers may attend a course just because it meets their requirement for hours studied. This is unlikely to lead to the implementation of innovative practices.

Hattie considers teacher dialogues about what works best in their schools and for specific student groups, such as student with behaviour support needs, as central to positive student outcomes in general. He states that:

“This would require a caring, supportive staffroom, a tolerance of errors, and for learning from other teachers, a peer culture among teachers of engagement, trust, shared passion and so on. It is the same attributes that work for student learning that also work for teachers’ learning” (2009, p. 240).

Ways of providing for such dialogue and opportunities for learning from one another is through whole school professional learning, the establishment of professional learning communities and through an investment in professional capital. The importance of whole school professional learning has been acknowledged in NSW. Schools have five student-free days each year when teachers can collaboratively plan and be involved with whole school professional learning activities. These, in combination with their personal professional learning plan, allow teachers to explore their strengths and weaknesses with the knowledge that they can do something about any concerns. Furthermore, it reassures teachers that the school has the structures and procedures to help them address any concerns and is prepared to commit resources to make this happen.

NSW schools are also encouraged to establish professional learning communities (PLC) or similar collaborative working groups amongst colleagues. In such a community teachers and school executive work together to improve specific student outcomes through improvements in pedagogy. This community is encouraged to take responsibility for outcomes rather than seeking to blame outside influences. As Lieberman and Miller state, professional learning communities are ‘collegial cultures where teachers develop the capacity to engage in honest talk’ (2008, p. 18). PLCs allow teachers not only to critically examine their own assumptions, but also to understand that they share with other teachers similar experiences, issues and concerns. This provides them with support in the process of making new meaning in the face of systemic or school changes and in developing new skills and competences.

The interaction between whole school professional development, professional learning communities, investment in social capital and individual professional learning plans have the potential to support teachers in innovative practices and achieve a shift in beliefs because it provides for ongoing learning and collaboration. V. Opfer and D. Pedder (2011, p. 451) found

that teachers in successful schools were involved with professional learning over a period of time (between a month and a year), and were more active and involved in genuine collaboration and sharing of practice.

Professional learning is just one type of support for teachers and as already noted, in isolation, it will achieve little. Its combination and interaction with other support strategies is important for any change in teacher beliefs and practice. NSW provides human resources in the form of support teachers, as does Latvia with its social pedagogues. Furthermore, NSW provides policies and support documents for these policies, which guide school and teacher implementation of the legislative requirements. Teachers can also access a wide range of courses online. In Latvia on the other hand, resources like the handbook developed to support children with communication and behavioural difficulties who came from violent families, provides guidelines mostly on interagency collaboration. The student behaviour summary provided for schools to complete is basic and does not contain the sort of information that would help determine the function of the behaviour and the context surrounding the student's behaviour. These are necessary for determining barriers for the student and how to address these. All plans whether preventative, supportive or corrective should be based on data, not on a teacher's intuitive reaction. The use of this sort of summary could result in many flaws. It would be impossible to develop an individualised plan that was in any way accurate and specific to the needs of that particular student. At best universal strategies may be suggested, the teacher may then implement them with little chance of success, adding to the teacher's stress, perhaps aggravating the behavioural situation, which could lead to further marginalisation or exclusion of the student. Another flaw can occur if the team designing the support has too little information to design a workable plan, and perhaps aggravating the situation. These flaws could reinforce teacher assumptions about the nature of that student, and students with behaviour support needs in general, impacting on his/her ability to engage such students in their lessons and make a difference to the student's learning. The student data sheet that forms a part of this support service has the appearance of a bureaucratic rather than an analytic tool.

Similarly the document from the Children's Rights' Court lists available resources. Stating that help may be available from the family, police other government departments, but does not provide any real or actual support. Listing government regulations and normative acts is worthwhile but hardly indicates support. The resources detailed on the last page are scant and

leave the teacher in a situation where he/she has to search them out and then try to apply them. If the government and other organisations are serious about providing support to teachers working with students with behaviour support needs, then they need to involve teachers in resource development and consult broadly with respect to what is available. This document again provides the appearance of a bureaucratic achievement rather than a working document that would help resolve behaviour issues and support teachers and schools. While teachers cannot be forced to implement strategies, specified strategies should be comprehensive and encourage intervention plans based on data and provide guidelines on implementation for schools and teachers. Otherwise the opportunities for flaws to appear and strategies to be inaccurately, incompletely or erratically used, are manifold and hinder any shift in beliefs.

Related to the establishment of professional learning communities and whole school professional learning is the nurture of ‘professional capital’ (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). This consists of the combination of ‘human capital’ (teachers) with ‘social capital’ (preparation of teachers) and ‘decisional capital’ (effective judgements). According to D. Phillips and K. Ochs (2017, p. 455) the decision-making process can be “phony”, that is, designed to achieve a quick effect without any serious follow-through. It can also be a “quick-fix”, something that will relieve the situation temporarily. Alternatively the decision-making process can be bound up in theories, which may resist implementation. Finally it can lead to a realistic long-term solution if it is based on an assessment as to the feasibility of implementing a specific approach. To achieve feasible solutions teachers need to be committed, prepared, developed, networked and be confident about their abilities and experience to make judgements about situations, student needs and support. This has implications for institutions that prepare teachers as well as education departments, Ministries and school leadership teams. Often “quick-fixes” are sought for behaviour support issues rather than providing ongoing pedagogical support. Pre-service providers and in-service professional learning have a role to play in building teacher capacity to make feasible and realistic judgments rather than relying on “quick fix”, “phony” solutions or being weighed down by theories which are not compatible with their specific situation or their beliefs.

Chapter Conclusions

This chapter centred on the identification of variables related to teacher capacity building related to human and financial capital that underpin a shift in teacher beliefs. These are:

- the system needs to demonstrate commitment to the new directions through additional funding, support documents and access to professional learning;
- support documents must provide guidance, identification of resources and a way forward in implementation of innovative practices, not list existing resources or reiterating normative acts, which suggests bureaucratic compliance rather than support;
- professional learning needs to provide opportunities for teacher to confront their beliefs and assumptions;
- professional learning takes many forms including readings, collegial discussions, team teaching, not just formal courses;
- teacher accountability measures based on managerialism can de-professionalise teachers therefore strategies for empowerment need to be fostered by the system such as the encouragement of professional learning communities in schools;
- individual professional learning plans provide specific support to teachers;
- professional learning needs to be collegial not isolated, therefore it must also address the ability of teachers to collaborate.

The following chapter will continue to examine further aspects of teacher capacity building, with a major focus on teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

Chapter Seven

The importance of teacher self-efficacy as part of the interacting webs that build teacher capacity

7.0 The importance of teacher self-efficacy in shifting beliefs

“Teacher self-efficacy has been shown to be an important characteristic of the teacher and one strongly related to success in teaching” (Gavora, 2010, p. 17). Teacher beliefs about their efficacy shape how resilient they are when they face difficult situations, such as managing serious behaviour issues in their classrooms (Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy, 1990, p. 137), as well as influencing student outcomes (Klassen & Tze, 2014, p. 60). Student engagement is linked to their learning outcomes. As J. van Uden, H. Ritzen and J. Pieters found, teacher self-efficacy beliefs matter in fostering engagement directed at the teacher (2014, p. 28).

Teachers who doubt their efficacy in providing behaviour support can suffer emotionally. Efficacy in managing student behaviour has an impact on the relationship between student behaviour and emotional exhaustion, which, in turn, had an influence on their decision to continue working as a teacher (Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010, p. 173). Furthermore, negative teacher efficacy beliefs interfere with their relationships in the classroom. As established earlier, teacher-student relationships provide the framework for behaviour support interventions.

While a socio-cultural focus dominates this study and has led to the examination of external contexts that affect change, cognitive theories and research point to the importance of prior beliefs and perceptions of self-efficacy in hindering or facilitating change (Avalos, 2010, p. 15). Teacher self-efficacy according to M. Tschannen-Moran and A. Woolfolk Hoy (2001, p. 783) is the teacher’s “judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or

unmotivated”. With respect to student behaviour support, A. Brouwers and W. Tomic (2003, p. 68) define self-efficacy as a teacher’s beliefs in his/her ability to organise and carry out actions that promote order in the classroom. Self-efficacy beliefs vary in level and strength and fluctuate depending on the environment and task at hand (Gibbs & Powell, 2012, p. 580). Teachers may consider themselves effective in converting curriculum to teaching/learning activities but ineffective at managing inappropriate behaviour. They are a reflection of the teacher’s interpretation of his/her performance rather than the actual performance itself. This can result in a teacher accepting that a given strategy will lead to change in the student’s behaviour, but doubting their ability to implement the strategy.

Student behaviours impact on teacher emotions, wellbeing and self-efficacy beliefs. Teachers who perceive themselves to be efficacious teachers are more likely to take risks and implement untried or innovative strategies. This is important for students with behaviour support needs because fear of taking risks, which the teacher might perceive as likely to involve loss of something he/she values, like their reputation as a teacher, or the perception of them as a teacher held by the community, can lead to uncertainty with any possible gains from implementing a new strategy being outweighed by the losses, teachers become reluctant to engage with the new strategy. To protect themselves a conservative impulse leads them to continue with the strategies they have been using, many of which are not having the desired effect, leaving students with behaviour support vulnerable. Teachers, furthermore, may blame their doubts about their ability to provide effective behaviour support on the students, rather than any weakness or skill shortage on their behalf, thereby increasing their negative views of the student.

“Teaching at its core is a moral profession. Scratch a good teacher and you will find a moral purpose” (Fullan, 1993, p. 12). This moral purpose is the desire to make a difference to the lives of their students. This means that they need to, not only have the skills to make changes but, also believe that they can do so. If the focus remains on borrowed “best practice” strategies for students with behaviour support needs without acknowledgement of the many webs that influence teacher beliefs and actions and a disregard for the importance of teacher-student relationships as the framework for all behaviour support strategies, then any resultant failure of these strategies is more likely to reinforce negative views of the students and teacher beliefs about their own efficacy.

Teacher emotions are another area that impacts on teacher-student interactions and teacher self-efficacy beliefs and it needs more acknowledgement by systems and researchers. Addressing emotional literacy amongst teachers and students has already been discussed, but as A. Hargreaves states “emotions are located not just in the individual mind; they are embedded and expressed in human interactions and relationships” (2000, p. 824). Teacher and student emotions are not peripheral to what happens in the classroom, to the nature of the learning and engagement yet educational policies pay little or no attention to this focussing instead on management, accountability, standards and measureable results (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 812). The many changes that have taken place in the Latvian education system over the last twenty-five years and the way that schools are organised have an impact on teacher emotions. Teachers are in the position of having to address the pressure from the emotions created by the conditions of their work: administrative processes and structures and views on the role of the teacher; and, emotions expressed by students, often through inappropriate behaviours. Frustration with processes and lack of understanding as to why student behaviours do not necessarily change with the implementation of new approaches can lead teachers to increased question of their efficacy.

Teacher perceptions of their self-efficacy in managing classroom behaviours may also impact on the type of behaviour support theory or model that they are prepared to use. Teachers who are interventionist, who view discipline more as control, tend to be more authoritarian and dogmatic in their belief systems and less progressive in their educational attitudes. These teachers may find it difficult to engage with strategies that are interactionist or non-interventionist, which has implications for change in the classroom with respect to behaviour support but also to the complete and successful implementation of whole school behaviour approaches. School leaders, therefore, may need to consider strategies for improving teacher self-efficacy beliefs before implementing whole school reforms to student behaviour support, if they desire a complete and successful implementation of the new approach.

7.1 Improving teacher self-efficacy beliefs

Variables that contribute to positive efficacy beliefs in teachers, and their enactment, include: successful team teaching, school-wide collaboration; shared responsibility and empowering school leadership; a focus on improving teacher preparedness especially with respect to behaviour support and improving staff relationships and leadership support (Fives & Buehl,

2012, p. 483). Of importance also is the ability of the school to protect teachers from unrealistic community demands. Teachers need to set high but achievable goals for students along with creating an orderly learning environment (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993, p. 358).

While these are all elements that can be nurtured or changed, consideration needs to be given to how this is accomplished. Deciding that whole school collaboration amongst staff needs to happen, does not make it happen. In NSW, for example, the introduction of collaborative learning in classrooms was often accompanied by little or no preparation of the students for this process. Instead students were placed in groups and it was expected that these groups would function collaboratively. The transition from sitting in rows, facing the front and being treated as empty vessels that need to be filled with knowledge, to group-driven learning with active participation by the students, was just expected to happen without preparation, other than a statement directing the students to participate in group work. When students did not cope well with the sudden change and higher levels of behaviour support were needed, the teachers gave little consideration to the lack of preparation for the transition as an underlying cause. Student and teacher learning are not radically different. Some teachers do not value working collaboratively in learning communities (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 445) therefore they need to be supported as much through a planned transition process as students. The figure below identifies the many contextual webs which impact on beliefs but also indicates that, regardless of the source of changes, without consideration and addressing of the impact of the change on teacher self-efficacy beliefs, implementation is likely to fail.

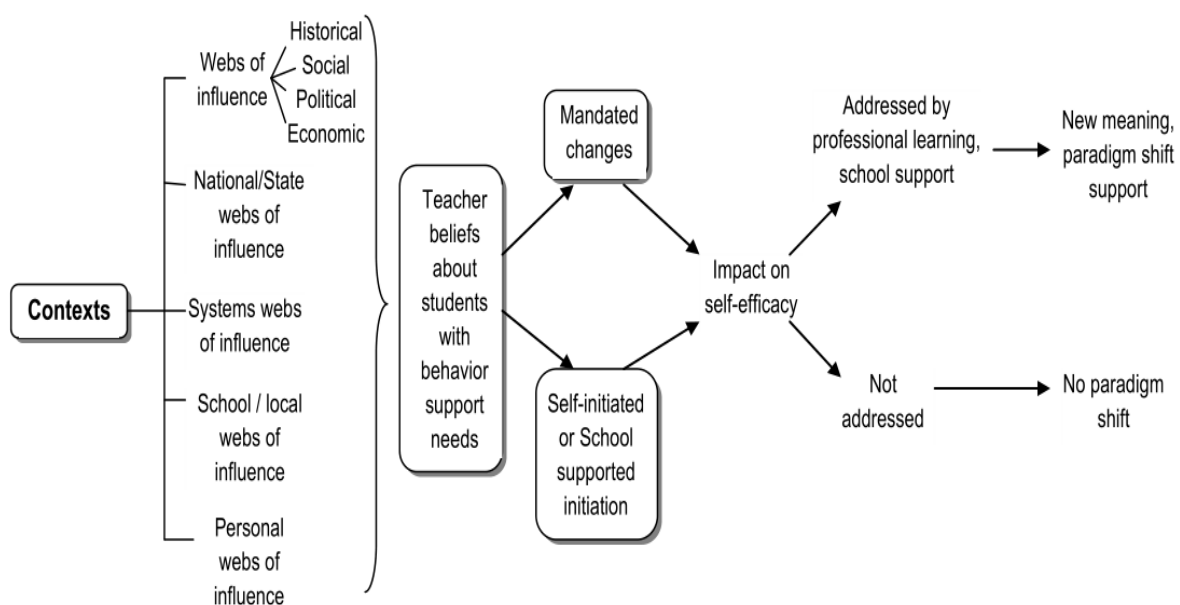


Figure 6: The importance of addressing teacher self-efficacy to achieve a shift in beliefs

According to an OECD report *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS* (2009, p. 111), teachers within schools vary markedly in their levels of self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The report suggests that individual interventions with teachers, aimed at enhancing teacher self-efficacy, may be more effective than systems-level or school policies. If this is the case, then an approach that includes personalised professional learning plans for teachers could be part of the solution to improving teacher self-efficacy.

Another variable that helps enhance teacher self-efficacy is that of success. If a teacher chooses to make changes to their behaviour support plans and procedures, and these have the desired effect, the self-efficacy of the teacher could grow. If strategies are chosen and implemented that do not lead to success the opposite could be true. This could also have an effect on the interpersonal behaviour of the teacher in the classroom. Y. Cerit and S. Yüksel (2015, p. 3) determined that Latvian teachers were more prone to favour interactionist approaches for behaviour support rather than interventionist or non-interventionist ones. This was substantiated by Latvian teacher responses to the survey, and in seminar discussions, where they chose strategies that supported interaction with students to achieve a goal rather than ignoring the behaviour or seeking to manipulate the situation to modify the behaviour. This has implications for the successful implementation of innovative practices. If the new theories/models or strategies align with an interactionist approach then the likelihood of successful implementation improves. The teacher feels comfortable with the approach as it supports what is currently happening in the classroom. However, not all Latvian teachers who participated indicated a preference for interactionist strategies, some prefer to intervene directly.

On the negative side, teacher self-efficacy is affected by the increasing pressure for teacher accountability from governments and society (Edge, Reynolds, & O'Toole, 2014, p. 213). Since this accountability is usually linked to performance on national tests, and students with behaviour support needs often have learning difficulties and can struggle to perform well, teachers can come to view themselves as ineffective and these students as inappropriately placed.

‘No effect, not even detrimental, on job satisfaction can be expected by improving teachers’ use of good practices and praxes without complementary action on positive affect and self-efficacy. Teachers are at risk of becoming very able to teach, but without feeling satisfied when they lack the support of these beliefs and emotions.’ (Moe, Pazzaglia & Ronconi, 2010, p. 1151). Guskey (2002, p. 383) suggested that teachers need to be given opportunities to start to act differently and that a shift in beliefs would follow rather than relying on professional learning to achieve this shift. Achieving success through the implementation of new approaches is one way to influence teacher perceptions of their self-efficacy, an important element in the change process.

Strategies to address teacher self-efficacy beliefs need to acknowledge the complexity of beliefs. Professional learning is important but not a panacea. It can both hinder or facilitate shifts in beliefs depending on how it is implemented and needs to be accompanied by system and school structures and processes that support change. The following table details the ways in which teacher perceived self-efficacy and professional learning can both promote and hinder a change in beliefs about students with behaviour support needs. It provides suggested strategies that would help to move teachers from negative self-efficacy views to positive ones.

| Variables | Promotes change when... | Hinders change when... | Strategies that can be used to move from hindering to promoting change |
|-------------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Acceptance of new strategies | The teacher has the skills and knowledge to implement the changes and believes that they can do so | They believe that they cannot implement the changes or that it will not work in their classroom | Use of team teaching Teachers shared responsibility for tasks and outcomes |
| Risk-taking | They believe they have the skills and the threat to their personal belief system and current strategies is not too great. | If the teacher doubts his/her self-efficacy, he/she may blame the student rather acknowledge a skill shortage and develop a negative view of the student | Pre-service thorough preparation of teachers for working with students with behaviour support needs |
| Efficacy cognitions | Perceived self-efficacy reduces impact of potential stressors such as inadequate resources and influences commitment to new processes | Negative view of their self-efficacy results in stress, apathy and affects classroom climate. | Support by the school executive Improving staff relations and teacher wellbeing Individual professional learning plans |

| Variables | Promotes change when... | Hinders change when... | Strategies that can be used to move from hindering to promoting change |
|---|---|--|---|
| Isolated professional learning sessions completed by individual teachers | The course meets the specific needs of the teacher attending | The course is not motivating and seen as a way of completing the required hours | <p>Initial teacher preparation that acknowledges the needs of students with behaviour support needs and provides teachers with access to theories and models to address these needs.</p> <p>Teacher understanding of their own locus of control in the classroom.</p> <p>Whole-school professional learning opportunities to meet the local school agenda which also provides opportunities for influencing individual and collective self-efficacy.</p> <p>Individual professional learning plans based on departmental/Ministry goals, school directions and individual needs developed at the local level with school structures to support these plans.</p> |
| Whole-school professional learning | Collective expectations exert influence on teacher behaviour | Teachers doubt their self-efficacy and resist working with colleagues | |
| Support for the implementation of professional learning | Support is provided to help teachers succeed in implementing the new strategy, this support is structured and matched to the needs of the teacher and students and involves mentoring. | There is no follow-up and no structure for providing follow-up to the professional learning and teachers are expected to cope on their own. | |
| Mandated change | The teacher's professionalism is acknowledged and they are given opportunities to personalise the implementation of the change, when the change can become part of the teacher's reform agenda. | When regulations/policies are released with little consideration for implementation or how to involve teachers in the change so that it becomes part of their reform agenda. | |
| Professional learning communities | The teachers can engage in honest talk and not feel threatened or stressed. It addresses their reform agenda's and is not a top-down approach. | Teachers are not given time to engage in discussions or contribution from all members is not encouraged and it does not meet the teacher's reform agenda. | |
| Access to opportunities for Professional Learning | A wide range of opportunities exist, and are accommodated within the structure of the school, including courses, on-line access, readings, whole-school or faculty discussions, thorough pre-service learning focused on students with behaviour support needs, on-going professional learning all with a specific individual goal in mind. | Limited access due to lack of resources, no time allocation for PL, no school structure to support professional learning, inappropriate courses chosen which do not address the teacher's needs. | |

Table 18: Professional learning and change

This table needs to be read in conjunction with the webs of influence that emanate from external, national and local sources. No one, single variable in isolation is causal rather it is the combination of variables, which lead to acceptance, partial integration of the approach or totally ignoring the required change. Furthermore, the interactions between the variables are not linear. This means that there is no set order in which shifts in beliefs will occur, nor will each teacher experience the exact same variables in the same way. Change occurs because of the interaction of triadic reciprocity between the context of past experiences (historical, political, educational), current social contexts (global directions, national and local issues, policies, school structures for support, student voice) and teacher emotions (reactions to mandated changes, how teachers experience change).

All of the variables identified through this study need to be considered alongside teacher self-efficacy, not just ones that specifically address efficacy beliefs.. After 25 years of independence many elements of Soviet era thinking about students with behaviour support needs are yet to be discarded. Research surrounding students with behaviour support needs indicates that consistency is important, however, consistency should not be limited to retreating to self-defeating autonomy at the expense of innovative practices which involve collaboration with students and colleagues. In a digital age of fast-paced changes it is not sufficient to provide facts and answers to students. What is important is to accept a new role as the teacher, to form new types of relationships with students and colleagues, to model responsible democracy and teach students ways to communicate their needs which do not rely on threatening or passive aggressive behaviours and then designing strategies to help them achieve this. This requires teacher beliefs that support inclusion. The Latvian concept of pedagogy is an excellent place to start but with the rush to replace Soviet with Western ideals and be a part of the European educational space with its focus on “best practice” and TALIS league tables, the importance of this view of pedagogy may be lost. This may result in teachers in Latvia reflecting the views of many teachers in the West who see incorporation and engagement of students with behaviour support needs as a chore, an additional task rather than a crucial aspect of preparing young people for engagement in the workplace and in leisure activities. This points to the very important place of hybridisation in educational transfer at a system, school and classroom level.

This study noted at the beginning that there are many behaviour support theories/models and yet student behaviour remains an issue for teachers. This will continue if teachers believe that any one theory/model will provide the solution to their difficulties resulting in doubts about their efficacy when this does not happen. Teachers also need to learn to hybridise theories/models to their class needs and become eclectic bowerbirds collecting strategies, which through co-evolution with students, will establish new meaning in their classrooms and provide for successful implementation of new approaches.

This study did not lead to any firm conclusions about whether behaviours have to change first and beliefs will follow or vice versa. However, the fact that a teacher's beliefs can sustain compound views suggests that the important factor is not whether the behaviour or belief came first but whether teachers receive the support that they require and the conditions exist for collaboration and collegiality which will keep shifting them towards views of inclusion rather than sliding back to a segregationist perspective. For these reasons the principles underpinning shifts in teacher beliefs identified in this study are significant because they provide systems and schools with the multiple tools required to achieve a shift. It is not a process of teaching a teacher new skills in isolation and expecting that a shift in beliefs will follow as the new skills. If these skills are unsupported by other variables such as support documents, school policies and so forth, they are more likely to result in maintenance of existing beliefs when the expected changes in behaviour do not occur. This results in reinforcing negative beliefs about their own efficacy as teachers of students with behaviour support needs.

Chapter Conclusions

This chapter centred on teacher self-efficacy and variables related to teacher capacity building that underpin a shift in teacher beliefs. These are:

- existing resources which reinforce special needs, like the Latvian Pedagogical/Medical Committee, should be replaced with social model approaches that deliver a message of inclusion, not only to teachers but the whole community;
- teacher accountability measures based on managerialism can de-professionalise teachers therefore strategies for empowerment need to be fostered by the system, including addressing structures and processes which impact on teacher emotions;

- teacher self-efficacy beliefs impact on teacher risk-taking behaviour and need to be addressed as part of any transition plan accompanying reforms or innovative practices;
- individual professional learning plans provide specific support to teachers and are the most effective way of addressing teacher self-efficacy;
- teacher capacity building is a broad concept and requires more than building teacher skills and knowledge, rather it requires consideration of teacher self-efficacy and emotional states which influence teacher judgements.

Chapter eight

Analysis and interpretation

8.0 The analytic categories

This chapter analyses and interprets the findings from the previous chapters organised by the following analytic categories:

- the role of theories/models and the importance of hybridisation, (research question 1);
- tension created by global, national and system documents - the use of language and implementation processes (research question 2);
- the complex interactions which support or hinder teacher capacity building (research question 3);
- how teacher beliefs impact on understanding behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in these beliefs (research question 4).

The following table summarises the findings from the teacher survey, intervention plans, seminar discussions, interview and discussions grouping the findings against variables from the literature using four analytic categories. The findings indicate that there are many variables that have the potential to impact on teacher beliefs and that it is the webs of interaction that create existing beliefs or promote a shift in beliefs rather than any one variable which influences belief creation in a linear fashion.

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|--|--|---|---|---|--|--|--|
| Theories/models and the importance of hybridisation | Hybridisation of educational transfer at a system, school and classroom level | Not part of the survey | The intervention plans indicate that the majority had not undergone a shift in beliefs or adjusted the strategies to their local needs although some did. This discrepancy may be explained by the fact that the course only addressed some of the principles needed for a shift in beliefs, some teachers may already have held inclusive beliefs and each teacher has differing PL needs. | Believed that the system did not attempt to adjust innovative practices to local needs (national, district or school-level) because of a lack of expertise as decision-making was often politically driven rather than research-based. Teachers expected that use of new strategies would be sufficient and did not pay sufficient attention to student voice as part of the hybridisation at classroom level | Adjusted strategies and materials to class needs | Were aware of the importance of addressing student needs but had no little experience of incorporating student voice into the process of making meaning. Unfamiliar with bigger picture concepts of needs such as school-level, district or national | Little indication that this takes place at a systems level although <i>Skola 2030</i> has the potential to address this. The intervention plans indicate that hybridisation needs more than information on the borrowed strategies. Hybridisation at a classroom level is important for the co-evolution of new meaning yet theories/models are usually presented as a package that needs application rather than establishing what this means in a particular teacher's classroom |
| | Eclectic use of theories/models linked to beliefs about LOC | Demonstrated some use of eclectic strategies but unaware of LOC | The majority suggested a mix of cognitive behaviourist strategies with communication | Believed teachers lacked access to knowledge about the different theories/models in Latvian and this | Used eclectic approach | Unsure of what they would do but defined rules as important along with | Teachers need access to the models/theories but they also need support in implementing them in their classrooms. Few had considered |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|--|--|---|---|--|--|---|--|
| | | | strategies from Ginott. They sought structure and routines. Only some related the strategies to their beliefs about LOC | hampered implementation of innovative practices. A tendency by teachers to do what they have always done | | preparing appropriate academic work. | their own beliefs about LOC in the classroom |
| | Positive teacher – student relationships provide the framework for the implementation of behaviour support strategies | Overwhelming supported the importance of good relationships | This was the focus of their interventions but they indicated that teachers should always remain in control | Concerned that when teachers were not provided with guidance and access to new approaches and support to internalize them, the focus would remain on control despite agreement that positive relationships are important | Chose strategies that would support positive relationships but maintained control in the classroom | Aimed to establish positive relationships and considered them important for their work as a teacher | Teachers stressed the need for positive relationships with students and many suggested ways of achieving these but usually these were framed by the teacher remaining in control. This could lead to teachers focussing more on power in the face of difficult situations. |
| Addressing existing teacher beliefs | Discipline as a continuum | Majority taught skills (social, anger management) but many did not think this was useful. Focussed on | Discussed some elements of a continuum. Strong focus on prevention and some on consequences. Some suggested teaching optimistic | Co-ordinated view. Discussed role of teachers, schools and the system identifying shortfalls such as teacher understanding and | A strong focus on discipline as a series of events with a focus on management of behaviour | Concerned about their skills, available support. View of discipline as a series of events. | The main focus by practising teachers is on discipline as a series of events. Elements of a continuum are suggested only by those teachers who had recently completed the |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|---------------------|--|---|--|---|---|--|---|
| | | prevention. Discipline understood as a series of events | thinking, social and behavioural skills | access to knowledge, school organisation and systemic problems with supporting schools | | | VISC course in behaviour support |
| | Social justice for students with EBD | Students were seen as a negative impact on other students' learning indicating the potential to marginalise them. Boys seen as slightly more likely to have problems with behaviour | Suggested strategies for engagement, involvement of parents and the need for positive relationships along with not referring to past inappropriate behaviour, indicating inclusion | Indicated that students were often marginalised because teachers did not have the skills, nor schools appropriate processes in place for inclusion of students. Currently a definition of the meaning of inclusion for Latvian schools was being developed. | Inclusive approach towards diverse student groups | Indicated acceptance of diversity but no real understanding of how to achieve inclusion in the class | Teachers who had recently completed the VISC course and experienced special education teachers were less likely to marginalise these students. The lack of a definition of what inclusion means in Latvian schools supports marginalisation |
| | PL plans individualised to build teacher capacity | Unaware of this | Unaware of this | Considered a valuable approach but this requires reconsideration of professional learning in schools in Latvia | Unaware of this | Unaware of this | Individualised PL plans (IPLP) requires a shift in thinking and approaches to PL. IPLP needs an educative rather than managerial approach to teachers. The plans need to be |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|--|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | based on system, school and teacher needs with the aim of achieving a specific goal. |
| | Starting with the teacher rather than the student when planning behaviour support | The focus was only on the students. | Indicated some changes that teachers needed to consider but the focus remained on modifying the student's behaviour. | Supported this but considered that Latvian teachers were not used to this approach and rarely applied it usually seeking to modify student behaviour | Discussed changes that teachers could make but still maintained greater focus on the student | The focus was totally on the student | This approach needs to be introduced through PL activities as teachers contribute significantly to the classroom context and have control over their actions in the classroom, but it will need a shift in teacher beliefs |
| System documents: language and implementation processes | System and school documents phrased in terms of inclusion rather than the more medical language of rehabilitation ; | Not part of the survey | Not part of the training | Commented on the scant amount of documents to support important changes or reforms and the on-going focus on identifying these students as different from the norm rather than having diverse needs | Not part of the discussions | Unfamiliar with specific documents apart from key pedagogical normative acts | Latvian teachers receive little guidance from national documents. Those that exist re-inforce the concepts of special needs and rehabilitation in direct conflict with concepts of inclusion. |
| | Removal of categorisation | Not part of the survey but | Used everyday labels such as | Believes that the continued practice | Used medical labels | Unaware of medical labels | Continued reliance on medical diagnosis |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|---|---|---|--|
| | of students using medical labels | teachers tend to blame the student or parents for behavior issues. | “disruptive” along with medical diagnoses. Medical diagnosis appeared to guide their decision-making | of using medical labels to determine educational programmes is not based substantiated by the research | | except for the most general and frequently occurring ones | works in opposition to a social model of inclusion. Teachers need support to move away from a medical model of intervention to one based on pedagogy which considers the total environment as part of the issue not just the student |
| | System structures which support teachers | The majority disagreed that they were supported or were unsure of the level of support. They believed their school should manage minor discipline problems better. | Felt isolated in their schools and often unsupported in their efforts to address behaviour support needs | The system did not have structures or processes that would help to support teachers to implement innovative practices and that this was relegated to districts where there was considerable variation in knowledge, expectations, experiences | Implied that these were very few | Unaware of the influence of structures and processes | There is little indication that centrally there is much support for teachers, with limited support documents, no transition planning and one-off professional learning opportunities. At a school level this varies across schools and districts. Many schools appear to practise teacher management rather than teacher support |
| | System commitment | Raised lack of funding, other | Did not suggest additional funding | Suggested that the lack of transition | Systemic issues only | No awareness of this | Apart from normative acts and regulations, |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|----------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | to reform through funding, transition plans | elements not discussed | and had no experience of transition planning for teachers | planning to accompany reforms contributed to the incomplete and unsuccessful implementation practices | briefly discussed | | there appears to be little systemic support. It remains to be seen whether <i>Skola 2030</i> improves this situation or remains a practice on paper |
| | Resources need to focus on a social rather than medical model | Not part of the survey | Acceptance of medical model | Believed the pedagogical-medical committees to be an anomaly in an age of inclusive practices | Not discussed | No awareness of this | An alternative for student placement based in medical identification needs to be considered. Medical opinion needs to be part of the process but in a pedagogical setting, pedagogy should be the driving factor |
| Teacher capacity building | Acknowledgement of the past | The majority were against use of authoritarian approaches which may lead them to resist authoritative approaches | Discussed soviet era strategies briefly as part of the process of understanding the new ones being suggested | Credited the past with still influencing teacher decision-making as support for new approaches was minimal and teachers relied on what they knew | Minimal reference to it but some attitudes to learners and meeting their needs suggested that their influence remained | Focussed on the future and their role | Soviet era thinking still impacts on teacher choices. Acknowledgement of the past requires more than dismissal of old structures and process. It needs consideration of how thinking needs to change to accompany educational borrowing. Soviet era thinking was |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|---------------------|---|---|--|---|---|--|---|
| | | | | | | | implemented in a revolutionary way whereas currently the approach is evolutionary. This requires planned support for teachers. |
| | Pre-service and in-service learning which addresses the key criteria for inclusion | Teachers expressed the belief that pre-service courses should concentrate more on behaviour management. Most had some experience of in-service courses on behaviour support | Considered preparation in behaviour support in pre-service training to be limited and needing improvement so that it addresses actual problems and current reality | Questioned the ability of universities to prepare teachers with both theoretical knowledge and the necessary practical skills with respect to student behaviour support | Pre-service learning not discussed. Believed in-service learning was limited | Expressed concern about the lack of preparation in behaviour support and questioned the disequilibrium between teaching methodology linked to academics but not to behaviour | Teachers and experts expressed concern with the level and nature of teaching in behaviour support in pre-service courses. To this needs to be added preparation of students for a collaborative approach to teaching, as the focus on methodology is insufficient to prepare students for the collegiality required to implement inclusive strategies |
| | Teacher confidence | Chose strategies that were mostly related to prevention. Those strategies chosen relating to correction | Some chose strategies which were indicative of being comfortable in teaching these students but many chose low-level | One group of teachers do not believe that the strategies will work. Nothing will change immediately, so | Displayed confidence and were prepared to implement new strategies with their students over | Confident in their knowledge but not so sure about strategies that would assist | Many teachers appear to lack confidence as they believe that they do not have the right to correct students. When they do correct them, they choose low-level |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|---------------------|--|--|--|---|--|---|---|
| | | were at a low-level indicating a lack of confidence in applying strategies that would challenge students | strategies that would not challenge the student. They stressed teacher preparation for lessons which contributes to confidence | they give up on them and lose confidence. Latvia lacks preparation at pre-service level for behaviour support. It also lacks pedagogical material in Latvian which limits confidence in application of new strategies | the period of the discussions | with students with behaviour support needs and eager for advice | strategies that do not challenge student assumptions about school and learning. |
| | School leadership providing an environment to support innovations | Suggested support was missing but the topic was briefly addressed | Little evidence that school leadership addressed PL, collegiality, school-based PL or provided support structures | Hierarchies and management appear to be securely in place rather than an environment which encourages innovation | Suggested that the leadership approach was one of management and authoritarian | Not part of the discussion | Teachers perceive school leadership to be managerial rather than empowering. Teachers often expressed concern at being left to deal with problems as best they could. There appears to be little in terms of structured collaboration in teacher work and a sense of isolation prevails |
| | Access to various PL opportunities: readings, | Access mostly to courses | Access mostly to courses | Limited ability in English restrict teacher access to the many resources | Not discussed | Accessed some reading in English and interested in | This is a difficult issue. Teachers with good English skills have access to readings, |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|----------------------------|--|---|---|---|--|--|---|
| | courses etc | | | available as those in Latvian are few in number | | on-going study | journals, books but still need assistance to convert these to practices in their classroom. The emphasis thus remains on PL courses |
| | PL that is on-going and collegial | Little evidence of PL strategies that are collaborative | Attendance usually off-site and limited to a few colleagues | Teachers usually attend courses which occur off-site, alone or in pairs. The concept of whole-school professional learning has not been developed. Collaboration is practiced in very limited ways. | Discuss student interventions in like-minded groups that are not restricted to one school. Whole school professional development is not in place in their settings | Committed to on-going study but unfamiliar with whole-school development | While teachers will have different beliefs and practices, those teaching in one school need to be working towards common goals in academics and behaviour. This requires collaborative projects and an on-going whole-school approach to PL. School-based PL is important as its teaching collaboration skills to teachers. |
| | Teacher empowerment | Little indication that their schools used this approach | Their experiences as teachers appear to be more closely linked to teacher management than empowerment | Indicated that this did not occur as old systems of professional learning and expectations of the leadership team | Their responses indicated that their schools were hierarchical and did not | Unaware of this concept | Little indication that the system or schools have considered teacher empowerment and considered how to address this. Teachers are de-professionalised |

| Analytic categories | Variables (from the literature) | Findings from teacher surveys | Findings from intervention plans and seminar discussions | Findings from interviews with experts | Findings from specialist teacher discussions | Findings from beginning teacher interviews | Conclusions |
|----------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|---|--|---|---|--|
| | | | | were maintained | consider teacher empowerment | | with limited knowledge, limited support and the introduction of reforms without transition planning |
| | Addressing teacher self-efficacy as a part of transition planning | Not addressed | Not addressed | Transition plans to implement innovative practices are rarely prepared by schools or the system. | Unfamiliar with the process | Unfamiliar with the process | System and school transition planning is not common yet shifts will not take place without teacher support and strategies that address teacher beliefs about their competence. |

Table 19: Findings corresponding to the analytic categories

8.1 Categories used for analysis and interpretation

The following were used for the analysis and interpretation of the collected data: the role of theories/models and the importance of hybridisation; the tension created by global, national and system documents including the use of language and implementation processes; teacher capacity building; how teacher beliefs impact on understanding behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in these beliefs.

8.1.1 Categorisation 1: The role of theories/models and the importance of hybridisation

Theories or models of student behaviour support are numerous. The results achieved through the implementation of these theories/models are not always the intended ones which can result in the teacher experiencing failure in the classroom, a loss in self-efficacy beliefs and a reinforcement of segregationist beliefs about the educational placement of students with behaviour support needs. This can have a further impact on the nature of the relationship that teachers develop with these students. Such relationships provide the scaffolding for all behaviour support in the classroom and if the relationship is negative or non-existent, this impacts on the nature of support. Students with behaviour support needs require on-going support and the lack of a significant relationship between the student and teacher hampers the provision of such on-going support.

Teacher ability to accept change to support students with behaviour needs is influenced by contextual variables. Such variables do not work in isolation but interrelate to create teacher beliefs. Historical and social contexts interact with teacher personal and educational biographies and are further influenced by national/state, systems decisions and local school perspectives and needs. As single variables these do not eventuate in change, but in conjunction they create the complex situations, which lead to change in teacher beliefs or resistance to such change.

Analysis of data within Categorisation 1 suggests that:

- no single theory/practice provides universal solutions for all behaviour support issues. This suggests that an eclectic approach is more likely to meet the needs of diverse student groups and teachers with different beliefs about locus of control in the

classroom. There is no single theory/model that provides a blueprint for guaranteed change.

- hybridisation of theories/models, travelling policies or educational transfers needs to incorporate the impact of external, systems and personal webs of influence and local needs. Recognition is needed that educational borrowing from one context or era may be inappropriate for another. What has worked in a classroom in NSW may not work in one in Latvia;
- teacher-student relationships provide the framework for behaviour support in the classroom and this requires teachers to be eclectic in their choice of strategies and requires dialogic teaching;
- there can be no lock-step implementation of a theory/model. Hybridisation applies to system educational borrowing but also applies in the classroom. Consideration needs to be given to the local context (classroom) and creating new meaning through listening to the student voice and reciprocity in teacher and student interactions;
- teachers require support to change beliefs. Such support needs to be broad and include teacher capacity building rather than isolated professional learning activities;
- positive relationships between teachers and students provide the framework for behaviour support interventions. They contribute to new meaning being made in the class. Teacher attempts to implement innovative behaviour support strategies are likely to fail without the co-evolution of new meaning of what the strategies signify for a specific class. The co-evolution is crucial as a classroom environment is dynamic and students are not objects who can be “modified”;
- the total environment and all behaviours need to be considered when considering behaviour support. Teachers should provide feedback on appropriate behaviour. Inappropriate, low-level behaviours should not be ignored. The need for clarity and transparency should guide the formulation of rules and consequences and their implementation;
- changes to behaviour support do not occur in a vacuum but are influenced by complex, multidirectional interactions between teachers, students, leadership teams and education system officers, policies and regulations.

8.1.2 Categorisation 2: Tension created by global, national and system documents - the use of language and implementation processes

Education system approaches to vulnerable students, such as those based on a medical as opposed to a social model, can create tension between segregation and inclusion and impact on teacher beliefs and actions. The continuation of categorisation of students with behaviour support through medical labels can reinforce the teacher belief that the problem rests with the student rather than the situation, which strengthens teachers' pathognomonic beliefs and mitigates against inclusive classroom practices. A model for intervention, therefore, which pays attention to the removal of obstacles to participation, be that physical, social, emotional, educational, such as the social model, provides a more inclusive approach. Reliance just on a medical diagnosis leads to flaws in the development and implementation of support programmes, which mitigates against success and leaves students with behaviour support needs and their teachers in a cycle of vulnerability.

Systems need to develop and distribute guidelines that address the education of students with behaviour support needs. Some elements, which are supportive of teachers making sense of legislature and its implementation, are missing or confusing in Latvia's national documentation. It is especially important for the education department or Ministry of Education of a country/state to set the direction and ensure that documents exist that promote inclusion of students with behaviour support needs. Such documents need to be accompanied by scaffolding which supports the implementation of new or innovative approaches. Without such scaffolding schools and teachers are left to determine how they will implement normative acts or regulations, sometimes misunderstanding the intent, which may result in partial implementation and reinforce existing beliefs about these students. Latvia's lack of policy guidance is of particular concern and the disadvantage of this lack of guidance is particularly clear when contrasted with the situation in NSW.

Support for students with disabilities, including behaviour support needs in Latvia, is provided through Cabinet Regulation defined specialised programmes rather than making teaching/learning adjustments. This again reinforces these students as being special with special needs. The need for a special programme takes the onus away from the teacher to adjust teaching/learning in order to provide a relevant, engaging and quality programme for

all students in the class and reinforces that it is the student's problem not the teacher's or the result of a specific situation, context or environment.

It is obvious from the document analysis that documents are not released in a linear flow, rather they emerge through the interaction of existing policies/regulations, the community, schools and teachers. This interaction is an important element. Such interaction leads to the identification of policies that need modification or areas for the development of new policies/regulations to reduce the possibility of flaws in the implementation of legislature. The interaction needs to include feedback from consultations, media responses to issues and the reception by teachers and administrators of professional learning opportunities associated with the documents.

Analysis of data within Categorisation 2 suggests that:

- planned and supported introduction of changes to schools and teachers is needed to mitigate the use of existing strategies inappropriate to the desired changes.
- system and school documents need to be phrased in terms of inclusion rather than the more medical language of rehabilitation or of specialisation;
- removal of categorisation of students using medical labels is needed to reduce the likelihood that teachers believe they do not have the skills to educate these students or that therefore these students should be segregated with specialist teachers. Removal of categorisation of students using medical labels reduces marginalisation of students;
- system structures (a transition plan for implementation of new approaches, processes for knowledge sharing) are required that support a belief shift rather than maintaining the *status quo*;
- the system needs to demonstrate commitment to new approaches through transition planning, additional funding, support documents and access to professional learning;
- on-going reference to key issues needs to occur in system level and school documents rather than a single mention in a single document;
- a focus on a social rather than a medical model for student placement/support is important e.g. the replacement of existing resources which reinforce special needs, like the Latvian Pedagogical/Medical Committee with social model approaches that support a more inclusive approach.

8.1.3 Categorisation 3: Teacher capacity building

Professional learning should not be confused with teacher capacity building. Professional learning is just one variable related to building teacher capacity. It differs from capacity building by its focus on knowledge transfer rather than collaborative skills development. As well, acknowledgement rather than dismissal of the past needs to occur to reduce the impact of earlier legacies, such as the Soviet legacy. This can take place through teacher reflection and collegial learning.

Capacity building requires that teachers have access to on-going support and direction. This requires a school leadership team that creates an environment for change, rather than seeking a blueprint for behaviour support that can guarantee specific outcomes. Such an environment for change includes professional learning that addresses teacher ability to collaborate and supports collegiality and whole-school learning. The system and school must foster teacher empowerment to counteract teacher accountability measures based on managerialism which can de-professionalise teachers. On-going support can also be achieved by providing teachers with professional learning opportunities from many sources such as readings, collegial discussions, team teaching, establishing PLCs.

Capacity building also requires addressing teacher self-efficacy. Transition plans which address teacher self-efficacy beliefs need to be a part of all planning at a system and school level. Teacher ability to take risks in the classroom and implement innovative practices is dependent upon their self-efficacy beliefs. Any change can challenge these beliefs and teacher self-concepts creating a resistance to change. The pace of change can also impact on teacher ability to undergo a shift in beliefs. Teachers may consider innovative practices as just another trend which will soon pass.

Building teacher capacity requires commitment from the whole education system. This includes the provision of additional funding, support documents and access to professional learning. Support documents which provide guidance, identification of resources and a way forward in implementing innovative practices suggests such commitment, rather than ones which list existing resources or re-iterate normative acts, which suggests bureaucratic compliance rather than support.

Analysis of data within Categorisation 3 suggests that:

- a democratic approach is needed to schooling and innovations based on empowering teachers;
- professional learning needs to provide opportunities for teacher to confront their beliefs and assumptions;
- professional learning can take many forms including readings, collegial discussions, team teaching, not just formal courses;
- individual professional learning plans for teachers provide support tailored to individual teacher needs and are the most effective way of addressing teacher self-efficacy;
- professional learning needs to be collegial not isolated if it is to build capacity, therefore it must also address the ability of teachers to collaborate.
- teacher accountability measures based on managerialism can de-professionalise teachers therefore strategies for empowerment need to be fostered by the system, including addressing structures and processes which impact on teacher emotions;
- teacher self-efficacy beliefs impact on teacher risk-taking behaviour and need to be addressed as part of any transition plan accompanying reforms or innovative practices.

8.1.4 Categorisation 4: How teacher beliefs impact on understanding behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in these beliefs

Teachers may hold strong beliefs about their students and what their students are capable of achieving. These beliefs can become labels for features that are attributed to the student, which in turn may enhance or limit learning possibilities. While knowledge often changes, beliefs tend to remain static. If teachers believe that they do not have the skills to teach these students, that the reason for the display of inappropriate behaviours rests with the student or family and that a specialised setting is needed, and if their self-efficacy is challenged or threatened, then their ability to implement strategies that would provide on-going support for these students may be severely compromised. Teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs mediate their ability to implement new or innovative practices in their classrooms.

Teachers maintain beliefs about students, their learning and their behaviour but they also have beliefs about themselves as teachers. Student behaviour can challenge teacher beliefs about their ability to manage students with behaviour support needs. The stronger sense of self-efficacy that a teacher possesses, the more likely it will be that he/she will be able to assimilate new theories and implement innovative practices. It also has implications for student outcomes as self-efficacy is a part of the teacher's professional self-concept and it is this self-concept that determines how the classroom is constructed as a social practice.

Achieving a shift in thinking about students with behaviour support needs is a complex matter because the formation of teacher beliefs in itself is a complex process. A broad range of contextual factors impact on teacher beliefs. National and educational system directions, such as those required for successful inclusion as opposed to integration, may clash with the current beliefs held by teachers. The volume of change can be overwhelming and leave teachers stagnating, unable to implement new strategies.

Teacher learning, including how teachers access knowledge, is also important for a shift in beliefs. Belief systems, furthermore, include affect, not just knowledge, which in itself may be incomplete or inaccurate. Emotions play a role in teacher beliefs by influencing the kinds of beliefs that are salient in a particular situation.

Other elements such as concepts of pedagogy, epistemological theories about teaching and learning, and changes in curricula interact with teacher knowledge of students with behaviour support needs. At times it is not the element itself but its interaction with other variables that maintains existing beliefs or leads to change.

Analysis of data within Categorisation 4 suggests that:

- discourse about discipline needs to feature a continuum of support rather than single event strategies;
- social justice principles must be applied requiring consideration of the total environment when planning behaviour support rather than blaming the student and expecting the student to change and everything else to stay as it was;
- professional learning which provides opportunities for teacher to confront their beliefs and assumptions is important as it allows teachers to share and reflect on their practices;

- establishment of individual teacher learning plans which relate to school and system needs can support a shift in beliefs and also address individual needs, as not all teachers have the same professional learning needs;
- changes in behaviour support should be initiated through changes to teacher behaviour rather than a focus on the students and modification of the student's behaviour alone;
- context and history impact on how teachers understand, implement and teach new behaviours and their beliefs about their usefulness;
- new approaches need to be central to the needs of the local environment in order to impact on teacher beliefs;
- teachers, just like principals, can create the environment for change, but there is no blueprint that can guarantee outcomes. Teachers who believe in blueprints are more likely to maintain existing segregationist beliefs.

Chapter conclusions

By using the analytic categories it was possible to establish a core of principles that underpin a shift in teacher beliefs. These are defined in the final chapter: Conclusions and Recommendations. The recommendations are based on the findings, analysis, and conclusions of this study. The recommendations are divided into ones impacting on practices by systems, schools and teachers, and, recommendations for researchers in the field of student behaviour support.

Section 4: Implications for Teachers in Latvia

Conclusions and recommendations

"We cannot solve our problems with the same thinking we used when we created them"

Albert Einstein

Conclusions

Students with behaviour support needs remain the most difficult students to engage in the classroom and to include in classroom interactions. They are often marginalised and their behaviours disrupt their learning and that of other students. This can challenge teachers and reinforce the belief that such students should be removed and educated elsewhere, in a specialised setting. This belief interferes with the teacher's ability to implement innovative practices and incorporate these students into classroom activities and often leaves teachers stressed. While these students need on-going and constant pedagogical assistance, many teachers find it difficult to involve them in the day-to-day activities of the class and often manage them by isolating them. As the students' experiences of developing skills of self-management can thus be erratic and incomplete, this reduces their ability to develop a repertoire of new behaviours and leaves teachers and students in a cycle of vulnerability.

Multiple behaviour support theories/models exist and yet teachers struggle with how to provide effective behaviour support. Teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs influence teacher choices of theories/models and strategies. This study aimed to establish what actions and situations promote a shift in teacher beliefs from segregationist ones to those beliefs that support incorporation and engagement of students with behaviour support needs. It sought to establish the principles that underpin a shift in beliefs as these principles then can be used by systems and school leaders.

The investigation of the Glonacal Heuristic and Complexity Theory provided the comparators for the study formed part of the focus for the Literature Review in Chapter 2. These included global, national/state and local influences, interactions between these and agencies (organisations) or agents (teachers, students) and the impact of these on teacher beliefs. The dual approaches, Glonacal and Complexity Theory, were central to establishing the

disadvantages of using linear explanations for changes to paradigms or beliefs. An important finding of this study was that reductionist linear approaches, which imply that complex issues can be addressed through simple solutions such as seeking “best practice” and direct application of these practices through educational transfer, were not sufficient to address the needs of teachers in complex classroom environments.

The chapter continues seeking to address the stated aims of analysing and categorising behaviour support theories/models and investigating the discipline dichotomy. This is through the integrative literature review of student discipline, including behaviour support, and teacher beliefs. A second important finding was that the dichotomous understanding of discipline as either a technology of control or self-discipline, created by viewing discipline as a series of events, can create confusion for teachers. Understanding of discipline as a continuum is more likely to meet the needs of students in various stages of development and therefore facilitate a shift in teacher beliefs. The terminology of a continuum clearly identifies the need for on-going support. Behaviour support theories/models were compared, categorised and considered in terms of teacher beliefs about locus of control. No single theory/practice provided solutions for all of the key criteria associated with student engagement and inclusion suggesting that an eclectic approach was more likely to meet the needs of diverse student group and teachers with different beliefs about locus of control. Another important finding was that there is no single theory/model that provides a blueprint for guaranteed change. Examination of literature on teacher beliefs identified the need for systems to embrace transition planning which included addressing teacher self-efficacy beliefs and emotions when changes are planned, building teacher capacity through ongoing, collaborative professional development, a leadership team which fosters collegiality and provides support for changes and careful selection of language by systems and schools when discussing students with behaviour support needs. In answer to the question of what can be learned from the literature, the study found that discipline needs to be considered as a continuum and that an eclectic approach to theories/models of behaviour support is more likely to support the implementation of innovative practices, support compound teacher beliefs and the shift to new beliefs.

Context was explored in Chapter Three to establish its influence on teacher beliefs. A review of historical, economic and political influences on Latvian school education helped establish problems at a national and system’s level such as those associated with totalitarianism,

inculcation of totalitarian beliefs and decision-making hampered by lack of expertise which impact on teacher shifts in teacher beliefs. The NSW experience with change provided alternatives to the impact of managerialism and de-professionalisation of teachers that accompanies Neoliberalism in NSW and Latvia. These alternatives include teacher empowerment and development of shared vision. Teachers are unlikely to undergo a shift in beliefs if their self-efficacy is in question. However, the collegiality important to shifts in NSW cannot be directly transferred to the Latvian system. The collegiality of the NSW system may be understood by Latvian teachers as collectivity and face rejection. Examination of the hybridisation process in NSW with respect to inclusion demonstrated the importance of decision-making based on research as opposed to direct educational transfer of “best practice”. Overall the comparison between elements of NSW school education approaches and those in Latvia demonstrated the impact on teacher beliefs of context through various webs of influence. The NSW perspective also corroborated the importance of hybridisation or glocalisation of new ideas or approaches. This again suggests that linear, reductionist approaches do not support an explanation of complex situations.

Review of key global and systems’ documents, another aim of the research, is addressed in Chapter Four and reveals a lack of consistency and, at times, commitment to, concepts such as inclusion, which, as part of the external web of influences, also impacts on teacher beliefs. Comparison of NSW legislation and DEC policies with the normative acts, Cabinet Minister regulations and guidelines of Latvia demonstrated how difficulties may be multiplied by the system itself through the choice of language and lack of support processes. Another important finding was that Latvian documents continue to discuss special needs and rehabilitation, inferring the problem rests with the student. Such language suggests segregation and is unlikely to encourage a shift in beliefs or flawless implementation of reforms and innovations. The language of NSW documents is inclusive. As well the implementation of crucial policies is scaffolded in NSW, which is mostly lacking in the promulgation of Latvian documents, again sending a message of minimal commitment to concepts of inclusive education, or any other issue, to teachers. Examination of the documents and any processes to complement their introduction revealed another important finding: Latvia has too little in terms of guidelines and support for implementation processes and lacks, in general, a planned transition process for implementation of new approaches. The guidance provided by Cabinet Regulations is minimal and more likely to maintain existing beliefs. Without scaffolded support, the message being delivered is that this is something that is important only on paper

as there is no planned action. Evidence from this study points to the importance of transition planning to counter this and any negative effect from fragments of the historical past interfering with the national and local present, such as Latvian teacher rejection of authoritative behaviour support strategies because this is suggestive of authoritarian strategies in the Soviet era.

In Chapter Five this study concentrated on the adaption of key behaviour support strategies in Latvia and used NSW instances to structure analysis of the Latvian examples. It found that teachers in NSW and Latvia find the same low-level, but frequent, behaviours challenging, use preventative strategies such as rules, consequences and teacher/student relationships. This was established through examination of school level policies or guidelines, interventions such as APU (Latvia)/PBL (NSW) and SEA (Latvia)/SEL (NSW) and teacher survey responses. Yet there are differences that point to the effect of webs of influence. School policies in NSW reflect a centralised and directive approach to behaviour support, specifying the teachers' and students' roles. This approach, though authoritative rather than authoritarian, may be too reminiscent of the Soviet era for Latvian teachers who prefer an interactionist approach stressing the importance of teacher/student relationships for behaviour support, thus suggesting another reason why direct educational transfer without hybridisation is likely to be ineffective and lead to faulty implementation. Relationships, however, are complex and include the nature of reciprocity in the class and how much attention is given to student voice, again influenced by teacher beliefs about locus of control. That teachers still address behaviour by reacting to negative behaviours rather than stressing the positive is testified to by student views on teacher feedback which, in the case of behaviour, is associated only with sanctions. Analysis of Latvian teacher responses to the survey, the intervention plans and seminar discussions, interviews with beginning teachers and discussions with specialist teachers, along with the literature on teacher/student relationships, another aim of the research, indicates that relationships and reciprocity in the classroom are important for addressing behaviour support. The study identified the importance of a framework for behaviour support interventions that was provided by teacher-student relationships. This was another important finding. Only through teacher-students relationships and interactions can self-organisation occur in the classroom resulting in internalisation of new approaches so that they become part of the everyday. The multidirectional interactions at a local level again demonstrate the insufficiency of linear approaches.

In Chapter Six this study sought to identify variables that facilitated a shift in belief or any that maintained existing beliefs. This was done by reviewing the literature on teacher professional learning and analysing system documents such as professional learning resources and websites such as VISC. This led to another finding, that the process of facilitation or hindrance was not always clear, not in a direct cause and effect relationship, as the one and same variable could act to facilitate or hinder a shift depending on other contextual elements. The study found support for the use of professional learning, for example, as a change agent if this learning was co-ordinated, collaborative, on-going and part of a planned process that addressed system school and individual teacher needs. Under such circumstances it built the capacity of teachers. Yet professional learning which was isolated, not targeted to need and merely a response to mandated requirements, was more likely to hinder change. A shift in teacher beliefs about students with behaviour support needs will not occur if teachers are not provided with opportunities to confront their assumptions and beliefs. Readings and discussions provide an opportunity for this, yet the review of available journals addressing behaviour support in their native tongue in NSW and Latvia indicates a marked discrepancy between the number of journals and books available. This virtually eliminates one means of addressing beliefs for teachers in Latvia. Discussion occurs amongst teachers in all schools but there is a difference between the targeted, on-going discussion of a professional learning community and a one-off conversation. Again this opportunity is more limited in Latvia where school-based professional learning involving the entire staff is not yet the norm. This reduction in opportunities has implications for teacher self-efficacy beliefs about their ability to work with students with behaviour support needs. The solution, this study suggests, is to introduce personalised professional learning plans for teachers along with regular whole-school professional learning opportunities. The influence of interacting webs which support maintenance of segregationist beliefs can be tempered by capacity building which includes on-going collaborative professional learning opportunities, support from the leadership team, sharing of practice, targeted teacher learning which addresses system, the school's and the individual teacher's needs and transition planning. Without these sustained change will not be maintained. This study supports theories of learning that establish that teachers, like students, need to encounter deep and meaningful learning experiences and teacher personalised professional learning plans provide an opportunity for this to occur.

Professional learning starts at the pre-service stage. Pre-service learning was examined as part of the systemic approaches in Chapter Four and also in Chapter Six as part of professional

learning *per se*. A review of courses offered by universities in NSW and Latvia on behaviour support or classroom management, indicates that such courses in NSW either rely on theories favoured by the institution or the ubiquitous “best practice”. This term, this study suggests, is value laden and does little to help teachers find the most appropriate strategies for use with their students. In Latvia the focus in pre-service learning is on the child’s cognitive and socio-emotional development with the emphasis on psychology and developmental theories to “correct shortcomings” instead of the equally problematic focus in NSW on “best practice”. This study suggests that an emphasis on “correcting shortcomings” stresses that these students are different, rather than teaching pre-service teachers how to understand and teach a diverse population and encourage inclusion. Analysis of Latvian teacher responses in the survey, seminar discussions, interviews with experts and beginning teachers, and specialist teacher discussions universally indicated that teachers were dissatisfied with the current approach as it did not prepare them for the realities they faced in the classroom. The stress placed on methodology associated with subject learning was not extended to stress on student behaviour.

Chapter seven continued examination of capacity building with a focus on the importance of teacher self-efficacy. Teachers with high self-efficacy are more open to new ideas and approaches and are more able to support students’ autonomy. This chapter reinforced the need to consider emotional states of the teacher and not focus exclusively on PL that promotes new skills and knowledge. While these are necessary for change, it is the teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs which allows them to take risks: emotional, psychological and pedagogical, which are associated with changes in their classrooms. Strategies to address teacher self-efficacy beliefs need to acknowledge the complexity of beliefs and need to be an integral part of all transition planning. Professional learning is important but not offer a total solution. It can both hinder or facilitate shifts in beliefs, depending on how it is implemented and needs to be accompanied by system and school structures and processes that support change.

Chapter eight organised the findings using four analytic categories: the role of theories/models and the importance of hybridisation; how teacher beliefs impact on understanding behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in these beliefs; tension created by global, national and system documents - the use of language and implementation processes; the complex interactions which support or hinder teacher capacity building. Synthesis and interpretation of findings allowed for the identification of the principles that

underpin a shift in teacher beliefs, the identification of which was the central aim of the research.

The Principles underpinning a shift in beliefs

Principles of:

- eclecticism. Acceptance by systems, teachers and administrators that there is no single blueprint for change in student behaviours;
- hybridisation. There can be no direct transfer of theories/models or strategies without adjustment for the local environment;
- co-evolution. New meaning of innovative practices for a specific class is developed conjointly by the teacher and students;
- empowerment. Teacher capacity building rather than isolated PL skills development is crucial;
- complexity. Classrooms are complex and this total environment needs to be considered rather than a focus just on one student;
- relationship building. Relationships provide the framework for behaviour change. The starting point for change in the classroom is building a positive relationship with students. This also allows for the maintenance of on-going support rather than a single intervention approach;
- a continuum of support. Discipline and behaviour support are not one-off events but represent an on-going need;
- social justice. Students should not be disadvantaged by being ascribed to a group such as “students with behaviour disorders”. Labelling of students must be avoided in system documents, school policies and teacher conversations;
- collaborative change. Transition planning and support by systems and schools to facilitate teacher change is needed;
- emotional dimensions. Students with behaviour support needs can evoke strong emotions in teachers. Change evokes emotions. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are linked to emotions. Emotional literacy is important for teachers and students and emotions need to be considered as a part of all transitions;
- confrontation. Teacher beliefs need to be confronted in PL rather than a focus on skills development alone;

- multidirectionality. A linear cause and effect model cannot account for the complexity of interacting webs of contextual influence that affect teacher beliefs;
- collegiality. Capacity building is dependent upon PL which is tailored to individual teacher needs but occurs in a collegial way and is on-going not a single event;
- a social model. Changes to student behaviour need to be initiated by changes in teacher behaviour first based on an assessment of the classroom environment not an expectation of modifying the students behaviour and disregarding the classroom environment.

Finally, this study was concerned with the implications of the identified principles for teacher development in Latvia. The evidence from this study suggests that shifts in beliefs require many interacting elements and therefore reductionist and linear approaches, whether these are applied to behaviour support models, to defining discipline or to teacher professional learning are unlikely to result in changes to teacher beliefs. Classrooms, as complex and dynamic environments, do not support linear solutions and the use of linear, cause and effect approaches, this study suggests, establishes false expectations that particular professional learning, new skills or the use of a specific theory or model, used in isolation, will provide the solution to student behaviour support issues. Any resultant flaws are more likely to be blamed upon the student rather than the insufficient process. Systems, schools and teachers need to find ways of addressing complexity rather than reducing intricate interactions to a list of simple elements or lock-step processes. The study suggests that individualised teacher professional learning plans, which have the support of the school leadership team and involve collaborative learning by teachers, along with whole school collaborative professional learning, are likely to facilitate a shift in teacher beliefs about students with support needs especially if they are accompanied by transition planning when reforms or changes in practice are introduced.

Recommendations

Suggestions for practice

Despite the complexity of shifting teacher beliefs and the insufficiency of using theories/models of behaviour support in a lock step method, the presence of a range of models/theories is positive, as it supports teacher choice. These theories/models are a type of

educational borrowing. As such, systems (the Ministry/education department/VISC) and schools need to place an emphasis on local needs and ownership and on hybridisation to make these theories/models relevant to the teachers' classroom practices and to match the teachers' views on locus of control. For such hybridisation to take place teachers need to be encouraged and supported to form and use professional learning communities in their schools. The school leadership team needs to facilitate the establishment of professional learning communities in their schools so that changes in the school are truly localised and support teacher capacity building.

This means that leadership teams in schools also need to be supported. They must initially learn how to facilitate and promote collaborative decision-making at an executive level. The hierarchical structure of the Soviet era is counterproductive for such collaboration. Members of the school executive need system (Ministry/VISC/departmental) support to establish and maintain PLCs. Such support can be provided through documents, professional learning opportunities, additional resources and policies, which not only provide direction but are accompanied by implementation strategies.

Teachers and schools need to focus on the barriers that students with behaviour support needs face in the classroom and school rather than on medical diagnoses. Continuing with the concept of teachers working professionally together, each school needs to establish a committee which is responsible for identifying the barriers for specific students, how these will be met and reduced and what support will be given to the teacher. The committee should always involve the classroom teacher/s but also include a member from the leadership team, parents, specialist teachers, psychologists or other health specialists – those people who are relevant for that particular student.

Collegiality is important for teacher capacity building. Apart from PLC, professional learning should be organised as a whole school activity when appropriate. While teachers have individual needs with respect to knowledge and skills, individual off-site PL does not promote capacity building. Whole school PL ensures that all teachers hear the same message, that they have colleagues to whom they can turn to for guidance, information, support and planning. When whole school PL is planned, the school leadership team must create a transition plan for implementing the new skills in the school and this should address teacher self-efficacy. As the Ministry and department provide almost no guidance or support when introducing new

concepts like inclusion, it is important the each school develop and implement its own plan for implementation. Without this teacher beliefs become the guiding force, which can lead to misinterpretation or incomplete implementation of new approaches.

The specific recommendations for the Ministry/education department/VISC related to practice are:

- The Ministry needs to reinforce the concept of leadership teams that lead the school rather than a series of isolated individuals. While the ultimate responsibility rests with the principal, team decision-making incorporates various approaches and is best suited to meeting local needs.
- The Ministry should work to replace Pedagogical/Medical Committees with a social model for student placement and support. This should include medical professionals, but should also address environmental issues such as teacher skills and knowledge, current classroom practices and the impact of other students, specialist support staff such as speech therapists, physiotherapist etc if needed, the parents and the student's input if appropriate. Teachers should be central to this process and the title should reflect an inclusive approach rather than promoting difference.
- Re-focus discussion of behaviour support in documents, conferences, meetings on addressing students' communicative needs rather than seeking fault or a shortfall in students or their families.
- Encourage review of current normative acts and regulations to ensure use of inclusive language rather than the current focus on rehabilitation and special needs.
- Establish a standard that addresses inclusive language with which all new acts and documents must comply. Prepare recommendations for the Saiema concerning appropriate use of inclusive language in all documents not just those associated with education.
- Ensure that transition planning to accompany each new key document (such as the current review of the General Education Law) includes support documents, professional learning for teachers, school leadership teams and school communities and seeks to empower teachers by providing them with opportunities to not only comment on, but also implement and provide feedback upon new approaches.
- Cease to make special education a poor relative of regular education by always making special education an add-on service or an afterthought, by stressing that these

students have special, as opposed to different, needs. Inclusion means that these students need to be considered from the very beginning of a process and the focus needs to be on removing barriers that stop them from learning or engaging. This requires special educators to be involved at the very beginning of reform processes, to be part of the planning and decision-making.

- Control the rate and frequency of systemic educational change and reform.
- Ensure that formulae, for the allocation of teachers to schools, include class-free time that allows teachers to collaborate on a regular basis.
- There needs to be a system for the release of new documents (acts or regulations) that includes a process for regulated collaboration across Ministries so that documents are refined rather than changes made by each Ministry separately leading to conflicting terminology, directions and confusion about the implications of changes for the implementation process.
- This system should also address the use of terminology in documents from all Ministries, to ensure consistency but also to ensure the language of inclusion is used rather than integration or segregation.
- It should develop a system for the release of documents that includes a transition plan so that schools and teachers are supported with the implementation process.
- The Ministry should ensure that new documents reflect a hybridised approach to educational borrowing so that the strategies become Latvian and are built on familiar structures and approaches, not a direct copy of “best practice” which may look dissimilar in different contexts, either geographical or historical.
- The Ministry/ Education department or VISC provide leadership team development opportunities – as opposed to just leadership. This would require additional professional learning and the establishment and use of collegial groups at a leadership level in schools.
- The Ministry/education department/VISC and schools must provide professional learning and support for teachers on the following: the use of feedback on behaviour and attitudes not just academic performance; teacher collaboration to ensure effective collegial group planning; and, eclectic use of behaviour theories/models.

The specific recommendations for schools and teachers related to practice are:

- Schools need to establish whole-school professional learning ensuring that it occurs regularly and is tied to school and teacher needs.
- Schools need to institute the use of individualised professional learning plans for teachers based on district, school and teacher needs.
- Schools must ensure the discourse of behaviour on school websites, in their publications, letters etc is based on behaviour as communication rather than behaviour as a medical or criminal issue.
- Schools are encouraged to review current structures and processes associated with discipline to ensure that they provide a continuum and do not marginalise students with behaviour support needs through unnecessary labelling. Ensure that this takes place with the participation of teachers and parents and that there is a clear definition of how a discipline continuum operates in that school and the responsibilities of staff, students and parents.
- Teachers need to be encouraged to use the framework of teacher-students relationships to scaffold how they use preventative, supportive or corrective strategies linked to behaviour support.
- Teachers need to examine and discuss with colleagues their approach to discipline to ensure that it operates as a continuum in class with preventative measures, educative strategies and appropriate management measures along with opportunities for students to learn self-control.
- Schools and teachers need to seek out and use data-driven decision-making about student behaviour.
- Teachers need to learn how to collaborate and work as a team to solve behaviour support issues rather than focus on change in their classroom.
- Teachers need to become active in seeking out collaborative, rather than isolated, opportunities for on-going professional learning.

The specific recommendations for universities related to practice are that:

- A review of pre-service courses on behaviour support is warranted. The review should seek to establish whether universities are teaching eclectic approaches to behaviour support and whether they place discipline within a continuum that addresses teaching new skills as well as supporting student use of skills, not just a focus on management

or control. This review should also address the balance between theory and practice and ensure that students are provided with opportunities to trial different approaches. The review should incorporate the views of not only university staff but also school leadership teams and teachers, especially beginning teachers, to ensure that it addresses local needs rather than being an exercise in borrowing “best practice” from elsewhere.

Suggestions for further research

This study aimed to determine the principles that underpin a shift in teacher beliefs about teaching students with behaviour support needs. These principles can be used by systems and schools to review current practices, establish processes which support a shift in teacher beliefs so they are comfortable using dialogic teaching, engaging with these students and not seeking to marginalise them. Its value lies in considering the interactions of the multiple interacting webs which influence teacher beliefs leading to the identification of the principles and avoiding a reductionist approach which leads teachers to believe that there is a blueprint that can be followed for implementing behaviour support in the classroom.

The study raised many questions that could provide the basis for future research. The area of teacher self-efficacy is important in achieving change in teacher beliefs and behaviours and would benefit from further research. With this in mind a possible, the following could be a potential area of research:

- how to design teacher education around student behaviour support so that it can successfully impact pre-service teachers’ self-efficacy;
- the most effective means of delivering such education.

Another area that would benefit from further research is that of hybridisation of imported programmes or theories/models:

- what needs to happen to adjust imported programmes, theories and models so that they meet the needs of the local community and research on the involvement of the local community in this process;
- research on why “best practice” programmes and strategies related to behaviour support work in a specific community, the principles that underpin these and the

significance of this for educational transfer: why do these programmes/strategies work and under what conditions.

There are strengths within the Latvian education system, such as the interpretation of “audzināšana” and teacher reliance on student-teacher relationships for behaviour change, but these face a challenge from external pressures. Hybridisation is needed so that teacher beliefs that support inclusion of students with behaviour support needs are not swept away by educational transfer of managerial approaches to education. For this reason collegial planning and implementation of new strategies/theories/models is crucial as is teacher capacity building as opposed to just skills development.

References

- Abbott, A. (2004). *Methods of discovery: Heuristics for the social sciences*. New York: W. W. Norton.
- Abens, A. (2015). Effects of authoritarianism on the teaching of national history: the case of Latvia, *Paedagogica Historica*, 51(1-2), 166-180. doi: 10.1080/00309230.2014.997749
- Acton, R., & Glasgow, P. (2015). Teacher wellbeing in neoliberal contexts: a review of the literature, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40-8, 1-17. doi:10.14221/ajte.2015v40n8.6
- Adamson, B. (2012). International comparative studies in teaching and teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 28, 641-648. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2012.02.003
- Ainscow, M. (1999) *Understanding the development of inclusive schools*. London: Falmer.
- Ainscow, M., & Sandill, A. (2010). Developing inclusive education systems: the role of organisational cultures and leadership, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(4), 401-416, doi: 10.1080/13603110802504903
- Aizsila, A. (2010). Pedagogu tālākizglītības programmas realizācija (Implementation of Further Education Programs for Teachers), *LLU Raksti* 24 (319), 76-85. Retrieved from llufb.llu.lv/proceedings/n24/LLU-raksti-nr24.pdf
- Ajzen, I. (2011). The theory of planned behaviour: Reactions and reflections. *Psychology and Health* (26) 9, 1113–1127. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2011.613995>
- Alexander, R. (2004). Still no pedagogy? Principle, pragmatism and compliance in primary education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 34(1), 7-33. doi:10.1080/0305764042000183106
- Alberto, P. A., & Troutman, AC. (2005). *Applied behavior analysis for teachers* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill/Prentice-Hall.
- Alderman, G.L., & Green, S.K. (2011). Social Powers and Effective Classroom Management: Enhancing Teacher-Student Relationships, *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 47(1), 39-44. doi: 10.1177/1053451211406543
- Algozzine, K., & Algozzine, B. (2007). Classroom instructional ecology and school-wide positive behavior support. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, 24, 29-47. doi:10.1300/J370v24n01_02
- Algozzine, B., & Algozzine, K. (2009). Facilitating academic achievement through schoolwide positive behavior support. In W. Sailor, G. Dunlap, R. Horner, & G. Sugai (Eds.), *Handbook of positive behavior support* (pp. 521–550). New York, NY: Springer.

- Anderson, C.J.K., Klassen, R.M. & Georgiou, G.K. (2007). Inclusion in Australia: What teachers say they need and what school psychologists can offer. *School Psychology International* 28-2,131–47. doi:10.1177/0143034307078086
- Anderson, C. M., & Rodriguez, B. J. (2014). Supporting Students with Behavioral Challenges in Inclusive Schools. In J. McLeskey, N. Waldron, F. Spooner & B. Algozzine, (Eds). *Handbook of Effective Inclusive Schools, Research and Practice* (pp.410-424). Routledge, doi/10.4324/9780203102930.ch29
- Angus, L. (1994). Sociological analysis and educational management: the social context of the self-managing school. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 15(1): 79–92. doi: 10.1080/0142569940150105
- Anspaks, J. (2003). *Pedagoģijas idejas Latvijā* (Ideas about pedagogy in Latvia). Rīga: RaKa
- Araujo, M. 2005. Disruptive or disrupted? A qualitative study on the construction of indiscipline. *International Journal of Inclusive Education* 9(3), 241–68. doi: 10.1080/09596410500059730
- Armstrong, D., & Hallett. F. (2012). Private Knowledge, Public Face: Conceptions of Children with SEBD by Teachers in the UK – A Case Study. *Educational and Child Psychology* 29 (4), 77–87. Retrieved from <http://researchoutputs.unisa.edu.au/11541.2/119276>
- Atkinson, P. A., & Coffey, A. (2004). Analysing documentary realities. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice* (2nd ed.) (pp. 56–75). London: Sage.
- Auld, E., & Morris, P. (2014) Comparative education, the ‘New Paradigm’ and policy borrowing: constructing knowledge for educational reform. *Comparative Education*, 50(2), 129-155, doi: 10.1080/03050068.2013.826497
- Avlijaš, S. (2015). Is neoliberalism all there is to the Baltics? The curious case of statism and high female labour force participation in the European periphery, *Paper prepared for the 4th European Conference on Politics and Gender 11-13 June 2015, Uppsala, Sweden*. Retrieved from <https://ecpr.eu>
- Avalos, B. (2011). Teacher professional development in *Teaching and Teacher Education* over ten years, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 10-20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.08.007>
- Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2002). Teachers’ attitude towards integration/inclusion: a review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 17(2), 129-147. doi: 10.1080/08856250210129056
- Baker, J. A. (2006). Contributions of teacher–child relationships to positive school adjustment during elementary school. *Journal of School Psychology* 44(3), 211–229. doi: 10.1016/j.jsp.2006.02.002

- Bakhurst, D. (2009). Reflections on activity theory. *Educational Review*, 61(2), 197–210. doi: 10.1080/00131910902846916
- Balson, M. (1997). *Understanding Classroom Behaviour* (3rd revised edition), London: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Bami, D., Russo, C., & Danioni, F. (2018). Teachers' values as predictors of classroom management styles: a relative weight analysis, *Frontiers in Psychology*, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01970
- Barcan, A. (2010). Public Schools in Australia from the late 1970s to the late 1980s: the Seeds of Change. *Education Research and Perspectives*, 37(2), 1-37. Retrieved from <http://erpjournal.net/wp-content/uploads/2012/07/ERP37-2.-Barcan-A.-2010.-Public-Schools-in-Australia-from-the-late-1970s-to-the-late-1980s.pdf>
- Barth, R. S. (2007). Culture in question. In *The Jossey-Bass Reader on Educational Leadership* (2nd edition) San Francisco CA: Wiley and Sons.
- Bear, G. G. (2010). *From school discipline to self-discipline*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Bear, G.G. (2011). Positive psychology and school discipline: positive is not simply the opposite of punitive, *Communique*, 39(5), 8-9. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ920355>
- Beaman, R., Wheldall, K. & Kemp, C. (2007). Recent research on classroom behaviour: A review. *Australasian Journal of Special Education*, 31(1), 45-60. doi:10.1017/S1030011200025586
- Bekle, M. 2004. Knowledge and attitudes about attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD): a comparison between practicing teachers and undergraduate education students. *Journal of Attention Disorders* 7: 151–160. doi: 10.1177/108705470400700303
- Belousa, I., & Ūzuliņa, S. (2010). Emotional aspect of teachers' professional mastery in Latvia: theoretical and historical reflections. *Discourse and Communication for Sustainable Education*, 1. doi: 10.2478/dcse-2013-0017
- Beļickis, I. (2000). *Vērtīborientētā mācību stunda* (The value-oriented lesson). Rīga: RaKa.
- Benninga, J. S., Berkowitz, M. W., Kuehn, P.; & Smith, K. (2003). The relationships of character education and academic achievement in elementary schools. *Journal of Research in Character Education*, 1(1), 17-30. Retrieved from <https://characterandcitizenship.org/researchers/19-what-works-in-character-education->
- Bereday, G. (1961). Comparative Education and Ethnocentrism. *International Review of Education*, VII(1), 24-33.
- Biesta, G. J. J., & Tedder, M. (2006). *How is agency possible? Towards an ecological understanding of agency-as-achievement* (Working Paper 5). Exeter: The learning lives project. Retrieved from

<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download;jsessionid=C54384E9B2FA6053F1CC0667067879B4?doi=10.1.1.829.7386&rep=rep1&type=pdf>

- Black, R. (2007). *Crossing the bridge: overcoming entrenched disadvantage through student-centred learning*, Australian Education Foundation. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED501899.pdf>
- Bleiere, D. (2013). Vispārējās izglītības sovietizācija Latvijā: padomju cilvēka veidošana mācību procesā, 1944-1964 (Sovietisation of general education^[1] in Latvia: forming the Soviet personality within the educational process, 1944–1964), article written as part of the *National Research Project National identity: language, history, culture and human safety in Latvia*
- Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2008). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: a roadmap from beginning to end*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/10.4135/9781452226613.n3>
- Byford, A. (2017). The imperfect child in early twentieth-century Russia, *History of Education*, 46(5), 595-617, doi: 10.1080/0046760X.2017.1332248
- Bohle, D., & B. Greskovits. 2007. Neoliberalism, Embedded Neoliberalism and Neocorporatism: Towards Transnational Capitalism in Central-Eastern Europe. *West European Politics* 30 (3): 443–466. doi: b>10.1080/01402380701276287
- Boon, S. (2014). Developing and emotionally literate school, *The Bridge: Journal of Educational Research-Informed Practice* 1(2), 38-56, ISSN 2056-6670
- Booth, T. (2003) Viewing inclusion from a distance: gaining perspective from a comparative study, *Support for Learning* 14(4), 164-168. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9604.00124>
- Borko, H. (2004). Professional Development and Teacher Learning: Mapping the Terrain. *Educational Researcher*, 33. 3-13 doi:10.3102/0013189X033008003.
- Botha, J., & Kourkoutas, E. (2016). A community of practice as an inclusive model to support children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties in school contexts, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 20(7), 784-799, doi: 10.1080/13603116.2015.1111448
- Borg, S. (1999). Teacher cognition in language teaching: a review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe and do. *Language Teaching* (36)2, 81-109. doi:10.1017/S026144403001903
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36 (2). pp. 81-109. doi: 10.1017/S0261444803001903
- Bradshaw, C. P. (2015). Translating research to practice in bullying prevention, *American Psychologist*, 70(4), 322-332, doi.org/10.1037/a0039114

- Brenner, N., & Theodore, N. (2005). Neoliberalism and the urban condition, *City*, 9(1), 101-107, doi: 10.1080/13604810500092106
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2003). A test of the factorial validity of the Teacher Efficacy Scale. *Research in Education*, 69, 67-79. <https://doi.org/10.7227/RIE.69.6>
- Brühlmeier, A. (2010). *Head, Heart and Hand. Education in the spirit of Pestalozzi*. Cambridge: Sophia Books.
- Bryson, C., & Hand, L. (2007). The role of engagement in inspiring teaching and learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 44(4), 349–62. doi: 10.1080/14703290701602748
- Burnett, P. C. (2002). Teacher Praise and Feedback and Students' Perceptions of the Classroom Environment. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology* 22 (1): 5–16. doi: 10.1080/01443410120101215
- Canter, L., & Canter, M. (1976). *Assertive discipline: A take charge approach for today's educator*. Seal Beach, CA: Canter and Associates.
- Capra, F. (1996). *The web of life. A new synthesis of mind and matter*. London: Harper Collins.
- Carrington, S., Deppeler, J., & Moss, J. (2010). Cultivating Teachers' Beliefs, Knowledge and Skills for Leading Change in Schools, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(1). Retrieved from <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol35/iss1/1>
- Charles, C.M. (2011) *Building classroom discipline* (10th ed.) Boston: Pearson Education.
- Cefai, C., & Cooper, P. (2010). Students without voices: the unheard accounts of secondary school students with social, emotional and behaviour difficulties. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 25(2), 183–198. doi: 10.1080/08856251003658702
- Cerit, Y., & Yüksel, S. (2015). Teachers' perceptions of classroom management orientations in Turkish and Latvia contexts, *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies of the World*, 5(3), 1-10. Retrieved from http://www.wjeis.org/FileUpload/ds217232/File/01a.yusuf_cerit.pdf
- Christophersen, K.A., Elstad, E., Turmo, A., & Solhaug, T. (2016). Teacher Education Programmes and Their Contribution to Student Teacher Efficacy in Classroom Management and Pupil Engagement, *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 60(2), 240-254, doi: 10.1080/00313831.2015.1024162
- Cilliers, P. (1998). *Complexity and postmodernism: Understanding complex systems*. London: Routledge.
- Clark, C. (1998). Discipline in schools. *British Journal of Educational Studies* 46(3), 289–301. doi: 10.1111/1467-8527.00085

- Clement, J (2014). Managing mandated educational change, *School Leadership & Management*, 34(1), 39-51, doi: 10.1080/13632434.2013.813460
- Clunies-Ross, P., Little, E., & Kienhuis, M. (2008). Self-reported and actual use of proactive and reactive classroom management strategies and their relationship with teacher stress and student behaviour, *Educational Psychology*, 28(6), 693-710, doi: 10.1080/01443410802206700
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research Methods in Education* London Routledge, Falmer
- Coll, R. K., & Kalnins, T. (2009). A critical analysis of interpretive research studies in cooperative education and internships. *Journal of Cooperative Education and Internships*, 43(1), 1-13. Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/5398>
- Commonwealth of Australia. (1994). *Disability Discrimination Act*. Retrieved from education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/dse-fact-sheet-1-dda_0.pdf
- Commonwealth Australia. (2005). *Disability Standards for Education*. Retrieved from <https://www.education.gov.au/disability-standards-education-2005>
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2006). *Disability standards for education 2005*. Retrieved from <http://foi.deewr.gov.au/documents/disability-standards-education-2005>
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2011). *National Disability Strategy (2010-2020)*. Retrieved from www.fahcsia.gov.au
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2003). *National Safe Schools Framework (NSSF)*. Retrieved from https://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/national_safe_schools_framework.pdf
- Cornelius-White, J. (2007). Learner-centered teacher-student relationships are effective: a meta-analysis, *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 113 – 143. doi:10.3102/003465430298563
- Cornwall, J. (2015). The human element in education: nurture, self-efficacy and the psychology of academic inclusion. In E. Kourkoutas & A. Hart, (Eds.) *Innovative Practice and Interventions for Children and Adolescents with Psychosocial Difficulties and Disorders* (pp.60–82). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Cowen, R. (2014). Comparative education: stones, silences, and siren songs, *Comparative Education*, 50(1), 3-14, doi: 10.1080/03050068.2013.871834
- Craft, M. (1984). Education for diversity. In M. Craft (ed.) *Education and cultural pluralism*, London and Philadelphia: Falmer Press.
- Crossley, M. (2010). Context Matters in Educational Research and International Development: Learning from the Small – States Experience. *Prospects* 40, 421–429. doi: 10.1007/s11125-010-9172-4

- Crossley, M., & Watson, M. (2003). *Comparative and International Research in Education: Globalisation, Context and Difference*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Collinson, V., Kozina, E., Lin, Y-H.K., Ling, L., Matheson, I., Newcombe, L. & Žogla, I. (2009) Professional development for teachers: a world of change, *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(1), 3-19, doi: 10.1080/02619760802553022
- Crossley, M. (2010). Context Matters in Educational Research and International Development: Learning from the Small – States Experience. *Prospects* 40, 421–429. doi: 10.1007/s11125-010-9172-4
- Cunningham, R. (2001). *Complexity theory and school improvement: some possible connections*. Paper presented to the British Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Leeds. Retrieved from www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00001895.doc
- Cunningham, R. (2003). *Complexity theory and school improvement: some possible connections*. Paper presented at the British Education Research Association conference, Edinburgh University. Retrieved from <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00003214.htm>
- Dang, T. K. A., & Marginson, S. (2010). *Vygotskian socio-cultural theory and globalization: Implications for educational research*. Paper presented at the AARE Annual Conference, Melbourne. Retrieved from <https://www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/2010/1737DangMarginson.pdf>
- Daniela, L. (2015). Children with Special Needs in Latvia, Legislative Frame. *Society, Integration, Education*, 3: Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference, Rezekne, 74-84. doi: 10.17770/sie2015vol3.372
- Daniela, L. (2009). *Conditions to observe classroom discipline, Latvia context*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research, University of Vienna. Retrieved from <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/186334.pdf>
- Daniels, H., & Lunt, I. (1993). Vygotskian Theory and Special Education Practice in Russia, *Educational Studies*, 19(1), 79-90. doi: 10.1080/0305569930190105
- Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (2012). Fitting teacher education in/to/for and increasingly complex world. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 9(1), 30-40. <https://journals.library.ualberta.ca/complicity>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The ‘what’ and ‘why’ of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227–268. doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01
- De Jong, R. J., Van Tartwijk, J., Verloop, N., Veldman, I., & Wubbels, T. (2012). Teachers’ expectations of teacher-student interaction: complementary and distinctive expectancy patterns. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 948-956. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.04.009>

- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*, New York: Macmillan
- De Wit, D.J., Karioja, K., & Rye, B.J. (2010). Student perceptions of diminished teacher and classmate support following the transition to high school: are they related to declining attendance? *School Effectiveness and School Improvement* 21(4), 451–472, doi: 10.1080/09243453.2010.532010
- Diem, S., Young, M., Welton, A., Cumings Mansfield, K., & Lee, P. (2014). The intellectual landscape of critical policy analysis, *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 27(9), 1068-1090, doi: 10.1080/09518398.2014.916007
- Dinham, S. (2008a). Feedback on feedback, Teacher: *The National Education Magazine*, May, 20-23. Retrieved from https://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=108325815918206;res=IELHSS>_ISSN:1449-9274
- Dinham, S. (2008b). What do we know about student achievement? In Dinham, S. *How to get your school moving and improving: An Evidence-based Approach* (pp. 1-19) Camberwell, Victoria: ACER Press.
- Dinkmeyer, D., & Dinkmeyer, D. (Jr) (1976). Logical consequences: a key to the reduction of disciplinary problems. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 57(10), 664-666. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20298430>
- Dix, M 2012, *The student-centred school*, National institute for student-centred education. Retrieved from <http://nisce.org/nisce-white-papers-and-publications/39>
- Doecke, B., Parr, G., North, C., Gale, T., Long, M., Mitchell, J., Rennie, J., & Williams, S.. (2008). *National mapping of teacher professional learning project: final report*, Canberra, ACT: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10536/DRO/DU:30035340>
- Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom organization and management. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 392-431). New York: MacMillan.
- Drago-Severson, E. (2012). New opportunities for principal leadership: Shaping school climates for enhanced teacher development. *Teachers College Record*, 114(3). *Teachers College Record*, 114(3), 1-44. Retrieved from <http://www.tcrecord.org/library> ID Number: 16304
- Dreikurs, R., & Cassel, P. (1974). *Discipline without tears* (2nd ed.). NY: Hawthorn Books.
- Dreikurs, R., Grunwald, B., & Pepper, F (1998). *Maintaining sanity in the classroom: Classroom management techniques* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Taylor and Francis.
- Drugli, M. B., Clifford, G., & Larsson, B. (2008). Teachers' experience and management of young children treated because of home conduct problems: A qualitative study.

Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 52(3), 279-291. doi: 10.1080/00313830802025082

- Dyson, A., Farrell, P., Polat, F., Hutcheson, G., & Gallannaugh, G. (2004). *Inclusion and pupil achievement* (Research Rep. No. RR578). London: Department for Education and Skills. Retrieved from <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/research/data/uploadfiles/ACFC9F.pdf>
- Edge, K., Reynolds, R., & O'Toole, M. (2014). Quality teaching; 'Classroom Pedagogical Alignment' and why teachers teach as they do, *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 9(3), 211-227. Retrieved from <https://nova.newcastle.edu.au/vital/access/%20/services/.../uon.../ATTACHMENT02>
- Ellis, A. (1980). Rational-emotive therapy and cognitive behavior therapy: similarities and differences, *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 4(4) 325-340. doi: 10.1007/BF01178210
- Elliott, J. (2002). The paradox of reform in the evaluatory state: implications for teacher education. *Prospects*, 32(3), 273-287. Retrieved from <http://www.meitt.uki.vu.lt>
- The Elton Report (1989). *Discipline in Schools*. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office. Retrieved from <http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/elton>
- Emmer, E. T., & Aussiker, A. (1990). School and classroom discipline programs: How well do they work? In O. C. Moles (Ed.), *Student discipline strategies: research and practice* (pp.105-142). New York: University Press.
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L.M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education, *Educational Psychologist*, 36(2), 103-112. doi: 10.1207/S15326985EP3602_5
- Eriksen, K., & Kress, V.E. (2006). The DSM and the professional counseling identity: Bridging the gap. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling* 28(3), 202-17. doi.org/10.17744/mehc.28.3.4f39a6wr1n3fch2
- Ernst, C., & Rogers, M. (2009). Development of the inclusion attitude scale for high school teachers. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, 25(3), 305-322. doi: 10.1080/15377900802487235
- Erten, O., & Savage, R.S. (2012) Moving forward in inclusive education research, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(2), 221-233, doi: 10.1080/13603111003777496
- European Commission, (2010). *The European Disabilities Strategy 2010-2020*. Retrieved from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0636:FIN:en:PDF>
- Ferge, Z. (1997). The Changed Welfare Paradigm: The Individualization of the Social. *Social Policy & Administration* 31(1): 20-44. doi: 10.1111/1467-9515.00035

- Fives, H. R., & Buehl, M. M. (2016). *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 3(1), 114–121. doi:10.1177/2372732215623554bbs.sagepub.com
- Flick, U., von Kardorff, E., & Steinke, I. (Eds.) (2004). *A Companion to qualitative research*, London: Sage Publications
- Flores, M. A. (2001). Person and context in becoming a new teacher. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 27(2), 135–148. doi:10.1080/02607470120067882
- Florian, L. (2012). Preparing teachers to work in inclusive classrooms: Key lessons for the professional development of teacher educators from Scotland's Inclusive Practice Project. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 63(4), 275-285. doi: 10.1177/0022487112447112
- Foucault, M. (1974). *The archaeology of knowledge*. London: Tavistock.
- Freiberg, H. (1983) Consistency: the key to classroom management, *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 9:1, 1-15, doi: 10.1080/0260747830090101
- Foucault, M. (1995). *Discipline and punish: The birth of prison*. New York: Vintage.
- Fredericks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74, 59-109. doi: 10.3102/00346543074001059
- Fullan, M. (1993). Why teachers must become change agents, *Educational Leadership*, 50(6), 12-17. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/mar93/vol50/num06/Why-Teachers-Must-Become-Change-Agents.aspx>
- Fullan, M. (1999). *Change forces: The sequel*. London: Falmer Press.
- Fullan, M. (2007). Change the terms for teacher learning. *National Staff Development Council*, 28(3), 35-36. Retrieved from <http://michaelfullan.ca/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/13396074650.pdf>
- Fullan, M. (2002) 'Educational reform as continuous improvement.' In W.D. Hawley, and D.L. Rollie, (eds.) *The keys to effective schools: educational reform as continuous improvement* (pp. 1-9). Thousand Oaks (CA): Corwin.
- Fullan, M. (2001) *The new meaning of educational change*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Fullan, M. & Hargreaves, A. (Eds.) (1992) *Teacher development and educational change*, London: Falmer Press.
- Furlong, J. (2004). BERA at 30: Have we come of age? *British Educational Research Journal*, 30(3), 343–358. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/1502274>
- Gage, N., Larson, A., Sugai, G., & Chafouleas, S.M. (2016). Student perceptions of school climate as predictors of office discipline referrals, *American Educational Research*

Journal, 53(3), 492–515 doi: 10.3102/0002831216637349 Ó 2016 AERA.
<http://aerj.aera.net>

Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Birman, B. F., & Yoon, K. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(4), 915–45. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/3202507>

Garner, P. W. (2010). Emotional competence and its influences on teaching and learning. *Educational Psychology Review*, 22(3), 297-32. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23364145>

Gavora, P. (2010). Slovak pre-service teacher self-efficacy : theoretical and research considerations. *The New Educational Review* 21(2), 17-30.

Gibbs, S., & Powell, B. (2012). Teacher efficacy and pupil behaviour: The structure of teachers' individual and collective beliefs and their relationship with numbers of pupils excluded from school. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 564–584. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.2011.02046.x

Ginott, H. (1972). *Teacher and Child*, NY:Macmillan

Ginott, H. (2003). A better way to discipline children *Work & Family Life*, 17, 1-12. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/docview/196523037?accountid=12763>

Glasser, W. (1986). *Control theory in the classroom*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Glasser, W. (2001). *Choice theory in the classroom*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.

Glickman, C.D., & Wolfgang, C.H. (1978). Conflict in the classroom: an eclectic model of teacher–child interaction. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, 13(2), 82-87. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24008906>

Golafshani, N. (2003) Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4): 597-607. Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/51087041.pdf>

Gordon, T. (2003). *Teacher effectiveness training (Revised edition)*. NY:Three Rivers Press.

Göransson, K., Nilholm, C., & Karlsson, K., (2011). Inclusive education in Sweden? A critical analysis, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(5) 541- 555. doi: 10.1080/13603110903165141

Göransson, K. & Nilholm, C. (2014). Conceptual diversities and empirical shortcomings - a critical analysis of research on inclusive education, *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, (29)3, 265-280. doi: 10.1080/08856257.2014.933545

- Gottesman, D.E. (2016). *Preparing Teachers to Work with Students with Emotional Regulation Difficulties*. CUNY Academic Works. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from https://academicworks.cuny.edu/gc_etds/734
- Graff, N. (2009). Classroom talk: co-constructing a ‘difficult student’, *Educational Research*, 51(4), 439-454. doi: 10.1080/00131880903354782
- Graham, L.J., & Sweller, N. (2011). The Inclusion Lottery: who's in and who's out? Tracking inclusion and exclusion in New South Wales government schools, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(9), 941-953. doi: 10.1080/13603110903470046
- Gulson, K. (2007). Neo-liberal spatial technologies: On the practices of educational policy change. *Critical Studies in Education*, 48(2), 179–195. doi: 10.1080/17508480701494226
- Gundem, B. B. (1992). Notes on the development of Nordic didactics. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 24(1), 61-70. doi 10.1080/0022027920240104
- Gundy, M. S., & Berger, E. (2016). Towards a model supporting educational change, *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 6(3), 232-236, doi: 10.7763/IJiet.2016.V6.691
- Gunstone, R. (1994). The importance of specific science content in the enhancement of metacognition. In P. Fenshm, R. Gunstone & R. White (Eds.), *The Content of Science* (pp.131-146), London: Falmer.
- Guskey, Thomas R. (2002). Professional Development and Teacher Change. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 8(3-4), 381-391. doi: 10.1080/135406002100000512
- Gunter, P. L., Denny, R.K., & Venn, M. L. (2000). Modification of instructional materials and procedures for curricular success of students with emotional and behavioral disorders, *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, 44(3), 116-121. doi: 10.1080/10459880009599793
- Hagenauer, G., Hascher, T., & Volet, S.E. (2015) Teacher emotions in the classroom: associations with students’ engagement, classroom discipline and the inter-personal teacher-student relationship. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 30(4), 385-403. doi:10.1007/s10212-015-0250-0
- Haggis, T. (2008). Knowledge must be contextual: some possible implications of complexity and dynamic systems theories for educational research *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40(1), doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00403.x
- Hajdukova, E., Hornby, G., & Cushman, P. (2014). Pupil–teacher relationships: perceptions of boys with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties, *Pastoral Care in Education*, 32(2), 145-156. doi: 10.1080/02643944.2014.893007
- Hansen, J. H. (2012). Limits to inclusion, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(1), 89-98. doi: 10.1080/13603111003671632

- Hamilton, D. (1999). The pedagogic paradox (or why no didactics in England?), *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, (7)1, 135-152. doi: 10.1080/14681369900200048
- Harry, B., and J. Klinger. 2007. Discarding the deficit model. *Educational Leadership* 64(5): 16–21. retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/feb07/vol64/num05/Discarding-the-Deficit-Model.aspx>
- Hastings, R. P., & Bham, M. S. (2003). The relationship between student behaviour patterns and teacher burnout. *School Psychology International*, 24(1), 115–127. doi: 10.1177/0143034303024001905
- Hattie, J. (2003). *Teachers make a difference. What is the research evidence?* Retrieved from www.acer.edu.au/documents/Hattie_TeachersMakeADifference.pdf
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning. A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses in education*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback, *Review of Educational Research*, 77, (1), 83. doi: 10.3102/003465430298487
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions: teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students, *Teaching and Teacher Education* 16(8), 811-826. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X\(00\)00028-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(00)00028-7)
- Hargreaves, A. (2005). The emotions of teaching and educational change. In A. Hargreaves (Ed.), *Extending educational change: International handbook of educational change*, New York: Springer.
- Hargreaves, A. (2011). Push, Pull and Nudge: The Future of Teaching and Educational Change. In X. Zhu and K. Zeichner (Eds.), *Preparing Teachers for the 21st Century*, New Frontiers of Educational Research, Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.
- Hargreaves, A., & Fink, D. (2008). Distributed leadership: democracy or delivery? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(2), 229-240, doi: 10.1108/09578230810863280
- Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (2012). *Professional capital: Transforming teaching in every school*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Heath, N. L., Petrakos, H., Finn, C. A., Karagiannakis, A., Mclean-Heywood, D., & Rousseau, C. (2004). Inclusion on the final frontier: A model for including children with emotional and behaviour disorders (E/BD) in Canada. *International Journal of Inclusive Education* 8, (3), 241–59. doi: 10.1080/1360311042000216910
- Hegel, G. W. F. (1991). *Elements of the Philosophy of Right*, (translated by H. B. Nisbet & Ed. A. W. Wood), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Heifetz, R. A., & Linsky, A. (2002). A survival guide for leaders. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(6), 65-74. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2002/06/a-survival-guide-for-leaders>

- Hempel-Jorgensen, A. (2009). The construction of the 'ideal pupil' and pupils' perceptions of 'misbehaviour' and discipline: contrasting experiences in a low and a high socio-economic primary school, *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 30(4), 435-448. doi: 10.1080/01425690902954612
- Hilgers, M. (2012), The historicity of the neoliberal state. *Social Anthropology*, 20: 80–94. doi:10.1111/j.1469-8676.2011.00192.x
- Hodgman, M. (2015). Student praise in the modern classroom: The use of praise notes as a productive motivational tool, *Journal of Education and Training* 2(1), 41-47. doi: org/10.5296/jet.v2i1.6142
- Hodkinson, A. (2006). Conceptions and misconceptions of inclusive education – one year on: a critical analysis of newly qualified teachers' knowledge and understanding of inclusion. *Research in Education*, 76(1): 43-55. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/docview/213117138?accountid=12763>
- Hoppey, D., & McLeskey, J. (2013). A case study of principal leadership in an effective inclusive school. *Journal of Special Education*, 46(4), 245-256. doi: 10.1177/0022466910390507
- Horn, J. (2008). Human research and complexity theory, *Educational Philosophy and Theory* 40(1), 130-143. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00395.x
- Horne, S. E. (1980). Classroom Management, *British Journal of Teacher Education*, 6(3), 228-235. doi: 10.1080/0260747800060306
- Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk, A. (1993). Teachers' sense of efficacy and the organizational health of schools, *The Elementary School Journal*, 93(4), 355-372. doi: 10.1086/461729
- Hulgin, K.M., & Drake, B.M., (2011). Inclusive education and the No Child Left Behind Act: resisting entrenchment, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(4), 389-404. doi: 10.1080/13603110903030105
- Iliško, D. (2007). Teachers as agents of societal change, *Journal of Teacher Education for Sustainability*, (7), 2007, 14-26. doi: 10.2478/v10099-0002-9
- Infantino, J., & Little, E. (2005). Students' Perceptions of Classroom Behaviour Problems and the Effectiveness of Different Disciplinary Methods, *Educational Psychology*, 25(5), 491-508. doi: 10.1080/01443410500046549
- Irby, D. J., & Clough, C. (2015). Consistency rules: a critical exploration of a universal principle of school discipline. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 23(2), 153-173. doi: 10.1080/14681366.2014.932300
- Jarvis, P. (2013). Learning to be a person - East and West, *Comparative Education*, (49)1, 4-15. doi: 10.1080/03050068.2012.740216
- Johnson, B., Oswald, M., & Adey, K. (1993). Discipline in South Australian Primary Schools, *Educational Studies*, 19(3), 289-305. doi: 10.1080/0305569930190305

- Jordan, A., Lindsay, L., & Stanovich, P. J. (1997). Classroom teachers' instructional interactions with students who are exceptional, at risk and typically achieving, *Remedial and Special Education*, 18, 82–93. doi: 10.1177/074193259701800202
- Jordan, A., & Stanovich, P. (2003). Teachers' personal epistemological beliefs about students with disabilities as indicators of effective teaching practices. *Journal of Research in Special Education*, 3(1). doi: 10.1111/j.1471–3802.2003.00184.x
- Johnson, E. S. (2008). Ecological Systems and Complexity Theory: Toward an Alternative Model of Accountability in Education, Complicity: *An International Journal of Complexity and Education* 5(1), 1- 10. Retrieved from <https://journals.library.ualberta.ca/complicity/index.php/complicity/article/view/8777/7097>
- Jones, F. H. (1987). *Positive Classroom Discipline*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Jones, R. S., & Tanner, L. N., (1981). Classroom discipline: The unclaimed legacy. *Phi Delta Kappan*. 62, 494-497.
- Kagan, D. (1992). Implications of research on teacher beliefs. *Educational Psychologist*, 27(1), 65-90. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep2701_6
- Kaplan, J.S., & Carter, J., (2009). *Beyond behavior modification: A cognitive behavioral approach to behaviour management in the school* (3rd edition). Austin TX: Pro-Ed.
- Kārklīņš, R. (1994) *Ethnopolitics and Transition to Democracy: The Collapse of the USSR and Latvia*. Washington D.C: Woodrow Wilson Center Press.
- Kauffman, J.M., & Landrum, T.J. (2009). *Characteristics of emotional and behavioural disorders of children and youth* (9th edition), Boston: Pearson/Merrill.
- Kauliņa, A., Voita, D., Trubina, I., & Voits, T. (2016). Children with special educational needs and their inclusion in the educational system: pedagogical and psychological aspects, *Signum Temporis* 8(1): 37–42. doi: 10.1515/sigtem-2016-0015
- Kern, L., Bambara, L., & Fogt, J. (2002). Class-Wide Curricular Modification to Improve the Behavior of Students with Emotional or Behavioral Disorders. *Behavioral Disorders*, 27(4), 317-326. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/43153394>
- Ķestere, I. (2005). *Pedagoģijas vēsture. Skola, skolotājs, skolēns* (History of pedagogy. The school, teacher, student). Rīga: Zvaigzne ABC.
- Ķestere, I. (2014). History of education and the struggle for intellectual liberation in post-Soviet Baltic space after the fall of the Berlin Wall, *Paedagogica Historica*, 50(6), 844-851. doi: 10.1080/00309230.2014.948010
- Ķestere, I., & Krūze, A. (2013). History of Pedagogy and Educational Sciences in the Baltic Countries from 1940 to 1990: An Overview, Rīga: RaKa.

- Klassen, R. M., & Tze, V. M. C. (2014). Teachers' self-efficacy, personality, and teaching effectiveness: *A meta-analysis*. *Educational Research Review*, 12, 59–76. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2014.06.001>
- Kohlbacher, F. (2006). The use of qualitative content analysis in case study research, *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 7(1). Retrieved from <http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs0601211>
- Kohn, A. (1995). Discipline is the problem – not the solution, *Learning Magazine*, October–November. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ520887>
- Kohn, A. (1993). *Punished by rewards: the trouble with gold stars, incentive plans, A's, praise and other bribes*, New York: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Ķoķe, T., & Saleniece, I. (2015). Education policy in the Republic of Latvia: lessons from experience, *Paedagogica Historica*, 51(1-2), 45-63. doi: 10.1080/00309230.2014.997755
- Kounin, J. S. (1970). *Discipline and group management in classrooms*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Knoblauch, D., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2008). Maybe I can teach *those* kids. The influence of contextual factors on student teachers' efficacy beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 166–179. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2007.05.005
- Krull, E., & Trasberg, K. (2006). Changes in Estonian general education from the collapse of the Soviet Union to EU entry. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED495353.pdf>
- Kuhn, T. S. (1970). *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lambe, J., & R. Bones. (2006). Student Teachers' Attitudes to Inclusion: Implications for Initial Teacher Education in Northern Ireland. *International Journal of Inclusive Education* 10: 511–527. doi: 10.1080/13603110500173225
- Lascombe, G. (1997). Nationalism and education in Latvia, 1918-1940, *Journal of Baltic Studies* (28)4, 309-338. doi: 10.1080/01629779700000121
- Lasley, T. J. (1987). Classroom management. *Educational Forum*, 51(3), 285-298. doi: 10.1080/00131728709335703
- Latvijas Republika. (1922, 2010). *Latvijas Republikas Satversme. (The Latvian Constitution of the Republic.)* Retrieved from <http://www.saeima.lv/lv/likumdosana/satversme>
- Latvijas Republika. (1998). *Bērnu tiesību aizsardzības likums (Law on the Protection of the Children's Rights)*. Retrieved from <https://likumi.lv/doc.php?id=49096>
- Latvijas Republika. (1998). *Izglītības Likums (Education Act)*. Retrieved from <https://likumi.lv/ta/en/en/id/50759>

- Latvijas Republika. (1999). *Vispārējās Izglītības Likums* (The General Education Law). Retrieved from <https://likumi.lv/ta/en/id/20243-general-education-law>
- Latvijas Republika, Ministru Kabineta Noteikumi. (2012). *Noteikumi par vispārējās pamatizglītības un vispārējās vidējās izglītības iestāžu nodrošinājumu atbilstoši izglītojamo speciālajām vajadzībām, 710* (Regulations on the responsibilities of general basic education and general secondary education institutions in providing for learners with special needs). Retrieved from <https://likumi.lv/doc.php?id=252163>
- Latvijas Republika. (2016). *Izglītojamo audzināšanas vadlīnijas un informācijas, mācību līdzekļu, materiālu un mācību un audzināšanas metožu izvērtēšanas kārtība, 480* (Guidelines and Information on the Upbringing of Learners, Evaluating Resources and Materials). Retrieved from <https://likumi.lv/ta/id/283735-izglitojamo-audzinasanas-vadlinijas-un-informacijas-macibu-lidzeklu-materialu-un-macibu-un-audzinasanas-metozu-izv>
- Latvijas Republika, Izglītības un Zinātnes Ministrija. (2013). *Izglītības Attīstības Pamatnostādnes 2014.-2020.gadam* (Guidelines for the Development of Education, 2014-2020). Retrieved from <http://www.lsa.lv/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/Izglitibasattistibaspamatnostadnes.pdf>
- Latvijas Pašvaldības Mācību Centrs, LPMC. (2013). *Vadlīnijas valsts un pašvaldību iestāžu specialistiem darbam ar bērniem ar atkarības problēmām un uzvedības traucējumiem*. Retrieved from <http://www.bti.gov.lv>
- Le Fevre, D. (2014). Barriers to implementing pedagogical change: The role of teachers' perceptions of risk. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 38, 56-64. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2013.11.007
- Le Fevre, D. M. (2010). Changing TACK: Talking about change knowledge for professional learning. In H. Timperley, & J. Parr (Eds.), *Weaving evidence, inquiry and standards to build better schools* (pp. 71- 91). Wellington: NZCER Press.
- Leren, T. H. (2006). The importance of student voice, *International Journal of Leadership in Education: Theory and Practice*, 9(4), 363–36. doi: 10.1080/13603120600895502
- Levin, B., He, Y., & Allen, M. (2013). Teacher beliefs in action: A cross sectional, longitudinal, follow-up study of teachers' personal practical theories. *Teacher Educator* 48(3), 1-17. doi: 10.1080/08878730.2013.796029
- Levin, T., & Wadmany, R. (2006). Listening to students' voices on learning with information technologies in a rich technology-based classroom. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 34(3), 295–331. doi: 10.2190/CT6Q-0WDG-CDDP-U6TJ
- Lewis, J. (2000). Let's remember the 'education' in inclusive education. *British Journal of Special Education*, 27(4), 202-202, doi.org/10.1111/1467-8527.00190
- Lewis, R. (1999). Teachers coping with the stress of classroom discipline. *Social Psychology of Education*, 3, 155-171. doi: 10.1023/A:1009627827937

- Lewis, R. (2001). Classroom discipline and student responsibility: The students' view. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 17(3), 307–319. Retrieved from <http://passionatelearning.pbworks.com/f/lewis.pdf>
- Lewis, R., & Lovegrove, M. N. (1983). Rolling with the punches in modern classrooms, *Journal of Australian Studies*, 13, 32-39.
- Lewis, R., S., Romi, Y., Katz, J. & Qui. X. (2008). Students' Reaction to Classroom Discipline in Australia, Israel, and China. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 24 (3): 715–724. Retrieved from <https://www-sciencedirect-com.wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/science/article/pii/S0742051X07000686>
- Lewis, R., Montuoro, P., & McCann, P. (2013). Self-predicted classroom behaviour without external controls: Imagining a 'Lord of the Flies' scenario. *Australian Journal of Education* 57(3), 270–291. doi: 10.1177/0004944113496175
- Lewis, T. J., Hudson, S., Richter, M., & Johnson, N. (2004). Scientifically supported practices in emotional and behavioral disorders: A proposed approach and brief review of current practices. *Behavioral Disorders*, 29, 247–259. doi: 10.1177/019874290402900306
- Lewis, T. J., Jones, S., Horner, R., & Sugai, G. (2010). School-Wide Positive Behavior Support and Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders: Implications for Prevention, Identification and Intervention, *Exceptionality*, 18(2), 82-93. doi: 10.1080/09362831003673168
- Liberante, L. (2012). The importance of teacher–student relationships, as explored through the lens of the NSW Quality Teaching Model. *Journal of Student Engagement: Education matters* 2(1), 2–9. Retrieved from <http://ro.uow.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1008&context=jseem>
- Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (2008). *Teachers in professional communities: Improving teaching and learning*. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Lindsay, G. (2007). Educational psychology and the effectiveness of inclusive education/mainstreaming. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 1–24. doi: 10.1348/000709906X156881
- Little, E., Hudson, A., & Wilks, R. (2002). The efficacy of written teacher advice (tip sheets) for managing classroom behaviour problems. *Educational Psychology*, 22, 251–265. doi: 10.1080/01443410220138494
- Lloyd, C. (2008). Removing barriers to achievement: A strategy for inclusion or exclusion? *International of Inclusive Education*, 12 (2), 221-236. doi: 10.1080/13603110600871413
- Lovegrove, M., Lewis, R., Fall, C. & Lovegrove, H. (1985). Students' preferences for discipline practices in schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 1(4), 325-333. doi: 10.1016/0742-051X(85)90021-6

- Luiselli, J. K., Putnam, R. F., Handler, M. & Feinberg, A. B. (2005). Whole-school positive behaviour support: effects on student discipline problems and academic performance, *Educational Psychology*, 25(2-3), 183-198. doi: 10.1080/0144341042000301265
- Lyng, S. (2005). Edgework and the risk-taking experience. In S. Lyng (Ed.), *Edgework: The sociology of risk-taking* (pp.3-14). New York, NY: Taylor & Frances.
- Lyons, G., & Arthur-Kelly, M. (2014). UNESCO Inclusion Policy and the Education of School Students with Profound Intellectual and Multiple Disabilities: Where to Now? *Creative Education*, 5, 445-456. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ce.2014.57054>
- Lyons, G., Ford, M., & Slee, J. (2014). *Classroom management: Creating positive learning environments*. Melbourne: Cengage Learning
- Maag, J. W. (2001). Rewarded by Punishment: Reflections on the Disuse of Positive Reinforcement in Schools. *Exceptional Children* 67 (2), 173–186. doi: 10.1177/001440290106700203
- Maag, J. W. (2012). School-wide discipline and the intransigency of exclusion, *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34(10), 2094-2100. doi: 10.1016/j.childyouth.2012.07.005
- MacAllister, J. (2014). Why discipline needs to be reclaimed as an educational concept, *Educational Studies*, 40(4), 438-451. doi: 10.1080/03055698.2014.930341
- McCaslin, M., & Good, T. L. (1992). Compliant cognition: The misalliance of management and instructional goals in current school reform. *Educational Researcher*, 21(3), 4}6. doi: 10.3102/0013189X021003004
- McGrath, H. & Francey, S. (1991). *Friendly kids, Friendly Classrooms*. Sydney: Pearson Education.
- Maguire, M., Ball, S., & Braun, A. (2010). Behaviour, classroom management and student ‘control’: enacting policy in the English secondary school. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 20(2), 153-170. doi: 10.1080/09620214.2010.503066
- Main, K., & Whatman, S. (2016). Building social and emotional efficacy to (re)engage young adolescents: capitalising on the ‘window of opportunity’, *International Journal of Inclusive Education* 20(10), 1054-1069. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2016.1145265
- McCAslin, M., & Good, T. L. (1992). Compliant cognition: the misalliance of management and instructional goals in current school reform, *Educational Researcher* 21(3), 4-17. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1177277?seq=1&cid=pdf-reference#references_tab_contents
- McKenna, D. (2015). Policy over Procedure: A look at the School Completion Programme in Ireland. Is this State led educational intervention for disadvantaged children merely philanthropic and can current Global and National Neo Liberal Policy trends in

- Education be overcome? *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, 13(2), 371-390. Retrieved from <http://www.jceps.com/archives/2652>
- Malofejevs, N. (2008). *Rietumpeiropa: Sabiedrības un Valsts Atteiksmes pret Personām ar Attīstības Traucējumiem Evolūcija* (Western Europe: The evolution of society's and the State's attitudes towards people with disabilities), Rēzekne: R.A Izdevniecība
- Marginson, S., & Rhoades, G. (2002). Beyond National States, Markets, and Systems of Higher Education: A Glonacal Agency Heuristic. *Higher Education*, 43(3), 281-309. doi: 10.1023/A:1014699605875
- Marsh, H. (2012). Relationships for learning: using pupil voice to define teacher-pupil relationships that enhance pupil engagement. *Management in Education*, 26(3), 161-163. doi: 10.1177/0892020612445702 mie.sagepub.com
- Martinsons, B., & Niedre, R. (2013). *Sociāli emocionālā audzināšana (SEA)* (Social and emotional upbringing), Rokasgrāmata, Rīga: LU
- Mason, M. (2014). *Complexity theory in education governance: initiating and sustaining systemic change*. Paper presented at Understanding complexity: the future of education governance" Oslo, February.
- Mason, M. (2008). What Is Complexity Theory and What Are Its Implications for Educational Change? *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40(1), 35-49, doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00413.x
- Maurer, T. W.; Sturges, D., Averette, D., Lee, S., & Allen, D. (2009). *Perceptions of Disruptive Classroom Behaviors*. Paper presented at the SoTL Commons Conference. Georgia South University. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/sotlcommons/SoTL/2009/24>
- Maxwell, J. A. (2004). Using Qualitative Methods for Causal Explanation. *Field Methods*, 16(3), 243-254. doi/10.1177/1525822X04266831
- Maxwell, J. A. (2008). Chapter 7: Designing a Qualitative Study. In L. Bickman & D. Rog, *The SAGE Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483348858.n7>
- Maxwell, J. A. (2011). Epistemological Heuristics for Qualitative Research. In H. Soini, E-L. Kronqvist & G.L. Huber, G.L. (Eds.), *Epistemologies for Qualitative Research, Qualitative Psychology Nexus*, 8 (pp.9-26). Germany, Tübingen, Germany: Center for Qualitative Psychology.
- Mayer G. (1995). Preventing antisocial behavior in schools, *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 467-478. doi: 10.1901/jaba.1995.28-467
- Mayworm, A. M., & Sharkey, J. D. (2014). Ethical considerations in a three-tiered approach to school discipline policy and practice. *Psychology in Schools*, 51(7), 693-704. doi: 10.1002/pits.21782

- Mears, D. (2012). Theory into practice: adolescent brain development and implications for classroom management, *Strategies*, 25(6), 32-34. doi: 10.1080/08924562.2012.10590971
- Melnick, S. A., & Meister, D. G., (2008). A comparison of beginning and experienced teacher concerns, *Educational Research Quarterly*, 31-(3), 39-56. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ788428>
- Mercer, N. (2016). Education and the social brain: linking language, thinking, teaching and learning, *Éducation et didactique* 10(2), 1-21. doi: 10.4000/educationdidactique.2523
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Messiou, K. (2012). Collaborating with children in exploring marginalisation: an approach to inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(12), 1311-1322. doi:10.1080/13603116.2011.572188.
- Metcalf, L. (1995). *Counseling toward solutions: A practical solution-focused program for working with students, teachers and parents*. West Nyack, NY: The Center for Applied Research in Education
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Miles, S., & Singal, N. (2010). The Education for All and inclusive education debate: conflict, contradiction or opportunity? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(1), 1-15. doi: 10.1080/13603110802265125
- Milner, R. (2005). Stability and change in US prospective teachers' beliefs and decisions about diversity and learning to teach. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 767-786. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2005.05.010
- Mitchell, M. M., & Bradshaw, C.P. (2013). Examining classroom influences on student perceptions of school climate: The role of classroom management and exclusionary discipline strategies. *Journal of School Psychology*. 51, 599-610. doi: 10.1016/j.jsp.2013.05.005
- Mittler, P. (2012). It's our Convention: use it or lose it? *Development, CBR and Inclusive Development*, 23(2), 7-21. doi: 10.5463/dcid.v23i2.141
- Mladenov, T. (2015). Neoliberalism, postsocialism, disability, *Disability & Society*, 30(3), 445-459. doi: 10.1080/09687599.2015.1021758
- Moe, A., Pazzaglia, F., & Ronconi, L. (2010). When being able is not enough. The combined value of positive affect and self-efficacy for job satisfaction in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1145-1153. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2010.02.010.

- Morrison, K. (2002). *School leadership and Complexity Theory*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Morrison, K. (2006). *Complexity Theory and Education*. Paper presented at the APERA Conference, Hong Kong. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/a061/1beece06a088e329fdfe5827e8c7725956.pdf>
- Morrison, K. (2008). Educational philosophy and the challenge of complexity theory. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40, 19–34. Retrieved from <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00394.x#.VH5DyNYkNfA>
- Morrison, K. (2010). Complexity Theory, school leadership and management: Questions for theory and practice. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 38(3), 374–393. doi: 10.1177/1741143209359711
- Morrison, K. (2012). Searching for causality in the wrong places, *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, (15)1, 15–30. doi: 10.1080/13645579.2011.594293
- Mowat, J. G. (2010). Inclusion of pupils perceived as experiencing social and emotional behavioural difficulties (SEBD): affordances and constraints, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(6), 631–648. doi: 10.1080/13603110802626599
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317–328. doi: 10.1080/0022027870190403
- NSW Government. (1974). *Ombudsman Act*. Retrieved from <https://www.ombo.nsw.gov.au/what-we-do/about-us/our-legislation>
- NSW Government. (1977). *Anti-Discrimination Act, No. 48*. Retrieved from <https://www.legislation.nsw.gov.au/#/view/act/1977/48>
- NSW Government. (2017). *Inquiry into the Provision of Education to Students with a Disability or Special Needs*. Sydney: NSW Government. Retrieved from <https://www.parliament.nsw.gov.au/lcdocs/inquiries/2416/170921%20-%20Final%20report>
- NSW Government. (2014). *The Disabilities Inclusion Act*. Retrieved from <https://www.legislation.nsw.gov.au/acts/2014-41.pdf>
- NSW Government. (2015). *NSW Disability Inclusion Plan*. Retrieved from: <https://www.facs.nsw.gov.au/reforms/developing-the-nsw-disability-inclusion-plan>
- NSW DET. (1985). *Pupil Welfare, Policy and Principles*. Sydney: Department of Education.
- NSW DSE. (1990, 1996). *Student Welfare, Good discipline and Effective Learning Policy*. Sydney: Department of School Education.
- NSW DET. (2004). *Funding Support – Students with Disabilities in Regular Classes*. Sydney: Department of Education and Training. Retrieved from <https://schoolsequella.det.nsw.edu.au>

- NSW DET. (2004). *Values in NSW Public Schools*. Sydney: Department of Education and Training. Retrieved from <https://trove.nla.gov.au/work/11359163?q&versionId=13321574>
- NSW DET. (2005) *Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library/associated-documents/student-discipline-in-government-schools-support-materials.pdf>
- NSW DEC. (2016). *The Wellbeing Framework for Schools*. Sydney: NSW Department of Education and Communities. Retrieved from https://www.det.nsw.edu.au/wellbeing/about/16531_Wellbeing-Framework-for-schools_Accessible.pdf
- NSW DEC (2011). *Literature Review on Meeting the psychological and emotional wellbeing needs of children and young people: Models of effective practice in educational settings*. Report prepared by URBIS for the Department of Education and Communities. Retrieved from <https://nswschool-link.com/s/models-of-effective-practice.pdf>
- NSW DEC. (2006, 2016) *Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au>
- NSW (DEC). (2017). *The Behaviour Code for Students*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library/associated-documents/behaviourcode.pdf>
- NSW DEC. (2011). *Guidelines for the Use of Time-Out Strategies including Dedicated Time-out Rooms*. Retrieved from: <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library/associated-documents/timeout.gui.pdf>
- NSW DEC. (2011). *Suspension and Expulsion of School Students Procedures and information for parents*. Retrieved from https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library/associated-documents/suspol_07.pdf
- NSW DEC. (2012). *Every Student, Every School: Learning and Support*. Sydney: NSW Department of Education and Communities. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/disability-learning-and-support/personalised-support-for-learning/eses>
- NSW DEC. (2014). *The Classroom Management Fact Sheet; Classroom Management Literature Review; Summaries of Key Research Articles and Professional Teaching Standards Relating to Classroom Management*. Retrieved from <http://www.gttil.cese.nsw.gov.au/focus-areas/classroom-management>
- NSW DEC. (2005, 2016). *Anti-Racism Policy*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library/policies/anti-racism-policy>
- NSW DEC. (2007, 2017). *Assisting Students with Learning Difficulties*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library>

- NSW DEC: (2011, 2017) *Bullying: Preventing and Responding to Student Bullying in Schools Policy and guidelines, planning document and plan template*; Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library>
- NSW DEC: (2006, 2018). *People with Disabilities- Statement of Commitment*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library>
- NSW DEC; (2015, 2017). *School Attendance Policy*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/policy-library>
- NSW Government. (2015). *Supported Students, Successful Students*. Retrieved from <https://education.nsw.gov.au/our-priorities/enhance-student-wellbeing/supported-students-successful-students-at-a-glance>
- NSW Government. (2015). *Student Wellbeing Literature Review*. Retrieved from: <https://www.cese.nsw.gov.au/publications-filter/student-wellbeing-literature-review>
- Niehaus, K., Rudasill, K.M., & Rakes, C.R. (2012). A longitudinal study of school connectedness and academic outcomes across sixth grade. *Journal of School Psychology 50*(4), 443–460. doi: 10.1016/j.jsp.2012.03.002
- Nimante, D. (2007). *Klasvadība*, Rīga: Zvaigzne ABC
- Nimante, D. (2008) *Children with special and exceptional needs inclusion into the regular Latvia's school*, Conference: EERA ECER, From Teaching to Learning? Retrieved from <http://www.eera-ecer.de/ecer-programmes/conference/1/contribution/364/>
- Nóvoa, A., & Yariv-Mashal, T. (2003). Comparative Research in Education: a mode of governance or a historical journey? *Comparative Education*, 39(4), 423-439. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0305006032000162002>
- Nurmi, J. E. (2012). Students' characteristics and teacher–child relationships in instruction: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review 7*(3), 177–197. doi: 10.1177/0165025415592514
- O'Brennan, L., Bradshaw, C. & Furlough, M.J. (2014). Influence of classroom and school climate on teacher perceptions of student problem behaviour, *School Mental Health 1*(2), 125-136, doi: 10.1007/s12310-014-9118-8
- O'Connor, E. (2010). Teacher–child relationships as dynamic systems. *Journal of School Psychology 48*(3), 187–218. doi: 10.1016/j.jsp.2010.01.001
- O'Connor, E.E., Dearing, E., & Collins, B.A. (2011). Teacher-Child Relationship and Behavior Problem Trajectories in Elementary School. *American Educational Research Journal 48*(1), 120–162. doi: 10.3102/0002831210365008
- OECD. (1999). *Inclusive Education at Work: Students with Disabilities in Mainstream Schools*. Paris: OECD Publications Service, doi: 10.1787/9789264180383-en

- OECD. (2003). *Education Policy Analysis 2003*. Paris: OECD Publishing, doi: 10.1787/19991517
- OECD. (2012). *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools*, OECD Publishing. doi: 10.1787/9789264130852-en
- OECD (2012), *Education at a Glance 2012: Highlights*, OECD Publishing. doi: 10.1787/eag_highlights-2012-en
- OECD. (2013), *Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing. doi: 10.1787/eag-2013-en
- OECD. (2014). *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*, OECD Publishing. doi: 10.1787/9789264196261-en
- OFSTED Chief Inspector's Report (2012/2013), *Promoting the Quality of Learning*, Ireland: Department of Education and Skills. Retrieved from <https://www.education.ie>
- Oliver, R. M., Wehby, J. H., & Reschly, D. J. (2011). Teacher Classroom Management Practices: Effects on Disruptive or Aggressive Student Behavior. *Campbell Systematic Reviews* 4. doi: 10.4073/csr.2011.4
- O'Leary, K. G., & O'Leary, S. G. O. (1977). *Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behaviour Modification* (2nd edition), New York: Pergamon Press.
- Olley, R. I., Cohn, A., & Cowan, K. C. (2010). *Promoting safe schools and academic success: Moving your school from punitive discipline to effective discipline*. Bethesda: National Association of School Psychologists. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/docview/751876316?accountid=12763>
- Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the schools: Bullies and whipping boys*. Oxford, England: Hemisphere.
- Olweus, D. (2011). Bullying at school and later criminality: Findings from three Swedish community samples of males, *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, 21(2), 151-156. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cbm.806>
- O'Neill, S., & Stephenson, J. (2010). The use of functional behavioural assessment for students with challenging behaviours: Current patterns and experiences of Australian practitioners. *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 10, 65-82. [https://research-management.mq.edu.au/ws/portalfiles/portal/62223194/Publisher%20version%20\(open%20access\).pdf](https://research-management.mq.edu.au/ws/portalfiles/portal/62223194/Publisher%20version%20(open%20access).pdf)
- O'Neill, S., & Stephenson, J. (2014). Evidence-Based Classroom and Behaviour Management Content in Australian Pre-service Primary Teachers' Coursework: Wherefore Art Thou? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(4). doi:org/10.14221/ajte.2014v39n4.4

- Opfer, V. D., & Pedder, D. (2011). Conceptualizing teacher professional learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(3), 376–407. doi: 10.3102/0034654311413609
- Opfer, V.D., Pedder, D.G., & Lavicza, Z. (2011). The role of teachers' orientation to learning in professional development and change: A national study of teachers in England, *Teaching and Teacher Education* 27, 443-453. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2010.09.014
- Orsati, F.T. & Causton-Theoharis, J. (2013). Challenging control: inclusive teachers' and teaching assistants' discourse on students with challenging behaviour, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(5), 507-525. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2012.689016
- Osberg, D., & Biesta, G. (2010). The end/s of education: Complexity and the conundrum of the inclusive educational curriculum. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 14(6), 593-607. doi: 10.1080/13603110802530684
- Osler, A. (2000). Children's rights, responsibilities and understandings of school discipline, *Research Papers in Education*, 15(1), 49-67, doi: 10.1080/026715200362943
- Ozga, J. (2003). *Pressures for convergence and divergence in education: devolution in the context of globalisation, ESRC Research Project on Education and Youth Transitions in England, Wales and Scotland, 1984-2002*, Paper prepared for the Scottish Educational Research Association Annual Conference, Perth. Retrieved from http://www.ces.ed.ac.uk/PDF%20Files/EYT_SP01_JO.pdf
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62 (3), 307-332. doi:10.3102/00346543062003307
- Palak, D., & Walls, R. T. (2009). Teachers' beliefs and technology practices: a mixed-methods approach. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 41(4), 417-441. Retrieved from <http://stu.westga.edu/~bthibau1/MEDT%208463-Moller/Project%203%20-%20Professional%20Development%20Article%20Review/EJ844274.pdf>
- Payne, R. (2015). Using rewards and sanctions in the classroom: pupils' perceptions of their own responses to current behaviour management strategies, *Educational Review*, 67(4), 483-504. doi: 10.1080/00131911.2015.1008407
- Pennings, H. J. M., van Tartwijk, J., Wubbels, T., Claessens, L. C. A., van der Want, A. C., & Brekelmans, M. (2014). Real-time teacher student interactions: a dynamic systems approach, *Teaching and Teacher Education* 37, 183-193, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2013.07.016>
- Perry, L., & Tor, E. (2009). Understanding educational transfer: Theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks. *Prospects*, 38, 509-526. doi:10.1007/s11125-009-9092-3.
- Petrie, P., Boddy, J., Cameron, C., Heptinstall, E., McQuail, S., Simon, A., & Wigfall, V. (2009). Pedagogy – a holistic, personal approach to work with children and young people, across services. Retrieved from

http://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/10000058/1/may_18_09_Ped_BRIEFING_PAPER_JB_PP_.pdf

- Petrie, P. (2013). Social pedagogy in the UK: Gaining a firm foothold? *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 21(37), 1-16. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14507/epaa.v21n37.2013>
- Phillips, S. D. (2009). There are No Invalids in the USSR: A Missing Soviet Chapter in the New Disability History, *Disability Studies Quarterly*, 29(3), 1–33. <http://dsq-sds.org/article/view/936/1111>
- Phillips, D., & Ochs, K. (2003). Processes of Policy Borrowing in Education: some explanatory and analytical devices, *Comparative Education*, 39(4), 451-461. doi: 10.1080/0305006032000162020
- Piaget, J. (1959). *The language and thought of the child (Vol. 5)*. Psychology Press.
- Pipere, A. (2016). Envisioning Complexity: Towards a New Conceptualization of Educational Research for Sustainability. *Discourse and Communication for Sustainable Education* 7(2), 68-91. doi: 10.1515/dese-2016-0017
- Porter, L. (2007). *Student Behaviour* (3rd edition). Crows Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Prawat, R. S. (1992). Teacher's beliefs about teaching and learning: A constructivist perspective. *American Journal of Education*, 100(3), 354-395. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ448049>
- Portilla X. A., Ballard P. J., Adler N. E., Boyce W. T., & Obradovic J. (2014). An integrative view of school functioning: Transactions between self-regulation, school engagement and teacher – child relationships. *Quality in Child Development*, 85(1), 1915-1931. doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12259
- Poulson, L., Avramidis, E., Fox, R., Medwell, J., & Wary, D. (2001). The theoretical orientation of primary school literacy teachers: an exploratory study, *Research Papers in Education*, 16(3), 271-292. doi: 10.1080/02671520126827
- Powell, S., & Tod. J. (2004). *A systematic review of how theories explain learning behaviour in school contexts*. Obtained from the Research evidence in education library. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education. Retrieved from [http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/cms/Portals/0/PDF%20reviews%20and%20summaries/BM\(CCC\)_2004review.pdf?ver=2006-03-02-125203-580](http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/cms/Portals/0/PDF%20reviews%20and%20summaries/BM(CCC)_2004review.pdf?ver=2006-03-02-125203-580)
- Radnor, H. (2002). *Researching Your Professional Practice*, Open University Press, Buckingham.
- Radford, M. (2006). Researching classrooms: Complexity and chaos. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32(2), 177-190. doi: 10.1080/01411920600568950
- Rahi-Tamm, A., & Salēniece, I. (2016) Re-educating teachers: ways and consequences of Sovietization in Estonia and Latvia (1940–1960) from the biographical perspective, *Journal of Baltic Studies*, 47(4), 451-472. doi: 10.1080/01629778.2016.1263035

- Ramey, D. M. (2015). The social structure of criminalized and medicalized school discipline. *Sociology of Education*, 20(10), 1-21. doi: 10.1177/0038040715587114
- Rausch, M. K., & Skiba, R. J. (2005). *The academic cost of discipline: the relationship between suspension/expulsion and school achievement*, Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada, April.
- Ravet, J. (2007). Making sense of disengagement in the primary classroom: a study of pupil, teacher and parent perceptions, *Research Papers in Education*, 22(3), 333-362. doi: 10.1080/02671520701497589
- Reddy, L.A. (1999). Inclusion of disabled children and school reform: A historical perspective. In Pfeiffer, S.I. & Reddy, L.A. (Eds.) *Inclusion Practices with Special Needs Students: Theory, Research and Application* (3-24). New York: The Haworth Press, Inc.
- Redl, F., & Wattenberg, W. W. (1959). *Mental hygiene in teaching* (2nd ed.). New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.
- Reindal, S. M. (2008). A social relational model of disability: A theoretical framework for special needs education? *European Journal of Special Needs Education* 23(2), 135–46. doi: 10.1080/08856250801947812
- Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (ed.). *Handbook of research on teacher education* (2nd ed.). (pp.102-119) New York: Macmillan.
- Richmond, C. (2008). *Teach more, manage less. A minimalist approach to behaviour management*. Lindfield, Australia: Scholastic.
- Riddick, B. (2012). Labelling Learners with SEND: The Good, the Bad and the Ugly. In D. Armstrong & G. Squires (Eds.) *Contemporary Issues in Special Educational Needs: Considering the Whole Child* (pp.40-49). Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Rokeach, M. (1976). *Beliefs, attitudes, and values: A theory of organization and change*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Roffey, S. (2012). Pupil wellbeing – Teacher wellbeing: two sides of the same coin? *Educational & Child Psychology*, 29(4), 8-17. Retrieved from <https://www.sueroffey.com/wp-content/uploads/import/32-Roffey%20ECP29-4.pdf>
- Rogers, B. (2000). *Cracking the Hard Class: Strategies for managing the harder than average class*. London; Paul Chapman Publishing
- Rogers, B. (2011). *Classroom behaviour: A practical guide to effective teaching, behaviour management and colleague support*. Sage. London.
- Roorda, D.L., Koomen, H.M.Y., Spilt, J.L. & Oort, F.J. (2011). The influence of affective teacher–student relationships on students’ school engagement and achievement: A

- meta-analytic approach, *Review of Educational Research*, 81 (4), 493-529. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654311421793>
- Ross, J. A., & Bruce, C. D. (2007). Teacher self-assessment: a mechanism for facilitating professional growth. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(2), 146-159. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2006.04.035
- Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2003) Techniques to identify themes. *Field Methods*, 15(1), 85–109. doi: 10.1177/1525822X02239569
- Sanford, K. J., Hopper, T. F., & Starr, L. (2015). Transforming Teacher Education Thinking: Complexity and Relational Ways of Knowing, *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education* (12)2, 26-48. doi: 10.29173/cmplct23817.
- Šapkova, A. (2014). The relationships between the traditional beliefs and practice of mathematics teachers and their students' achievements in doing mathematics tasks. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 58, 127-143). Retrieved from www.scientiasocialis.lt/pec/files/pdf/vol58/127-143.Sapkova_Vol.58.pdf
- Sayer, A. (1992). *Method in social sciences: A realist approach* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Schiefelbusch, R. (1987). Integration — Who Benefits? *Australasian Journal of Special Education*, 11(1), 4-9. doi:10.1017/S1030011200021655
- Schmidt, V. A., & Thatcher, M. (2013). *Resilient Liberalism in Europe's Political Economy*, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Scanlon, G., & Barnes-Holmes, Y. (2013). Changing attitudes: supporting teachers in effectively including students with emotional and behavioural difficulties in mainstream education. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 18(4), 374–395. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13632752.2013.769710>
- Scottish Government. (2013). *Better Relationships, Better Learning, Better Behaviour*. Edinburgh: Scottish Government. Retrieved from <http://www.gov.scot/resource/0041/00416217.pdf>
- Seashore Louis, K., Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K., & Anderson, S. (2010). Investigating the links to improved student learning. Wallace Foundation. Retrieved from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/Documents/Investigating-the-Links-to-Improved-Student-Learning.pdf>
- Senge, P., Cambron-McCabe, N., Lucas, T., Smith, B., Dutton, J., & Kleiner, A. (2000). *Schools that Learn. A Fifth Discipline Fieldbook for Educators, Parents, and Everyone Who Cares about Education*, Doubleday/Currency, New York.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday.

- Sharma, U. (2012). Changing pre-service teachers' beliefs to teach in inclusive classrooms in Victoria, Australia. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(10), 52-66. Retrieved from [https://search-informit-com-au.wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/documentSummary;dn=723621254952401;res=IELAPA](https://search.informit-com-au.wwwproxy1.library.unsw.edu.au/documentSummary;dn=723621254952401;res=IELAPA)
- Sherman, H., Rowley, D., & Armandi, B. (2007). Developing a Strategic Profile: The Pre-planning Phase of Strategic Management, *Business Strategy Series*.8(3): 162-171. doi: 10.1108/17515630710684150
- Simon, B. (1981). Why no pedagogy in England? In B. Simon and W. Taylor (Eds.). *Education in the Eighties: the central issues* (pp.124-145) London: Batsford.
- Simonsen, B., Fairbanks, S., Briesch, A., Myers, D., & Sugai, G. (2008). Evidence-based practices in classroom management: Considerations for research to practice. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 31, 351–380. Retrieved from <https://dropoutprevention.org>
- Skiba, R., & Peterson, R. (2003). Teaching the Social Curriculum: School Discipline as Instruction, *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth*, (47)2, 66-73. doi: 10.1080/10459880309604432
- Skiba, R., Ormiston, H., Martinez, S., & Cummings, J. (2016). Teaching the social curriculum: classroom management as behavioral instruction, *Theory Into Practice*, 55(2), 120-128. doi: 10.1080/00405841.2016.1148990
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and Human Behavior*. New York: Free Press.
- Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85, 571–581. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.85.4.571.
- Skrtic, T.M. (1991). *Behind special education: A critical analysis of professional culture and school organization*. Denver, CO: Love.
- Slee, R. (1994). Finding a Student Voice in School Reform: student disaffection, pathologies of disruption and educational control, *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 4(2), 147-172. doi: 10.1080/0962021940040202
- Slee, R. (2001). Social justice and the changing directions in educational research: the case of inclusive education. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 5(2-3), 167-177. doi: 10.1080/13603110010035832
- Slee, R. (2009). Beyond special and regular schooling? An inclusive education. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 18, 99–166. doi: 1080/09620210802351342
- Slee, R. (2011). *The Irregular School: Exclusion, Schooling and Inclusive Education*. Abingdon: Routledge.

- Slee, R. (2013). How do we make inclusive education happen when exclusion is a political predisposition? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 17(8), 895-907. doi: 10.1080/13603116.2011.602534
- Slee, R. (2014). Discourses of Inclusion and Exclusion: Drawing Wider Margins. *Power and Education* 1(6), 7 – 17. doi: 10.2304/power.2014.6.1.7
- Smith, D., & Tyler, N. (2011). Effective inclusive education: Equipping education professionals with necessary skills and knowledge. *Prospects*, 41(3), 323-339. doi: 10.1007/s11125-011-9207-5.
- Soodak, L.C. (2003). Classroom Management in Inclusive Settings. *Theory into Practice*, 42(4), 227- 333. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4204_10
- Speer, N. M. (2008). Connecting beliefs and practices: a fine-grained analysis of a college mathematics teacher's collections of beliefs and their relationship to his instructional practices. *Cognition and Instruction*, 26(2), 218-267. doi: 10.1080/07370000801980944
- Spilt, J., Koomen, H. M., & Thijs, J. (2011). Teacher wellbeing: The importance of teacher–student relationships. *Educational Psychology Review*, 23 (4), 457–477. doi: 10.1007/s10648-011-9170-y
- Špona, A. (2006). *Audzināšanas teorija un metodika (Upbringing theory and methodology)* (Riga, RaKa).
- Sprague, J. (1992). Expanding the research agenda for instructional communication: Raising some unasked questions. *Communication Education*, 41(1), 1–25. doi: 10.1080/03634529209378867
- Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative Research: Studying How Things Work*. New York: Guildford Press.
- Stein, M. K., & Wang, M. C. (1988). Teacher development and school improvement: The process of teacher change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 4, 171-187. doi: 10.1016/0742-051X(88)90016-9
- Steiner-Khamsi, G. (2002). Reterritorializing educational import. In A. Novoa & M. Lawn (Eds.), *Fabricating Europe: The formation of an education space* (pp.69-86). Boston: Kluwer Academic.
- Stephenson, J., Linfoot, K., & Martin, A. (2000). Behaviours of concern to teachers in the early years of school. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education* 47(3), 225-235. doi: 10.1080/13671118
- Stoutjesdijk, R., Scholte, E.M., & Swaab, H. (2012). Special characteristics of children with emotional and behavioral disorders that affect inclusion in regular education. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorder*, 20(2), 92-104. doi: 10.1177/1063426611421156

- Sugai, G., & Horner, R. (2006). A promising approach for expanding and sustaining school-wide positive behavior support. *School Psychology Review*, 35, 245-259. Retrieved from <https://www.icareby.org/sites/www.icareby.org/files/spr352sugai.pdf>
- Sugai, G., & Horner, R.H. (2002). The evolution of discipline practices: School-wide positive behavior supports. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, 24, 23-50. doi:10.1300/J019v24n01_03
- Sugai, G., & Simonsen, B. (2012). *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports: History, Defining Features, and Misconceptions*. University of Connecticut: Center for PBIS & Center for Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports. Retrieved from http://www.pbis.org/common/cms/files/pbisresources/PBIS_revisited_June19r_2012.pdf
- Sugai, G., & Horner, R. H. (1999). Discipline and behavioral support: Practices, pitfalls and promises. *Effective School Practices*, 17(4), 10–22. Retrieved from <https://www.nifdi.org/research/esp-archive/volume-17/1363-effective-school-practices-vol-17-no-4-spring-1999/file>
- Sugai, G., Horner, R. H., Dunlap, G., Hieneman, M., Lewis, T. J., Nelson, C. M., Scott, T., Turnbull, A. P. Turnbull, H. R., Wickham, D., Wilcox, B., & Ruef, M. (2000). Applying Positive Behavior Support and Functional Behavioral Assessment in Schools. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 2(3), 131–143. doi.org/10.1177/109830070000200302
- Sullivan, A. M., Johnson, B., Owens, L., & Conway, R., (2014) Punish them or engage them? Teachers' views of unproductive student behaviours in the classroom, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(6) 43-56. Retrieved from <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol39/iss6/4/>
- Sutherland, K. S., Lewis-Palmer, T., Stichter, J., & Morgan, P. L. (2008). Examining the influence of teacher behavior and classroom context on the behavioral and academic outcomes for students with emotional or behavioral disorders. *The Journal of Special Education* 41(4), 223–233. doi: 10.1177/0022466907310372
- Suri, H., & Clarke, D. (2009). Advancements in research synthesis methods: From a methodologically inclusive perspective. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(1), 395 - 430. doi: 10.3102/0034654308326349
- Taylor, S. (1997). Critical policy analysis: Exploring contexts, text and consequences. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 18, 23–35. doi: 10.1080/0159630970180102
- Taylor, J. F. (1979). "Encouragement vs. Praise," unpublished manuscript, cited by Dreikurs Grunwald, B., & Pepper, F (1998). *Maintaining sanity in the classroom: Classroom management techniques* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Taylor and Francis.
- Telli, S., den Brok, P. J., & Cakiroglu, J. (2007). Students' perceptions of science teachers' interpersonal behaviour in secondary schools: Development of the Turkish version of

- the questionnaire on teacher interaction. *Learning Environment Research*, 10(2), 115–129. doi: 0.1007/s10984-007-9023-2
- Terhart, E. (2013). Teacher resistance against school reform: reflecting an inconvenient truth. *School Leadership & Management* 33(5). 486-500. doi: 10.1080/13632434.2013.793494.
- Thornton, S.R. (2011). *Supporting children's mental well-being in primary schools: problem-solving through communication and action*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://epubs.scu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1265&context=theses>.
- Thorson, S. (2005). School discipline: understanding students needs, *Counseling and Human Development*, 38(4), 1-12.
- Tillery, A., Varjas, K., Meyers, J., & Smith Collins, A. (2010). General Education Teachers' Perceptions of Behavior Management and Intervention Strategies. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 12(2), 86-102. doi: 10.1177/1098300708330879
- Tihomirova, I. (2011). Disabled children in general education school, *LASE Journal of Sport Science*, 88-96. Retrieved from <https://www.rsu.lv/sites/default/files/imce/Dokumenti/Biblioteka/Bibliografiskais-raditajs-2010.pdf>
- Timperley, H. (2008). *Teacher professional learning and development*. International Academy of Education, International Bureau of Education, Educational Practices Series 1-18. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0017/001791/179161e.pdf>
- Timperley, H., & Robinson, V. (2002). Achieving school improvement through challenging and changing teachers' schema. *Journal of Educational Change*, 2,281-300. doi: 10.1023/A:1014646624263
- Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H., & Fung, I. (2007). *Teacher professional learning and development: Best evidence synthesis iteration*. Wellington: New Zealand Ministry of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/48727127.pdf>
- Tomiak, J. (1992). Education in the Baltic States, Ukraine, Belarus and Russia. *Comparative Education*,8(1). *Special Number (14): Educating the New Europe*, 33-44. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3099340>
- Torraco, R. J. (2016). Writing Integrative Literature Reviews: Using the Past and Present to Explore the Future. *Human Resource Development Review*, 15(4), 404–428. doi: 10.1177/1534484316671606
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk-Hoy. A. (2001). Teacher Efficacy: Capturing an Elusive Construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 17, 783–805. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/42e3/af5061de43d25b85144964ab7a3e44a7549f.pdf>

- Trombly, C. E. (2014). Schools and complexity. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 11(1), 40 - 58. Retrieved from <https://journals.library.ualberta.ca/complicity>
- Trotman, D., Tucker, S., & Martyn, M. (2015). Understanding problematic pupil behaviour: perceptions of pupils and behaviour coordinators on secondary school exclusion in an English city, *Educational Research*, 57(3), 237-253. doi: 10.1080/00131881.2015.1056643
- Tsouloupas, C. N., Carson, R. L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M. J. & Barber, L. K. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion: the importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation, *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 30(2), 173-189. doi: 10.1080/01443410903494460
- Tuggle, D., & Hatley, Richard V. (1995). *Student Discipline: Effects of Teachers' Pupil Control Ideology and the Schools' Organizational Health*, (Doctoral Dissertation), Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.
- Tuma, J. M., and Sobotka, K. R. (1983). Traditional therapies with children. In T. H. Ollendick and M. Hersen (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychopathology* (pp. 391–426). New York: Plenum Press.
- United Nations. (1989). *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Retrieved from <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/crc.pdf>
- United Nations. (2006). *Convention on the rights of persons with disability*. Retrieved from <https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.html>
- UNESCO. (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. Retrieved from <http://www.unesco.org/education/information/50y/nfsunesco/doc/hum-rights.htm>
- UNESCO. (1980). *Convention against Discrimination in Education*. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=12949&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
- UNESCO. (1994). *Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action in Special Needs Education*. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/SALAMA_E.PDF
- UNESCO. (2008). *Inclusive education: the way of the future. Conclusions and recommendations of the 48th session of the international conference on education (ICE) Geneva 25-28 November, 2008*. Retrieved from www.ibe.unesco.org/National_Reports/ICE_2008/brazil_NR08.pdf
- UNESCO. (2009). *Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0017/001778/177849e.pdf>

- UNESCO. (2012). *Addressing exclusion in Education, A Guide to Assessing Education Systems towards more Inclusive and Just Societies*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002170/21703e.pdf>
- Valcke, M., Sang, G., Rots, I., & Hermans, R. (2010). Taking Prospective Teachers' Beliefs into Account in Teacher Education. In Penelope Peterson, Eva Baker, Barry McGaw, (Eds.), *International Encyclopedia of Education. Volume 7*, 622-628. Oxford: Elsevier. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/1854/LU-6869651>
- Valsts bērnu tiesības aizsardzības inspekcija (2016) *Sadarbības tīkls konsultatīvā atbalsta sniegšanai bērniem ar saskārsmes grūtībām un uzvedības traucējumiem.* [SEP] Atbalsta sistēma pilnveide bērniem ar saskārsmes grūtībām, uzvedības traucējumiem un vardarbību (A collaborative support system for children with communication and behaviour difficulties living with violence) Eiropas Sociālā fonda projekts Nr.9.2.1.3/16/1/001
- Van Bergen, P., Graham, L., Sweller, N., & Dodd, H. (2015). The psychology of containment: (mis) representing emotional and behavioural difficulties in Australian schools, *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 20(1), 64-81. doi: 10.1080/13632752.2014.947101
- Van Houten, D. (2007). Inclusive education in a varied society. In P. Ax & p. Ponte, P. (Eds.) *The teaching profession in Dutch educational praxis*, Sense Publishers. Retrieved from <http://www.inclusionexclusion.nl/site/?download=Douwe%20van%20Houten%20-%20inclusive%20education%20in%20a%20varied%20society.pdf>.
- Van Swet J., Wichers-Bots J., Brown K. (2011). Solution- focused assessment: rethinking labels to support inclusive education, *International Journal of Inclusive Education* 9, 909-923. doi: 0.1080/13603110903456615
- van Uden, J. M., Ritzen, H., & Pieters. J. M. (2014). Engaging students: The role of teacher beliefs and interpersonal teacher behavior in fostering student engagement in vocational education. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 37, 21-32. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2013.08.005
- Viķe-Freiberga, V. (2010). *Kultūra un latvietība (Culture and being Latvian)*. Rīga: Karogs.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1986). *Thought and Language* (revised, translated, and edited by Alex Kozulin), Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press.
- Waks, L. J. (2007). The concept of fundamental educational change. *Educational Theory*, 57(3), 277-295. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-5446.2007.00257.x
- Walker, H. M., Colvin, G., & Ramsey, E. (1995). *Anti-social behaviour in schools: strategies and best practice*. Pacific Grove CA, Brooks/Cole.

- Walker, J.M.T. (2009). Authoritative Classroom Management: How Control and Nurturance Work Together, *Theory into Practice*, 46(2), 122-129. doi: 10.1080/00405840902776392
- Warren, J., & Hale, R. (2016). The Influence of Efficacy Beliefs on Teacher Performance and Student Success: Implications for Student Support Services, *Journal of Rational-Emotive and Cognitive-Behaviour Therapy*, 34, 187-208. doi 10.1007/s10942-016-0237-z
- Warren, J. S., Edmonson, H. M., Griggs, H., Lassen, P., McCart, S., Turnbull, A., & Sailor, W. (2003). Urban applications of school-wide positive behavior support. Critical issues and lessons learned. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 5, 80-92. doi: 0.1177/10983007030050020301
- Watkins, A. (Ed.) (2007). *Assessment in inclusive settings: key issues for policy and practice*. Odense, Denmark: European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education.
- Way, S.M. (2011). School discipline and disruptive classroom behavior: the moderating effects of student perception. *The Sociological Quarterly* 52, 346–375. doi: 10.1111/j.1533-8525.2011.01210.x
- Weare, K. (2004). *Developing the Emotionally Literate School*. London, Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Wells, J. (2013). *Complexity and sustainability*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Wenzel, M., Stevens, D. D., Carlson, M., Caskey, M., & Hardt, U. (2017). *Middle School Teacher Beliefs about Classroom Diversity and Their Influence on Differentiated Instructional Practices*, (Doctoral Dissertation), Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.
- Wentzel, K. (2003) Motivating Students to Behave in Socially Competent Ways, *Theory Into Practice*, 42(4), 319-326. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4204_9
- Wheldall, K., Merrett, F., & Borg, M. (1985). The behavioural approach to teaching package (BATPAK): an experimental evaluation, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 55, 65-75. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1985.tb02608.x
- Wilson, P. S. (1971). *Interest and Discipline in Education*. Boston, MA: Routledge.
- Wolff, S. (2004) Analysis of documents and records. In Uwe Flick, Ernst von Kardoff, Ines Steinke (Eds.) *A Companion to Qualitative Research*, London: Sage Publications
- Wolhuter, C.C., Van der Walt, J.L., & Potgieter, F.L. (2013). The image of the teacher held by learners from 10 different countries: A new perspective on the causes of problems with learner discipline, *Koers – Bulletin for Christian Scholarship* 78(3), 11. doi: 10.4102/koers.v78i3.554

- Wolters, C. A., & Daugherty, S. G. (2007). Goal structures and teachers' sense of efficacy: Their relation and association to teaching experience and academic level. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*(1), 181–193. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.99.1.181
- Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Burke-Spero, R. (2005). Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 343–356. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2005.01.007
- Woolfolk, A., Rosoff, B., & Hoy, W. (1990). Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing students, *Teaching and Teacher Education, 6*(2), 137-148. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X\(90\)90031-Y](https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(90)90031-Y)
- Wouters, C. (2007). *Informalization: Manners and Emotions since 1890*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Wragg, J. (1989). *Talk Sense to Yourself: A program for children and adolescents*. Melbourne: ACER
- Wubbels, T. (2011). An international perspective on classroom management: what should prospective teachers learn? *Teaching Education, 22*(2), 113-131. doi: 10.1080/10476210.2011.567838
- Zheng, H. (2015). *Teacher beliefs as a complex system: English language teachers in China*. Cham: Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-23009-2
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2014). Comparing students' self-discipline and self-regulation measures and their prediction of academic achievement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 39*, 145–155. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2014.03.004
- Zinn, J. O. (2008). Introduction: the contribution of sociology to the discourse on risk and uncertainty. In J.O. Zinn (Ed.), *Social theories of risk and uncertainty: An introduction* (pp.1-17). Blackwell, Malden, MA.
- Žogla, I. (2001) Democratisation in Latvian education: Teachers' attitudinal change, *European Journal of Teacher Education, 24*(2), 143-156. doi: 10.1080/02619760120095543
- Žogla, I. (2017). Pedagoģija and Educational Sciences: competing traditions in the study of education in Latvia. In G. Whittby & J. Furlong. (Eds.), *Knowledge and the Study of Education: an international exploration. Oxford Studies in Comparative Education* (pp. 101-121). Oxford: Symposium Books.
- Zueli, J.S. (1994). How do teachers understand research when they read it? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 10*(1), 39-55. Retrieved from [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X\(94\)90039-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(94)90039-6)
- Zukovs, L. (2013). Teacher education in Latvia. In I. Keštere & A. Krūze (Eds) *History of Pedagogy and Educational Sciences in the Baltic Countries from 1940 to 1990: An Overview*. Rīga: RaKa.

Appendices

Appendix 1



Eiropas Sociālā fonda projekts

„Izglītojamo ar funkcionāliem traucējumiem atbalsta sistēmas izveide”

(vienošanās Nr. 2010/0330/1DP/ 1.2.2.4.1/10/IPIA/VIAA/001

**Speciālās izglītības procesa plānošana un īstenošana izglītojamiem ar
uzvedības traucējumiem**

1. Mana personīga pieeja klases disciplīnai (vispārējā)

Manas vajadzības, kas patīk un kas nepatīk

Manas vajadzības

(Piemēram: Klases vide ir piemērota mācīšanai – labi iekārtota telpa, mācību materiāls viegli pieejams utt.)

1. Struktūra un rutīnas:
2. Pārejas:
3. Skolēna uzmanība
4. Uzvedība piemērota situācijai:

Kas patīk

- Pozitīva klases vide
-
-
-
-

Kas man nepatīk

1. Kad skolēni neklausās
2. Pārāk daudz troksnis klasē
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.

Mani klases noteikumi

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Pozitīvas sekas

-
-
-
-
-

Negatīvas sekas

-
-
-
-
-

Mans plāns novērst nepiemērotu uzvedību

- Iesaistīt skolēnus klases noteikumu sastādīšanā. Pārrunās es pielietoju sekojošos jautājumus:
 -
 -
 -
 -
 -
 -

Pieejas ko lietošu lai atbalstītu skolēnus un palīdzētu viņiem pieturēties pie klases noteikumiem:

- Mana klātbūtne ja skolēns paliek nemierīgs
-
-

-
-

Pieejas kas ko pielietošu lai uzlabotu uzvedību

-
-
-
-
-

Kā es uzturēšu pozitīvu klases vidi

- Labi iepazīšos ar maniem skolēniem un viņu vajadzībām
-
-
-
-

2. Individuāls plāns

1. Informācijas iegūšana

Pielietojot veidnes iegūstiet informāciju par vienu skolēnu. (Veidnes, Aptaupu).

2. Analīze

Izpildi „Uzvedības pārskatu”.

Lietojiet „Informācijas triangulāciju” lai atklātu skolēna mērķi.

Izpildiet „Iejaukšanās pakāpes” veidni.

3. Sagatavo plānu, iedarbini to un sagatavo pārskatu

Izpildi “Konkurējošais uzvedības ceļš” veidni

Iedarbini plānu un katru nedēļu pieraksti piezīmes:

- Kas darbojās
- Kas bija jāmaina

Pēc trim nedēļām analizē:

- Vai skolēna uzvedība izmainījās
- Vai skolēna attiecības ar skolotāju un klases biedriem izmainījās
- Kā jūs jūtaties pielietojot šo plānu.

Appendix 2: Non-reactive documents considered in the study

- European Commission, (2010). *The European Disabilities Strategy 2010-2020*.
- OECD. (1999). *Inclusive Education at Work: Students with Disabilities in Mainstream Schools*
- OECD. (2003). *Education Policy Analysis 2003*
- OECD. (2012). *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools*
- OECD (2012), *Education at a Glance 2012: Highlights*
- OECD. (2013), *Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators*
- OECD. (2014). *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*
- UNESCO. (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*.
- UNESCO. (1980). *Convention against Discrimination in Education*
- UNESCO. (1994). *Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action in Special Needs Education*
- UNESCO. (2008). *Inclusive education: the way of the future. Conclusions and recommendations of the 48th session of the international conference on education (ICE) Geneva 25-28 November, 2008*.
- UNESCO. (2009). *Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education*.
- UNESCO. (2012). *Addressing exclusion in Education, A Guide to Assessing Education Systems towards more Inclusive and Just Societies*.
- United Nations. (1989). *Convention on the Rights of the Child*.
- United Nations. (2006). *Convention on the rights of persons with disability*.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (1994). *Disability Discrimination Act*.
- Commonwealth Government. (2005). *Disability Standards for Education*.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2006). *Disability standards for education 2005*.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2011). *National Disability Strategy (2010-2020)*
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2003). *National Safe Schools Framework (NSSF)*.
- NSW Government (1974). *Ombudsman Act*. Retrieved from NSW Government (1977). *Anti-Discrimination Act, No. 48*. Retrieved from
- NSW Government (2004). *Inquiry into the Provision of Education to Students with a Disability or Special Needs*. Sydney: NSW Government.
- NSW Government. (2014). *The Disabilities Inclusion Act*
- NSW Government. (2015). *NSW Disability Inclusion Plan*
- NSW DET. (1985). *Pupil Welfare, Policy and Principles*. Sydney: Department of Education.
- NSW DSE. (1990). *Student Welfare, Good discipline and Effective learning Policy*. Sydney: Department of School Education.
- NSWDSE. (1996). *Student Welfare, Good Discipline and Effective Learning: Student Welfare Policy*. Sydney: Department of School Education
- NSWDET. (2004). *Funding Support – Students with Disabilities in Regular Classes*. Sydney: Department of Education and Training.
- NSW DET. (2004). *Values in NSW Public Schools*. Sydney: Department of Education and Training. Retrieved from
- NSW DET. (2005) *Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy*.
- NSW DEC. (2016). *The Wellbeing Framework for Schools*. Sydney: NSW Department of Education and Communities.
- NSW DEC (2011). *Literature Review on Meeting the psychological and emotional wellbeing needs of children and young people: Models of effective practice in educational settings*. Report prepared by URBIS for the Department of Education and Communities.

- NSW DEC. (2006, 2016) Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy.
- NSW (DEC). (2017). The Behaviour Code for Students.
- NSW DEC. (2011). Guidelines for the Use of Time-Out Strategies including Dedicated Time-out Rooms.
- NSW DEC. (2011). *Suspension and Expulsion of School Students Procedures and information for parents.*
- NSW DEC. (2012). *Every Student, Every School: Learning and Support.* Sydney: NSW Department of Education and Communities
- NSW DEC. (2014). *The Classroom Management Fact Sheet; Classroom Management Literature Review; Summaries of Key Research Articles and Professional Teaching Standards Relating to Classroom Management.*
- NSW DEC. (2005, 2016). *Anti-Racism Policy*
- NSW DEC. (2007, 2017). *Assisting Students with Learning Difficulties*
- NSW DEC: (2011, 2017) *Bullying: Preventing and Responding to Student Bullying in Schools Policy and guidelines, planning document and plan template;*
- NSW DEC: (2006, 2018). *People with Disabilities- Statement of Commitment.*
- NSW DEC; (2015, 2017). *School Attendance Policy*
- NSW Government. (2015). *Supported Students, Successful Students.*
- NSW Government. (2015). *Student Wellbeing Literature Review.*
- Latvijas Republika. (1922, 2010). *Latvijas Republikas Satversme. (The Latvian Constitution of the Republic.)*
- Latvijas Republika. (1998). *Bērnu tiesību aizsardzības likums (Law on the Protection of the Children's Rights)*
- Latvijas Republika. (1998). *Izglītības Likums (Education Act)*
- Latvijas Republika. (1999). *Vispārējās Izglītības Likums (The General Education Law)*
- Latvijas Republika, Ministru Kabineta Noteikumi. (2012). *Noteikumi par vispārējās pamatizglītības un vispārējās vidējās izglītības iestāžu nodrošinājumu atbilstoši izglītojamo speciālajām vajadzībām, 710 (Regulations on the responsibilities of general basic education and general secondary education institutions in providing for learners with special needs)*
- Latvijas Republika. (2016). *Izglītojamo audzināšanas vadlīnijas un informācijas, mācību līdzekļu, materiālu un mācību un audzināšanas metožu izvērtēšanas kārtība, 480 (Guidelines and Information on the Upbringing of Learners, Evaluating Resources and Materials)*
- Latvijas Republika, Izglītības un Zinātnes Ministrija. (2013). *Izglītības Attīstības Pamatnostādnes 2014.-2020.gadam (Guidelines for the Development of Education, 2014-2020)*
- Latvijas Pašvaldības Mācību Centrs, LPMC. (2013). *Vadlīnijas valsts un pašvaldību iestāžu specialistiem darbam ar bērniem ar atkarības problēmām un uzvedības traucējumiem*
- Valsts bērnu tiesību aizsardzības inspekcija (2016) *Sadarbības tīkls konsultatīvā atbalsta sniegšanai bērniem ar saskārsmes grūtībām un uzvedības traucējumiem.* [SEP] Atbalsta sistēma pilnveide bērniem ar saskārsmes grūtībām, uzvedības traucējumiem un vardarbību (A collaborative support system for children with communication and behaviour difficulties living with violence) Eiropas Sociālā fonda projekts Nr.9.2.1.3/16/1/001
- The Elton Report (1989). *Discipline in Schools.* London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office
- OFSTED Chief Inspector's Report (2012/2013), *Promoting the Quality of Learning,* Ireland: Department of Education and Skills
- Scottish Government. (2013). *Better Relationships, Better Learning, Better Behaviour.* Edinburgh: Scottish Government.

Appendix 3: The teacher survey

Aptauja pa uzvedības traucējumiem

1. Dzimums: Sieviete/Vīrietis
- 2a. Gadi pavadīti skolotāja/skolotājas darbā: 1-2, 3-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, 26+
- 2b. Neesmu skolotājs/skolotāja, esmu _____
3. Skola atrodās: Rīgā, lauku miestīņā, lauku pilsētā
4. Vai jūs sastopaties ar nevēlamu skolēnu uzvedību savā klasē (vai darbā)? Jā / Nē

Kuri uzvedības veidi jums liekās ka visvairāk traucē mācīšanos jūsu klasē:

| |
|--|
| 5. Skolēnu klaigāšana |
| 6. Kad skolēni mētā lietas klasē piem. zimoļus |
| 7. Kad atstāj savu vietu bez atļaujas |
| 8. Sit citiem |
| 9. Staigā pa klases telpu bez atļaujas |
| 10. Nepiegriež vērību pavēlēm |
| 11. Notur privātas sarunas klases laikā |
| 12. Kauslīga uzvedība |
| 13. Nepieskata savas mantas |
| 14. Neierodās stundā |
| 15. Aizmāršība |
| 16. Necienā pret skolotājiem |
| 17. Necieņa pret citiem skolēniem |
| 18. Uzmanības trūkums |
| 19. Blēdība |
| 20. Nevēlība sadarboties |
| 21. Vēlu ierodās stundās |
| 22. Hiperkativitāte |
| 23. Citu iebiedēšana (Bullying) |
| 24. Sev piegriezt nepiemērotu vērību |
| |

25. Vai ir cita veida uzvedības traucējumi jūsu klasē:

26. Cik liels procents no jūsu klases tā uzvedās:

| | | | | |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 0-10% | 11-20% | 21-30% | 31-40% | 41-50% |
| 51-60% | 61-70% | 71-80% | 81-90% | 91-100% |

27. Kādu procentu no klases laika jūsu uzskatāt, ka jūs pavadāt nodarbojoties ar neatbilstošu uzvedību?

| | | | | |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 0-10% | 11-20% | 21-30% | 31-40% | 41-50% |
| 51-60% | 61-70% | 71-80% | 81-90% | 91-100% |

28. Lūdzu, ievēlējiet ķeksīti lodziņā pie vēlamās atbildes sekojošiem teikumiem

| | Pilnībā piekrītu | Piekrītu | Neitrals uzskats | Nepiekrītu | Nemaz nepiekrītu |
|--|---------------------|----------|---------------------|------------|---------------------|
| Nepiemērota uzvedība nav nopietna problēma manā klasē | | | | | |
| Meitenes klasē izrāda nepiemērotāku uzvedību mazāk kā zēni manā klasē | | | | | |
| Zēni klasē izrāda nepiemērotāku uzvedību mazāk kā meitenes manā klasē | | | | | |
| Nepiemērota uzvedība ir negatīvs faktors klasē. | | | | | |
| Uzvedības traucējumi negatīvi ietekmē mācīšanos manā klasē | | | | | |
| Mani audzēkņi varētu mācīties labāk, ja būtu mazāk traucējoša uzvedība manā klasē. | | | | | |
| Skolēniem kuriem ir uzvedības traucējumi ir zemākas atzīmes nekā tiem kuriem nav | | | | | |
| Skolas pieredze skolēnu vairākumam tiek grauzsta caur citu skolēnu nepiemēroto uzvedību | | | | | |
| Uzvedības traucējumi rada manī mazāk entuziasma būt skolotājam/skolotājai | | | | | |
| Slikta uzvedība motivē mani pielāgot savu mācīšanas stilu. | | | | | |
| Es pavadu vairāk laiku nodarbojoties ar skolēniem kuriem ir uzvedības traucējumi, nekā palīdzot skolēniem kam nav. | | | | | |
| Uzvedības traucējumi samazinātos, ja manā skolā būtu efektīvāka disciplīna pieejas. | | | | | |
| Uzvedības traucējumi skolā rodas no tā, ka trūkst disciplīna mājās | | | | | |
| Autoritārās pieejas uzvedībai darbojas vislabāk manā klasē | | | | | |
| Esmu saņēmis/saņēmusi atbilstošu apmācību par to kā tikt galā ar uzvedības traucējumiem manā klasē | | | | | |
| Mācību iestādēm vajadzētu vairāk pievērsties pie disciplinēšanas stratēģijām, lai topoši skolotāji efektīvāk varētu tikt galā ar uzvedības traucējumiem klasē. | | | | | |
| Manai skolai ir efektīvas disciplīnas pieejas, kas tiek realizētas, lai man palīdzētu. | | | | | |
| Ja sīkākas disciplīna problēmas tiktu labākā veidā risinātas skolā, tad vispar nebūtu uzvedības traucējumi. | | | | | |
| Labas attiecības ar skolēniem palīdz skolotājiem risināt uzvedības traucējumus. | | | | | |

29. Lūdzu uzrādiet cik bieži jūs lietojiet un cik derīgas jums liekās pieejas sarakstā:

| | Cik bieži? | Cik derīgs? |
|---|--|--|
| | Reti/Nekad Kādreiz Pus un pus Bieži Ļoti bieži | Reti/Nekad Kādreiz Pus un pus Bieži Ļoti bieži |
| Trenēt (koučings) pielietot pozitīvu sociālo uzvedību (palīdzēt, dalīties gaidīt) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Dalīt uzlīmes u.t.t. pa pozitīvu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Slavēt pozitīvu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Izsūtīt skolēnu no klases nomierināties, kad paliek agresīvs/agresīva | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Īpaši komentēt pa vienu skolēnu vai vienu skolēnu grupu par sliktu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Aizrādīt skaļā balsī | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Sūtīt pie skolas direktora jeb direktora vietnieka pa sliktu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Brīdināt vai draudēt ka sūtīs skolēnu no klases, ja viņš / viņa neuzvedās | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Sūtīt bērnu uz mājām kad pielieto agresīvu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Zvaniet vecākiem ziņot par skolēna sliktu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Ignorēt nepiemērotu uzvedību ja tā netraucē citiem mācīties | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Verbāli pievērst skolēna vērību darbam, ja tas/tā, neiesaistās klases nodarbībās | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Izmantot problēmu risināšanas stratēģiju (piem. definēt problem, pierakstīt iespējamus risinājumus) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Pielietot dusmu savaldības stratēģijas (piemēram, dziļā elpošana, pozitīvas paš-sarunas) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Sagatavot skolēnus pārejas brīžiem pielietojot prognozējamās rutīnas | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Izmantot grupu stimulus | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Izmantot īpašas privilēģijas (piem., īpašs palīgs, papildus laiks pie datora) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Uzstādīt individuālo motivācijas programmu (piem., uzlīmes, balvas) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Pielietot skaidrus, pozitīvus norādījumus | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Atgādināt pa sekām sliktai uzvedībai | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Izmantot klases disciplīna plānu un seku hierarhiju | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Pielietot koučingu palīdzēt skolēnam saprast savas un citu jūtas | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Pievērst skolēna vērību darbam pielietojot neverbālas stratēģijas, ja tas/tā, neiesaistās klases nodarbībās | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Aizrakstīt vecākiem par skolēna sliktu uzvedību klasē | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Aizrakstīt vecākiem par skolēna labo uzvedību klasē | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Izdalīt aptauju skolēniem lai uzzinātu tās lietas, kas viņiem interesē | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Piezvanīt vecākiem pastāstīt pa skolēna labo uzvedību klasē | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Modelēt pašregulācijas stratēģijas skolēniem | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Mācīt konkrētas sociālās prasmes | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Veicināt cieņu pret dažveidību manā klasē | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Māciet skolēniem ignorēt citu nepiemērotu uzvedību | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| Mācīt skolēniem kā savaldīt dusmas | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

PALDIES!

Appendix 4: Discussion questions from the VISC course

Lecture 1: Interactionist, interventionist or non-interventionist behaviour support

Completion, analysis and discussion of the responses to the following questionnaire.

Aptauja: Skolotāju uzskati

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| A | 1 | Lai gan skolēni domā, ka rīkojas pieņemami, viņu rīcība ne vienmēr ir racionāla un atbilstoša morāles normām |
| | 2 | Skolēnu emocijas un lēmumi jāuzskata par saprātīgiem un noderīgiem |
| B | 1 | Parasti es norādu skolēniem, kur sēdēt klasē |
| | 2 | Skolēni parasti var pārrunāt ar mani, kur viņi grib sēdēt |
| C | 1 | Lai cik ierobežotas iespējas būtu, skolēniem tomēr jādod iespēja izvēlēties un izlemt, kas notiks |
| | 2 | Skolotājiem ir jāsaprot: lai gan viņi iespaido skolēnus, to dara arī ģimenes, draugi, kaimiņi un televīzija |
| D | | Kad skolēni trokšņo, es uztraucos un parasti: |
| | 1 | Pārrunāju ar skolēniem, kā es jūtos un mēģinu sasniegt kompromisu |
| | 2 | Atļauju, lai troksnis turpinās, ja tas netraucē un neuztrauc skolēnus |
| E | | Ja skolēns saplēstu cita skolēna planšetdatoru, visticamāk es: |
| | 1 | Sarātu abus skolēnus: gan to, kas saplēsa, gan to, kuram klasē bija aizliegtā manta |
| | 2 | Neiejauktos, jo šī ir lieta, kas jānokārto skolēniem un viņu ģimenēm |
| F | | Ja visi skolēni vienojas, ka kāds klases noteikums ir netaisnīgs, bet es nepiekrītu, tad: |
| | 1 | Šo klases noteikumu vajadzētu aizvietot ar noteikumu, ko ir ieteikuši skolēni |
| | 2 | Skolēniem un man vajag kopīgi izdomāt jaunu, piemērotu un godīgu noteikumu |
| G | | Ja skolēns nepiedalās grupas nodarbībā: |
| | 1 | Es paskaidroju, cik vērtīga šī nodarbība ir, un mudinu uz līdzdalību |
| | 2 | Es mēģinu saprast skolēna bezdarbības iemeslu un tad mudinu piedalīties nodarbībā |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| H | Pirmajā mācību nedēļā, iespējams, ka es: | |
| | 1 | Ļautu skolēniem brīvi sadarboties un veidot klases noteikumus |
| | 2 | Paziņotu klases noteikumus un ar tiem saistītās sekas gadījumos, ja noteikumi tiek pārkāpti |
| I | 1 | Veicinātu skolēnu pašizpaušmi un viņu radošo darbību |
| | 2 | Ierobežotu destruktīvu uzvedību, bet ļautu skolēniem domāt, ka arī viņiem ir teikšana par lēmumiem klasē |
| J | Ja skolēns pārtrauc mani, kamēr es pasniedzu stundu, es | |
| | 1 | Pārvietoju skolēnu, lai nesēž kopā ar draugiem |
| | 2 | Pasaku skolēnam, cik es esmu dusmīgs/a, un sāku diskusiju ar skolēniem par to, kā viņi justos, ja viņus kāds pārtrauktu runas vai uzstāšanās laikā |
| K | 1 | Labs skolotājs ir tāds, kas pieklājīgi un godīgi runā ar skolēniem, bet, ja skolēns pārkāpj skolas noteikumus, tad skolotājs/a nekavējoties pielieto piemērotu disciplinēšanu |
| | 2 | Labs skolotājs ar skolēnu, kas ir pārkāpis skolas noteikumus, pārrunā iespējamās nedisciplinētības sekas |
| L | Ja kāds no visapzinīgākajiem skolēniem nepabeidz uzdevumu laicīgi | |
| | 1 | Es domāju, ka ir kāds iemesls, kāpēc tas ir noticis, un ka skolēns iesniegs darbu pēc iespējas drīzāk |
| | 2 | Es pateiktu skolēnam, ka es sagaidu, ka uzdevumi ir laicīgi iesniegti, un kopā ar skolēnu nolemtu, kas tagad notiks |

Lecture 2:

- Kādi ir jūsu mērķi disciplīnai: savaldīt vai mācīt? Ja abi, kuram ir priekšrocība?
- Ja mērķis ir mācīt, ko jūs mēģiniet panākt: pašdisciplīnu, grupas sadarbību, apmācību pa pilsonību?
- Kur jūs ieguvat pašreizējās disciplīnas pieejas: no grāmatām, citiem skolotājiem, caur saviem piedzīvojumiem, citur? Kuras visvairāk noder?

Lecture 3:

Kounin pieeja – komentāri:

- Viņš savu pieeju (iesaisti skolēnus mācību programmā tā kā viņi ir aizņemti) pamatoja uz to ko viņš novēroja efektīgu skolotāju klasēs, un katrs skolotājs to var pielietot.
- Viņš nepiegrīza vērību skolotāju rakstūriem piem. draudzīgu un izpalīdzīgu pieeju, pacietību, saprašanos ar skolēniem, jo viņā uzskatā tie nebija svarīgi (ne kā šīs dienās).

Kounins sagaidīja ka skolotāji:

- Zinās kas notiek visur klasē;
- Varēs tikt galā ar vairākām prasībām tai pašā reizē;
- Ievēros kad uzvedības problēmas sāk uzplaukt un tūlīt piegriezīs verību lai tās nepaliek lielākas;
- Uzsvērs grupas sadarbību un skolēnu iesaistīšanos uzdotā darbā.
- Uzsvērs mācības kas liek skolēniem domāt (challenge), nav vienmuļīgas un kas atļauj skolēnam saprast ka progress notiek.

Viņa pieeja negādā pilnīgi disciplīna pārskatu jo tā nepalīdz skolotājiem tikt galā ar sliktu uzvedību, tikai to novērst

Pārrunas:

- Cik jūs no Kounina pieejas nejauši lietojiet klasē? Un cik apzināti?
- Kur jūs ieguviet šo informāciju?
- Vai Kounina pieeja saiet kopā ar jūsu uzskatiem par klasvadību?

Lecture 4: Canter and Canter

- Vai bērniem nepieciešams, ka pieaugušie viņus kontrolē?
- Vai lietojot ārpusējo kontroli var iemācīt pašdisciplīnu?
- Kā pielietot savu ķermeni? Pārlicinoši vai agresīvi?
- Kādus klases noteikumus piekoptu? Kā iemācīt?
- Vai jūsu klases noteikumi ievada kārtību vai kaut ko plašāku?
- Kādu pozitīvo atpazīstamību pielietojiet jeb gatavojaties pielietot?
- Ko tu domā par robežas noteikšanas secību? Vai tu ko mainītu?
- Ko tu domā par skolēnu sodīšanu?
- Kā tu gatavojies iesaistīt vai iesaisti skolēnu vecākus pārrunās par skolēna uzvedību?
- Kādu palīdzību tev vajadzētu no skolas administrācijas?

Lecture 5: Dreikurs

Pāru pārrunas: Skolēna mērķis?

Kristīne

Kristīne, skolniece skolotāja Bērza klasē, ir ļoti paklausīga. Viņa maz sadarbojas ar citiem skolēniem un nekad netrauce mācību stundu. Bet, vienalga lai ko Bērza kungs darītu, Kristīne neveic savus skolas uzdevumus. Viņa reti pabeidz uzdotos darbus. Viņa vienkārši sēž un nekad necenšas ko darīt.

Sāra

Sāra ir patīkama meitene, kas piedalās klases pasākumos un pabeidz gandrīz visus uzdotos darbus. Bet viņa nevar izvairīties no sarunām ar klases biedriem. Skolotājam Liepai jāapsauc viņa vairākkārt un bieži viņš saskaišas un paliek dusmīgs.

Toms

Toms ir savā parastajā sliktajā garastāvokli. Viņš iet dabūt grāmatu, saduras ar Juri, kas sāk sūdzēties. Toms pasaka, lai viņš tur muti. Viņa skolotāja Lapa saka, lai viņš iet atpakaļ savā vietā. Toms pagriežas un dusmīgi saka, ka viņš to darīs tikai tad, kad būs gatavs to darīt.

Pauls

Pauls ir lielāks un skaļāks par visiem saviem klases biedriem, un grib, lai visi viņu ievēro. Lai to panāktu, viņš uzvedas kā klases klauns, jeb iebiedē citus skolēnus. Viņš izsakās visādi, smaidot visu laiku skatās uz skolotāju un taisa dažādus trokšņus, izmet ironiskus komentārus, un savus klases biedrus visādi kritizē. Parējie skolēni neko nesaka, jo viņš ir liela auguma un agresīvs. Viņa skolotāja Zara nezina ko iesākt!

Lecture 6: Glasser

Pārrunas:

Kā šie jautājumi atšķirās no tiem ko skolotāji parasti prasa:

- Ko tu dari?
 - Ko tu darīji?
 - Par ko tu domā?
 - Ko tev lūdza darīt?
 - Ko tev vajadzēja darīt?
 - Ko tu izvēlējies darīt?
-
- Vai skolotāji spēj palīdzēt skolēniem kam vajadzīgs atbalsts ar uzvedību ja viņi lieto Glassra piemēru un neuzsver disciplīnu, bet mācīšanos?
 - Vai skolas spēj pariet uz šo pieeju? Kas palīdzētu? Kas aiturētu tās pielietošanu?
 - Vai jūs domājat ka šī pieeja darbojas ja to pielietotu daļēji?
 - Šai pieejā skolotājiem ir jābūt padomdevējiem, kā tas sakrīt ar jūsu uzskatiem?

Lecture 7: The role of the teacher

Haim Ginott rakstīja:

Es tagad saprotu ka es esmu izšķirošais faktors manā klasē. Mana pieeja nosaka klases 'klimatu'. Mans garastāvoklis ir tas kas nosaka kāds būs 'laika prognoze'. Kā skolotājs man ir milzīgas spējas pataisīt bērna dzīvi nožēlojamu jeb priecīgu. Es varu būt līdzeklis spīdzināšanai jeb instruments iedvesmei.

Visās situācijās, mana reakcija ir tā kas nosaka vai krīze būs palielināta jeb samazināta.

- Kā skolotāji var mainīt klases "klimātu"? Vai ir svarīgi kāds "klimāts" klasē?
- Lietojot informāciju par Kristīni, Sāru, Tomu un Paulu, savā grupa pārrunājiet kā skolotājs/a var katrā minētā situācija uzlabot jeb pataisīt sliktāku situāciju.

Appendix 5: Initial key words

Classroom management
Behaviour management
Teacher education
Social inclusion
Inclusive pedagogy
Least restrictive environment
Emotional and behaviour disorders
School discipline
Anti-social school behaviour
Educational change
Labelling
Complexity
Teacher agency
Teacher attitudes
Teacher beliefs
Teacher self-efficacy
Pre-service and in-service learning
Teacher professional development
Student voice
Teacher-student relationships
Educational accountability
Policy borrowing

Appendix 6: Data summary tables

Research question 1: data summary table

What does the literature tell us about the key themes that appear in school discipline and behaviour support theories/models and the nature of any link between these themes and teacher and beliefs about students?

Student discipline: key themes

| Defining discipline through: | Description | Implications for this study |
|--|---|---|
| Discipline as a framework | | |
| Regulatory framework | Legislature, normative acts, regulations and policies determine the direction and parameters of school discipline | External and national documents contribute to the context that impacts on teacher beliefs and reflects each society's norms. This in turn impacts on educational borrowing and teacher ability to undergo shifts in beliefs |
| Discipline and teachers' beliefs/activities | | |
| Discipline goals: Managerial (school safety) and instructional (Personal and social development) | Theories discuss discipline as a technology for management or discipline as a way of raising responsible citizens capable of participating in a democracy. The view held impacts on teacher choice of strategies. School safety and the quest for order is the focus of many systems' documents in NSW, UK, USA, NZ (as well as ABA) | The two approaches are not held to be mutually exclusive. Schools need both 'educare' and 'educere'. What is important is that policy documents do not place student wellbeing in opposition to discipline as this leads to uncertainty amongst teachers and parents and places additional stress on students and teachers. Both concepts should be incorporated in an understanding of discipline as a continuum of socialisation, not a strategy or event. The teacher moves between facilitating order and student development of self-discipline along a continuum. Teacher personal views on the nature of discipline are formed through a range of contextual elements including personal experiences and the success or otherwise of innovative practices. |
| Beliefs about the motivation of student behaviour | Beliefs about motivation underpin behaviour support theories. Teacher beliefs are also impacted on by their perception of the behaviour as intentional or not | No single theory is perceived as the correct one especially as there are common features across theories. Teacher beliefs about locus of control in the classroom are seen as important for teacher choice of theories and their successful implementation. Theories/models that suggest ongoing support are more likely to minimise student marginalisation and provide them with multiple opportunities to learn new ways of communicating their needs |
| Beliefs about the teacher's role | Clear concept of the teacher's role is important– not counsellor, welfare officer, friend. Behaviour support theories promote a view that the teacher is in control of decision-making, or it is a combined effort between students and the teacher, or the students need to determine class standards | An incompatible combination of teacher beliefs about their role and their choice of behaviour support strategies can lead to poor teacher self-efficacy views, failure to develop an effective personal discipline plan and successfully implement new practices. Systems documents and procedures, and lack of administrative support can also impact on how teachers see their role and impact on self-efficacy. External elements such as insufficient planning for transition to new approaches also impacts on teacher self-efficacy views. Crucial to the implementation of innovative practices is teacher understanding of locus of control in their classrooms. |

| Defining discipline through: | Description | Implications for this study |
|---|---|---|
| Teacher knowledge and skills, their beliefs contribute to views of self-efficacy which can impact on teacher beliefs about discipline | <p>Teacher beliefs are central to teacher actions (Richardson, 1996)</p> <p>Professional learning which is on-going, provides access to new skills and knowledge which is crucial for innovative practices to be established and maintained (Tsouloupas et al., 2015)</p> <p>Multiple conflicting agendas in systems and schools can overwhelm teachers (Le Fevre, 2010)</p> <p>Achieving change in teacher pedagogical practices is difficult (Fullan, 2007)</p> <p>Professional learning is a reciprocal process (Opfer & Pedder, 2011)</p> | <p>Any form of change needs to be a planned transitional process. Mandated changes need to involve teachers in determining what they can do within their current class structure and approach as new approaches are nudged into existence. Self-initiated changes need administrative support. Teachers need to understand their own belief structures as this may open up a greater range of possible choices.</p> <p>Richly developed, as opposed to simplistic, training about student behaviour support in pre-service courses is crucial.</p> <p>Professional learning is an on-going process with the teachers' ability to learn from it influenced by personal history and contextual elements. It is not a simple linear cause and effect process for change.</p> |
| Discipline as a system of management | | |
| Standards | Regulation of student conduct through external controls such as School Behaviour Codes and sanctions (as identified in systems' documents) | Current systems' documents on effective behaviour support stress an orderly environment but order alone will not promote learning. Policies can deliver conflicting messages such as the approbation of both zero tolerance and student wellbeing approaches leading to teacher confusion and incomplete implementation of either approaches |
| Procedures | <p>Application of the Code: positive and negative consequences.</p> <p>Disciplinary actions.</p> <p>Use of punitive and exclusionary sanctions for breaking the rules with Zero Tolerance for behaviour that is couched as "criminal".</p> <p>"Medicalisation" through categorisation of students which limits access to regular classrooms for some students with EBD</p> | <p>Systems' and schools' policy documents detail the need for a positive climate but the associated procedures can lead to exclusionary practices.</p> <p>Disciplinary sanctions are based on a normative approach and include strategies such as detention, counselling and exclusion which foster discipline as control. The need to hear and react to student voice is important for both implementation of strategies and dismantling of exclusionary practices.</p> <p>The criminalisation and medicalisation of behaviour by systems and society has an impact on teacher beliefs and their ability to achieve shifts in their beliefs.</p> <p>Teacher capacity to work with difference needs to be built, rather than trying to normalise students to fit an ideal or a norm. A consequent use of teacher authority will not help students with mental health issues</p> |
| Power | Institutional power is expressed in systems' and schools' policies. Disciplinary actions can reinforce teacher power | <p>By having the power to include or exclude, systems' and schools' policies can control who may attend regular schools and under what circumstances, effectively impacting on the type of learning students may access and their sense of belonging.</p> <p>Teachers can rely on using classroom management strategies as a way of managing student behaviour rather than focussing on the instructional elements of discipline such as teaching social skills, building positive relationships, character education, teaching goal-setting and problem-solving</p> |

| Defining discipline through: | Description | Implications for this study |
|---|---|--|
| Transactional discipline | | |
| Focus on building with students their sense of self-discipline, developing group cooperation and teaching responsible citizenship | Connecting and developing caring and supportive relationships with high and explicit expectations. Promoting the development of social skills and self-regulation to assist students with problem-solving | <p>A stronger focus on student wellbeing has developed in the literature over the last decades which is gradually appearing in systems' documents, albeit at times conflicting with existing policies.</p> <p>A pedagogy that embraces raising participating citizens rather than one based on subject definitions needs to be followed.</p> <p>Teacher capacity needs to be built which will assist teachers to address diversity in behaviour through a positive approach grounded in teacher respect for the student regardless of the teacher's views about the locus of control.</p> <p>For this approach schools need to be seen as the foundation for democracy, for building community and mutuality rather than the neoliberal focus on schools as marketplaces with high stakes testing and publication of "league tables"</p> |

Behaviour support theories/models: key themes

| Theorist / Model | On-going process | Positive classroom and relationships, social engagement | Personal and academic development | Addressing barriers to participation and engagement | Safe and supportive not punitive | Implications for this study |
|----------------------|------------------|---|-----------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|---|
| Alfred Kohn | ✓ | ✓ | | | ✓ | Importance of teacher locus of control beliefs for theory/model choice and success of implementation. No single theory/model provides a blueprint for guaranteed change. The need for eclecticism and hybridisation |
| Thomas Gordon | ✓ | ✓ | | | ✓ | |
| Jacob Kounin | ✓ | ✓ | | ✓ | ✓ | |
| Haim Ginott | ✓ | ✓ | | | ✓ | |
| Rudolf Dreikurs | ✓ | ✓ | Personal | ✓ | ✓ | |
| William Glasser | ✓ | ✓ | Personal | ✓ | ✓ | |
| Alberto and Troutman | | ✓ | | ✓ | | |
| Canter and Canter | ✓ | Moving towards | | | | |
| PBIS Framework | ✓ | ✓ | Academic | ✓ | ✓ | |

Survey responses: Teacher use and beliefs about the usefulness of strategies linked to discipline as control and transactional discipline

| | Do you use these techniques? | In your opinion are they useful? |
|---|--|---|
| Interactive discipline | | |
| Coaching positive social behaviour (helpfulness, sharing, | Views were divided between those who never used it and | A similar response to the usefulness of the technique which raises the question |

| | Do you use these techniques? | In your opinion are they useful? |
|---|--|--|
| waiting) | those who frequently used it | whether some teachers see this as outside of their role |
| Giving stickers for positive behaviour | Mostly this was not a frequently used technique although a small group of teachers used this often. | More teachers considered this useful than chose to use it. This raises the issue whether it is culturally/historically unacceptable as it is seen as a type of “bribery” when the expectation is that all students will behave |
| Praising positive behaviour | A very popular technique across the board | The majority also considered this useful |
| Sending the student from class to calm down when he/she becomes aggressive | The majority did not use this technique | This was not considered a useful technique. This could again be culturally/historically not the norm |
| Ignore inappropriate behaviour if it doesn’t disturb learning | The group was divided with most choosing not to ignore inappropriate behaviours | Perceptions of usefulness were divided. Perhaps some teachers see their role as needing to correct mistakes others that mentioning all misdemeanors will hamper the development of relationships with students or it could be linked to locus of control beliefs |
| Verbally re-direct the student to their work if he/she is inattentive | Most respondents used this | While most used this, about a third considered it not very useful. This raises the question of why teachers continue to use a strategy they do not consider useful |
| Use problem-solving e.g. defining the problem, recording possible solutions | The majority did not use this but about a quarter did | About a quarter found the useful, the remainder did not. Again is this something that teachers do not see as part of their role. Problem-solving is restricted to academic tasks |
| Use anger management e.g. deep breathing, positive self-talk | Responses spread with equal groups often using it or rarely. | While not everyone used this technique the majority considered this technique useful. This raises the question of why teachers are not using a strategy they consider useful |
| Prepare students for transitions with predictable routines | Mostly not used but again a small group using it often | No clear view with responses spread across the spectrum from very useful to not at all. Again this may be culturally/historically bound with the expectation that students will just know what to do or linked to locus of control beliefs |
| Give clear, positive instruction | Overwhelming support for this strategy | The majority considered this a very useful strategy |
| Use coaching to develop students’ emotional literacy | The majority used this but about half only sometimes | Some indecision about the usefulness of the strategy with a small number not considering it useful at all. This could be linked to role perceptions or teacher own beliefs about emotional literacy and their own skills |
| Refocus the student using non-verbal strategies if the student isn’t engaging with classroom activities | About a third were undecided about this technique, the majority used it and a small number rarely so | Respondents were mostly undecided with a small group considering it useful |
| Survey the students to find out what interests them | About a third did this | About a third considered this useful, an equal number were undecided and an |

| | Do you use these techniques? | In your opinion are they useful? |
|--|--|--|
| | | equal number did not consider it very useful. This may reflect teacher locus of control beliefs |
| Call parents to tell them about the student's good behaviour in class | Mostly not used | The majority considered it useful. Again cultural/historical influences may be a reason for its lack of use |
| Model self-control strategies for the students | Mostly not used but a third did use it sometimes | About a third considered it useful, the remainder did not. This raises issues for a shift in beliefs. Teachers who do not believe that their modeling influences students are unlikely to view these students from a different perspective. This is an important issue |
| Teach specific social skills | The majority did this although about a quarter only rarely | Considered a useful strategy. |
| Promote respect for diversity in the class | Used by almost all | Considered useful |
| Teach students to ignore inappropriate behaviour | Used by most, although about a quarter only sometimes | About a third undecided as to its usefulness and a small group considered it not useful. This raises issues about how teachers perceive themselves and their role |
| Teach students how to manage their anger | A resounding majority used this with only 2 respondents never using it | The majority considered it useful with only 1 respondent stating it was not at all useful |
| Discipline as control | | |
| Commenting in class on the inappropriate behaviour of one student or a group of students | Not used by most respondents | Not considered useful. This could be related to the view that most LV teachers expressed that relationships with students are important and this would hinder the development of such relationships |
| Reprimand loudly | About half of the respondents used this sometimes | Not considered a useful technique by most. Interestingly teachers chose to use it even though it was not universally considered useful |
| Sending to the principal or deputy | Almost never used | Most considered this technique as not useful although a small group considered it very useful. Again this may be culturally/historically not the norm |
| Threaten to send the student from class for inappropriate behaviour | Almost never used | Not considered useful. It is unclear whether teachers considered all threats as detrimental to relationships and therefore not useful or whether sending students from class is not the norm |
| Send the student home for aggressive behaviour | Almost never used | Not considered useful. Not a usual practice within LV |
| Call parents about inappropriate behaviour | The majority used this technique | About a third were undecided with the remainder split between those who consider this useful and those who do not. This may be an example of the transition from the Soviet era approaches to those of the second independence |
| Group rewards | Equally divided between those who used it sometimes and those who used it frequently | Mostly perceived as useful but a small group considered only minimally so |

| | Do you use these techniques? | In your opinion are they useful? |
|--|--|---|
| Using special rewards (extra computer time, special helper) | The majority did not use this | Mostly seen as not useful but about a quarter deemed it very useful. This may be perceived as bribery or it may be not a familiar strategy from the past |
| Create an individual motivational program eg stickers, rewards | Spread across the spectrum from never used to often with the majority sometimes using it | The majority considered this a useful technique |
| Remind students of the consequences of inappropriate behaviour | The majority used this but about a quarter did not | Considered by the majority a useful strategy. This could reflect teacher beliefs about locus of control |
| Use a class discipline plan and hierarchy of consequences | Responses spread evenly from rarely used to often | More than half were undecided about this strategy. Most of the remainder considered it useful. This may reflect locus of control, beliefs |
| Write to the parents about the student's inappropriate behaviour | The majority sometimes or rarely used this strategy | Mostly not considered useful with about a quarter undecided. This could again reflect the desire not to impact on teacher-student relationships or it may be culturally/historically influenced |
| Write to the parents about the student's good behaviour in class | About half used this | The majority considered it useful. The cultural/historical influence may explain why teachers are not using a strategy they consider useful |

Intervention plan data: strategies used

| Strategies | Intervention plan narratives | | | | |
|--|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Coaching (social behaviour) | X | X | X | | X |
| Stickers as positive reinforcement | | | | X | |
| Praise | X | X | X | X | X |
| Sending from class to calm down | | | | | |
| Public shaming | | | | | |
| Calling parents about inappropriate behaviour | | X | | | |
| Ignoring minor inappropriate behaviour | X | | | X | |
| Verbally re-directing | X | X | X | X | X |
| Using problem solving | | | | | |
| Using anger management | X | | | X | X |
| Teaching anger management | | X | X | | |
| Preparing for transition | X | X | X | X | X |
| Individual motivational programme | X | | X | | |
| Reminding of consequences | X | X | X | X | X |
| Class discipline plan | X | X | X | X | X |
| Contacting parents about appropriate behaviour | | X | | X | |
| Surveying student interests | X | X | X | | |
| Modelling self-control | X | X | X | X | X |
| Teaching social skills | X | X | X | X | X |

Research question 2:

What global, national or local elements, or combination of these, prevent the dismantling of exclusionary system, school and teacher beliefs and practices and maintain segregationist beliefs? This includes legislature, policies and student categorisation.

| Document | Mention of inclusion | Language of inclusion | Language of rehabilitation or specialisation | Planned transition for implementation | Associated guidelines for schools or teachers | Collaboration promoted through guidelines |
|--|-------------------------|-----------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| UNESCO | | | | | | |
| <i>UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education (2009)</i> | X | X | | | | |
| OECD | | | | | | |
| <i>Inclusive Education at Work: Students with Disabilities in Mainstream Schools, (1999)</i> | X | X | | | | |
| <i>Education at a Glance, (2012)</i> | Minimal | X | | | | |
| <i>Education at a Glance, (2013)</i> | Minimal | X | | | | |
| NSW: DET/DSE/DEC | | | | | | |
| <i>Pupil Welfare, Policy and Principles. Sydney Department of Education. (1985)</i> | | | X | X | X | |
| <i>The Fair Discipline Code (1989)</i> | | | | X | X | X |
| <i>Student Welfare Good Discipline and Effective Learning Policy (1996)</i> | X | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Values in NSW Public Schools (2004)</i> | | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Student Discipline in Government Schools Policy (2005)</i> | | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Guidelines for the Use of Time-Out Strategies including Dedicated Time-out Rooms (2011)</i> | | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Suspension and Expulsion of School Students Procedures and information for parents (2011)</i> | | | | X | X | X |
| <i>Every Student, Every School (2012)</i> | Diversity not inclusion | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Behaviour Code for</i> | | X | | X | X | X |

| Document | Mention of inclusion | Language of inclusion | Language of rehabilitation or specialisation | Planned transition for implementation | Associated guidelines for schools or teachers | Collaboration promoted through guidelines |
|---|----------------------|-----------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Students (2015)</i> | | | | | | |
| <i>Wellbeing Framework for Schools (2016)</i> | | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Anti-Racism Policy (2016)</i> | | X | | X | X | X |
| <i>Bullying: Preventing and Responding to Student Bullying in Schools Policy and guidelines, planning document and plan template (2011,2017)</i> | | X | | X | X | X |
| Latvia | | | | | | |
| <i>General Education Law (1999)</i> | | | X | | | |
| <i>Education Development Guidelines for 2014 – 2020</i> | | | Language of integration | | | |
| Position paper on Inclusion | X | X | | | | |
| <i>Skola2030</i> | | X | | X | | X |
| Ministru Kabineta Noteikumi: <i>Provision of basic education and general secondary education addressing learners with special needs, 710 (2012)</i> | | | X | | | |
| <i>Guidelines and Information on the Upbringing of Learners, Evaluating Resources and Materials, (2016)</i> | | X | | | | |
| <i>Latvijas Pašvaldības Mācību Centrs, Guidelines for national and municipal organisation specialists working with children with attachment problems and behaviour difficulties(2013)</i> | | | | | | |
| Valsts bērnu tiesības aizsardzības inspekcija <i>A collaborative support system for children with communication and behaviour difficulties living with violence (2016)</i> | | | | X | X | X |

Research questions 3:

What helps to build the capacity of teachers to work with difference, specifically with respect to students with behaviour support needs including teacher skills or knowledge, supportive school and classroom structures and procedures, positive teacher self-efficacy beliefs and positive student-teacher relationships?

Capacity building

| | Variables linked to capacity building | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|------------------|---|---------------------|--------------------------------|----------|
| Deemed as important | Teacher skills and knowledge | Supportive school/classroom structures | Positive teacher self-efficacy beliefs | Positive teacher-student relationships | Collaborative PL | Leadership team creating environment for change | Transition planning | Ministry support and resources | PL plans |
| Within VISC workshop discussions | X | X | | X | | | | X | |
| Within intervention plans | | X | | X | | | | | |
| Expert 1 | X | X | X | X | X | X | | X | |
| Expert 2 | X | X | | X | | | | X | |
| Beginning Teacher 1 | X | X | | X | | | | | |
| Beginning Teacher 2 | X | X | | X | | | | | |
| Special educator 1 | X | X | | X | X | X | | X | |
| Special educator 2 | X | X | | X | | X | | X | |

Research question 4:

How teacher beliefs impact on understanding behaviour support needs and achieving shifts in these beliefs

How do the above contribute to the principles that underpin a shift in beliefs along with the implications of this for teacher development in Latvia?

**Teacher survey responses and possible beliefs underpinning the responses
(X indicates the majority response or, at times, 2 or more very close responses)**

| | Strong Agreement | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strong Disagreement | Possible belief |
|--|------------------|-------|---------|----------|---------------------|---|
| Nepiemērota uzvedība nav nopietna problēma manā klasē Misbehaviour is not a serious problem in my class | | | | X | | Inappropriate behaviour disturbs class functioning |
| Meitenes klasē izrāda nepiemērotāku uzvedību mazāk kā zēni manā klasē Girls misbehave less than boys in my class | | | | X | | Girls can be disruptive, it is not just a problem associated with boys |
| Zēni klasē izrāda nepiemērotāku uzvedību mazāk kā meitenes manā klasē Boys misbehave less than girls in my class | | | X | X | | Either Boys are responsible for most issues, or, Both are to blame |
| Nepiemērota uzvedība ir negatīvs faktors klasē. Misbehaviour is a negative factor in my class | | X | | | | It is interrupting lessons |
| Uzvedības traucējumi negatīvi ietekmē mācīšanos manā klasē Misbehaviour impacts negatively on learning in my class | | X | | | | It stops those who want to learn from doing so |
| Mani audzēkņi varētu mācīties labāk, ja būtu mazāk traucējoša uzvedība manā klasē. My students could learn better if there were fewer disruptions | | X | | | | These few are ruining for the rest |
| Skolēniem kuriem ir uzvedības traucējumi ir zemākas atzīmes nekā tiem kuriem nav Students with behaviour difficulties get poorer academic results than others | | X | X | | | Either, They should be elsewhere getting extra help, or, They can do just as well but are choosing not to |
| Skolas pieredze skolēnu vairākumam tiek grauzsta caur citu skolēnu nepiemēroto uzvedību The experience of school is ruined for students by the misbehaviour of others | | X | | | | These students should be elsewhere so that the others can learn |
| Uzvedības traucējumi rada manī mazāk entuziasma būt skolotājam/skolotājai Misbehaviour makes me less enthusiastic about teaching | | X | | | | Dealing with behaviour interferes with teaching and is stressful |
| Slikta uzvedība motivē mani pielāgot savu mācīšanas stilu. Misbehaviour makes me adjust my own teaching style | | X | | | | New methods need to be tried, which can also be stressful |
| Es pavadu vairāk laiku nodarbojoties ar skolēniem kuriem ir uzvedības traucējumi, nekā palīdzot skolēniem | | X | | | | It would be better to spend time with those students who are |

| | Strong Agreement | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strong Disagreement | Possible belief |
|---|------------------|-------|---------|----------|---------------------|--|
| kam nav. I spend more time with misbehaving students than helping others | | | | | | keen and interested |
| Uzvedības traucējumi samazinātos, ja manā skolā būtu efektīvākas disciplīna pieejas. Misbehaviour would reduce if my school had effective discipline procedures | X | X | | | | The leadership team doesn't understand. I am left to deal with issues myself with little guidance |
| Uzvedības traucējumi skolā rodas no tā, ka trūkst disciplīna mājās Misbehaviour comes from lack of discipline at home | X | X | | X | | Parents should be doing more at home to improve their child's behaviour. Why should I have to deal with their problems |
| Autoritārās pieejas uzvedībai darbojās vislabāk manā klasē Authoritarian approaches work best in my class | | | X | X | | This reminds me of Soviet education and will not work |
| Esmu saņēmis/saņēmusi atbilstošu apmācību par to kā tikt gala ar uzvedības traucējumiem manā klasē I have received PL on behaviour support | | X | X | X | | Either I have been supported, or, the training wasn't very clear or appropriate, or, I have been left to cope on my own |
| Mācību iestādēm vajadzētu vairāk pievērsties pie disciplinēšanas stratēģijām, lai topoši skolotāji efektīvāk varētu tikt gala ar uzvedības traucējumiem klasē. Teacher training institutions should concentrate more on behaviour support strategies | X | X | | | | I am unprepared for the job |
| Manai skolai ir efektīvas disciplīnas pieejas, kas tiek realizētas, lai man palīdzētu. My school has effective discipline procedures which are used to support me | | | X | X | | Either, I am aware of my schools structures and procedures for behaviour, or, There is nothing in place and it is up to me |
| Ja sīkākas disciplīna problēmas tiktu labākā veidā risinātas skolā, tad vispar nebūtu uzvedības traucējumi. If the school managed minor discipline problems better major behaviour problems would not occur | | X | X | | | Either, discipline matters couldn't snowball if they were handled early on, or, I don't think this would make a difference |
| Labas attiecības ar skolēniem palīdz skolotājiem risināt uzvedības traucējumus. Good relationships with students help resolve discipline problems | X | X | | | | It is possible to work with these students but it takes time |

| | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|-------|---------|----------|---------------------|-----------------|
| | Strong Agreement | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strong Disagreement | Possible belief |
| | | | | | | |

Behaviours of concern from survey data indicating major behaviours of concern and links to either transactional discipline or control in the classroom, Behaviours linked to control impact on teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

| Impact on: | Behaviours: | Years teaching: | | | | | | | % |
|---------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------|-----|------|-------|-------|-------|-----|------|
| | | 1-2 | 3-5 | 6-10 | 11-15 | 16-20 | 21-25 | 26+ | |
| Control | Calling out | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 6.5 |
| Control | Throwing things | 1 | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6.5 |
| Control | Leaving their seat w/o permission | 1 | 2 | | 2 | 2 | | 3 | 8.2 |
| Control | Hitting others | 1 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 12.3 |
| Control | Walking around the room | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 2 | 9 |
| Control | Ignoring directions | 1 | 2 | 2 | | | 2 | 3 | 8.2 |
| Control | Private conversations in class | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 10.6 |
| Control | Fighting | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 9 |
| Control | Not looking after equipment | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | | 2 | 6.5 |
| Control | Skiping class | 1 | 1 | | 3 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 8.2 |
| Control | Forgetting | 1 | 1 | | 1 | | | 2 | 4 |
| Relationships | Not respectful towards teachers | 1 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 15.5 |
| Relationships | Not repectful towards other students | 1 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 15.5 |
| Control | Inattentive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 6 | 21.3 |
| Relationships | Cheating | 1 | 1 | | | | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| Relationships | Uncooperative | 1 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 14.7 |
| Control | Late to class | 1 | 1 | | 2 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 9 |
| Control | Hyperactive | 1 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 14.7 |
| Relationships | Bullying | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | 4 | 9 |
| Relationships | Attention-seeking | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 12.3 |

Principles identified in the study as underpinning a shift in beliefs cross-referenced with responses from interviews, discussions and mention in policies/guidelines

| Principles underpinning a shift in beliefs | Referred to in: | | Referred to by: | | | | |
|--|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| | Workshop discussion | Intervention plans | DEC policies | LV guidelines | Expert interviews | BT interviews | Special educators |
| Eclecticism: no one blueprint for behaviour support | X | X | | | X | | X |
| Hybridisation: no direct transfer | X | X | X | | X | | X |
| Empowerment: building teacher capacity not just skills | | | X | | X | | |
| Co-evolution: new meaning made in class by teacher and students together | | | | | | | |
| Complexity: classrooms are complex where the total environment needs to be considered | X | | X | | X | | X |
| Relationship building: relationships in the classroom provide the framework for behaviour support | X | X | X | | X | | X |
| Continuum of support: discipline and behaviour require ongoing support not single interventions | | | X | | X | | X |
| Social justice: students should not be disadvantaged by being labeled miscreants | | | | | X | | X |
| Collaborative change: Transition planning to support teachers and schools | | | X | | X | | X |
| Emotional dimensions: behaviour issues, change and self-efficacy impact on teacher emotions and must be considered as part of the shift in beliefs | | | | | | | |
| Confrontation: existing beliefs need to be confronted | | | | | X | | |
| Multi-directionality: there is no linear cause-effect | X | | | | X | | |
| Collegiality: tailored capacity building within the school | | | X | | X | | X |
| Social model: change need to start with the teacher and include consideration of the total classroom not the student labeled as disruptive | X | | | | X | | |

Appendix 7: Glonacal influences and discipline: understanding shifts in teacher beliefs

| Global Level | Reciprocity in NSW: activity and influence between all levels - strengths, layers and conditions, spheres | Reciprocity in Latvia: activity and influence between all levels - strengths, layers and conditions, spheres | Implications for discipline and a shift in teacher beliefs |
|--|--|---|--|
| <p>Global influences do not just claim the local level as their own. Relevant theories / models / approaches to discipline and behaviour support are sought from overseas (country-country, school-agency).</p> <p>Top down global influences occur in the formation of national/state policies, laws (agency-country). Bottom up influences originate from schools (school-agency).</p> <p>In general downward movement influences are stronger than upward.</p> <p>Contemporary agencies such as the UN, OECD and the EU layer their influence on top of existing structures, practices and beliefs.</p> | <p>Global directions such as inclusion impacts directly on DEC policy directions. The flow of global agency documents, such as PISA reports, impacts on state and school policies and decisions, at times indirectly.</p> <p>DEC and schools learn lessons from the experiences of other countries, rather than rely on total policy transfer e.g. borrowing UK approaches to classroom management but not the entire school inspectorial system.</p> <p>Individuals (human agency) play a significant role, not just organisations, as different people bring different relationships to the webs of interaction at all levels including the global level.</p> <p>The movement to inclusion in NSW was layered on top of existing structures such as segregated settings (special classes and schools) and these did not disappear but rather the nature of inclusion in NSW schools changed in response to local demands for the maintenance of these segregated settings.</p> | <p>The sphere of influence of inclusion has been felt in Latvia where the Ministry of Education has recently released a statement defining inclusion in Latvia. The final product has been influenced not only by research findings but also the beliefs and understandings of Ministry and VISC personnel involved in this process and their interactions.</p> | <p>While global decisions may influence the direction taken in national/state policies and regulations and their eventual local implementation, they do not determine the exact nature of these.</p> <p>The implication for a shift in teacher beliefs is that, while global influences might introduce teachers to new ideas about student with behaviour support needs, in themselves they are insufficient to achieve a shift in teacher beliefs. Global influences can be modified by national/state regulations and policies but also by local practice, which can lead to maintenance of existing beliefs.</p> <p>The global tendency to inclusion, and the associated focus on academic engagement of all students, cannot be ignored but it creates tensions within state education departments and schools.</p> |

| National / State Level | Reciprocity in NSW: activity and influence between all levels - strengths, layers and conditions, spheres | Reciprocity in Latvia: activity and influence between all levels - strengths, layers and conditions, spheres | Implications for discipline and a shift in teacher beliefs |
|--|--|---|--|
| <p>National / State The national/state context provides the background for the heterogenisation that occurs between</p> | <p>Stakeholder groups (Commonwealth government, State government, education departments, schools, teacher unions, parent support groups, media) exert differential influences (agency-agency, agency-country, agency-school). State influences are strong as they have</p> | <p>National agencies such as the Ministry of Education and Wellbeing filter global directions through their interpretation and understanding, along with their implementation for conditions, in Latvia. The webs of interaction between the Ministries (Education, Wellbeing), their knowledge and</p> | <p>National/state policies and regulations can have a direct influence on schools and teachers by detailing actions, which are mandatory. If, however, such actions do not bring about a change in student behaviour or a reduction in teacher stress, then this level of influence may also not be sufficient to bring about a shift. Furthermore, national/state reform practices do not</p> |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
| <p>the global and local. National/state agencies exert influences upwards and downwards thus acting as a filter for global influences (agency-agency, agency-school, agency-teacher).</p> | <p>legal responsibility for education. Commonwealth influences are strong as it funds many school initiatives. No single stakeholder group is strong enough to influence policy direction on its own as testified by the fact that the DEC promotes discipline as a control yet has incorporated a move to self-regulation due to the influence of support groups, global directions, teacher, parent and student feedback. Again human agency interactions play a significant role e.g. the interactions between a paediatrician his network and DEC officers led to the development of support materials for students with ADHD. This material's sphere of influence was much broader than intended as, it was used by other state education departments and private schools. Consultation with schools, teachers, teacher organisations, the local school community, stakeholders outside of the school and other external agencies over the content and direction of new policies influences policy development. Layers and contexts are evident in the historical struggle between the Commonwealth and states in educational matters.</p> | <p>understanding, EU funding mechanisms, stakeholder groups and the ability of teachers to successfully implement reforms work together to determine what innovations are implemented and how. Layers and contexts are evident in the continued understanding of pedagogy as raising a capable citizen not just the nature of instruction, the impact of Soviet reforms and the determination in Latvia to move to a democratic education system as quickly as possible resulting in resistance by some teachers to authoritative behaviour support practices which remind them of the Soviet era but which form the basis of many behaviour support approaches elsewhere and which are supported by empirical research. The <i>Skola 2030</i> project acts as a filter of global top-down influences. The nature and impact of bottom-up influences is yet to be seen. The planned implementation and opportunities for teacher professional learning provide for reciprocal actions between teachers and the state agency (VISC) however it will depend on whether these are just a means of sharing information or allow for knowledgeable reciprocal interactions.</p> | <p>stand alone but are defined by their interaction with existing global and local relations. Heterogenisation leads to plural assumptions about discipline and behaviour support. Seemingly universal discourses about discipline such as that of control are deployed in various ways in classrooms as global and local webs interact. Consultation, a crucial strategy in the process of introducing new policies, provides an opportunity for the local and state/national levels to interact and the result of the reciprocal interactions may be a modification of the new policy, increasing the sphere of influence of the local level. Such modifications may reinforce existing teacher views rather than lead to a shift. The structure of education departments and ministries also has a reciprocal interaction with global influences and local implementation. Structures can provide the rules and resources, which enable action at the local level or they can constrain it, therefore they can facilitate a shift or work against it. The requirement for a medical diagnosis, for example, constrains the likelihood of a shift as teacher beliefs that students with EBD need specialised support can be reinforced. Reciprocity in both an upward and downward direction leads state education departments to struggle between the global tendency for inclusion and the perspectives and demands of schools, teachers and parents who may view the presence of students with behaviour support needs as detrimental for the learning of other students and teacher stress. This may result in the introduction of exclusionary practices to the discipline dimension.</p> |
|---|---|--|--|

| Local Level | Reciprocity in NSW: activity and influence between all levels - strengths, layers and conditions, spheres | Reciprocity in Latvia: activity and influence between all levels - strengths, layers and conditions, spheres | Implications for discipline and a shift in teacher beliefs |
|---|--|---|---|
| <p>Local Local responses are</p> | <p>Schools have different histories and cultures and therefore interact with</p> | <p>Municipal control of schools results in variegated implementation of</p> | <p>At the local level there are reciprocal relations between the school or classroom culture and behaviour support practices.</p> |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
| <p>actively constructed at the local level rather than imported whole.</p> <p>Real heterogenisation occurs between the local and global level leading to flawed or appropriate implementation of innovative practices depending on the nature of the hereogeneration.</p> <p>Interactions between school-teacher, school parents, teacher-teacher, teacher-student and student-student sway how and what is implemented.</p> <p>Feedback from teachers and schools on local and state policies and documents, leads to modification of those documents and can filter through to modifications at a global level.</p> | <p>discipline/behaviour policies and programmes in different ways from different power bases as evidenced by the choice of some teachers and schools of Assertive Discipline and others of Control Theory.</p> <p>NSW issues such as parent and teacher concerns and interactions with stakeholder groups led to the move by the DEC to celebrate diversity in all settings and referring to inclusive education across settings rather than achieve inclusion.</p> <p>Teacher interaction at school or district levels impacts on how new policies and practices are implemented, thus, indirectly modifying the intended outcomes.</p> <p>Influence exerted by students through their behaviour impacts directly on teacher behaviours, school policies and DEC directions, with the behaviour of a minority of students having a disproportionate influence.</p> <p>Schools develop policies and plans, such as the discipline plan for the school, based on local issues and needs, selecting appropriate elements from global directions and state policies thus indirectly affecting the intended outcome of these.</p> | <p>guidelines and regulations as each municipality responds to local needs and has varying officers with varying skills levels when it comes to knowledge of and understanding of the needs of teachers working with students with behaviour support needs.</p> <p>Schools have different histories and cultures and therefore interact with discipline/behaviour policies and programmes in different ways as evidenced by the choice and focus of professional learning, such as the implementation of APU by some schools.</p> <p>Teachers and schools, often with no additional support, are responsible for the implementation of normative acts and regulations, which can lead to flawed understanding and implementation thus indirectly influencing the achievement of intended outcomes.</p> | <p>Teacher beliefs about locus of control influence the nature of the classroom culture which impacts on teacher/student relationships and the nature of behaviour support strategies. If new strategies are introduced which are successful, teachers may undergo a shift. Similarly unsuccessful implementation may lead to a reinforcement of existing beliefs.</p> <p>Reciprocal interactions between staff and students also has a bearing on which behaviour support strategies are chosen and how they are implemented. The final outcome of a new policy or guidelines is only achieved at this level when teachers and students make new meaning of the strategies in situ.</p> <p>When teachers are active participants in the heterogenisation process, such as participating in action research linked to a new policy or model, a shift is more likely as the process helps the teacher to construct new meaning.</p> <p>Reciprocal actions between local agencies (schools or teachers) and national/state policies and guidelines, which help to make meaning for teachers at the local level and are part of a supported and planned transition process, are likely to contribute to a beliefs shift whereas without this participation teachers continue to re-produce the existing context.</p> <p>Just as at the national/state level, reciprocal interactions between school structures and innovative practices or policies, can either enable a shift or constrain it.</p> <p>The discipline dimension at this level references both control and transactional processes. The influence of global and departmental/ministry directions is present but it is modified by local level interactions and needs.</p> <p>Reciprocity also occurs through pedagogical practices linked to citizenship education. Schools, rather than national/state or global agencies, construct national imaginaries and give cohesion to the idea of national citizenry.</p> |
|---|---|--|---|

Appendix 8: External contextual webs of influence and teacher beliefs in NSW

| NSW: External Contextual Web Elements Influencing Teacher Beliefs and Actions | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
| Interacting elements | Implications for discipline and behaviour support | Possible teacher beliefs | Possible Outcome |
| Multicultural society interacting with increased mass migration in 1980s and a booming economy | The need for teachers to address student diversity, a precursor to change DEC Professional learning focusses on a range of approaches to behaviour support | Belief in the need for differentiation in the classroom, therefore <input type="checkbox"/> Or Maintenance of existing belief that all students should be treated in the same manner and that students need to fit in <input type="checkbox"/> | Trialling of different behaviour support strategies Or Partial implementation of new strategies, strategies fail to become a part of everyday routines, usage fades |
| Dichotomy of neo-progressive versus liberal humanism interacting with various at times conflicting interest groups, with the consequences of a shortage of students with technical skills and with pedagogy as a theory of instruction | Aims of education become unclear Social justice approach encouraging self-discipline versus discipline as control Support for students with behaviour issues provided through additional services and resources | Confusion as departmental policies and procedures vacillate between the two views Belief that behaviour support is the responsibility of specialists or requires additional resources. Belief that the role of the teacher is to teach the curriculum and that regular class teachers do not have the skills to work with students with behaviour support needs. | Retreat to existing strategies, favouring control as the standard Discipline as control |
| Neoliberal attitudes and strategies based on economic rationalism interacting with global demands for empirically justified “best practice” and Anglo-American focus on normative tests. State focus on vocational education as a part of school. | Managerialism, schools to operate as businesses with success rated by performance in normative tests. Behaviour support approaches which can be empirically substantiated and promoted by education departments including DEC Reforms introduced in a top-down manner using hierarchical structures | Belief that students with behaviour support needs should be excluded from tests. Belief that these students impact on the learning of others in the class and would be better supported elsewhere Managerial approach reinforces ideas of structure and procedures as important for discipline resulting belief in discipline as control. | Authoritative approach to student behaviour support and continued focus on control, therefore no shift. |
| Commonwealth and State laws on anti-discrimination Models for assessment of the needs of students with disabilities based on social models and supported by a regulatory requirement of annual feedback on progress to the Commonwealth | Students have the right to attend their local schools. They can only be excluded if their enrolment places undue hardship on the school. Students with a history of violence, however, require detailed vetting before their placement is considered. Increased professional learning made available to teachers, coordinated to | Maintenance of the belief that some students do not belong in regular classes and the belief by some teachers that they do not have the skills to teach these students. Students who have no diagnosis must be choosing to behave in that manner, to disrupt lessons and the belief that they are ruining the learning of others again reinforcing | Professional learning alone is insufficient to change teacher beliefs and discipline as control continues, however, the implementation of successful strategies may lead to a change in beliefs and maintenance of new strategies. Small likelihood that teachers who resent having to undergo mandatory professional learning will |

| NSW: External Contextual Web Elements Influencing Teacher Beliefs and Actions | | | |
|--|---|---|--|
| government | address departmental, school and teacher needs and made a part of annual school plans. Students with behaviour support needs but no formal diagnosis can access limited services within school and do not attract additional funding. | the belief that they should not be there and need to be controlled if they are. Belief by the teacher that personalised professional learning will help them meet their individual goals, or, resentment that the process is formalised and some elements are mandated. | implement the strategies in their class or change their beliefs. |
| Western Individualism | Students are responsible for their behaviour and the behaviour issues are within the student. | Belief that the student should change, not elements from the surrounding environment as well. | Strategies which require change by the individual may be implemented such as social skills training or an individual behaviour intervention while the broader environment and teacher behaviours may be ignored. |

Appendix 9: Webs of influence at the local level, resultant teacher beliefs and outcomes

| Webs of influence: interacting elements | Implications for discipline/behaviour support | Possible teacher beliefs | Possible outcomes |
|--|---|---|---|
| NSW | | | |
| From an Anglo-Celtic context to multiculturalism | Need for individualised strategies to address student diversity | Either, a recognition of the need for differentiation, or, rejection and view that the student must change for the existing environment | Either, positive class climate which welcomes all students, or, rejection of student diverse student needs |
| Competing views in education: liberal humanism and neo-progressive | Need to develop approaches that allow for elements of both e.g. strategies for management which also promote self-discipline | A strong belief in one of the approaches Confusion as methods that have been used are deemed inappropriate A sense that they have been doing the wrong thing | Rejection of the alternative approach and ineffective or incomplete implementation of new strategies Aims of education unclear, inconsistent implementation of new approach |
| Common to Latvia and NSW | | | |
| Teaching/ learning tasks that do not engage learners or lack significance | Frequent re-occurrence of low-level behaviours. Disruption to learning of others | Belief that nothing works, that the teacher cannot make a difference A sense that too much is being asked of the teacher | A percentage of class time is dedicated to behaviour support rather than instruction The language of the class can become that of management rather than learning Possible rejection of some students. |
| Transitions: Within lessons, between lessons and National/State transition to new systems and approaches | Need a planned procedure for all transitions: systems, school or classroom | Teacher beliefs centred on the student: “they should know what to do, they will never learn how to behave, they are choosing this behaviour” Teacher beliefs about themselves: “I do not have the skills the reforms require, change is unnecessary – it just creates extra work for teachers” | Negative classroom climate from lack of direction, lack of student skills in dealing with transitions Possible confusion of teacher’s role, new procedures or policy/regulations leading to incomplete implementation, total rejection, teacher doubts about self-efficacy |
| Student-centred teaching/learning | Need to address the needs of the students rather than expect the student to change without other environmental accommodations. Need to listen to the student voice | Belief that students with behaviour support needs do not belong in regular classes, that they take up too much teaching/learning time, versus, belief that teachers can make a difference | Disengaged students, Resentment over additional workload, Partial or inconsistent implementation of new approaches, versus, engaged and motivated students and authentic implementation of new approaches |
| School level policies and approaches | Whole-school approach to rules, consequences, or Decisions about classroom management taken by individual teachers. Professional learning opportunities to support a shift in | Depending on teacher beliefs about locus of control and the model chosen by the school beliefs could be positive, “yes this will make a difference and procedures are defined and organised” or negative: “that will not work in my classroom”. Belief that there is no | Authentic implementation of procedures, or confusion as the teacher attempts to implement an approach that does not align with their beliefs. Teacher stress and burnout if they are isolated. Guidance available to staff, |

| Webs of influence: interacting elements | Implications for discipline/behaviour support | Possible teacher beliefs | Possible outcomes |
|--|---|---|---|
| | beliefs. | support and they need to manage all situations on their own | students a parents through a common discipline/behaviour support plan. |
| Teacher/school attitude to feedback to students | Need to provide feedback on attitudes as well as actions Need to ensure that feedback to students about behaviour is not limited to responses to negative occurrences. | Belief that they do not have the time to provide regular feedback and it is best just to focus on behaviour correction or lack the skills to provide feedback on behaviour. Or Belief that they need to develop a way to incorporate this into the everyday functioning of the class. | Reliance on praise rather than feedback as a “quick fix”. Students continue to associate negatives (sanctions) with behaviour and positives (rewards) with academic tasks. Or Positive communication between teacher-students as student behaviour is viewed and included with instructional strategies. |
| Latvia | | | |
| Move from a Soviet educational ideology to a democratic one. | Reforms require new approaches to students with behaviour support needs. Teachers have not previously experienced such behaviours. | Belief that the re-institution of democracy will solve all problems at school with behaviour. Belief that they do not have the necessary knowledge or skills to work with these new behaviours. Belief that the first period of independence will provide guidelines for the present. | Desire to avoid Soviet authoritarianism may lead to a misunderstanding of authoritative approaches that form the basis of many Western strategies and resistance to their use. Questioning of their self-efficacy with respect to students with behaviour support needs. |

Appendix 10: A comparison of professional learning opportunities aimed at behaviour support in Latvia and NSW

| Area | Latvia | NSW |
|--|---|--|
| Access to support personnel | Advice from social pedagogues, special education teachers, therapists, school psychologist | Advice from school counsellors, special education teachers, therapists and support teachers for behaviour and learning |
| Pre-service courses specifically dealing with behaviour | Limited | Limited |
| Support materials/courses from the Department or Ministry | <i>Guidelines for state and local government specialists working with children with addiction problems and behaviour disorders</i> (Welfare Ministry) | DEC supported: School-based professional learning (mandated) ESES sponsorship for a Master's course at university On-line courses e-learning resources <i>Designing a management programme for disruptive students</i> <i>Strategies for Safer Schools - SSS</i> (available as a series of modules in each school) Local district courses Support documents for key policies |
| Courses or programmes outside of the Department / Ministry | PL courses offered by local municipalities, universities (such as APU and SEA), private organisations, VISC courses, lectures and videos | Health department resources: MindMatters, KidMatters BeyondBlue (organisation addressing depression): Sensability Courses provided by private providers, universities, NESA |
| Journals and books | Špona <i>The Upbringing Process in Theory and Practice</i> Nīmante <i>Classroom management (Klasvadība)</i> No specific journals on student behaviour support in Latvian. | The works of key theorists and models including: Skinner, Alberto and Troutman, Charles, Balson, Kounin, Canter and Canter, Dreikurs, Ginott, B. Rogers, Glasser, Richmond. Miles, Kohn, Lewis, Sugai. Journals from the Council for Children with Behaviour Disorders (CCBD, USA) 16 journals in Australia that address behaviour, EBD, autism, ADHD. |
| Comment | Apart from the VISC project material, only the Ministry of Welfare has produced material specifically addressing behaviour support, and that is targeted at those children living in abusive environments. Learning through readings is limited unless the teacher understands English, even then everyday English and reading a scholarly text require different levels of comprehension. The smorgasbord approach to choosing PL courses or lectures does not provide for a co-ordinated approach that would address student, teacher and school needs. | Teachers in NSW have broad choices including access to written materials. Their PL is co-ordinated to meet both their and the school's needs and is part of an ongoing process. DEC provides online courses and e-learning to meet the needs of teachers in geographically dispersed schools but this also meets the needs of urban teachers who can choose when they want to do this There are many programmes that are available to schools that address behaviour. Some are DEC supported, others are through private providers. Schools are free to choose the courses |

| Area | Latvia | NSW |
|------|---|---|
| | Courses provided by local governments might be variable in quality and usefulness as the question needs to be asked: where and how did these specialists develop their knowledge? | that meet their particular needs. At times this can lead to choosing popular “innovation du jour” approaches and for this reason the DEC provides information on exemplary practices for students behaviour support needs |
| | Consideration needs to be given to the pre-service learning of teachers in NSW and Latvia. The focus on curricula remains, while this is important teachers in both countries state that they have not been prepared sufficiently to manage the behaviours that they experience upon entering service at a school | |