Care, Communication, and Support Relationships in the Classroom

The Case of Pupils with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties in One Primary School in Harari Region, Ethiopia

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Abstract

This study was carried out in the classroom at one of the schools in the Harari region in Ethiopia. The focus of the study was a specific group of pupils with special educational needs: those with emotional and behavioural difficulties.

The purpose of the study was to explore how the classroom responds to the special educational needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by focusing on care, communication, and support relationships between these pupils and significant others.

A qualitative approach with a case study design was used to structure the study and to examine the phenomenon in depth. Data was obtained through different methods including interviews, observations, and consultation of relevant documents such as policy guidelines, teacher’s and school records, and curriculum materials. Two pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties purposefully selected on the basis of teacher’s kept long-term classroom records, their teacher, their parents, and the headmaster of the school were informants of the interview. Data was analyzed qualitatively by using an interpretational analysis approach.

The results of the study indicate that care, communication, and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and significant others play significant role in the learning of these pupils and others in the classroom. The study also shows that this relationship is important for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties to adapt and sustain in school by developing resiliency; especially in situations where they come from home environments with high risk factors. Towards this end, however, peers and parents were found to be underutilized resources as partners. The study further pointed out that care, communication, and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and significant others were influenced by the interaction of multiple factors located in and out of the microsystem including poverty, family and home situation, school culture, and teacher’s knowledge and skills.

The study calls for concerted efforts from the school, the community, and governmental and non-governmental organizations in identifying and responding to the special educational needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. Suggested measures to be taken at various levels include: making the school and classroom climate safe and enjoyable,
developing identification methods for classroom use, providing skill training for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, upgrading teachers’ knowledge and skills in managing the behaviour and learning of these pupils through pre-service and in-service trainings, strengthening home-school relationships by enabling and empowering parents, adapting curriculum to the needs of pupils, and observing the implementation of policy guidelines at school and classroom levels.
Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to teachers and the teaching profession:

Past, present, and future.
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I praise God for favoring me to acquire this opportunity by responding to my earnest desire; and for giving me the strength to overcome the challenges therein.

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Abbreviations

BESO   Basic Education Systems’ Overhaul
CPD    Continuous Professional Development
CRC    Convention on the Rights of the Child
EBD    Emotional and behavioural difficulties
ICDR   Institute for Curriculum Development and Research
MOE    Ministry of Education
PTA    Parent -Teacher Association
UPE    Universal Primary Education
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Chapter One: Introduction and Background

1.1. Introduction

Consistent with the current international targets, Ethiopia’s Education and Training Strategy placed emphasis on achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) by year 2015 (TGE, 2002). The country has been striving to achieve this goal, with considerable progress being made in recent years (UNESCO, 2004). Harari is one of the nine regions in Ethiopia heading to achieve this goal in accordance with the set target by the country. The most important goal of UPE is:

*Ensuring that by 2015, all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality (UNESCO, 2000).*

In Ethiopia, pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties are among children educated in ordinary school settings by regular teachers. These pupils have special educational needs; not limited by diseased or impaired bodies, but by behaviours that are discordant with their social and interpersonal contexts (Kauffman, 1985). Many of these pupils have limited academic skills, poor attention span, and low levels of motivation in the classroom (Coleman, 1996; Kauffman, 2001). As a result, they are among the most challenging students to teach, whether they have internalized or externalized behaviours (Algozzine & Kay, 2002). Convincing data exist to indicate that, as a group, pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties are academic underachievers as compared to other children (Kauffman, 1985). Too often, the pupils at the extreme ends of the achievement continuum have suffered the greatest neglect when placed in general education classrooms geared to average learners (Speece & Keogh, 1996).

The school and classroom situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in the Harari region has not been studied. However, national educational statistics indicates that the region is at the top in primary school dropout rate compared to other regions in the country. Various studies show that dropout rate is high among pupils with emotional and behavioural problems (Frick et al., 1991). The schools and classrooms in the region may be said not adequately contribute to the
achievement of UPE by putting aside the focus on education of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, when international studies indicate that as much as 6% to 20% or more of the student population could have such a problem (Kauffman, 1985; Bower, 1981) and that every pupil is at risk where internal and external stressors are high to shatter the pupil’s ability to cope (Whelan, 1995).

This study attempts to understand the situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by focusing on the care, communication and support relationships. Any understanding of individual behaviour divorced from relationship aspects will be seriously incomplete; and intervention at the level of the relationship is often what is most helpful for individuals (Sameroff & Emde, 1989). Developmental theorists like Vygotsky and Bronfenbrenner (in Algozzine & Kay, 2002) have expanded educators’ awareness of the impact of relationship on intellectual growth. Learning takes place best in a healthy social environment. The school classroom needs to become a community where students and teachers encourage one another to grow (Algozzine & Kay, 2002).

1.2. Brief background about Ethiopia and the Harari Region

1.2.1 Ethiopia

Ethiopia is a landlocked country in the northeast African region known as the Horn of Africa. It is situated approximately between 3 and 13 degrees latitude, and 33 and 48 degrees longitude. The country is bordered on the west by Sudan (1606 km), on the east by Somalia (1600 km) and Djibouti (349 km), on the south by Kenya (861 km), and on north east by Eritrea (912 km). It is the 10th largest country in Africa (Appendix A).

According to the population projection of the Central Statistical Authority (CSA) based on the 1994 Population and Housing Census, the total population of Ethiopia was estimated at 74.7 million making it the second most populous country in sub-Saharan Africa next to Nigeria (World Bank, 2006). Out of the total population, 85% are rural dwellers who are engaged in primitive agriculture. Ethiopia’s per capital income, at US$ 120, is one of the lowest in the world (UNCRC, 1995) and the majority of the people are living below poverty line (Mikre, 2000). The illiteracy rate
is too high and almost all other socio-economic indicators amplify the abject poverty of the country; notably an alarmingly limited access to health care and education service. In short, the socio-economic context contains the two major sources of disabilities—poverty and ignorance (Mikre, 2000).

For many years, Ethiopia remained an autocratic state first under monarchy and later under military dictatorship. The system of administration during these times was so suppressive that it grossly violated the human and democratic rights of the people. These have led to frequent tensions between different nations and nationalities. Ethiopian history also includes wars with neighbouring countries and colonial nations. These situations have greatly affected the education system and hindered the development of the country.

Education in Ethiopia was provided by the church and the mosque until secular education was first introduced by Emperor Menelik in 1908. As a whole, up until the Italian occupation in 1935, many primary schools were opened in different parts of the country. However, the system of education was halted during the Italian occupation (1935-1941). Real expansion of the education system started in 1942 after the Italian occupation. Between 1974 and 1991 the education policy was made to reflect the socialist philosophy. Following the formation of a transitional government in 1991, a new education and training policy was issued in 1994. The main objective of the policy is to achieve universal primary education (UPE) by 2015 as stated in the New Education and Training Strategy (Asmaru, 1998: 152). According to the new policy (TGE, 2002), some of the major aims of education are:

- To develop and enrich the inquisitive ability of students and raise their creativity and interest in aesthetics;
- To enable both the handicapped and the gifted to learn in accordance with their potential and needs;
- To provide basic education and integrated knowledge at various levels of vocational training;
- To provide secular education;
- To provide education that promotes democratic culture, tolerance and peaceful resolution of differences and raises social responsibility;
• To provide education that can produce citizens who stand for justice, democratic unity, liberty, equality and dignity of their fellow men, and who are endowed with moral values;
• To respect the rights of nations/ nationalities to learn in their own language;
• To gear education towards reorienting society’s attitudes and values pertaining to the role and contribution of women in development;

These aims are compatible with the aims of education provided in the Convention on the Rights of the Child article 29 (1) (UN, 1991).

The Education and Training Policy promulgated in 1994 identified decentralization of the education system as a key strategy which has as its main objective the devolving of power, authority, responsibility and human and financial resources from the central Ministry of Education to Regional, Zonal and district level of education offices (Derebsa, 1998).

An important landmark in the changes brought about after 1991 is the adoption of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction in primary grades. Previously, all primary school instruction was given in Amharic. A second change in the new education policy is that the development of primary level textbooks and other instructional materials is to be done at the regional level. The central Ministry of Education through its Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) retains responsibility for creating course syllabi for primary education in consultation with the regions; however, the actual development, production and distribution of all materials is the responsibility of the regions. The only exception is English curriculum materials that continue to be developed at ICDR (Tilson & Getachew, 1998).

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1 There are more than 80 ethnic groups in Ethiopia with their distinct language and multi-cultures (Wikipedia, 2007).
1.2.2 The Harari Peoples’ National Regional State

The Harari Peoples’ National Regional State is one of the nine regional states in Ethiopia located in the eastern part of Ethiopia surrounded by the Regional State of Oromia (Appendix A). Harar is the capital city of the region located at about 526 Kms east of Addis Ababa. In historical retrospect, Harar began to come into geopolitical prominence with the founding of the first Muslim Sultanate in 896 AD. It flourished through the centuries and served as a powerful economic and commercial capital of the country until the Eritrean unification and acquisition of the port of Assab in 1960. With this shift in commercial route, Harar underwent a shriveling economic decline and sustained debilitating capital resource outflows to the northern centers. Beginning from the early 1960’s the region bore two large-scale wars, a series of droughts (at the rate of one every three years) which culminated in the major famine of 1987/88, mass displacements of people through centrally dictated villagisation schemes, and a chain of Ethiopian returnee and Somali refugee migrations. The problem was further exacerbated by massive military overload in the region (HARDA, 2005). Based on figures from the Central Statistical Agency (CSA: 2005), Harari has an estimated total population of 196,000. 37.8 % of the population are estimated to be rural inhabitants, while 62.2% are urban dwellers. Ethnic groups in the region include the Oromo (52.3%), Amhara (32.6%), Harari (7.1%), and Gurage (3.2%). Harari and Afan Oromo are the official languages of the region.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore how the classroom and the school respond to the special educational needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. In so doing, it emphasized the care, communication, and support relationships between these pupils and significant others; including teachers, parents, and peers in one primary school in the region. In contrast to the perception of the child as a ‘lonely scientist’, adults’ support of children’s learning was the main focus of the study. Classrooms do have physical, social, and instructional features operating simultaneously and no single research program could include all of the classroom phenomena (Shulman, 1986; in Anderson & Burns, 1989). It is usually necessary to foreground some aspects of phenomena and background others simply because no
one can study everything at once (Rogoff, 2003). This study explored the social aspect of classroom- care, communication and support relationships- as foreground; and other in and out of classroom factors that affect these relationships as background.

The study assumed that taking a critical look at the phenomena would enable to identify barriers to teaching-learning activities and indicate ways of addressing the special educational needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. The study was exploratory and descriptive in nature. It attempted to explore and build rich descriptions of the phenomena under investigation and to show relationships between events and the meanings these relationships have.

1.4. Research Questions

The study was undertaken in an attempt to answer the following two main and five sub-questions.

1.4.1. Main Questions

- What do care, communication and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and significant others look like in the classroom context?
- What are the factors that influence care, communication and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and significant others?

1.4.2. Sub-Questions

- How does the teacher interact with the pupil as a scaffold ²?
- How does the teacher consider/appreciate the special educational needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in planning, selection of methods, strategies and assessments?
- How does the teacher use peers as behaviour change agents and tutors?
- How does the teacher collaborate with parents as partners in facilitating care, communication, and support relationships?

² The concept of scaffolding is a process that enables a child or a novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts. An effective care-giver, a teacher or a more capable peer provides such a structure (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976 in Bukatko & Daehler, 1998).
• What are the factors inside and outside the classroom that influence care, communication, and support relationships?

1.5. Justifications

The rationales to focus on studying pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in Harari Regional State specifically from the ecosystemic point of view are the following:

• Prevalence estimates for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties range from as low as 0.5% to as high as 20% or more of the school-age population (Kauffman, 1985). Large scale international studies have indicated that socioeconomic disadvantage is associated with a greater risk of emotional and behavioural difficulties along with less opportunity for obtaining treatment (Kauffman, 1985; Cullinan, Epstein & Lloyd, 1983). Socioeconomic disadvantages refer to a collection of unfortunate circumstances, including poverty, family breakdown, inadequate education and other services, that are associated with behavioural disorders (Cullinan, Epstein & Lloyd, 1983). Nutrition deficiencies, either general malnutrition or deficiencies in specific dietary needs, can be involved directly or indirectly with behaviour disorders (Cullinan, Epstein & Lloyd, 1983). This means that the prevalence estimates are likely to be high in countries like Ethiopia, where the socio-economic status is at the lowest level.

• School dropout is an issue of great concern in the region in which this study has been undertaken because the highest drop-out rate was recorded compared to the other regions in the country. Various studies show that drop-out rate is high among pupils with emotional and behavioural problems (Frick et al., 1991).

• The recognition that serious psychosocial disorders, which were previously assumed to correct themselves or subside, are now shown to be normalized in only 50% of the cases. Early emotional and behavioural problems often continue into adulthood in the form of antisocial behaviour (Rye, 2001).

• The knowledge that the risk of developing emotional and behavioural difficulties is one out of one (every pupil is at-risk) in situations where external and internal stressors become great enough to shatter the pupil’s ability to cope (Whelan, 1995). Jones and Morse (in Whelan, 1998) argue that emotional and behavioural difficulties
in children does not discriminate; it occurs in the rich and the poor, the gifted and those with retardation, the majority and the minority. They indicate; however, that the second member of each pair is especially at risk.

- The awareness that intervention, based on efforts to improve interpersonal relationship, gives good results (Rye, 2001).

In addition to the above justifications, my role, as a teacher educator in Harar Teacher Education College and later as a special needs education expert in the office of the Harari Education and Capacity Building Bureau, gave me an opportunity to work closely with the schools in the Region, and enabled me to feel the status of the problem and the need for research that focus on this area.

1.6. Significance of the study
The study is expected to:

- Provide insight to the classroom and school situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by shedding light on the care, communication, and support relationships;
- Suggest ways to improve the teaching and learning of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties based on findings;
- Contribute to measures to be taken to minimize school dropouts;
- Give new insights on how to intervene at higher levels such as policy-making, curriculum designing and teacher training;
- Serve as a basis and a resource material for further studies;

1.7. Emotional and behavioral difficulties
Definitions of emotional and behavioural difficulties vary among professions and models. Perhaps formulating a single definition that is useful to all the various social agents and professionals who are responsible for youngsters’ conduct is impossible (Kauffman, 2001).

A definition communicates succinctly a conceptual framework that has direct implications for practitioners. Medical definitions imply the need for medical interventions; educational definitions imply the need for educational solutions, and so on (Kauffman, 1985). In view of problems associated with definitions, a functional description approach is more feasible. Descriptions of children in terms of their
learning characteristics, accomplishment and needs are “functional” (they tell the
teacher where to go to work) while descriptions in terms of medical and psychiatric
diagnosis and test scores are “educationally non-functional”: they tell the teacher
what the child cannot do. Over the years, there has been increasing disenchantment
with the educationally non-functional “medical model” and increasing concern with
developing approaches that are truly functional in nature (Hewett & Taylor, 1980).
Cooper (1999) describes emotional and behavioural difficulties as a loose collection
of characteristics, some of which are located within students; others are disorders of
the environment in which the student operates (such as the school or the family) and
yet others which involve the interaction between personal characteristics of the pupil
and environmental factors. Bower (cited in Whelan, 1998) provided an educational
description of behaviours based on his extensive research in identifying children with
emotional and behavioural disorders. This description refers to emotional and
behavioural difficulties as a condition exhibiting one or more of the following
characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree, which adversely
affects educational performance:

- An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health
  factors;
- An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers
  and adults;
- Frequent instances of inappropriate behaviour episodes that are surprising or
  unexpected for the conditions in which they occur;
- A general, pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression, or
- A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or
  school problems.

While still retaining the general description by Bower, a new definition has been
proposed which operationalizes or changes certain aspects of the definition (Merrell,
1994; Whelan, 1998). According to this new definition such a disability,

- Can coexist with other disabilities; and
- Is consistently exhibited in two different settings, at least one of which is school-
  related.
According to Doyle (cited in Wittrock, 1986), the key to understand behavioural problems is to see it in the context of classroom structures. He defines it as any behaviour by one or more students that is perceived by the teacher to initiate a vector of action that competes with or threatens the primary vector of action at a particular moment in a classroom activity. Lawrence, Steed, and Young (1977, 1984) define behaviour problems in terms of its effect upon the activity of the teacher and the school; as a behaviour which seriously interferes with the teaching process and/or seriously upsets the normal running of the school.

1.8. Structure of the thesis

The thesis is organized in five chapters.

The first chapter provides a general background of the study under the following topics: introduction, brief background about Ethiopia and the Harari Region, purpose of the study, research questions, justifications, significance of the study, definition of emotional and behavioural difficulties, and structure of the thesis.

The second chapter presents the conceptual framework within which the study was undertaken and the general theoretical framework of the study.

The third chapter discusses philosophical and methodological issues such as research paradigm and design, gaining access to the field setting, sampling of cases and informants, methods of data collection and analysis, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations that have been taken when the study was carried out.

The fourth chapter consists of presentation and analysis of data.

The fifth chapter discusses the findings in view of the theoretical framework and previous studies, followed by conclusions and recommendations.
Chapter Two: Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

This section consists of two parts: the conceptual framework and the theoretical framework. The conceptual framework depicts the territory of the study in a pictorial form and provides descriptions for clarification. The theoretical framework situates the study in a relevant theoretical background. In so doing, it first introduces the general theoretical perspective to draw upon; then, it describes the model within which the classroom context is specifically investigated.

2.1. Conceptual framework

According to Merriam (1998), a conceptual/theoretical framework is derived from the orientation or stance that the researcher brings to his/her study. It is the structure, the scaffolding, or the frame of the study. A conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main dimensions to be studied—the key factors, or variables—and the presumed relationships among them. It is best communicated graphically than textually (Miles & Huberman, 1984). There are at least three types of conceptual systems for describing classrooms and research in classrooms: Paradigms or research programs, theories, and models (Andreson & Burns, 1989). According to Cotgrove (1970) models are tentative descriptions of what a system looks like, and suggest possible relations between variables for empirical research. Concepts and models are heuristic devices—essential aids in the process of analysis.

The conceptual framework used in this study is a modified version of the Curriculum Relation Model (Johnsen, 2001) blended into Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems’ Model. By placing the Curriculum Relation Model at the heart of Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems’ Model, this model accomplishes three functions. First, it depicts the conceptual framework or the current version of the researcher’s map of the territory being investigated; second, it creates a platform for investigating systems theory as applied to a classroom context; and third, it provides the immediate classroom context within which the phenomena under investigation—care, communication and support relationships—is appreciated.
The “bins” approach is used to depict the conceptual framework of this study. Bins are labels used in the diagram. The 11 bins, the heart at the centre and the lines depicting interconnections all together indicate the main dimensions to be studied. Bins come from theory and experience, and often from the general objectives of the study envisioned. Laying out those bins, giving each a descriptive or inferential name, and getting some clarity about their interrelationships is what a conceptual framework is all about (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Figure 1. A schematic diagram of the conceptual framework of the study.

As can be seen from the diagram, the study places the child with emotional and behavioural difficulties at the centre and investigates care, communication and support relationships in the classroom.

The three concepts of care, communication and support used in this study can be thought of as the three sides of a triangle. They are three in one. My assumption here is that as a triangle is formed by three properly connected lines, good relationship in the classroom results from proper care, communication and support. When one side
of the triangle is missing, there is no such thing as a triangle. In the same token, when one of the three elements of relationship - care, communication, or support - is missing, there would be no such thing as good relationship in the classroom. They are placed at the centre and connected to the remaining curricular aspects signalling that they are the implicit parts of those aspects and cannot be seen independently by their own.

The “heart” surrounding the pupil is about love. According to Gnezda (2005) love can mean as frivolous as loving peanut butter, as romantic as falling in love, or as life changing as truly caring for the welfare of another. The love I am discussing is the last kind. We love our students when we are willing to feel empathy for their situations and devote ourselves to their physical, intellectual, and emotional well-being. It is placed at centre to portray the need to address the emotional aspect before the cognitive. As Bayton (cited in Nelson, Lott & Glenn, 1997) expressed in his moving words, “You have to reach the heart before you can reach the mind.” This is in line with the ideas of many educational pioneers including Johann Pestalozzi who declared that love, not teaching, was the essence of education.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

In this section, I discuss the ecological systems’ theory as a general framework of the study; and the curriculum relation model as an immediate framework within which care, communication and support relationships in the classroom is investigated.

2.2.1. Ecological systems theory

The ecosystemic perspective, evolved from a blend of ecological and systems theories, provided a general framework within which this study was undertaken. Ecological theory is based on the interdependence and relationships between different organisms and their physical environment. These relationships are seen as a whole (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002). Systems’ theory is ‘a generic term in common use referring to the view of interacting units or elements making up an organized whole’ (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1996). The organization of the structure and how parts communicate, their interdependence, define the system. An understanding of the system is gained by looking at the ‘transactional processes’ between the parts of the system. A school, for instance, is a system with different parts, consisting of its staff, its students, its curriculum, and its administration. Similarly, classrooms are part of a
larger, multi-level educational system, consisting of small units nested with larger ones. Teachers and their pupils are nested within classrooms, classrooms within schools, schools within zones and so on (Anderson & Burns, 1989). To understand the system as a whole, we must examine the relationship between its different parts (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002).

Various studies indicate the relevance of the ecosystemic perspective in developing our understanding of classrooms and schools (Burden, 1981; Burden & Hornby, 1989; Plas, 1986), families (Hoffmann, 1981) and the relationship between them, as well as between them and their social contexts. Systems theory can be applied to the classroom context. Individuals can be viewed as operating within a group system: the class is set within the wider system of the school (Souter, 2001).

Maliphant (1997) promotes systems’ theory as a valuable perspective in analyzing problems of children with difficulties. Dowling and Osborne (1994) use a systems approach to deal with children with difficulties in both the family and school contexts. When dealing with problems, an appreciation of the pupil within a context is required; social transactions, school and home will also affect the pupil. Beginning at the innermost level of the ecological schema, one of the basic units of analysis is the dyad or two-person system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Dyadic relationships in the classroom, at which children are closely involved in continuous face-to-face interactions with significant people such as teachers and peers, are in focus. Other ecosystemic levels which influence this relationship are also scrutinized.

Urie Bronfenbrenner has developed a complex but powerful ecological model involving different levels of system in the social context (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002). In his *Ecology of Human Development* (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), he views individual development as a culmination of many direct and indirect influences within a five dimensional framework consisting of the Macro, Exo, Meso, Micro, and Chronosystems.

The **macrosystem** pertains to the larger cultural/social structures surrounding children. This consists of values, beliefs, attitudes, and social institutions. It refers also to the overarching institutional patterns of the culture or subculture, such as the
economic, social, educational, legal, and political systems, of which micro, meso, and exosystems are the concrete manifestations (Apter, 1982).

The **exosystem** refers to one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by, what happens in the setting containing the developing person. Examples of an exosystem include the parents’ place of work, a school class attended by an older sibling, the parents’ network of friends etc (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The **mesosystem** comprises the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates. This includes the relations among home, school, and peer group. A mesosystem is a system of microsystems. Behaviours important to one setting may be inappropriate in another setting. This is particularly problematic if expectations within the home differ from those at school and other settings in which pupils are involved.

The **microsystem** addresses systems in which children are closely involved in continuous face-to-face interactions with other familiar people. It is a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics. The factors of activity, role and interpersonal relation constitute the elements, or building blocks, of the microsystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Beginning at the innermost level of the ecological schema, one of the basic units of analysis is the dyad, or two-person system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). A dyad serves as the basic building block of the microsystem, making possible the formation of larger interpersonal structures-triads, tetrads, and so on (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The **chronosystem** pertains to the temporal dimensions of the ecological model. As pointed out by Hinde (1979), a social relationship involves a series of interactions between people over a period of time; and each interaction is affected by other interactions that precede it. In addition, the interactions between these systems and their influences on individual development are all crossed by developmental time frames. Although this is a cross-sectional study, it addresses the temporal dimension through analyzing the relationships between the pupil and significant people ranging over time.
Ecologists assume that there is a unique pattern of explanatory forces for each student (Allen-Meares & Lane, 1987) and assert that behaviour is a product of the interaction between internal forces and environmental circumstances. Thus, ecologists examine ecosystems rather than individuals. Ecosystems are composed of all the interacting systems of living things and their non-living surroundings. When a student is successful in a particular situation, ecologists see the ecosystem as congruent or balanced. On the other hand, when such congruence does not exist, the student is likely to be considered deviant (i.e., out of harmony with social norms) or incompetent (i.e., unable to perform to a certain criterion in the unchanged setting). When this is the case, ecologists consider that the system is not in balance, which means that particular elements are in conflict with one another. Such conflicts are termed as points of discordance; that is, specific places where there is a failure to match between the child and the ecosystem (Conoley & Haynes, 1992).

Special needs educators who advocate the ecological model hold the view that when a pupil is labelled as having a behaviour disorder, what actually has happened is that the classroom or school ecosystem has become disturbed. Although teachers or other powerful persons may mistakenly focus responsibility on an individual child, the disturbance is actually a property of the entire ecosystem. Until these significant ecosystems are understood, the real nature of the disturbance will not be grasped. For an intervention to be meaningful there should be change in the ecosystems in which the student functions (Cullinan, Epstein & Lloyd, 1983). According to Conoley and Haynes (1992), from an ecological perspective, interventions can be organized to increase the possibility of systems change, the competence of individuals, and the congruence of individuals with their settings.

Psychological, academic, medical/physical, historical, and social information create the foundation for ecologically oriented interventions. The important purpose is to reach an understanding of the reciprocal interactions between students and their significant relationships. This requires that interventions are planned and implemented in as many of the student’s life settings as possible to maximize the chances to create change. Most student intervention plans are strengthened with
support from inside and outside of school (Swartz & Martin, 1997). Intervention can focus on any element or combination of elements within a particular ecosystem (Apter, 1982). Depending on the situation, several ecosystemic interventions might be sequenced separately or simultaneously on the basis of a tentative understanding of many factors. These factors include a range of considerations such as teacher factors, student factors, curriculum factors, family-school factors, and assessment factors to mention some of them. Improvement in any part of the system can benefit the entire system (Apter, 1982).

In general, in addition to developing our understanding of how the system operates in causing disturbances in the development and education of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties; the ecosystemic view also helps us see how things might change, develop, and if necessary, be healed (Apter, 1982). To achieve this understanding of things and their development and change, we may need to concentrate on some levels of system more than others. The basic principles underlying this approach, which are applicable to all systems (biological, economic, psychological), stress the following characteristics (Schaffer, 1998):

- **Wholeness.** A system is an organized whole that is greater than the sum of its parts. Its properties cannot therefore be understood by merely studying the functioning of individual components; attention must also be given to the totality.

- **Integrity of subsystems.** Complex systems are composed of subsystems that are related to each other. Each such relationship may also be regarded as a subsystem and studied in its own right.

- **Circularity of influence.** Within a system the pattern of influence is circular rather than linear. All components are mutually interdependent; change in one has implications for others. Statements such as “A causes B” are therefore insufficient because components affect each other in reciprocal fashion.

- **Stability and change.** The systems that are of interest are affected by all sorts of outside influences. In so far as each system tries to maintain a state of stability, change tends to be resisted; if this proves not possible, the system as a whole has to change, even if in the first place the external influence affects only one of the components.
Reactions to the various alternative interventions are diversified among professionals in the field. Morse (1977) states that the biggest thing that has happened in behaviour disorders is “basically moving from a rather restrictive psychodynamic point of view to an inclusion of behaviouristic and other learning approaches and to a greater appreciation of the ecological factors that tell us why some of the interventions that we try do not have long-term permanence”. While considering the ecosystemic interventions by the teacher, it is important to note the need to give priority to the classroom environment as Kauffman (1977) suggests:

*It is certainly true that it may be profitable for the teacher to extend her influence beyond the classroom, perhaps working with parents to improve the home environment or using the community resources for the child’s benefit...but talk of influence beyond the classroom, including such high-sounding phrases as ecological management, is patent nonsense until the teacher has demonstrated that she can make the classroom environment productive.*

2.2.2. The Curriculum Relation Model

This section uses the curriculum relation model to discuss main aspects of the classroom that can be influenced by the teacher at micro level.

The curriculum relation model is based on five classical educational main areas—common places—and three additional ones; some of them with old historical roots (Johnsen, 2001). They are: the pupil/s, care, communication, assessment, intentions, content, strategies—methods—and organizations; and frame-factors. These aspects of the model are in line with those aspects that inclusive schools should cater for; as advanced by the World Conference on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994):

...Inclusive schools must recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their students, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, teaching strategies, resource use and partnership with their communities. There should be a continuum of support and services to match the continuum of special needs encountered in every school.

The following section discusses those curricular aspects relevant to this study as they appear in the modified model: by combining some of them, by placing the pupil at the centre, by adding the concept of support or “scaffolding” to it, and by recognizing Bronfenbrenner’s meso, exo and macrosystems as frame factors. The discussions are made in relation to pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties.
The pupil

As Johnsen (2001) contends, the pupil is the ultimate user of the education offered and therefore the main agent in focus in the curriculum relation model. The experience, knowledge, skills and attitudes of the learner, the capacities, possibilities and mentoring needs have to be taken into account as the most essential issues in the educational system.

A teacher teaching pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties should be responsive to the needs and the strengths of the pupils. Identifying and understanding the special learning needs of a student who has such a disorder plays a critical part in designing an appropriate education program for that student and in providing needed emotional and behavioural supports. Pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties exhibit a number of negative behaviours. Some of these pupils act out and are both verbally and physically aggressive. They can be hyperactive, oppositional, and argumentative. Other pupils are withdrawn, depressed, anxious, and defensive. Many have poor impulse control, are easily frustrated, and lack self-control. They often have limited insight into their behaviour, blame others for their behaviour, and exhibit poor social skills. What is more, many of them have limited academic skills, poor attention span, and exhibit lower levels of motivation in the classroom (Coleman, 1996; Kauffman, 2001). They are also often filled with anger, rage, fear, sadness, and grief and are unable to understand or control their emotions. Frustration is their common companion.

Studies have confirmed that the social lives of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties are often very stressful in and out of school. Their behavioural, social, and emotional deficits often result in low self-esteem, a negative self-image, and a social environment in which many of their psychological needs are unmet. Their lives are often chaotic and unstable; many have experienced rejection, loss, neglect, or abuse in their young lives (Paul & Epanchin, 1997). As a result of these deficits and negative experiences, pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties often dislike school and do poorly in academic work.
The question here is how teachers give “human and professional support adapted to special needs stemming from negative experiences in traumatic, suppressing and chaotic situations, or from experiences seriously damaging to self-respect and positive self-image?” (Johnsen, 2005).

**Care, communication and support relationships**

As already indicated in the earlier part of this chapter, the three concepts of care, communication and support used in this study should be thought of as the three sides of a triangle. The interconnectedness existing among the three concepts can be seen from the following description of each.

A full range of meanings will be of interest, but the meaning of care that will be primary here is relational. A caring relation is, in its basic form, a connection or an encounter between two human beings- a carer and a recipient of care, or cared for. According to Bronfenbrenner (1990), this caring relationship should be accompanied by unconditional love and support. The person must believe the child is “the best,” and the child must know that the adult has this belief. In Noddings’ (1992) words, this form of relationship is rooted in relatedness and responsiveness of both the care-giver and the cared-for. In order for the relation to be properly called caring, both parties must contribute to it in characteristic ways.

The caring relation is completed when the cared-for receives the care-giver’s efforts at caring. A failure on the part of either carer or cared-for blocks completion of caring and, although there may still be a relation- that is, an encounter or connection in which each party feels something toward the other- it is not a caring relation (Noddings, 1992). The caregiver should be one that is characterized by tenderness, warmth, and security- a feeling we often describe as love (Rye, 2001). Attention is placed at the centre of love. When I care, I really hear, see, or feel what other tries to convey (Noddings, 1992: 15). An atmosphere of caring begins with the teacher who guides students to treat one another in ways that demonstrate caring (Nelson, Lott & Glenn, 1977). What Noddings (1992) sees as caring in the classroom not only consists of the teacher caring about the student, but also helping the student learn to develop care with others and the environment around them including learning.
Usually schools do not focus on any other abilities besides those that are academic. With Noddings’ new ideas, schools would create a learning environment that teaches students to care for all that they see around them. This includes themselves, other human beings, animals, objects, and even ideas.

Johnsen (2001) refers to both the verbal and non-verbal communication of care when she argues that care is shown in our attitudes, in small informal talks, in eye contact or a tender touch on the shoulder; in some nice words about what was good in the homework as well as in concern when something wrong is done. Johnsen (2001) further illustrates how care is manifested in the classroom by asserting that:

Care is manifested in concrete actions in the way we as teachers and special educators interact with individual pupils and the class, in our choice of content, methods, classroom organization and not least in how to assess and give feedback to our pupils on their work and progress.

Johnsen (2001) cites Befring who looks at care from a special needs perspective. In his view, care and learning are complementary functions. To care means to see and support each pupil as a unique individual having his personal possibilities and needs. Students labelled as seriously emotionally disturbed need contact with caring adults who can influence their lives in a significant way. Morse 1996 (cited in Whelan, 1998) suggested that teachers who show care must do that in a way that the student recognizes. The task is to communicate care and to get the students feel it. The need to focus in this area is indicated by Noddings (1992) who holds the view that:

*The current schooling work against care, and at the same time, the need for care is perhaps greater than ever.*

Those who write about the value of providing caring classrooms suggest that education should devote some of its resources, time, and commitment to this value (Whelan, 1998).

**Communication**

Communication in general is a process of sending and receiving messages to enable humans to share knowledge, interests, feelings, thoughts, attitudes, skills and concerns (Skjørten, 2001; Riggio & Feldman, 2005). It is far more than the words we use. Everything we do and say (or do not do and do not say) communicates to others.
Although we usually identify communication with speech, communication is composed of two dimensions - verbal and nonverbal.

Nonverbal communication has been defined as communication without words. It includes not only body language such as facial expressions, gestures, gaze, touch, vocal cues but also vocal characteristics, such as speech rate, speech pauses, uhms and ers, pitch of voice as well as less obvious messages such as dress, posture and spatial distance between two or more people (Riggio & Feldman, 2005).

No matter how one can try, one is unable not to communicate. Activity or inactivity, words or silence all have message value: they influence others and these others, in turn, are unable not to respond to these communications and are thus themselves communicating. According to Skjørten (2001), high quality of interaction and communication will be characterized by: sensitivity, attentiveness, reactivity, spontaneity, tolerance, generosity, flexibility, creativity, and empathy- referring more to the “how” than to the “what”. Her further description of the importance of communication for the development of self-worth and self-esteem is relevant to pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties who have problems in these areas of development. It reads:

*Communication is basic to learning and development and particularly important when helping children to develop or restore self worth and self-esteem (Skjørten, 2001: 245).*

Support

The concept of support used in this study refers to an active role played by significant people (teachers, peers, and parents) as mediators between the child and the environment to guide the child’s cognitive capacity through clarifying, expanding and interpreting the world. It involves a teaching-learning relationship that uses the expert or tutor who intervenes as required and gradually withdraws as assistance becomes necessary (Bukatko & Daehler, 1998). Vygotsky and Bruner used the term scaffolding to describe this support relationship.

*Scaffolding* is a way of thinking about the social relationship involved in learning from another person. A scaffold is a temporary structure that gives the support necessary to accomplish a task. An effective caregiver, a more capable peer or a
teacher provides such a structure in problem-solving situations, perhaps by defining the activity to be accomplished, demonstrating supporting skills and techniques in which the learner is still deficient, and motivating the beginner to complete the task (Bukatko & Daehler, 1998).

In Vygotsky’s theory, mediation is the ‘engine’ that drives development. A key to understanding the process of mediation is Vygotsky’s concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This relates to ‘where’ mediation takes place. The “zone of proximal development” is the critical space in a person’s present understanding (actual development) and a new level of understanding (potential development). A child's actual development level is when he or she can work unaided on a task or problem. The potential development level is the level of competence a child can reach when he or she is guided and supported by another person. The zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state. The actual developmental level characterizes mental development retrospectively, while the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively. What is in the zone of proximal development today will be the actual developmental level tomorrow- that is, what a child can do with assistance today, she will be able to do by herself tomorrow (Vygotsky, 1978). The deep significance Vygotsky accorded to significant other’s support relationship with pupils has got a central position in this study.

In summary, the discussion in this chapter provided the conceptual and theoretical platform on which the two main questions of the study were based to explore the phenomena: care, communication, and support relationships (dyadic relationships); and to examine factors from micro through chronosystems that affect these relationships.
Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology used to carry out the study. It therefore presents the research paradigm and design of the study, issues related to gaining access to the school, sampling of cases and informants, methods of data collection and analysis, measures taken to secure validity and reliability, and ethical considerations that have been taken when the study has been carried out. It further discusses limitations and delimitations of the study and depicts the research process in the form of a diagram.

3.1 Research paradigm

Creswell (1998) described that qualitative researchers approach their studies with a certain paradigm or worldview. A paradigm is composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action (Patton, 1990). Guba and Lincoln (1994) noted that a paradigm contains the investigator’s assumptions not only about the manner in which an investigation should be performed (i.e., methodology), but also how the investigator defines truth and reality (i.e., ontology) and how the investigator comes to know the truth or reality (i.e., epistemology). They suggest that answers to these three questions provide an interpretive framework that guides the entire research process including strategies, methods, and analysis. Two distinct paradigms exist: Positivism and Interpretivism/constructivism.

This study takes the interpretive/constructivist stance by assuming that reality is socially constructed; knowledge is constructed through an interactive link between the researcher and participants, and multiple data collection strategies evolving over time should be used to obtain information from the setting.

3.2 Research design

This is an in-depth investigation of how a classroom responds to the unique needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by focusing on the care, communication, and support relationships between them and significant others. The phenomenon under investigation is care, communication and support relationship. According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) phenomenon refers to the processes, events,
persons or things of interest to the researcher whereas a case is a particular instance of that phenomenon.

A qualitative approach with a case study design was chosen to structure the study so as to enable investigation of the phenomena in its context and in depth. The U.S. General Accounting Office (in Mertens, 1998) defines a case study as method for learning about a complex instance, based on a comprehensive understanding of that instance, obtained by extensive descriptions and analysis of that instance taken as a whole and in its context. Case studies become particularly useful when one needs to understand the nature of some special people, particular problem or unique situation in great depth, and where one can identify information rich cases that a great deal can be learned from a few exemplars of the phenomenon in question. Stake (1981) argued that good case studies can provide more valid portrayals, better bases for personal understanding of what is going on, and solid grounds for considering action.

3.3 Gaining access into the field setting

Gaining access into the field setting was the most challenging part in this study. The researcher failed to carry out the research in the two proposed schools due to unanticipated changes made in the schools that affect the study as discussed under “limitations of the study”. The discussion hereunder refers to measures taken to gain access into the fourth school where the study was undertaken.

When working with any administrative hierarchy, Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) suggested that the researcher must take care to follow appropriate channels of authority. In line with this, the researcher requested the Harari Regional Education and Capacity Building Bureau permission to get access and conduct the study in the selected school through a written application (Appendix C) attached to the letter from the Department of Special Needs Education, University of Oslo (Appendix B). A permission letter to conduct the study in the school was granted by the bureau (Appendix D) and handed to the school. Permission to collect data from the school was obtained from the headmaster of the school. All grade four teachers were contacted through the headmaster and briefed to the purpose of the research and their collaboration to offer the necessary data was requested. A period of one week was used to form rapport with the teachers and to identify one classroom teacher that best
fits the required criteria. Permission to conduct the study in the classroom was granted from the teacher by undersigning a letter of consent (Appendix F).

3.4 Sampling of cases and informants
Creswell (1998) pointed out that quantitative researchers work with few variables and many cases, whereas qualitative researchers rely on few cases and many variables. Care, communication and support relationship is two dimensional and it might occur in different instances. For the purpose of this study, the care, communication and support relationship that two pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in a purposefully selected classroom had with significant people was selected as a case.

Primarily, one teacher was chosen as the main informant on the criteria that s/he should have been teaching the same group of pupils from grades one to four; and should be able to identify pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties from among her/his pupils. Cumulative record kept by the teacher was used as a source of information to identify pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. Four males and two females who have exhibited emotional and behavioural problems over a long period of time and whose parents were consulted by the teacher at different times (for misbehaviour) were taken from the records. Then the pupils were clustered into two according to their gender and the male pupil was randomly selected. The female pupil was purposefully selected due to the severity of her problem as indicated by the teacher. The parent/ guardian of these pupils and the headmaster of the school were informants of the study.

3.5 Methods of data collection
According to Creswell (1998), a case study involves the widest array of data collection as the researcher attempts to build an in-depth picture of the case. In this study, three methods of data collection were used to build rich description of the phenomena and for the purpose of triangulation. Patton (1990) maintained that one important way to strengthen a study design is through triangulation. The logic of triangulation is based on the premise that no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival causal factors; because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality (Denzin, 1978). By combining several lines of sight, researchers
obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality; a richer, more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements (Berg, 1989).

As mentioned earlier, an interpretive/constructivist paradigm was the basic underlying assumption that guided this study. The basic ontological and epistemological assumptions held by any researcher will shape the kind of methodology which those researchers adapt and the techniques of data collection they choose (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1989; Creswell, 1998). The interpretive/constructivist paradigm opts for a more personal, interactive mode of data collection (Mertens, 1998). Bearing in mind this relationship, the following data collection methods were employed in the study.

3.5.1 Interview
Interview was the main method of data collection employed in this study. As Patton (1990) noted interview is chosen when the purpose is to access the perspective of the person being interviewed, his feelings, thoughts, and intentions that cannot be observed; or behaviours that took place at some previous point in time. These purposes were reasons for choosing interview as a main method in this study because firstly, it was a study of relationships interested in exploring the informants’ perspective; and secondly, it went back in time to find factors that affected those relationships.

Two pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, their teacher, one parent/guardian of each, and the headmaster of the school were informants of the study. Interview guides with list of questions were prepared before the field study (Appendices G, I, J, & L). Then the interview guides were translated into local language (Amharic) for easy communication between the interviewer and respondents (Appendices H & K). However, these questions were not exhaustive and field-sensitive. Hence, other relevant questions, emerging during data collection (Mertens, 1998; Richards, 2005) and on-site analysis were included. Memos and annotations added to the text during analysis were important sources of the newly incorporated questions. Richards (2005) indicated that a qualitative researcher
normally generates still more data by reflecting on the data records; and qualitative
designs are best neither fixed nor rigid.

Six interview sessions were held with the classroom teacher over the data collection
period of two months. In order to find a quiet location from distractions, these
interviews were conducted and tape-recorded in the same classroom during the
weekends. The time spent for each interview session ranges from 1 hour to 1 hour 30
minutes. An interview with the headmaster of the school was conducted in his office
for a period of 2 hours and tape-recorded.

Each of the two selected pupils was interviewed. These interviews were arranged in
the Guidance and Counselling Office; one of which was tape-recorded. Permission to
conduct interviews with each pupil was granted from the parent/guardian by
undersigning a consent form (Appendix E). One interview session was held with each
of the parent/guardian. Of those interviews, one was conducted at the work place of
the guardian, and the other was conducted at the home of the parent. Only one of the
two interviews was tape-recorded because one of the parents was not willing to be
tape-recorded.

3.5.2 Observation

Gall, Gall and Borg (1996), described that inclusion of selected observations in a
researchers report provides a more complete description of the phenomena than
would be possible by just referring to interview statements or documents. In this
study, sixteen in and out of classroom observations were made and recorded on
observation record sheet to supplement data obtained through interviews and to serve
as basis for initiating relevant questions during interviews. Aspects of the school and
the classroom such as the physical setting, facilities, activities, interactions,
relationships and practices were observed and recorded (Appendix M and N).

3.5.3 Consultation of documents and records

According to Yin (2003), the most important use of documents is to corroborate and
augment evidence from other sources. A variety of documents such as educational
policy, curriculum materials, attendance sheets, assessment and disciplinary records
have been collected from the classroom, the school, the Regional Education Bureau
3.6 Methods of data analysis

Data was analyzed qualitatively using the interpretational method of analysis. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) defined interpretational analysis as “the process of examining case study data closely in order to find constructs, themes, and patterns that can be used to describe and explain the phenomenon being studied.” Jorgenson (1989) referred to analysis as a breaking up, separating, or disassembling of research materials into pieces, parts, elements, or units. With facts broken down into manageable pieces, the researcher sorts and sifts them, searching for types, classes, sequences, processes, patterns or wholes. The aim of this process is to assemble or reconstruct the data in meaningful or comprehensible fashion. For a case study, analysis consists of making a detailed description of the case and its setting (Creswell, 1998).

The process of data analysis in this study was undertaken during and after data collection periods. First, the raw data (scribbled field-notes and tape recordings) were transcribed or converted into “write-ups” to make them ready for coding and analysis. The write-up process has been used to stimulate the researcher to remember and include those things said during interview but not written in the notes. Analysis during data collection was preceded by applying codes and memos to write-ups. Next, pattern codes were applied to identify themes, patterns or explanations that the site suggests to the researcher. Application of codes and memos were helpful to generate other relevant questions and to take information back to informants for clarification of inconsistencies and for obtaining detailed understanding in certain areas. Analysis of data continued after leaving the field setting by reading, rereading and reflecting on the transcriptions. Data was displayed in the form of narrative text. Format for display was generated alongside an evolving qualitative data collection and analysis, bearing in mind the conceptual framework of the study.
3.7 Credibility, Transferability, and Dependability

In the positivist tradition, validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (Black & Champion, 1976); whereas reliability refers to the ability of the instrument to measure consistently (Black & Champion, 1976) or the extent to which one’s findings can be replicated (Merriam, 1988). Reliability in a research design is based on the assumption that there is a single reality which if studied repeatedly will give the same results.

Merriam (1988) indicated that reliability is problematic in the social sciences as a whole simply because human behaviour is never static. Some researchers have concluded that traditional notions of validity and reliability do not apply to case study data and interpretations (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Other researchers prefer to use different criteria. Guba and Lincoln (in Mertens, 1998), equate credibility with internal validity, transferability with external validity, dependability with reliability, and confirmability with objectivity. They provided a number of research strategies that can be used to enhance credibility some of which include prolonged and substantial engagement, persistent observation, member checks, and triangulation.

Similarly, Marshall and Rossman (1989) described that using a combination of data types increases validity as the strengths of one approach can compensate for the weakness of another approach.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1989 in Mertens, 1998) transferability refers to the degree to which the results can be generalized to other situations. As discussed later in this chapter, in qualitative research, the burden of transferability is on the reader to determine the degree of similarity between the study site and the receiving context. The researcher’s responsibility is to provide sufficient detail to enable the reader to make such a judgement. Extensive and careful description of the time, place, context, and culture is known as “thick description”.

Guba and Lincoln (1989 in Mertens, 1989) identified dependability as the qualitative parallel to reliability. In the constructivist paradigm, change is expected, but it should be tracked and publicly inspectable. Yin (1994 in Mertens, 1989) describes this process in case study research as maintaining a case study protocol that details each step in the research process.
Guba and Lincoln (1989 in Mertens, 1989) identified confirmability as the qualitative parallel to objectivity. Objectivity means that the influence of the researcher’s judgement is minimized. Confirmability audit can be conducted by tracking data to its source, and the logic that is used to interpret the data should be made explicit. Thus, for instance, a special education researcher’s peers can review field notes, interview transcripts, and so on and determine if the conclusions are supported by the data.

In this study, the following procedures were incorporated for maintaining credibility, transferability, and dependability:

- **Triangulation of methods and data sources**: A variety of data collection strategies including interview, observation and document analysis; and different data sources were used for corroboration of evidences.

- **Member Checks**: Transcriptions were taken back to informants to clarify whether notes taken accurately reflect their position or not (the emic perspective). Data was reviewed and reflected on throughout the data collection period to clarify areas of ambiguity or uncertainty by returning to informants.

- **Persistent observation**: Data were collected over an extended time period to distinguish situational perceptions from more consistent trends. Case study researchers generally maintain their own viewpoint as outsiders (etic perspective), that helps them make conceptual and theoretical sense of the case (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003).

- **Low-inference descriptors**: Verbatims (direct quotations) were used in presenting the data to speak the vocabulary of the informants.

- **Audit trail**: The research steps and context of the study were described for tracking.
3.8 Ethical framework

Barker (1991) defined ethics as a system of moral principles and perceptions about right versus wrong and the resulting philosophy of conduct that is practiced by an individual, group, profession, or culture. As Stake (1994: 244) observed, “Qualitative researchers are guests in the private spaces of the world. Their manner should be good and their code of ethics strict”. In order to undertake the study in an ethical manner, the following ethical principles were incorporated into the research process:

- The study was carried out with respect and concern for the dignity and welfare of the research participants.
- Permissions from the Education Bureau officials, school administrators, teachers and parents were obtained after establishing understanding about the purpose and significance of the study.
- The participants were informed that their names will remain confidential and removed from the research report by replacing them with pseudonyms.
- Participants were informed who will get access to the data.
- The investigator has obtained written consent from participants or guardians after providing them information on individual’s freedom to decline to participate in or withdraw from the research at any time.

3.9 Limitations and delimitations

3.9.1 Limitations

Every study has its own limitations. As Patton (1990: 162) pointed out “there are no perfect research designs, there are always trade-offs”. This study is by no means an exception. Best and Kahn (1993) refer to limitations as those restrictions beyond the researcher’s control. The following points could be taken as limitations of the study.

- Schools were opened two weeks after their normal schedule which resulted in inability to commence and carryout the study as originally planned.
- The study was not undertaken in the schools indicated in the proposal because a new headmaster and teachers were assigned to one of these schools by transferring the previous headmaster and teachers to other schools. The newly deployed headmaster and teachers were running short of data required by the researcher because some of the interview questions demanded the informants to
go back in time to tell about pupils, classrooms, and the school. The other school was suddenly upgraded into secondary school by shifting grade 9 and 10 students into it from another school as a measure taken to accommodate preparatory students (grade 11 and 12) in that school.

- The researcher was again forced to quit the study in the third school because the informant teacher suddenly fell ill and referred to Addis Ababa for further medical treatment three weeks after the commencement of the study.

### 3.9.2 Delimitations

The study was delimited to one government primary school in the Harari Peoples’ National Regional State. This means that data obtained from the study cannot represent other school settings. But it is hoped that the study will help to understand the situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in the school and indicate possible measures to be taken toward creating better teaching-learning environment.

### 3.10 Generalization

According to Merriam (1988), generalizing to a population from a single case selected in a purposeful rather than random manner makes no sense at all. However, attention to the particular, to the case, is descriptive not only of the case, but of other cases like it (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

The extent to which this case study will be used to understand other cases depends on the similarity between the settings. Sandra Wilson, (in Gall, Gall and Borg, 2003) uses the term reader/user generalizability to indicate that it is the responsibility of each reader/interested practitioner of case study research than the researcher, to judge the applicability of the findings and conclusions in his/her situations. According to Walker (1980 in Merriam, 1988: 177), “It is the reader who has to ask, what is there in this study that I can apply to my own situation, and what clearly does not apply?”
3.11 The research process

The flow chart illustrates four interconnected, dynamic major phases in the research process with time framework and place. In the first phase, the research topic was identified. As indicated by converging arrows, topic identification was a result of many culminating ideas coming from various sources including reflection on my own experience, inspiration from courses and previous studies, and insight from literature. In the second phase, which likened to a funnel-shaped filter, varieties of articles, books, and documents were generously read and relevant ones reviewed. In the third phase, a written proposal with a step-by-step plan for conducting the study was prepared and delivered to the Department of Special Needs Education for approval. In the fourth phase, the researcher was engaged in cyclic data collection, analysis, and write-up processes evolving over time. Advisory sessions were central in all phases, and the whole process of the research was greater than the sum of its parts.
Chapter Four: Data Presentation and Analysis

This chapter presents data collected through interview, observation and consultation of documents. The structuring of main findings is guided by the bins in the conceptual framework and other themes emerging from the data.

4.1. Overview of the teaching-learning context

The school. Harar RM Primary School\(^3\) is located at the centre of the town. It is the oldest school established in 1910. This makes it the first school to offer modern education in the eastern part of Ethiopia. Currently, it accommodates over two thousand students learning from grades 1 to 8 in three shifts (morning, afternoon, and evening sessions). As a school with more resources/experienced teachers, RM school serves as a cluster resource centre for four neighbouring schools. The cluster resource centre is a venue where teachers come together to discuss common problems and come up with solutions. The purpose of school clustering was to allow a continuous upgrading of teaching skills by introducing new methods and encouraging innovation.

The school administration. The school is administered by the headmaster, the vice principal and two unit leaders. The headmaster takes charge of the overall administration of financial matters as well as instructional and non-instructional personnel. He is also in charge of communicating with parents in case where disciplinary measures are taken on the pupils. The vice principal is mainly concerned with academic affairs such as the preparation of time-table, and the assignment and monitoring of teachers. The unit leaders have the main responsibility of attaining order in the school compound by watching the behaviour of pupils outside their classroom and takes measures when unwanted behaviour occurs.

Guidance and counselling. The school offered guidance and counselling service to pupils in the second cycle\(^4\). The purpose of the counselling office was to provide both an intervention and prevention service. Guiding pupils was part of the classroom

\(^3\) For the purpose of confidentiality, all names used are pseudonyms.

\(^4\) Primary education in Ethiopia comprises first cycle (grade 1 to 4) and second cycle (grade 5 to 8).
teacher’s responsibilities in the first cycle. The guidance and counsellor for the second cycle was nominated from among the school teachers, and he had no special training needed for the job. There was no special incentive given or specific time arranged for the task and he had to do the job during the break or during his free time. The guidance office was a room located between two classes; and it was not well furnished. Some teachers were using the office as a room to take rest and place their teaching materials. Due to its location and multipurpose use, it was inconvenient for pupils to get access to the counsellor easily and to discuss confidential matters related to behavioural and educational problems.

**Other facilities.** During observation, the researcher found that the school had no staff-room for teachers. Therefore, they had to stay in the classrooms or sat outside on stone pavements in front of the classrooms during the break and their free time. An open field in front of the main gate was used for physical education and sports. It was a dusty bare field. According to the headmaster of the school, pupils were allowed to come to this field only when they had physical education classes. During all other times, the pupils were expected to stay in the congested school compound which had no play materials or seats at all. At the gate that faces the field, some women and children sell tea, coffee, candies, biscuits, cigarettes and the like to pupils and teachers. The pupils drink water from a big tanker that catches rain water from the roofs. The school had one toilet with eight holes partitioned into two, so that female and male pupils use it without trespassing. The pupils had to stand in long queues to use the toilet which led to frequent fights among them. The toilet was not regularly cleaned; with holes filled with faeces, trashes, and urine. And the school had no library.

**4.2. The pupils:**

**The case of Arge.** Arge is a fourth grade student. She is 14 years old and one of the older pupils in the classroom. She is over-aged for the level since the official age is 10 years for fourth graders. She was dismissed from her previous school due to repeated disciplinary problems and joined RM School. Arge was born out of wedlock to young parents who were economically dependent on their families. When she was born, her mother was 14 and her father was 18. Soon
after her conception, Arge’s father had committed homicide and sentenced for life. He was killed shortly after her birth, while he was attempting to escape from the jail. Saba, her mother, was a teenager who did not have the skills of giving proper care to the child. At times, she became so careless about the child’s welfare and threw her alone.

Saba’s family was so poor to support her together with the child. This led her to engage in sex work as a source of income. By doing this, she was able to keep the child with her until the child was four years old. Then after, Saba’s father was concerned about the developmental effect her work has on the child, and handed over Arge to his older daughter (Arge’s aunt). Arge was able to live in her aunt’s family and attended her schooling from grades one to three. However, due to repeated reports received from the school about her misbehaviour, her aunt’s husband became reluctant to her stay in the family; as he worried about the possibility of spoiling his children. This resulted in a serious conflict between the husband and wife. Then, the old man took the child back and transferred her to his second daughter, (i.e. Arge’s second aunt) where she currently lives. Her second aunt is a house wife with two children. Her husband owns an old taxi which is the only source of income for the family.

The case of Nati. Nati was another case chosen by the teacher as pupil with behavioural problem. He was 10 years old, an appropriate official age for this grade level. He had been living within a big family with four other boys and three girls. He was the fourth youngest child in the family. His mother was a house wife who had no formal schooling. His father was a priest in the Orthodox Church. Nati’s father and the remaining family members were not living together, because the father was serving in a church located 90 km from Harar town. He had been visiting the family twice or three times a month.
4.3 The teacher
Hawi has been a primary school teacher for the last thirty seven years. She had graduated from Kotebe Teachers Training Institute in Addis Ababa with a certificate after completing one year training. At the beginning, she was assigned to teach in a rural school in Chercher Province in eastern Ethiopia. She taught different subjects at different levels from grades one to eight. Hawi explained that this is her thirteenth year as a self-contained classroom teacher.

4.4 Emotional and behavioral difficulties as perceived by the school
Analysis of data obtained from the classroom teacher and the headmaster indicates that some of the emotional and behavioural difficulties exhibited by the pupils in the school include aggressiveness, hyperactivity, impulsivity, inattentiveness, disobedience, disruptiveness, theft, gambling, sexual harassment, drug use, restlessness, loneliness and withdrawal. According to the informant teacher, these behavioural problems could be seen in both sexes although most of them were more common among boys. She recognized that there were two types of emotional and behavioural problems when she described that:

I had one hyperactive girl in my classroom at one time. She was boyish and carefree. Just like the hyperactive boys, sometimes she gives answers before listening to questions. I also remember her strong ability to form a group and lead to constructive or destructive activities like the boys with similar behaviour. If you take another lady I have in my classroom at the moment, she has a very different behaviour from the previous one. She is shy and always silent. She does not give you answers for questions that you ask even if she knows the answer.

The headmaster of the school explained that emotional and behavioural difficulties manifested by pupils in the lower primary (grade 1 to 4) differ from the ones in upper primary (grade 5 to 8). He elaborated that behaviour problems seen in the first cycle were simpler and could be taken care of by the school teacher; where as those

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5 A self-contained classroom is one of the two prominent types of classroom organizations (self contained and departmentalized) in which the same teacher teaches a group of pupils in one class all/most of the subjects.

6 Hyperactivity refers to general restlessness and tendency to be ‘on the go’ all the time.

7 Impulsivity refers to reacting ‘without thinking.’
manifested in the second cycle include disobedience, group fighting, gambling and sexual harassment which had to be taken care of by the school, the community and other social organizations such as the police. According to the headmaster, disruptive behaviour was exhibited among pupils in grade five than those in grade one to four. He elaborated the reason for this by saying that:

*I think this disruptive behaviour is manifested due to biological changes and due to the feeling of freedom from the self-contained classroom. You can assure this by observing our pupils in the fifth grade in both shifts or by asking their teachers. The pupils may not consider it as a disruptive behaviour. However, it is a disruptive behaviour from our perspective.*

The headmaster of the school disclosed that the second cycle was the level at which many of these unwanted behaviours such as gambling, theft, missing classes, smoking, and chewing Khat⁸ emerge. He elaborated that controlling some of these behaviours demanded a combined effort between the school, legal institutions, and the community by saying that:

*There was a gang of jobless adolescents and school dropouts who came and chewed khat under the container placed in front of the school. They gradually went beyond the control of the school by attracting and involving pupils in gambling, sexual harassment, and chewing Khat. This activity was stopped by reporting to the police and discussing further with the community.*

### 4.5 Causes of emotional and behavioral difficulties as perceived by the school

Both the classroom teacher and the headmaster revealed that poverty and heavy duties and responsibilities given to the pupils caused emotional and behavioural difficulties. In addition to these, the classroom teacher considered family discord, lack of freedom at home, and exposure to unrestricted films that promote aggressive and sexual behaviours as causes; whereas the headmaster of the school considered some teachers as causes of behaviour problems due to improper roles they play in classrooms.

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⁸ *Khat is a natural stimulant from the Catha edulis or Celastrus edulis plant which grows in East Africa and the Arabian Peninsula. It is a stimulant producing a feeling of euphoria. Khat use is not prevented by law in Ethiopia.*
According to Hawi, the main causes of behavioural problems were poverty and family discord. She elaborated how an impoverished home environment contributed to behaviour problems by saying that:

*Pupils from impoverished homes come to school with a lot of unfulfilled needs. The introduction of school uniform covered what they looked like: torn trousers, bare foot, empty belly, skinny body. Every time they came to school and compare themselves with pupils from the well-to-do families they get shrunk and continuously die psychologically. Now they are hidden under uniforms and you can’t identify them easily; but they are still there hungry and struggling with countless problems.*

Hawi continued to say that many pupils came from families-in-conflict that fought before their children. In relation to this, she felt that conflict in the family made children to worry about the situation they encounter at home all the time. The teacher further commented that those pupils who came from divorced families torn between the two parents and became absent-minded in the classroom.

According to data obtained both from the teacher and the headmaster some street children and orphans who lost their parents from HIV/AIDS attended the school. Some of these pupils headed their families by generating income working as shoe-shiners, beggars, prostitutes, house servants, and daily labourers. According to data obtained from the teacher and the headmaster, in some families, children were given heavy duties and responsibilities beyond their age. The informant teacher stated that many pupils came to school physically weary, arrive late, and sleep in the classroom which affected their academic performance. The teacher explained that when she contacted the families of these pupils to understand the cause of the problem and tried to intervene in the matter, many of the parents denied that there was a problem at home and blamed the child for telling lies. She described that other parents demanded their child’s labour for living.

The teacher and the headmaster had considered lack of freedom at home as one of the most serious problems that needed intervention. The teacher informant indicated that parents impose a lot of “dos” and “don’ts” without taking into consideration the age level and interests of their children. They control with little freedom, and discipline their children by enforcing rigid cultural rules such as prohibiting them to speak in public and in front of their elders. This prohibition was much stronger when it comes
to the ladies. Hawi described the effect this prohibition had on the learning of children by saying that:

*A child, who has gone through such prohibitions at home, lacks the basics of expressing oneself in the classroom. Such children have limitations in sharing their fears and worries with the teacher and friends. Rather, they learn to conceal and struggle with problems they could not shoulder. It is at school that they start learning the ABCs of these skills.*

Extending further her comments, Hawi elaborated that a child who did not have these skills could face difficulty communicating and interacting properly with others and that many children in her classroom had such a problem. She continued to say that the culture of keeping children at distance from their families in communication has serious consequences in leading children to behavioural problems.

The informant teacher mentioned that she had been teaching both in urban and rural schools. She felt that the case was different in the two areas in the sense that when she taught in the rural schools, the pupils were relatively older and not as much troublesome in general. They also controlled each other. Hawi expressed the difference in behaviour between pupils in rural and urban schools by saying that:

*I started to see this behavioural turmoil after I came to teach in urban schools. I think that the behavioural problems result from what the pupils observe from their environment.*

The teacher pointed out that, children in the town watched videos, films and TV programs that were not appropriate for their age level. She also noticed that the National TV transmitted some programs without considering the influences they had on children. Hawi further commented that what the children saw from these transmissions occupied their minds much more than what she taught in the classroom. The pupils took the actors they watched in the films as role models and wanted to be like them in words and deeds. Hawi described that as a classroom teacher she tried to shape the behaviour of pupils in such a chaotic environment.

According to the headmaster’s analysis of the causes of emotional and behavioural difficulties, the teachers couldn’t be freed from taking the blame because sometimes they took measures that make the pupils hopeless. He commented that some teachers abuse their pupils by labelling them as idiots and unpromising to the society. This hopelessness drove the pupils to more serious misbehaviour. The headmaster
disclosed that he knew many pupils who dropped out of the school as a result of school phobia they had developed from physical and verbal abuse from their teachers.

**4.6 Identification of pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties**

On the question how she identified pupils with emotional behavioural difficulties, Hawi had the following to say:

> I recognize them mostly within few days because their behaviour makes them known easily. Since I spend all the class sessions with my pupils, I have enough time to locate who is who in terms of behaviour and ability. Gradually however, I understand their behaviour deeper and deeper. This helps me to identify what initiates the unwanted behaviour and what aggravates or lessens it.

The informant teacher pointed out that she could identify pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties without seeking special assistance from other professionals. But she found information from parents very important in enabling her to know the behaviour of pupils as early as possible; since they experience the child’s behavioural problem beginning from early age. With regards to the importance of information she acquired from parents she disclosed that:

> The information I get from parents helps me to understand the child’s behaviour much deeper and to know what initiates it.

According to the headmaster, pupils’ behavioural problems in the school varied depending on their age and grade level. Behavioural problems in grades 1 to 4 occurred mainly due to immaturity and inability to identify right from wrong such as moving from one place to another, going in and out of the classroom without permission, and answering questions without taking turns. But behavioural problems in grades 5 to 8 include fighting between gang groups, theft, disobedience, and rebelliousness. According to him, although most students were within the official age range, there were some older students between ages fifteen to seventeen who show disobedient behaviour in the classroom. He described that the classroom teacher had the responsibility to deal with behavioural problems in the first cycle; whereas the administration intervened in the second cycle when the classroom teacher was unable to solve them.
Hawi disclosed that she recognized pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties from the behaviour they exhibited in the classroom which affected the learning and academic performance of the pupil himself/herself and that of other pupils, and the teacher’s activity. The informant teacher described how Arge’s behaviour affected her activities by saying that:

*Her behaviour irritates me. She makes me hot and drives me out of topic.*

Hawi witnessed that some pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties rush when they gave answers to questions or when they carried out an assigned task while others sat calm with no or little participation.

Interviews with the teacher and parents revealed that pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties had concentration problems when they study. In relation to this, the classroom teacher pointed out that lack of concentration and understanding among these pupils seriously affected their learning and performance. Taking one of the shy and withdrawn lady as an example, the teacher described that such pupils were refrained from asking questions or giving answers that would facilitate better understanding. The teacher expressed her difficulty in recognizing whether withdrawn pupils have understood a given lesson which in turn negatively affected her possibilities to provide them the necessary support. The teacher indicated that inability to focus and lack of concentration among pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties resulted in poor academic performance by saying that:

*Some of the pupils with behavioural problems are restless, squirming, and agitating others. Others form their own world and play in the classroom by fiddling with their learning equipments. When I ask them a question suddenly; I recognize that they are not following me. They disturb and get disturbed during exams too. Because of all these, they perform below their potentials and do not score good results.*

The teacher’s responses to interviews, illustrated that the behaviour of hyperactive pupils affected other pupils sitting around them. These behaviours include restlessness and other distracting behaviours that attracted the attention of other pupils and the teacher. Regarding the behaviour of these pupils and how it affected the running of the classroom the teacher had the following to say:

*The other pupils’ attention is diverted or divided when they look at what these pupils do. They may also join the pupil with behavioural difficulties and do what*
s/he does, or start communicating with him/her while I am teaching. They can’t focus on the lesson full-heartedly. It also affects my activity and captures my attention. I have to interrupt the lesson to give them advices and to call back their attention. When I do this, the teaching session lapses and I miss my point. This is especially true during radio lessons transmitted from Addis Ababa. The air time lapses as I intervene in the matter and I can’t replay it. So, I miss major points in the radio lesson which I should give as a summary when the transmission ends.

The informant teacher described some of the behaviours exhibited by pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by taking the two cases selected for this study. Hawi described Arge, as fussy, easily irritated, uneasy and not straight-forward. The teacher further described the pupil as follows:

You don’t see a nice look on her face. She is hostile. For example, if her classmates tell her to close her book, she closes offensively after insulting them. She is mostly unstable. You cannot calm or please her spirit whatever you do in the classroom. Whether you soothe or talk to her with temper, you never calm her down. Even when you are talking to her, you find her turn around and insult her classmates. She does things that show her uneasiness: striking her pens with each other, clapping books to books, pulling something here and there, turning around…. She is restless. She frequently fights with other pupils. She provokes them; snatches their books and materials, irritates those seated around her. She talks to the pupil in the front or at the back, disturbs all in her vicinity and mess up things around.

Nati, the other pupil identified as pupil with behaviour problem was carefree, according to Hawi. The teacher explained him as a provoking pupil that enjoyed annoying his classmates and fought even with those above his age. According to the teacher, one could find him laughing and playing after the fighting as if nothing had happened. He was not a child of revenge. According to the teacher, Nati was not as such consistently troublesome in his learning. She noted and expressed his behaviour during lessons as follows:

During lessons, I have observed that he tries to be attentive; but suddenly turn aside, possibly because of lack of understanding. He is in a hurry when he is doing classroom activities. For example, when I give them a class work he rushes to complete it without giving due emphasis, and brings it to me for correction. He doesn’t care even if he misses all the questions. He quickly completes it once again and brings it back: His joy lies in handing over what he does ahead of others. He is a child who does not regret for scoring poor.
4.7 Care, communication and support relationships in the school.

The informant teacher indicated that having close relationships with pupils with behavioural problems, like she did with Arge, and approaching them with love contributes much for improvement of their behaviour. She elaborated this by saying that:

*There must be a fatherly and motherly relationship. The teacher has to develop positive attitude in the pupil and enables him/her to say 'If I approach the teacher, he could solve my problem.' If the teacher approaches the pupil to this extent, believe me that the pupil quits disturbing. It is a matter of giving love that is all.*

At this junction, it looks worth to look at Arge’s comments on how she compared her two schools when she said that:

*Both schools are the same in the way lessons are given, in their classroom furniture and teaching materials. What makes them differ is the way teachers treat me. The teachers in the previous school focus on my faults, they did not ask me my problems, and they punished me unreasonably. Since they frequently ordered me to summon my parents, I developed hatred toward that school. I like this school because of the teacher.*

Hawi pointed out that she could not give as much individual care to her pupils as it should be because of large class size. In spite of this, the teacher was capable of sensing the interest of her pupils and exhibit caring relationship by calling and asking them to clean the blackboard or collect students’ exercise books for her. As she said, the pupils start to develop interest toward what she teaches and begin to understand that the measures she took including reprimanding and spanking were intended for their benefit; not to harm them.

The informant teacher described that the main support she provided to Arge was related to her inattentiveness. She further elaborated that Arge required continuous guidance and follow-up so that she could pay attention and stop disturbing others. According to Hawi, Arge was not a weak student by nature. She performed fairly well even if she was restless and a mess to the class. Hawi described Arge’s behaviour and her own reactions during exams as follows:

*Even during exams she turns around and starts to talk. I can’t shift my gaze. I fix my eyes on her and keep on saying ‘do your exam….do your exam!’*

When Arge continued to disturb, the teacher either let her sit alone for a brief period of time, or make her sit beside her, or bring her to the front desks where she could
control her activities. The teacher further reported that had these measures been not taken, she would have performed the least in all the subjects and remained in grade three.

The informant teacher said that she took intervention measures in the case of Nati, especially when he fought with pupils. In this regard, she pointed out that she mediated to resolve his quarrel with other pupils. Her intervention measures varied depending on the behaviour as she described in the following:

*When he provokes other students and disrupts my teaching, first I call his name and give him a verbal warning. If he keeps on disturbing, I let him kneel down in front of the class. Sometimes I give him additional home assignments as punishment. In a fear of my reprimands he attempts to accomplish his assignment as much as he could….. I also use Nati’s rushing behaviour as an opportunity for giving him feedback.*

According to the teacher, there were times when she supported Arge in solving problems she had with her guardians. In this case Hawi said:

*I give her advice on how to live in agreement with family members in her aunt’s home. As we return from school, we walk together and exchange a lot of ideas. This has helped me to know her much more and to give her further advices such as the need to go out early to school and to return home in due time. If I find her standing on the street, I ask her what she is doing. Last week, for instance, I repeatedly found her standing on the street and brought her to school.*

Hawi remembered some occasions where Arge’s behaviour went beyond her patience because she did not speak out the problem she had. Hawi had the following to say in telling what she had experienced:

*In order to improve her behaviour there was no time I refrained from making some efforts; I approach and ask if she has problems or reasons for not attending classes and give her some advices. In spite of all these efforts, usually her answers were short and irritating, “No problem! No problem!”*

On the question whether special consideration was made in planning lessons and selecting contents, the teacher respondent said that she designed yearly and daily lesson plans by taking into consideration the majority of the pupils and not those with emotional and behavioural difficulties. She elaborated that she continuously assessed all her pupils in the same way and kept cumulative records of various activities including class work, home work, reading, writing, and the like. Hawi pointed out that she provided additional support in the classroom based on the results of her assessments:
I support pupils with poor handwriting by giving them few lines to exercise each time. More or less the pupils I followed up from grade one have good handwriting. I give attention to those who have reading difficulties by making them read aloud what is written on the blackboard.

The informant teacher clarified that she had made special considerations in selecting methods and classroom management strategies when she taught pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. With reference to the effectiveness of these methods in managing behaviour problems in the classroom the teacher had the following to say:

*When I present the lesson, I try to use real or concrete objects in areas where the contents are difficult. I also make the pupils come out and do it by themselves. Most of the time, this brings good results and they become successful. Sometimes, I make them dramatize. Even though the pupils have problems in managing time during drama, it makes them actively participate and minimize problem behaviours that usually occur.*

The teacher further stated that the teaching methods she used had contributed in minimizing or aggravating behavioural problems that occur in the classroom by saying that:

*When I use the chalk- and- talk method, few pupils give attention to the lesson. Therefore, I encounter greater discrepancy among my pupils. During such times, the classroom gets disturbed and I know that something is wrong. That gives me a clue that the lesson is not going well and something has to be done.*

On the question whether or not special support was provided through tutorial classes, Hawi stated that they used to arrange tutorial classes during weekends. She mentioned that they had stopped beginning from last year due to parental disapproval owing to repeated traffic accidents. The pupils were accompanied by older pupils during the weekdays.

When she looked back in her career as a teacher, Hawi noticed that the measures she took when pupils misbehave have been changed over time. As a novice teacher, her concern was more about keeping order in the classroom than the pupils’ understanding of lessons. She continued to describe how she felt when she said:

*I was irritated when my class was disturbed. So, when I was teaching, I always put a stick in front of me. I remember I spent more time cutting sticks than preparing teaching aids. But experience and maturity taught me that corporal punishments never improve the behaviour of pupils.*
On the question whether or not corporal punishment was used when behaviour problems were encountered in the school, the classroom teacher, the headmaster and the two pupils with behavioural difficulties indicated that corporal punishment was used in the school. This was also confirmed by the researcher during the observation period in the school. According to Arge, the types of corporal punishments used in the school include whipping with sticks, slapping, kneeling down, pinching, and the like. The headmaster of the school pointed out that the use of corporal punishment in the school was reduced by 95% due to greater understanding of its negative effect on the development of children. He further described that:

One of the factors responsible for the declining of corporal punishment is the legal protection given to pupils and the legal measures taken on those teachers who have committed such offences as perforating pupils’ ear drums, breaking their bones and teeth, just to mention a few.

According to findings from consultation of documents, the legal enforcement was emanated from the international Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which Ethiopia was one of the signatories, and which was included in the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE, 1994) article 36, number 1e. The article states that:

Every child has the right to be free of corporal punishment or cruel and inhumane treatments in schools and other institutions responsible for the care of children.

According to the Guideline for Educational Management, organization, Community participation, and Finance, issued by the Ministry of Education (2002),

The teacher has an obligation to avoid any form of corporal punishment from the classroom undertaken by him/her or others.

The headmaster of the school pointed out that one of the changes that had taken place in RM School in relation to corporal punishment was the pledge made by teachers before six years to bring the use of canes (sticks, electric wires, rubber made sticks, whips made of cattle skins) to an end. He elaborated the extent to which corporal punishment was used in the school before the pledge was made by saying that:

More than one hundred canes were collected from classrooms and exhibited to the parents and the community at the commemoration of the day.
4.8 Factors that affect care, communication and support relationships in the self-contained classroom

The Ethiopian education and training policy indicates that the self-contained classroom organization as a proper set-up for the first cycle. Accordingly, all Ethiopian teachers trained to teach at this level are assigned to take the responsibility of teaching in one classroom. These include those who have been trained to teach in a linear classroom approach before the New Education and Training Policy was introduced in 1994.

For Hawi, a self-contained classroom had both advantages and disadvantages, although its advantages outweigh its disadvantages in forming close relationships with pupils. With reference to this she stated that:

*The self-contained classroom arrangement creates a family atmosphere in which the pupils learn by one teacher and form a good attachment, unlike the linear classroom setup implemented in the second cycle where the teachers are changed at the end of each session.*

According to Hawi, when a teacher is assigned to one classroom as a self-contained classroom teacher, s/he feels a special sense of responsibility bestowed on him/her. Going back in time, she remembered that there had been many pupils whose behaviour was shaped quite well as they ascend from one grade to the next. She contrasted the self-contained classroom set-up with that of the linear or departmentalized classroom and commented that in the linear or departmentalized classroom set-up there was little opportunity to recognize the pupil’s problem in depth, take remedial action, and follow-up the progress. In relation to this she pointed out that:

*Teaching as a self-contained classroom teacher provides an opportunity for the teacher to know each pupil’s family background, interest, likes and dislikes, behaviour, and academic achievements. It also gives the teacher enough time to intervene in behavioural problems and to follow-up improvements over the years.*

The need to assign responsible teachers was emphasized by the headmaster of the school especially in the self-contained classrooms. According to the headmaster the pupils take the teacher as a model for four years which influences their behaviour positively or negatively. This was supported by the classroom teacher when she said:

*Pupils who get good teachers that guide and continuously follow-up get benefit from the self-contained classroom. Like in every other profession, there are*
variations in the skill, interest, and in how teachers give care and support. In a class where a negligent, careless and inefficient teacher is assigned, there is a possibility that the pupils get little academic benefits for four consecutive years.

Both the classroom teacher and the headmaster revealed that they had large class size in the school as a whole. They commented that a minimum of fifty-five pupils were assigned to a small-sized classroom and it was overcrowded. The teacher commented that she had difficulty in managing the behaviour of the pupils and in monitoring their activities because of large class size. According to the teacher, she could reach and give feed-back to few students who complete an assigned task first and ignore the others. She also commented that, in general, she had a challenge in identifying those pupils who achieved the expected outcome from among the pupils.

The classroom teacher considered the self-contained classroom arrangement tiresome in the sense that once the session was commenced the teacher was totally indulged in various activities until the class ends. She witnessed how much stressful it was by describing her daily activities and its long-run effects by saying that:

*I found teaching in a self-contained classroom very exhaustive. I have to plan, teach and give continuous assessments in all the subjects. Besides teaching these subjects, I am expected to keep records of achievements and behaviour of all the fifty five pupils in separate booklets prepared for this purpose. This booklet is sent to the families and guardians of the students to be signed at the end of every month. Once the lesson is started, I can not take rest even if I get some minutes between tasks because there is no chair for the teacher. Look what I have developed out of it (She raised up her dress to show the varicose veins on her leg).*

Hawi expressed another problem she encountered due to lack of sufficient classroom furniture. In this case she said:

*Three students are seated on each desk. It is not comfortable and they do not have adequate space for opening their books and doing exercises. They push each other and could not be able to do an assigned task as they require.*

According to the informant teacher, sometimes the classroom organization dictates her not to do what she deeply believes the right thing to do; or to carry out what she feels improper. What Hawi experienced exemplifies this situation when she articulated:

*I know that the curriculum encourages active learning and that most activities in the textbooks have to be done in pairs and groups. But the desks are heavy and arranged in rows which makes them inconvenient for group formation. In addition*
to this, it doesn’t allow me to reach and support individual pupils. She says, look! (By pointing to windows and doors) the windows and doors are shattered. Some classes have no ventilation, and others are sealed. Some classes are open from every side; they are exposed to rain and wind seasonally.

During observation in the school, the researcher had found that the classrooms were used for pupils at different levels in three shifts and the doors had no locks. According to the classroom teacher, it had been difficult to place learning materials in the room safely. If she prepared a teaching aid it was used only for a day. The next day she found it destroyed.

According to Hawi, the level of content in many subjects was too complex for most pupils in grade four and inconsiderate of their age level. In addition, she was expected to complete the bulky textbooks on the basis of which her performance evaluation was made in terms of contents covered as indicated in the long range plan. This had forced her to give more emphasis to content coverage than pupils’ understanding. The informant teacher also pointed out that although she have got orientation that in contents should be organized thematically- with no borders between subjects for flexible delivery- she believed that what she had actually practicing in the classroom was not in harmony with the orientation she has got.

4.9 Pupil–pupil relationships
The informant teacher described that all pupils in the classroom had relationship with Arge because of frequent interactions among them. According to the teacher, the other girls were not unfriendly to her but they often tend to exclude her from their activities. Hawi further indicated that Arge was lonely even if she seemed to have friends when she said:

All the pupils in the classroom have relationship with Arge. The question is whether this relationship develops into friendship. Actually I don’t expect friendship that lasts for years among small children. However, children in Arge’s age keep their friendship for years. But Arge never keeps her friendship for more than a week or two. She goes with this and that but her loneliness is clearly noticeable.

The informant teacher explained how she intervened when she found Arge standing alone or not participating in play activities by saying that:

Sometimes when we accompany pupils in their play out of the classroom, she stands alone holding her bag. Recognizing that she is not ready to participate in the play, I
encourage her to play by receiving her bag. But sometimes, I also allow her to sit beside me and do other unaccomplished tasks.

The informant teacher had the opinion that social relationships among children develop in schools if the pupils have basic elements in socialization that make them positively interact with others. The teacher’s description of Arge indicated her deficits in basic skills for socialization when she said:

Children show compassion for each other by sharing what they have; such as oranges, candies, biscuits and the like. When it comes to Arge, she keeps what she has for herself. Even when she brings a bottle of water, she never shares it with her friends. She prefers to use it for washing her hands and face instead of giving to somebody in need, even if it is a leftover. Nevertheless she is very active in manoeuvring other pupils to take from them what she wants.

According to Hawi, the relationship between Nati and his classmates was positive in general because the other pupils tolerated him. She elaborated this by saying:

In general, the perception they have about him is not bad. They know that he is hyperactive and that he rushes to do something. They may be surprised in what he is doing; but they are not serious about it because they see him behave in a similar way towards me. In general, the relationship he has with pupils is not bad. I think that they have understood him. There are times when he involves in fighting with his friends. But you may find him playing after fights as if nothing was wrong. He is not a child of revenge.

4.10 Collaboration with parents as partners.

The community in the immediate vicinity was expected to take part in the administration of government schools in Ethiopia. Every school had a governing committee elected from the community which was called Parent-Teachers Association (PTA). The PTAs were given a huge responsibility of inculcating pupils with proper code of conduct, assuring that teachers discharge their duties and responsibilities, advising teachers and headmasters who fail to discharge their responsibilities or referring their cases to the Kebele Education Board, giving awards and promotions for good practices, advising or suspending pupils, and assuring that pupils do not dropout of schools (MOE, 2002). According to the headmaster of the school, the PTA members had time constraints to discharge their responsibilities or referring their cases to the Kebele Education Board, giving awards and promotions for good practices, advising or suspending pupils, and assuring that pupils do not dropout of schools (MOE, 2002). According to the headmaster of the school, the PTA members had time constraints to discharge their

9 Kebele is the lowest administrative level below district.
Responsibilities because some were civil servants and others had their private job to do. He expressed his concern by saying that:

*The PTA in my school was formed before 2 years....The job had no incentive....the members couldn’t attend formal meetings let alone to do other major activities.*

According to the headmaster of the school, the need to form the PTA was to liaison the school and the community by serving as a bridge between the two. They were expected to create a sense of school ownership in the community by taking part in leadership, renovation, expansion and supplying human and material resources in partnership with the government. The headmaster pointed out that the PTA members were mostly occupied by controlling the teachers rather than discharging these responsibilities when he commented:

*I doubt whether the PTA members are well acquainted to their duties and responsibilities. They are obsessed by controlling the teachers. I have never seen when they have been organizing a meeting with parents to discuss issues related to the learning and behaviour of their children.*

The headmaster of the school considered that the government has contributed to the problem by transferring some responsibilities to the community without adequate preparations when he commented that:

*The structure is already there and it is not practical. The government has placed only a symbolic structure and I tell you that power was devolved without capacitating the community and without devising proper follow-up mechanisms.*

According to the headmaster of the school, what they call community participation was limited to the bi-annual meeting they had when school commences and when pupils receive their report cards. He pointed out that some strong teachers contacted the parents and discussed on issues related to the pupil’s problems and assistance expected from their side. But he commented that it was not uniformly done by all teachers.

The headmaster pointed out that most parents were reluctant to come to the school when they were needed for the purpose of discussing the behaviour, learning achievements, and home-related problems of the pupils. According to him, some of these parents were not aware of the advantages of their collaboration with the school and some had shortage of time to come to the school. Still some of them considered all school activities as the sole responsibility of the teacher and their involvement as
indulgence in others’ duties. Such an assumption also came from the belief that the teacher knows all that is suitable for the pupils.

According to data obtained from the teacher, of those parents who were willing to come to school, some denied that their child misbehaved. Consequently, they argued with the teacher by claiming that their child was decent and well-mannered. The classroom teacher mentioned that although not frequent, few pupils, particularly those with behavioural problems, had contributed in weakening parent-school relationship. For example, some of the pupils came with a by-passed by requesting to accompany him/her as a family or guardian. The pupils used such mechanisms to conceal the problem they have in school from their parents.

4.11 Teacher pre-service and in-service training

On the question whether or not the knowledge and skills she acquired from the teacher training institution helped her to support pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, Hawi pointed out that the training she took was on subject methodology and general classroom management strategies. She attended a course in psychology which was aimed at discussing the development of children in general. The teacher indicated that when she was trained, topics related to pupils with special educational needs were not included in the curriculum. The teacher further explained that she did not get on job trainings in relation to these pupils. The informant teacher implied the importance of such training when she said:

In my experience as a teacher for 37 years, I had at least two to three pupils with behaviour problems in every class I taught. I remember also that I had mentally retarded and mentally ill children. The parents brought them as if we were psychiatrists.

In elaborating the challenges she had experienced in teaching pupils with special educational needs the teacher said:

I did not know what to do with the mentally retarded pupils. I just mixed them with others and they stayed for some years. Then, when parents found that there was no change they simply dropped them out. As to those with behavioural problems, I try to support them based on what I gained from experience, from what I saw my teachers did and from what I see other teachers do.

The headmaster of the school asserted that attempts have been made to up-date teachers through in-service training, refreshment courses, workshops, and by forming teachers’ study group. According to the headmaster, the teachers in every school were
expected to study modules prepared by the Regional Education Bureau in collaboration with BESO (Basic Education System Overhaul) project as part of their professional development. In elaborating the training given to the teachers, the headmaster had the following to say:

*All the teachers in the region have got a three month full time refreshment course arranged by the Regional Education Bureau in collaboration with Harar Teachers Training Institute. The aim was to up-date teachers in subject knowledge and teaching methodology with the shift of the education system from departmentalized to self-contained classroom organization. Firstly, it was intended to introduce teachers to child-centered, active learning methodologies. And, secondly, the aim was to introduce them to the objectives and strategies of the New Education and Training Policy.*

According to documents obtained from Harar College of Teacher Education, special needs education as a course was included in the training of teachers at the certificate and diploma levels in recent years. The documents revealed that the courses were given over the period of two semesters, for two periods in a week for those trained to teach in the first cycle. Topics included in the training manual include international and national declarations, laws and legislations that facilitate the education of children with special educational needs in Ethiopia, what is special needs education and why?, physical and sensory impairments, children with emotional and behavioural difficulties, children with mental retardation, and children with severe health problems. The courses were offered by teacher trainers trained in education other than special needs education at bachelor’s level and by one teacher trained at Sebeta School for the Blind for one year in special needs education at certificate level.

**4.12 Support from others**

As to whether she has got support from her colleagues and other professionals on how to manage pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, Hawi said that she had never been consulted any professional; but made informal discussions with her colleague teachers. The headmaster of the school described that many parents brought children with disabilities to the school. He elaborated the extent to which the school responded to this demand and the need for professional support from special needs educators by saying:
Parents bring children with all kinds of disabilities to our school. But we do not receive them since we don't have trained teachers in special education. We tell parents to send a blind child to Sebeta or Addis Ababa; we also send the deaf to the deaf school in the town. But what we can do with the mentally retarded? We allow the moderate ones to try and they stay as much as they manage. Then they are abandoned because the school regulation does not allow repeating more than twice at one grade level.

The headmaster of the school disclosed that the only professional support given to teachers on how to manage pupils with behavioural problems was the workshop arranged for teachers before five years by a counsellor from Harar Secondary School. The headmaster elaborated that the pledge made by the teachers to stop the use of corporal punishment in the school was a direct consequence of the workshop.
Chapter Five: Discussion of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

This study was carried out in the classroom at one government primary school in the Harari Region in Ethiopia. The purpose of the study was to explore how the classroom responds to the unique needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by focusing on the care, communication and support relationships between these pupils and significant others mainly the teacher, and also parents and peers. This chapter discusses the main findings presented in chapter four in light of the theoretical perspectives presented in chapter two. Then, conclusions are drawn and recommendations forwarded.

5.1 Background information of the pupils and their families

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), the family is the first microsystem which influences the child’s development. What the family is, what the family does, and how the family interacts with the child all provide an understanding of the child’s development. The results of this study indicated that Arge was a child of a poor, unwed teenage mother, who lost her father during early years, and had no brothers and sisters. She lived in different homes transferring from one care-taker to the other. The other informant, Nati, was from a large family with eight children, which depended on low income from a single parent. The family was headed by the mother, who was a house wife with no formal education. The father was absent most of the time due to the distant work place.

These pupils spent their early years in poor families where fathers were absent. Broken homes, father absence, parental separation, divorce, chaotic or hostile family relationships, and low socioeconomic level appear to increase children’s vulnerability to emotional and behavioural disorders (Hetherington & Martin, 1979; Martin 1975; Rutter, 1979). When several factors that increase vulnerability occur together- for example, poverty, parental hostility, and illness- their effects are not merely additive but multiplicative. That is, when two such factors occur together, the probability that a child will develop a behaviour disorder becomes more than double. When a third factor is added, the chance of disorder is several times higher (Kauffman, 1985).
Studies indicate that such risk factors as poverty affect the child through a poor relationship between caregiver and the child (Rye, 2001). If undesirable patterns of interaction continue throughout the school years, it will become more and more difficult to change them (Rye, 2001). The implication from these findings is that the school plays a key role in providing primary and secondary interventions in the situation where the children came from home environments with high risk factors.

In a study of thousands of pupils in more than 500 communities, Benson (1997) identified internal strengths (e.g., achievement motivation) and external supports (e.g., a mentor) that help protect children in a high risk community. He found that as the number of assets increased, risk indicators (e.g., alcohol abuse, antisocial behaviour, school failure) decreased. Family, school, and community are pivotal in fostering positive development in a child (Bronfenbrenner, 1986 in Villa & Thousand, 2000). Benard (1992 in Villa and Thousand, 2000) suggested resilient youth have social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose and of the future. The community, she argued, can protect its children by providing care and support through high expectations of its youth, and by engaging them in socially and economically useful tasks. Her work suggested that the family needs to express affection, provide order, and set clear expectations. She further extended her suggestions by claiming that giving children a sense of their future is yet another protective gift families can provide. Benard (1992) affirmed the important role that schools play. When schools foster relationships with teachers and peers, cooperate with the family, ensure success for all, and eliminate negative labels, a child’s resiliency is strengthened.

**5.2 Emotional and behavioral difficulties as perceived by the school**

Behaviour disorder is not a thing that exists outside a social context but a label assigned according to cultural rules (Burbach, 1981). A given behaviour may be considered a disorder in one situation or context and not in another simply because of differences in the expectancies of the people around the child. Behavioural disorder is whatever behaviour the chosen authority figures in a culture designate as intolerable (Kauffman, 1985). Teachers and headmasters are authority figures in schools.
Emotional and behavioural difficulties exhibited by pupils in RM school according to the teacher and the headmaster include: aggressiveness, hyperactivity, instability, wandering, inattentiveness, disobedience, disruptiveness, theft, gambling, sexual harassment, drug use, restlessness, shyness, loneliness and withdrawal.

The results from interviews with the classroom teacher and the headmaster indicated that the causes of emotional and behavioural difficulties were various external factors including poverty, heavy duties and responsibilities, family discord, lack of freedom at home, and unrestricted exposure to films. However, the contribution of factors within the school and within the child, were neglected by the informants. Teaching and learning are interactive processes in which teacher and learner frequently and often subtly exchange roles. When a child has difficulties with teachers, parents, or peers, it is important to consider their responses to the behaviour as it is to evaluate the child’s reactions.

Galloway and Goodwin (1985) make the point that schools exert a considerable influence on children and that whether a pupil is considered disruptive or maladjusted depends, to some extent, on factors within the school as well as factors within the family or the child. They found that some of the best schools in their study regarded disturbing behaviour as demonstrating a need to change approaches to learning for the child in question rather than simply attributing it to external causes. Dropout and alternative education researchers (Newmann, 1992; Wehlage, Rutter, Smith, Lesko, & Fernandez, 1989 in Villa & Thousand, 2000) have moved from searching for fixed negative characteristics of pupils (e.g., poverty, grade retention, family background, truancy, substance abuse) toward a search for school practices that encourage pupils to persist in their schooling. Damico and Roth (1994 in Villa & Thousand, 2000) synthesized much of these researches and concluded that resilient or persistent pupils had caring teachers who liked them and liked teaching, structured successful learning experiences, conveyed a message that pupils could learn, used varied instruction strategies, involved pupils, and helped their pupils become test-smart.
5.3 Identification of pupils with EBD

The study ascertained that there was no established system or responsible professional assigned to the school to identify pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. Therefore, the identification and intervention of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in the school was undertaken by classroom teachers, administrators and Parent-Teacher-Association members. According to Tirusew (2001, 2006), children with learning difficulties or disabilities are likely to repeat and dropout due to the lack of identification, assessment and support. Annual statistics for 2004/5 (MOE, 2005) indicates that the repetition rate is 3.7% at the first grade, and highest in the seventh grade; the dropout rate is very high, 22.4% at the first grade, and high again at the seventh grade. Although not all students with behavioural problems exhibit academic deficits, a strong relationship between behavioural problems and low academic achievement has been documented (Bowen, Jensen & Clark, 2004). A number of researchers (Kauffman, 1981; Rubin & Balow, 1978) have reported that emotionally disturbed pupils are behind their non-disturbed peers in reading and arithmetic. Further, academic retardation increases with age or grade level. This implies that dissatisfaction in the school activities coupled with academic problems make pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties to have the largest share of the dropping-out and repeating pupils in primary schools.

The Guideline for Educational Management, Organization, Community Participation and Finance (the blue book) released from the Ministry of Education (MOE, 2002) indicates that one of the duties and responsibilities of the parent-teacher association (PTA) is to advise, reprimand and suspend pupils who misbehave in the school. However, the guideline lacks clarity in providing the type and extent of behaviour that is considered “misbehaviour”; and where, when, and how the advice should be given by PTAs to those pupils who have exhibited the “misbehaviour”. Therefore, the identification of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties was open to subjective judgments of responsible authorities; and the issue of giving advice to pupils was difficult to put into practice where human and material resources were not allocated. Data obtained from the school indicates that the PTA had never been giving advices to pupils. And the school was not in a position to identify pupils with
emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) for the aforementioned purposes due to lack of definition of the problem.

According to Kauffman (1985), a definition can be useful for one or more of several purposes: (a) to guide the delivery of services to children through administrative channels, (b) to reflect a particular theoretical position or structure a discussion, or (c) to describe populations of children for research purposes. A definition specifies the population to be served and, thereby, has a profound effect on who receives intervention as well as how they will be served. It follows that if a definition specifies the population, then it will provide the basis for estimates of prevalence. Evidences from interviews with the headmaster showed that the school did not have data that indicate the prevalence of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. As a result, there was no way of making comparison between grade levels and the status of the problem over the years.

According to Kauffman (1985), estimates of the prevalence of emotional and behavioural disorders varied from about 0.5% of the school population to 20% or more. Bower (1981), using his own definition and data from ratings by teachers, peers, and children themselves, estimated that about 10% of school age children are emotionally disabled. Large scale international studies have indicated that socioeconomic disadvantage is associated with a greater risk of emotional and behavioural difficulties along with less opportunity for obtaining treatment (Nathan & Harris, 1980; Lambert, 1978 in Cullinan, Epstein, & Lloyd, 1983). This implies that the prevalence is high in countries like Ethiopia where the socioeconomic status is one of the lowest in the world (UNCRC, 1995); and the majority of the people are living below poverty line (Mikre, 2000).

Taking Bower’s estimate of 10% as a measure, the number of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in RM School can be estimated to be 200 (out of 2000 student population). Such types of estimates indicate the possible magnitude of the problem and the need for proper intervention measures. Decisions of legislative bodies, government executives, and school administrators concerning allocation of funds and training and employment of personnel tend to be guided by the implications of working definitions (Kauffman, 1985). Absence of such definitions
and thereby lack of data on prevalence may be said to conceal the level of seriousness of the problem in the case school.

According to the findings from this study, the classroom teacher was able to identify pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties although she had no training on how to identify these pupils. This is in line with Bowen, Jensen and Clark (2004) who argued that it is not necessary for educators to have extensive training in psychology or psychiatry to identify and experience the impact of a student with a behaviour disorder in their classrooms. Bowen, Jensen and Clark (2004), claims that educators are often the first to recognize and seek assistance for children with significant behavioural problems because these students usually stand out in class after the first few days of school. Similarly, Hallahan and Kauffman (1991) noted that recognizing learners with emotional and behavioural difficulties is sometimes easy and sometimes complex. I believe that classroom teachers can identify pupils who exhibit emotional and behavioural difficulties severely and repeatedly. They may have difficulties identifying when the problem coexists with other disabilities or in mild situations where many of the disabilities have many symptoms in common.

Kauffman (1985) maintains that knowing whether prevalence estimate is 2% or 5% or 10% has great importance for those who plan special education programs for a school district or a nation; but of no importance for a classroom teacher whose responsibility is to teach a class of difficult children. I negate this argument by claiming that knowing prevalence estimate is important for teachers (especially in the Ethiopian context, where teachers are the main information providers and advocates for children) because they could direct the attention of authorities by disclosing the seriousness of the problem; and by requesting such intervention measures as the reduction of class size and the deployment of assistant teachers in classrooms where many of such pupils abide. As Hallahan and Kauffman (1976 in Kauffman, 1985) pointed out, there are more similarities than differences among educable mentally retarded, learning disabled, and mildly or moderately disturbed children. Severely retarded and severely disturbed children also share many common characteristics (Balthazaar & Stevens, 1975; Werry, 1979). Defining behavioural disorders in a way
that excludes other disabilities is completely unrealistic. A behavioural disorder should be defined specifically enough to be of value in working with children, but broadly enough to admit its coexistence with other difficulties.

5.4 Care, communication, and support relationships

Bronfenbrenner (in Savicki & Brown, 1985) describes the ideal relationship between child and caring adult:

*The child should spend a substantial amount of time with somebody who’s crazy about him….I mean there has to be at least one person who has an emotional involvement with that child, someone who thinks that kid is more important than other people’s kids, someone who’s in love with him and whom he loves in return.*

As findings from interviews indicated, the teacher had experienced through daily interactions that when her approach with pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties was motherly, the pupils became sensitive to her concern and responded positively by showing interest towards the lessons, by obeying rules, and by attempting to complete assigned tasks. This is in line with Noddings (1988) idea that when the teacher addresses the affective aspect, the cognitive development follows. Noddings (1988) pointed out that the key to school success, not only for children labelled ‘at risk’ but for all children is ‘…that when schools focus on what really matters in life, the cognitive ends we now pursue so painfully and artificially will be achieved somewhat more naturally…. It is obvious that children work harder and do things- even odd things like adding fractions- for people they love and trust’.

The responses from interviews with one of the pupils affirmed that she had preferences to schools and subjects depending on whether the teacher loved and listened to her problems or not. That means, she identified who loved her and responded differently according to the perception she had for the teacher. Regarding this, Whelan (1998) pointed out that children with emotional and behavioural difficulties are extremely perceptive, a skill they learned from their devastating experiences with supposedly helpful adults. They can “smell out” incompetence, absence of caring, and the true motivations of their professional helpers.

Psychologists are well aware that love is essential to human development. On his hierarchy of human needs, Maslow (1968) listed love and belonging as the third rung,
just above basic sustenance and physical safety. Only after one’s need for love is met, according to Maslow, that one is able to give attention to the higher levels: self-esteem, self-actualization (including motivation to learn), and transcendence. According to Gnezda (2005) love means giving; and what teachers can give is acknowledgement, acceptance, concern, knowledge, wisdom, and inspiration. He elaborated that teachers should begin this by paying real attention to what young people have to say, and by listening, truly listening. Real listening means, having the courage to face with our students the painful experiences of their lives.

The study showed that caring relationships between the teacher and her pupils extends to non-academic areas, including the provision of food, fulfilling of learning materials and uniforms for the poorest ones by forming charity club and collecting money from fellow teachers and pupils. The care and support given to these pupils helped them to pursue their schooling to a certain extent; but the support was fragmented and did not reach all the pupils in greatest demand. According to Maslow (1970), the satisfaction of basic needs become the highest priority if the individual lacks any of them. The school ecosystem needs to attend to the psychosocial-physical needs of the pupils.

As noted from the findings of the study, in some instances the teacher’s efforts were not received by pupils as care; whereby they showed negative reactions by continuing in distracting activities, inattentiveness, and resistance to disclose their problems. According to Brendtro, Brokenleg and Bockern (1998), some young people are very difficult to love. They push us away and/or do exactly what we want them not to do. However, these are the kids who need love the most. Teachers must 'reach beyond the resistance,' as educator Kohl (1994) claims, and connect with a pupil’s soul. Truly and carefully listening to the pupil’s story is a powerful signal that a teacher believes and accepts the pupil and cares about him or her.

In this study, it was noticed that pupils share/communicate their problems when they felt the teacher liked them, listened to their problems, share their emotions, and took actions to solve their problems. It was also observed that caring relationships encouraged communication and facilitated support. Communication of the teacher
with one of the case pupils out of the classroom sessions enabled her to understand the pupil’s background and life circumstances in depth and influenced her approach and ways of doing things with the pupil. According to Williams (2003) caring teachers are compassionate, interested in, actively listen to, and get to know the gifts and talents of individual students. Caring (acting as carer) requires knowledge and skill as well as characteristic attitudes. We respond most effectively as carers when we understand what the other needs and the history of this need (Noddings, 1992). Whelan (1998) suggested that whenever possible teachers should encourage children to talk about their feelings, a more appropriate mode than destructive acting out of feelings and impulses. Talking leads to insight and often to changes in behaviours.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) pointed out that adults at home and in the neighbourhood are role models for children. Especially families play a key role by modelling their children in communication. However, according to the finding from interviews with the informant teacher, some families of the pupils have a culture of preventing children from taking part in adult’s communication. Children from such families lacked the necessary communication skills which hindered them to communicate with their teacher and peers and to clarify their ideas and express their feelings. Given the fact that the care and support provision becomes easier when adequate information is acquired through communication, the lack of communication skill deter the care and support given by the teacher for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. As indicated in chapter two, behaviours important to one setting may be inappropriate in another setting. Conversely, behaviours inappropriate in one setting can be important in another setting. Algozzine, Schmid, and Mercer (1981) pointed out that parents are functioning community members who have expectations for what schools and teachers are to do. Oftentimes, these are in direct conflict with what their children and/or the children’s peers and teachers feel should be done in school; the extent to which each can tolerate the expectations and behaviours of the others determines the extent to which ecological disturbance is evidenced.

Positive attachments between adults and pupils are the foundation of effective education. These individual bonds, however, must be part of a synergetic network of
relationships that permeate the school culture (Villa & Thousand, 2000). Findings from the study indicated that the teacher did not share her classroom experiences and challenges with her colleague teachers; or she did it in a fragmented way. According to McLaughlin and Talbert (1993), collegial support is not only the key to sustaining change within a school but also the critical variable leading to higher student achievement. Creating a school-wide ethos or climate of caring means teachers, too, must have caring support networks. To care for each pupil in the inclusive class also has another aspect that is important for the internal work in the class, and perhaps even more so outside the classroom and the school, and that is advocacy (Johnsen, 2001). In this specific case, in addition to forming collaborative network among themselves, teachers could advocate the issue of these pupils to local authorities and to the general community and indicate measures to be taken to address the existing problems.

Through interviews with the classroom teacher and observations of the classroom, it was found that some actions of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties affected the learning of other pupils in various ways. As a result, the pupils in the classroom were distracted and sometimes responded by arguing, talking back and fighting. This implies that caring from the teacher alone was not satisfactory and the need for care from peers. However, little attempt was made by the classroom teacher in using peers as supportive partners. While it is impossible to overemphasize the importance of teachers as caregivers, we must not overlook the role of caring peers and friends in the development of resiliency and school success (Kohn, 1991).

Maslow and Vygotsky (cited in Johnsen, 2001) have pointed out that as persons we are not only individuals, but also members of a group or collective. Care therefore must be extended to supporting the individual pupils as members of the collective entity, which is the class, as well as to developing the class as caring environment for all pupils. Just as we now think it is important for girls as well as boys to have mathematical experience, so we should want both boys and girls to have experience in caring. It does not just happen; we have to plan for it (Noddings, 1992).

Data obtained from interview with the teacher and classroom observations indicated that Nati frequently attempted to attend lessons but turned aside sometimes due to
lack of understanding or distracted by environmental stimuli outside the classroom. In this regard, Kauffman (1985) indicated that many disturbed children have difficulty coming to attention and sustaining attention; and many are very far below their normal age-mates in numerous areas of development. To expect normal performance from them would be to deny reality. If the teacher presents something too far or too familiar, s/he will lose the pupil’s attention. It is important to engage the pupil in her/his critical space of potential development also called zone of proximal development (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002).

As ascertained from interview with the teacher and observation in the classroom, the classroom management strategy used by the teacher was more of controlling and punishment than appreciation and encouragement. This was exhibited both in the case of Nati and Arge where the teacher changed their seats, kneel them down, and gave them additional home works as punishment. The teacher had the belief that the pupil would score lower grades and could not pass to the next grade level unless she controlled them by repeatedly calling their names and changing their seats. Steinberg and Knitzer (1992) maintained that silence as an indicator is not sufficient to conclude that, with EBD pupils, education is taking place. They further extended their argument by saying that a curriculum of control is not enough, a silent and orderly classroom is not enough.

Findings from observations and interview with the teacher also indicated that the teacher gave more attention to the pupils when they showed undesirable behaviour than appropriate behaviour. This was supported by Kauffman (1985) who observed that children with behaviour problems often receive a bonanza of attention for misbehaviour while receiving little or no attention for appropriate conduct. Even though the attention they receive for misbehaviour is often in the form of criticism or punishment, it is still attention and is quite likely to reinforce whatever they are doing at the time it is dispensed. Research shows that the quality of human relationships may be more influential than the specific techniques or interventions employed (Brophy, 1986 in Whelan, 1998). As Rogers (1989) (cited in Whelan, 1998) indicated, the educational system should endeavour to find and develop each
individual’s strengths, rather than ‘hammer away’ at the individuals’ academic weaknesses.

The World Declaration on Education for All underscored the need for a child-centred approach aimed at ensuring the successful schooling of all children (UNESCO, 1994). In this regard, findings from interviews with the teacher and classroom observations ascertained that the behaviour of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties improve when learner-centred methods were used. This was evidenced by Arge’s and Nati’s active participation when such methods as practical activities and drama were used in the classroom. However, when lessons were teacher-centred, the pupils got bored and behaviour problems escalated. This means that caring through selecting proper methods and strategies had positive impact on the behaviour of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. Glasser (1990) supported this idea by giving warning that any method of teaching that ignores the needs of students bound to fail. A needs-based, problem-solving approach, however, encourages real growth and positive character change in our students. The results of the study further indicated that the pupils showed less disturbing behaviour and greater participation (both with externalizing and internalizing behaviour problems) when they involved in those activities done in groups. Vygotsky (1978), in his theory of the zone of proximal development, pointed out to the possible cognitive benefits of peer group working. He places the competent peer in the child’s zone of proximal development as an equal agent as the teacher, who plays an effective role in the cognitive development through their interaction.

Convincing data exist to indicate that, as a group, disturbed children score lower than normal children on intelligence tests and are academic underachievers as compared to normal children of the same mental age. The behaviour exhibited by disturbed children is inimical to academic learning (Kauffman, 1985). Despite this fact, findings from interviews with the teacher and classroom observations revealed that there were no special programs provided for low achievers including those with behavioural difficulties. They received similar contents presented in the same methods; and go through the same form of assessment. This was observed by Gross (1996) who claimed that children with behaviour problems are not recognized by
their teachers as included in the continuum of pupils with special educational needs. Lack of consideration in this continuum deprives these pupils from acquiring special education services that suit their abilities. Unlike pupils with other types of disabilities, they are often punished when they exhibit behaviour that is indicative of their disabilities (Cooper, Smith & Upton, 1994). Curricula should be adapted to children’s needs, not vice-versa; and the school should therefore provide curricular opportunities to suit pupils with different abilities and interests (UNESCO, 1994).

The teacher revealed through responses to interviews that her approach to pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and the disciplinary measures she had taken have been changed over the years. As a novice teacher, she gave priority to the subject she taught putting the pupil in the second place which was reversed with experience and maturity. This shows that the teacher’s ability to care, communicate and support grows with the teacher’s professional development and maturity.

According to information obtained from interview with the guardian and the pupil, one of the informant pupils was expelled from her previous school because of her ‘bad’ behaviour and repeated absenteeism from school and because she formed close relationship with street children. Caring has moral, social, and personal facets, and when all facets are present and balanced, they can address problems, nurture individuals, and facilitate the process of learning. “Leave no child behind” is a statement of caring. The “one size fits all” metaphor simply does not make schools great (McCombs & Miller, 2007). Noddings (1984, 1992 cited in Johnsen, 2001) argued that there is a need for a radical change in both curriculum and teaching, to reach all children, not just the few who fit our conception of the academically able. Cowen (1978) has stated that children need to do two things in school: they must learn, and they must adjust. In fact, many children do not learn, countless others do not adjust, and too many youngsters fail to meet either demand. Often such youngsters also fail to get the help they need from our woefully inadequate service-delivery system (Apter, 1982).

The time spent engaging in antisocial and hyperactive behaviour decreases the time the child spends on school-related tasks. Lack of time “on task” interferes with the
further development of appropriate academic skills, which leads to greater rejection of the child by peers, teachers, and even parents and alienates the child from positive socializing agents (Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992). Alienation increases the likelihood that the child will affiliate with deviant peers (Patterson, 1986), launching further behavioural problems as the child moves into adolescence (Elliott, Huizinga, & Ageton, 1985) and making educational attainment difficult.

Evans and Wilson (1980) studied teachers’ views of the characteristics of the school most likely to cope well with children with behaviour disorders. The most important of these characteristics are listed out as follows:

- Warm, caring attitudes in adult-child relationships
- Improvement of self-image through success
- Individual counselling and discussion
- A varied and stimulating educational program
- Continuity of adult-child relationships
- Firm, consistent discipline.

They suggested also that what these children most need is the kind of care which is offered in a good home, where parents are supportive of their children and on their side, wanting their children to do as well and be as happy as possible.

The two pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties indicated through responses to interviews that they didn’t get orientations on proper behaviour expected in the school, rules and regulations to be followed, and consequences in case of breaking the rules. The students came to know that certain behaviour was improper after they were punished for it. In addition, they indicated that there were inconsistencies in behaviour management which allowed them to engage in misbehaviour without penalty at one time for which they were punished at another time. Punitive disciplinary strategies, unclear rules and expectations, and failure to consider individual differences contribute to increasing rates of problematic behaviours (Bowen, Jenson & Clark, 2004).

Data obtained from observations in the school, and interviews with the informant teacher and the headmaster ascertained that corporal punishment was used in the school to control inappropriate behaviour. According to findings from interview with
the teacher and the headmaster, behavioural problems exhibited by the pupils had risen after the prohibition of the use of corporal punishment in the school. This depicts that declarations and pledges from the teachers without proper behavioural change from the pupils’ side could not bring about an overall and long-lasting change. It also implies that educating pupils about their rights and responsibilities is crucial. According to Wolfendale (1992) simplistic sets of sanctions, invoking rules, threatening disciplinary measures, have been shown merely to contain but never to solve any of the school’s problems of unrest and dissident behaviour.

Benjamin Rush (cited in Kauffman, 1985: 37) appeals for more caring relationships with children when he said:

*I conceive corporal punishments, inflicted in an arbitrary manner, to be contrary to the spirit of liberty, and that they should not be tolerated in a free government. The world was created in love. It is sustained by love. Nations and families that are happy are made so only by love. Let us extend this divine principle, to those little communities which we call schools. Children are capable of loving in a high degree. They may therefore be governed by love.*

Gross (1996) and Webster-Stratton (1999 cited in Johnsen, 2001), provided a number of concrete caring actions that promote care in interaction with individual pupils as well as the whole class:

- Encouragement and participation in play activities with the pupils;
- Listening to the pupil(s);
- Sharing personal experiences with the pupil(s);
- Creating opportunities for feelings to be expressed and discussed through play and other creative activities like drawing, painting, drama and role-play, literature reading and discussions, writing logbooks, dialogue books and essays;
- Giving support to pupils who have experienced disappointments, traumatic events and losses;
- Supporting the pupils to develop positive coping and mastering strategies;
- Promoting self-confidence through self-talk and other empowerment strategies; and
- Showing the pupil(s) trust.
5.5 Factors that affect care, communication and support relationships in the self-contained classroom

Results from the study portrayed that the self-contained classroom organization created a family atmosphere that helped the teacher to know the pupil’s family background, interests, likes and dislikes, and academic achievements. This is supported by Bronfenbrenner (1979), who claimed that the more educators take the relation and interaction between family members and their surroundings into account, the more likely they are able to understand and support the students with difficulties effectively.

Sometimes, the care, communication and support relationships between the teacher and the pupils were negatively affected by external factors such as TV broadcast, videos, and films operating at Micro and Macro systems. It was found that since these audiovisual materials were unselectively watched, they had resulted in unconstructive effect on the behaviour of children. According to interviews with the teacher, the extent to which pupils were exposed to these materials differs between urban and rural settings; students in urban schools were more exposed to these media than those in rural schools. Interviews with the informant teacher also ascertained that emotional and behavioural difficulties associated to these factors were more apparent in urban than in rural schools. The media which influence the child’s knowledge and behaviour such as television, video, and books are considered by Bronfenbrenner as microsystems because there is no reciprocal interaction with the child.

Bronfenbrenner (1970 as cited by Berns, 1997: 385) indicated the influence of television on the child’s behaviour and communication development:

*The primary danger of the television screen lies not so much in the behaviour it produces- although there is danger there- as in the behaviour it prevents: the talks, the games, the family festivities and arguments through much of the child’s learning takes place and through which his character is formed. Turning on the television set can turn off the process that transforms children into people.*

Results from the study revealed that lack of facilities and educational materials contributed to low interaction among pupils and hampered care, communication and support relationships between the teacher and individual pupils. This is in line with Johnsen (2001) who argued that frame factors may set limits and give direction.
As indicated by the teacher, the classroom consisted of about 55 pupils. This was considered large class size and restricted the teacher’s interaction with pupils and the provision of continuous evaluation and support. When the interaction between the teacher and pupils is less, it is likely that participation and motivation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties especially that of withdrawn and shy, become less which in turn results in poor academic achievement. Taking care and support provision as a resource, it can be seen that it is shared and distributed among many pupils reducing per share that would have gone to those in greatest demand especially those with emotional and behavioural difficulties. Finnes and Achilles (1990) referred by Berns (1997) studied the effect of small and large classes on kindergarten students and teachers. The results showed that students in the reduced class sizes performed better in reading and mathematics standardized tests.

The school environment in RM school had limited facilities and no play materials which had influenced interaction among pupils in two ways. First, the children were forced to involve in fighting over limited resources; and second they were unable to interact sufficiently since they lacked play materials that would facilitate better interaction among them.

Although the current policy and educational strategy imply successive changes in schools and classrooms toward inclusive education, findings from the study revealed that there was slight or no change made over the years to make the school adapted to the diverse needs of pupils. Classrooms were ill-equipped and the teacher did not feel up-dated to discharge her duties and responsibilities accordingly. For instance, the informant teacher indicated that she taught the difference between acids and bases without having them. According to data obtained from the headmaster, there was no laboratory in the school and the budget allocated to the school per pupil (1 dollar/academic year) was minimal to fulfil teaching materials. It is doubtless to say that these factors negatively affect the care, communication and support relationship between the teacher and pupils including those with emotional and behavioural difficulties.

Data obtained from the headmaster and the classroom teacher revealed that pupils with disabilities, for example, those with visual impairments and mental retardation,
were discriminated because of lack of suitable school facilities adapted to their unique needs and due to inadequate skill training of teachers. The unavailability and inadequacy of facilities such as playground, latrines, play materials, school garden, led to competition over resources, and thereby aggravated behavioural problems exhibited in the school. Besides these, findings from classroom observations showed that the classroom was not organized in a child-friendly manner and not adequately furnished with teaching aids to create interest for learning. As Befring (2005) stated, the school was largely a place for sitting and listening; it is poorly suited for children’s overwhelming need to be active. In a classroom where lessons were not supported by visuals and other teaching materials, many pupils tend to lose interest and demand more care and support from the teacher.

According to information from interviews with the classroom teacher, in addition to performance evaluation of the teacher which was based on content coverage; elements of the curriculum such as content complexity beyond the understanding of the pupils at that age level, and bulky text books, which the teacher was responsible to cover within the allocated time, have forced the teacher to give priority to content coverage than addressing the individuals’ unique needs through care, communication and support relationships. Undoubtedly the time constraint affects the teacher’s creativity, preparation of teaching aid, and reflection on teaching.

5.6 Pupil-pupil relationship
According to Bronfenbrenner (1979) a peer group is another microsystem that influences the child’s development. One of the most important requirements for children to thrive in school, learn, and develop socially and emotionally, is that they feel secure and enjoy being in the classroom. Enjoying school depends, however, not only on a positive teacher-student interaction, but also largely on the quality of the student-student interaction (Rye, 2001). Peer group is the setting in which the children belong without the supervision of an adult most of the time. They gain experience in independence. Peer group provides for the child a companionship as well as learning experiences. Pupil’s attitude about learning is influenced by the peer group to which the child belongs. Hartup and Rubin (1986) indicated poor peer relations in childhood as characteristic of children “at risk” for emotional and
behavioural difficulties in adolescence and adulthood. In relation to this, findings from this study indicated that Arge had mere acquaintances with others but had no intimate friends. Her relationship was wrecked because she lacked the basics of social relationship such as sharing, openly communicating, and showing compassion for others. This may have contributed to her inability to build strong relationship with pupils she considers as her real friend. Consequently, she lacked peers with whom she could share her joys and worries and consult for support.

The notion that, withdrawn and socially isolated children lack social skills, is well established (Kauffman, 1985). It is important to distinguish between social skills deficits and performance deficits. Students with social skills deficits have not acquired the necessary skills to interact with others in an age-appropriate manner. Students with performance deficits, on the other hand, are those students, who have learned the skills and have previously demonstrated these skills, however do not perform them consistently or at appropriate times. Students with performance deficits may lack motivation or the opportunity to use the skills or may be somehow reinforced for their inappropriate behaviours (Bowen, Jenson & Clark, 2004). Bowen, Jensen, and Clark (2004) suggested various intervention strategies including direct teaching, adult and peer modelling, opportunities for students to practice the skills, and positive reinforcement programs to encourage skill performance. These interventions can be implemented in the classroom with all pupils or modified for individual or small groups; however, social skills instruction is most effective when it occurs in the natural setting (Bowen, Jenson & Clark, 2004).

Through findings obtained from observation in the classroom, it was noticed that shy and withdrawn pupils interact and communicate with other pupils when placed in pairs or small group activities than when independent individual task was assigned. Vygotsky (1978) in his theory of the zone of proximal development indicated the possible cognitive benefits for peer group working. He places the competent peer as an equal agent as the teacher, who plays an effective role in the cognition development through their interaction.

Through in and out of classroom observations it was found that conflicts among pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and others were resolved by peer
mediation. It was noticed that verbal insults as well as physical confrontations were resolved by peer mediators. Johnson and Johnson (1996) argued that conflict, if managed constructively without violence, may be desirable. Conflict resolution and peer mediation are recommended procedures for addressing in positive ways the conflict that is inevitable in schools. Conflict resolution programs typically include a curriculum designed to provide basic knowledge to students about individual differences, changing win-lose situations to win-win solutions and using negotiation to resolve conflicts effectively. A conflict resolution curriculum can focus on social skills such as empathy training, effective communication, stress and anger management, and negotiation and large-group problem-solving (Algozzine & Kay, 2002).

5.7 Collaboration with parents as partners
According to the findings from the study, parents of the pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties did not assume their share because of lack of awareness, time constraints, and considering teachers as all responsible for school-related matters. Parent-school relationship was connected to situations where the pupil exhibits academic and behaviour problems in the school. The culture of celebrating successes and positive developments of pupils with their parents was not adequately cultivated by the school and the classroom. This finding is supported by Rye (2001) who witnessed that schools did not seem to have taken into account that the contact between parents and teacher and the student’s sense of cooperation, mutual understanding, and support between home and school, can have a significant impact on the child’s well-being, learning, and development through school work. He further pointed out that a systematic effort to build up a relationship of mutual trust and cooperation as a basis for the child’s well-being, security, and learning is given little emphasis in practice. Such a lack of cooperation gives little opportunity to ward off learning and adjustment problems (Rye, 2001).

Sikora and Palpinger (1997) indicated that when the parents and the teachers have similar knowledge of the student’s academic achievement, this will benefit the student in several ways. This is likely to facilitate the development of equal partnership between the home and the school. Also the teachers accept the parents’
suggestions and the parents actively support the teachers’ work with the child. The child tends to have low academic achievement when there is little interaction between home and school. When the relation is strong, there is likely academic competence (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bloom, 1981). This was supported by Cohen (1974), who pointed out that parents can be a potent force in shaping educational policies and programs for the benefit of children with disabilities in general, as well as in helping their own child’s educational achievement. He placed the following premises that schools should know to involve parents in a cooperative venture:

- Parents of children with disabilities play a major role, actively or passively, in both the educability and the education of their children.
- The role of parents in the education of pupils with disabilities is likely to become even more critical in the future, as society moves from institutionalization to community-based, non-residential programs.
- Parents have knowledge, insight, and ideas about their children which are needed by the school.
- Parents very often are willing and eager to help their children educational development to a greater extent than they are now doing. They need and want aid from the school for this purpose.
- The school cannot afford to ignore the role and potential contribution of the family in the education of disabled children; nor can it limit itself to complaints and antagonisms about insufficient parental cooperation. Instead teachers must learn how to plan for and enlist the support of the family in the young children with disabilities.

The headmaster of the school through his responses illustrated that the Parent-Teacher Association members in the school were unable to function properly due to lack of understanding of their duties and responsibilities; and that the structure dispatched from the Ministry of Education to encourage community participation and sense of ownership in schools, was not implemented in the school as required. This implies that guidelines by themselves do not bring about change. Enabling and empowering parents and the community to exercise their right and power is an important missing element. Rye (2001) refers to empowerment as working with
families in a way that both maintains and develops their feelings of self-determination, self-confidence, and ability to act in everyday life; whereas enabling refers to laying the groundwork and creating opportunities for families to draw and build on their resources and abilities so that they are more able to meet the needs of their children. It has to be noted also that empowering a single parent means empowering a parent of an average of six to seven children in the Ethiopian family context and could have a ripple effect\(^\text{10}\) on other parents and the community as a whole. As Lassen (1999 cited in Befring, 2001) indicated, the possibility of empowering parents is available for practitioners if they perceive the capabilities of parents, children, and systems and are willing to foster the development of underutilized or unutilized resources.

### 5.8 Teacher Pre-service and in-service Training

According to Hundeide (2004) and Rye (2001 cited in Varunek, 2006), for good relationships and positive communication between the caregiver and the child it is very important to strengthen the care-giver’s self-confidence. The findings from this study indicated that the teacher felt ill-equipped in terms of knowledge and skills in managing the behaviour and teaching of pupils with different types of disabilities including those with emotional and behavioural difficulties. The teacher was depended on the knowledge and skills of teaching she acquired during her teacher training before 37 years which was not upgraded through in-service training or other capacity-building schemes. According to Johnsen and Alemayehu (2006) special needs education is a new course for all teacher education institutions in Ethiopia and that things are still at the initial phase.

Affect-hungry children become locked in defiant opposition to adults who, if untrained, can reciprocate their anger with counter-aggression (Long, Morse, & Newman, 1996). Teachers should not only expect pupils to change; they must also be willing to change themselves (Algozine, Schmid, & Mercer, 1981). Fullan (1991)

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\(^{10}\) A single action can have far-reaching effects—like ripples spreading from a stone thrown into still water. In ecosystemic terms, this refers to how changes in one part of a system can have effects in other parts; or changes in one system can have effects on others.
underlined that training of all teachers is the cornerstone for meaning, improvement and reform. In line with this, findings from interviews with the headmaster and documentary analysis indicated that refresher courses, workshops and in-service trainings were organized to equip teachers with active and child-centred methods of teaching and to introduce them to the objectives and strategies of the country’s education policy. However, it was noticed that some teachers were not able to involve in those trainings and the topics selected in module preparation for teachers’ continuous professional development were not research-based and inconsiderate of diversities in abilities of pupils and the actual classroom situations. Teachers on job and student teachers require relevant training and education in order to provide appropriate support for pupils with special needs (UNESCO, 1994; Johnsen & Alemayehu, 2006). According to the education and training policy of the country (TGE, 1994 in Johnsen & Alemayehu, 2006), this includes equipping them with:

- Basic understanding of the philosophy and ethical obligations behind the internationally declared principles of human rights, the rights of child and of the disabled, as well as the positive goals towards the development of a school for all (EFA) and inclusion-all declarations ratified by the Ethiopian government,
- Awareness of possibilities and barriers to resource-based teaching and learning that may be found in the society, culture, frame factors, the school, the individual child, and the interaction between two or more of these factors,
- Knowledge and skills in how to plan, implement, assess, and revise the teaching and learning process for the plurality of children with different individual needs in the school practicing Universal Primary Education (UPE),
- Knowledge of different strategies and skills in order to adapt the teaching to specific educational needs,
- Skills in creating a positive socio-emotional atmosphere in the school, and in resource-based and individually-adapted communication and mediation.

In teacher-training practice schools, specific attention should be given to preparing all teachers to exercise their autonomy and apply their skills in adapting curricula and instruction to meet pupils needs (UNESCO, 1994).
5.9 Support from others

The result from the study indicated that the classroom teacher didn’t get the necessary support from other professionals and colleagues in managing pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. She relied on knowledge and skills she acquired from previous training and work experience. This is supported by a special needs education strategy document from the Ministry of Education (MOE, 2006) which revealed that neither students with special educational needs who study in ordinary schools nor their teachers receive professional support.

According to the MOE (2002) Guideline for Educational Management, Organization, Community Participation and Finance, there should be a minimum of two special needs education teachers for each school. But, this was not practically implemented in the school. Given that some children begin school with a history that puts them at risk for severe behavioural problems, it is clearly evident that regular teachers alone cannot provide the support necessary to develop school climates that will alter this deviant pathway.

5.10 Conclusion

This study attempted to find out how a classroom in one of the schools in Harari Region in Ethiopia catered for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by focusing on the care, communication and support relationships between them and significant others.

Different elements of the ecosystem were examined by modifying and blending Johnsen’s Curriculum Relation Model into Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems’ Model, and by using it as a conceptual framework. The Curriculum Relation Model allowed to place the child at the centre and to look at various dimensions of the microsystem (the classroom). Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems model enabled to examine factors in the meso, exo and chronosystems that positively or negatively influence these relationships.

The study indicated that ecosystemic elements function in synergy: poverty, family discord, teacher’s knowledge and experience, government policy and strategies, school culture, and parental attitude and commitment, operate in combination in determining the situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in the
school and in the classroom. The basic principles of systems, indicated in chapter two, are also in operation in the classroom and the school.

The study ascertained that pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties were among the most challenging students to teach, whether they have internalizing or externalizing behaviours. Their behaviour affected their own and other pupil’s learning, the teacher’s personality and practice. Addressing the problem of these pupils benefits the whole classroom.

The school did not have mechanisms for identifying pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. This had curtained the severity of the problem from the sight of responsible authorities.

It has been found that caring relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties, their teachers, peers, and parents were important aspects that helped the pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties to thrive in their schooling, to develop resilience under difficult circumstances, to uplift their feeling of self-worth, to improve their academic achievement, and to facilitate positive atmosphere for learning and development. The teacher’s role was central as a caring person and as a facilitator for others to care.

It has been realized that the nature of curriculum content and the method of delivery influenced pupils’ behaviour. Inadequate material resources and large class size were found to be major drawbacks in establishing meaningful and continuous care, communication and support relationships in the classroom.

Verbal communication between the teacher and pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties found to facilitate more understanding of the pupil’s background and home environment which in turn influenced the care and support the teacher provided in the classroom. The self-contained classroom set-up gave the teacher opportunities to examine an overall situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties including their behavioural characteristics and academic achievements. It was found that pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties were sensitive to what the teacher communicates tacitly through non-verbal communication and responded to it positively or negatively.
The study showed that parent-school, pupil-pupil, and teacher-teacher relationships were underutilized resources. Parent-school relationship was found to be minimal due to lack of understanding about the significance of their involvement in their pupils’ learning. Parents have associated invitation from the school to disciplinary problems of their children because they were mostly contacted in such instances. The MOE devolved power without enabling and empowering the community, which hampered them to exercise their rights and utilize their resources. Members of the Parent-Teacher Association created managerial vacuum because they were unable to adequately discharge their responsibilities of advising pupils, teachers and the headmaster according to the guideline from the Ministry of Education.

In addition to that, intra and inter-school collaboration among teachers was not sufficiently exploited. Teachers in the school and in the cluster schools could collaborate to pose challenges they experienced in their respective classrooms, to try out best practices, to exchange experiences, to devise solutions, and to seek expertise when it was necessary. The study found that although the teacher had limited training and material resources; her use of pupil-centred methods of teaching encouraged pupils’ on-task behaviour and greater participation. Such positive practices could be supplemented by research activities and developed in the school and clusters. This seems to be the best way that schools and classrooms respond to problems in context by seeking context-based solutions.

In sum, the care, communication and support relationships between pupils with behavioural difficulties and significant others require consideration of factors in and out of the microsystem (the classroom). Intervention strategies must be based on recognition of the contribution made to a problem situation by all participating parties in the interactions surrounding the problem. Anyone whose involvement in the situation is not helping to solve the problem is part of the cause of the problem: there is no neutral position.
5.11 Recommendations

According to the findings of the study, some of the problems that hinder care, communication and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and significant people were related to the classroom and the school; while others were linked to the meso, exo, macro, and chronosystems.

Drawing on the findings, the following recommendations are forwarded:

- Pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties need to be identified and the prevalence of the problem needs to be known. The problems of these pupils should get the attention of local educational authorities and the community.

- The teacher felt ill-equipped to meet the challenge of teaching pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties because she was not prepared by her initial and in-service trainings. Hence teachers should acquire proper knowledge and skills through in-service trainings, capacity-building workshops, and research seminars to manage and teach pupils with emotional and behaviour difficulties.

- Pupil-pupil and teacher-teacher relationships were underutilized resources. Pupils with EBD should be supported by setting models and teaching them social and academic skills through peer mediation. Teachers need to discuss their challenges, look for context-based solutions, exchange experiences they gain of what works, try-out best practices, and seek out expertise in extreme cases.

- Curriculum content and level of complexity should be research-based taking into account actual classroom situations: pupils’ diversity in ability, age level, class size, inadequate teaching aids, and teachers’ workload.

- The school should not exacerbate the problems of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by taking harsh disciplinary measures. The rights of children to be free from corporal punishment or cruel and inhumane treatments should be exercised in the school and this should be ascertained by responsible bodies.

- The school should adapt itself to the unique needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties and to other pupils with and without disabilities. Towards this end, playground and materials, and other school facilities need to be checked.
Parents should be seen as important partners. Their significance and contribution should not be limited to situations where problems occur in the school and the classroom. Their experience and wisdom should be acknowledged and appropriately utilized. The government should devise mechanisms to empower and enable them to participate meaningfully in the education of their pupils.

The Parent-Teachers’ Association should be capacitated to exercise its rights and to discharge its responsibilities appropriately. The MOE and The Regional Education and Capacity Building Bureau should check the implementation of policy guidelines at the school and classroom levels.

Pupils from impoverished families and without families should be supported. Towards this end, the school should devise strategies to collaborate and work with governmental, non-governmental, and community-based organizations. Even if it is difficult to change home and community conditions, school should serve as an important island of support for the child.

Teacher training institutions and colleges should address the behavioural management and learning of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by adequately incorporating relevant contents into their curriculum. This needs to be supplemented by classroom and school-based researches.

**Implications for further research**

This study was the first of its kind in exploring and revealing the situation of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in a classroom context at a school in one of the nine regions in Ethiopia. Similar studies need to be undertaken in different regions to obtain comprehensive results that would have overall implications for development of policy and practice in educating pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties in the country.

Unlike previous assumptions, the study found that a classroom teacher could identify pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties. However, further investigations should be made to systematize and develop context-based identification methods for classroom use.

Studies need to be carried out to analyze how care, communication, and support relationships between the teacher and pupils with emotional and behavioural
difficulties contribute to the development of pupils’ resiliency. The study showed that behavioural management skills of the teacher as an important asset utilized where material resources were scarce. Hence, it could be important to investigate the relevance of curriculum contents in teacher education institutions in capitalizing on this asset to address the needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties; especially in self-contained classrooms with large class sizes. This investigation should extend to schools and classrooms to devise strategies that update knowledge and skills of teachers on job in such a way that they could exposed to modern practices and respond to the needs of pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties by utilizing existing resources efficiently. Similarly, the advantages and disadvantages of using the self-contained classroom set-up in large class sizes; while responding to individual needs of pupils require immediate research and remedial action.

The study further indicated that there is a need to carry out an in-depth study on how to involve parents effectively in the education of their children and form functional linkage between school and home.
References


List of Appendices
Appendix A: Map of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

Copyright: FOTW Ethiopia map by António Martins and boundaries

Country Profile:
Area: 1.1 million sq km (450,000 square miles)
Population: 71.3 million (World Development Indicators, 2005)
People: Oromo 40%, Amhara and Tigre 32%, Sidamo 9%, Shankella 6%, Somali 6%, Afar 4%, Gurage 2%, Other 1%
Language(s): Amharic, Tigrigna, Afan Oromo, Guaragigna, Somali, Arabic, other local dialects and English (being the major foreign language taught in schools)
Religion(s): Orthodox Christianity 35-40%, Islam 45-50%, animist 12%, other 3-8%
Source: http://www.fco.gov.uk/servlet/
Appendix B: Letter from the University of Oslo

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

This is to certify that NEGASSA, Dawit Negassa, date of birth 08.08.1968, is a full-time student pursuing a course of study at the Department of Special Needs Education at the University of Oslo, Norway, leading to the degree of Master of Philosophy in Special Needs Education (M. Phil. SNE).

This is a continuous two-year programme run on the "sandwich" principle, which involves periods of study and field work/research in both Norway and the home country. The student has concluded the initial 11-month period in Norway and will be returning to the home country in July 2006 to continue full-time studies/research until 1 January 2007 when s/he returns to Norway for the final part of the degree. The period of study will be completed at the end of May 2007.

The main responsibility for supervising the research, developmental work and thesis remains with the Department of Special Needs Education, University of Oslo, Norway. However, we would kindly request that the relevant authorities give the student the access required to the schools and educational establishments necessary in order to undertake field work and research. We would also be most grateful for any assistance that is afforded to the student which enables her/him to carry out this work, particularly the use of facilities such as access to telephone, fax, e-mail, computer services and libraries at the various educational establishments.

Yours sincerely

Associate Professor Berit Helene Johnsen (dr.scient.)
Academic Head of International Master’s Programme
Department of Special Needs Education

Institutt for spesialpedagogikk
Det utdanningsvitenskapelige fakultet
Universitetet i Oslo
Norge
Appendix C: Application Letter to the Regional Education and Capacity Building Bureau to Get Access to the School.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am writing this letter to request access to the School. I am a master of philosophy holder and have been working in the field of education for over 10 years. I have a rich experience in teaching and administration, and I believe I can contribute significantly to the development of the School.

In particular, I am interested in working with the students and staff to improve the quality of education offered at the School. I have a strong commitment to the principles of education and believe that every child deserves the opportunity to achieve their full potential.

I am excited about the possibility of working at the School and I am confident that my skills and experience will make a valuable contribution. I am available for an interview at your earliest convenience.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Date: 04/01/2020
Appendix D: Letter from the Regional Education and Capacity Building Bureau to the School

[Handwritten text in Amharic]

[Handwritten date and signature]
Appendix E: Letter of Consent for Parents/ Guardians

Dear Parent(s) or Guardian(s):

My name is Dawit Negassa: a student in Master of Philosophy in Special Needs Education at the University of Oslo in Norway.

As part of my study, I am going to undertake a research study at RM Primary School in the classroom. The purpose of the study is to indicate ways of improving the teaching-learning process through gaining greater understanding of care, communication, and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties, their teachers and peers. The research activity involves interviewing selected pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties, their teacher and peers; observing classroom sessions, and consulting relevant documents.

I hereby ask for your consent to carry out this study in the class where your child is a student.

For the purpose of confidentiality, the name of your child, the school, and all other participants will be replaced by pseudonyms and used in the research report, in accordance with ethical framework of the study. The pupil’s participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw the pupil from the study and to remove any information the pupil has contributed. If you have any concerns or questions, please do not hesitate to contact me in person or via telephone at (telephone number given).

I________________________________ (name of the parent/ guardian) consent to allow ________________________’s (name of the pupil) participation in the research project per conditions above.

_______________________
Signature

_______________________
Place and Date
Appendix F: Letter of consent for the teacher

Dear Teacher:

My name is Dawit Negassa: a student in Master of Philosophy in Special Needs Education at the University of Oslo in Norway. As part of my study, I am going to undertake a research study at RM Primary School in your classroom. The purpose of the study is to indicate ways of improving the teaching-learning process through gaining greater understanding of care, communication, and support relationships between pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties, their teacher and peers. The research activity involves interviewing selected pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties, their teacher and peers; observing classroom episodes, and consulting relevant documents.

I hereby ask for your consent to carry out this study in your classroom. For confidentiality purpose, all names will be replaced by pseudonyms and used in the research report, in accordance with ethical framework of the study. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study and to remove any information you have contributed. If you have any concerns or questions, please do not hesitate to contact me in person or via telephone at (telephone number given).

I have read and understand the above information and voluntarily agree to participate in the research project per conditions above.

_______________________
Name

_______________________
Signature

_______________________
Place and Date
Appendix G: Interview Guide for the Classroom Teacher in English

1. Could you please give me some basic information about yourself?
   Sex
   Level of education
   Service years in teaching
2. What are your main roles and responsibilities as a classroom teacher?
3. How do you describe pupil “x” (“x” refers to the name of the pupil) Home background
   Behavior
   Academic achievement
   Social relationship
4. Please tell me about your relationship with pupil “x”.
   In the classroom
   Out of the classroom
5. What are the factors that facilitate/hamper your relationship with the pupil?
6. Can you tell me any knowledge or information you have got (from policy documents, trainings etc.) that encourages teachers to address the needs of such pupils in a unique way?
7. Are there any special considerations that you make in your teaching, with reference to pupil “x”?
   In planning
   In selection of content, teaching methods and strategies
   In classroom arrangement
   In assessment
8. What kind of support do you give to the pupil?
   In problem-solving situations
   In interacting with others
   In developing skills
   In learning at various levels
9. What do you do when the pupil misbehaves?
10. How do you facilitate interaction and communication between pupils with EBD and their peers?
11. What is your opinion about the disciplining of pupils in the school?
12. How is your relationship with parents?
13. Could you tell me about knowledge and skills you have acquired from your teacher training in dealing with the behavior and learning of pupils like “x”?
14. How do you describe the curriculum in relation to the education of pupils with EBD?
15. Are there any cultural/religious factors that influence your relationship with the pupil?
16. Could you describe any out-of-school factors that positively or negatively influence your relationship with the pupil?
17. What kind of support do you get from others? (Colleagues and professionals)
18. What are your challenges and successes in teaching pupils with EBD?
19. What are some of the promising practices that you think would have positive impact on the teaching and learning of pupils with special educational needs in general and those with EBD in particular?
20. What are your suggestions for improving the learning of pupils like “x”?
Appendix H: Interview Guide for the Classroom Teacher Translated into Amharic

1. እኔ ከፋ ከጎን ከጎን በማካAxisAlignment የሚለትን የሚለትን ከጎን ይጋጋ ይጋጋ
   • ይጋጋ
   • ይጋጋ
   • ከሚለትን ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis

2. በክፋል ለማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis
3. በመስክር ለማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis
   • ያለትን
   • ያለትን
   • ያለትን
   • ያለትን

4. ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis
   • በክፋል ያለት
   • በክፋል ያለት

5- ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis


7- ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ከማካ.Axis

8- ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ከማካ.Axis

9- ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ከማካ.Axis

10- ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ያለትን ከማካ.Axis ያለትን ከማካ.Axis

12. የና ላይ ከል ከላው የትም። ለታለቀ ከ/ብ/ቁ ላይ የትም። ወይ ለመጠቀም። የሚታለቀ ከል ያሆኑን ያለውን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

13. ከተማ ᑕ ከር የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ ያለውን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

14. ከተማ በማ መ የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

15. የጎን ከው የትም። የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

16. የጎን በማ መ የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

17. የጎን በማ መ የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

18. የጎን በማ መ የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

19. የጎን በማ መ የታህ ያሆኑን ከ/ብ/ቁ እንል ያስገኝ

አመማት
Appendix I: Interview Guide for Pupils with EBD

1. Could you please give me some basic information about yourself?
   - Sex
   - Age
   - Grade level
   - Kebele
   - No. of brothers and sisters
2. Please tell me about your family and home situation.
   - Parents’ occupation
   - Your relationship with your family members
3. How is it to be in this school/classroom?
4. How do you describe your relationship with the teacher?
   - In and out of the classroom
5. What kind of support do you get from the teacher?
6. Which classroom situations do you like/dislike? Why?
7. How do you feel about your academic achievement?
8. Whom do you ask for support when you have difficulties in solving problems?
9. Tell me about your relationship with your peers?
   - In and out of the classroom
10. Whom do you like/dislike to work/play with and why?
11. What kind of support do you get from your peers?
12. What kind of support do you get from your parents?
13. What does the relationship between your parents and your teacher look like?
14. How do you explain the assessment methods used in your classroom?
15. Please tell me about disciplinary practices in the school.
16. What do you like/dislike about your school/classroom?
17. What suggestions do you give to improve the existing classroom and school situations?
Appendix J: Interview Guide for the Headmaster

1. Would you please introduce yourself and your duties and responsibilities?

2. How do you describe the establishment and overall activities of the school?

3. What are the major types of emotional and behavioral difficulties in the school?

4. Could you explain about pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties in the school in terms of age, sex, grade level?

5. What are the causes for the emotional and behavioral difficulties exhibited by the pupils in the school?

6. What kind of support does the school give to pupils with EBD?

7. What are the measures taken on pupils with disciplinary and behavior problems?

8. How do you describe your relationship with the parents of pupils with EBD and the community in general?

9. What are the strategies used by the school to identify pupils with EBD and to make comparisons between years and across grade levels?

10. Would you please give suggestions on how to improve the behavior and learning of pupils with EBD?
Appendix K: Interview Guide for the Headmaster : Amharic Version

አር/መም+'

1. ያት/ነት እመልከተት ያስታ እትና ያት ዋመበል ያት ዋመበል?
2. ያት/ነት ያስታ ያመልከተት ያስታ ያለው ያከለ እትና ያት ዋመበል ያት ዋመበል?
3. ያት/ነት መትተ ያስታ ያከለ ያስታ ያለው ያከለ ያል ዋመበል ያል ዋመበል?
4. ያት/ነት ያስታ ያከለ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስAlbert

3. ያት/ነት ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልክ ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስልкл ያስAlbert

4. ያት/ነት ያስAlbert

5. ያት/ነት ያAlbert

6. ያAlbert

7. ያAlbert

8. ያAlbert

9. ያAlbert

10. ያAlbert

Appendix L: Interview Guide for Parents

• I want to know your relationship with pupil “X”

• Would you please tell me about the home situation (parents, brothers and sisters, living condition, and family relationships)

• How do you describe the behavior of the pupil?

• How do you describe the schooling of the pupil?

• How do you describe your relationship with the school and the teacher?

• What do you like/ dislike about the school?

• What are your comments to the school and the teacher to improve the learning and development of the pupil?
Appendix M: Observation Guide

1. Frame factors
   - Facilities (staffroom, playground, library, toilet, etc)
   - Furniture
   - Teaching materials and teaching aids
   - Ventilation, lighting, and sound

2. Behavior in the classroom
   - Participation
   - Task completion
   - Interaction and communication with peers
   - Interaction and communication with the teacher
   - Off-task behavior

3. Behavior out of the classroom
   - Outdoor activities and interests
   - Interaction and communication with pupils
   - Interaction and communication with the teacher
# Appendix N: Observation Record Sheet of Sample Events

Date:  

Child’s name:  

Gender:  

Setting:  

Type of activity/even:  

Starting time:  

Number of pupils involved (if it is a group activity):  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time &amp; length</th>
<th>Records of events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>