Evaluating health visitor assessments of mother–infant interactions: A mixed methods study

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A B S T R A C T

Background: Given the significance of reliably detecting cases where mother–infant relationships are not developing successfully, it is important that initial assessment processes are as sensitive and specific as possible.

Objectives: This study sought to examine the processes by which health visitors identify problems in mother–infant relationships in the post-natal period.

Design: Mixed methods.

Settings: Two universities and two primary care trusts.

Participant: In Phase One 17 first-time mothers and their 6- to 16-week-old infants were recruited. In Phase Two, a sample of 12 health visitors participated.

Methods: The study incorporated two data collection phases. In Phase One, each mother’s interaction with her baby was video-recorded for 20 min in an observation laboratory. The video-recordings were coded and resultant data were analysed to derive a number of quantitative measures of interaction quality, including mothers’ responsiveness and sensitivity to their infants as rated by the Global Ratings Scales (GRS) of Mother–Infant Interaction. In Phase Two, 12 health visitors rated and assessed 9 clips of the video-recorded mother–infant interactions. The rationales for their ratings were then explored through in-depth interviews. Health visitor ratings of the video clips were compared to the GRS ratings. The relationship between the main focus of each health visitor rating, as reported in the interview, and the consistency of ratings with the GRS ratings were then investigated.

Results: Correlations between individual health visitors’ ratings and the GRS ratings ranged from .17 to .83 and were statistically significant in only four cases. There was a weak relationship with health visitors’ years of experience ($r_{s} = .47$, NS). When explaining their judgements, health visitors tended to comment on the mother’s behaviours or the relationship between the mother and baby and often ignored the behaviour of the baby. There was a highly significant relationship between the consistency of health visitor/GRS ratings and the number of references to the baby in the health visitors’ explanations ($r_{s} = .75$, $p = .005$).

Conclusion: This study contributes to the understanding of how health visitors make assessments of mother–infant interactions. The frequent lack of attention and reference to the baby’s behaviour suggests an area for further training.

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What is already known about the topic?

- Accurate assessment of mother–infant interaction is a core health visiting skill.
- Health visitor assessments are important in identifying mothers who encounter difficulties in developing a positive relationship with their babies.
- Health visitors lack formal training in the assessment of parent–infant relationships.

What this paper adds

- This paper addresses a gap in the literature by examining the processes by which health visitors assess mother–infant interactions.
- Evidence of considerable variability in the judgements made by health visitors about a series of mother–infant interaction video recordings.
- Health visitors’ frequent lack of detailed attention and reference to infant behaviour suggests an area for further training.

1. Introduction

The establishment and maintenance of a healthy, warm and reciprocal relationship between a mother and her newborn infant is a crucial component in early child development (Bowlby, 1969; Gerhardt, 2004). For a majority of mothers, this is an expected outcome of the first weeks following the birth and, to a greater or lesser degree, most mothers achieve a satisfactory emotional bond with their infants that provides a sound basis for the future development of their relationships. However, a substantial number of mothers do encounter difficulties in establishing this basic emotional connection with their infant during the post-partum period and beyond, for a variety of different reasons. For example, for some it may be experiences in their own childhood which make it difficult for them to relate to their infant; for others it may be that the infant’s temperament poses a challenge that they find hard to meet (Sutter-Dallay et al., 2003), while others may experience postpartum depression (Murray and Cooper, 1996; Morrell and Murray, 2003; Murray et al., 2003). Such difficulties are commonly exacerbated by limited support being available from a partner or wider social network, or other disadvantaged factors.

A large body of research has now established that appropriate early interventions to improve mother–infant relationships can be effective (Berlin et al., 2005; Svanberg, 2009; Robinson, 2010). This is true not only for the short term, in supporting mothers in overcoming the difficulties that they face in bonding with their infants, but also in avoiding the major longer term social and economic costs of children’s attachment disorders. A secure attachment between mother and infant is now recognised as a key component in protecting against the effects of other risk factors and leading to positive mental health and good social relationships into adulthood (Oates, 2007).

There is also a growing body of evidence that links the failure to address the needs of children with negative outcomes in terms of their later social and emotional development and their ability to form positive social relationships (McDonald, 2001). Evidence from neurobiological studies is increasingly showing that brain development is associated with the quality of the emotional support and social environment in which an infant is nurtured (Schonkoff and Phillips, 2000; Hosking and Walsh, 2005; Moulson et al., 2009a,b; Nelson et al., 2009). In particular, studies have provided evidence of the deleterious effects on brain function of maltreatment and increases in stress hormones in childhood (Glaser, 2000; Teicher, 2002; Bremner et al., 2003; Hosking and Walsh, 2005). In a report for the World Health Organisation, Irwin et al. (2007: 7) have stressed the importance of “the nurturant qualities of the environments where children grow up, live and learn” for early child development.

In the United Kingdom (UK), the Healthy Child Programme (HCP), led by health visitors, is the core health service for promoting, protecting and improving the health and wellbeing of infants and children (DH, 2009). Health visitors (UK public health nurses) provide a crucial interface with mothers in the period following the delivery of a new infant. These professionals have contact with all new mothers from this time and are uniquely placed to detect incipient problems in the development of the mother–infant relationship (NICE, 2006) and to mobilise appropriate support and intervention at a time when it can be of most benefit (DH, 2011). In a clinical encounter health visitors are likely to be making a number of different types of judgements (Appleton and Cowley, 2008a,b), while drawing on professional knowledge and tools such as the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (Cox et al., 1987; Morrell et al., 2009) to make an assessment of the extent and nature of a client’s difficulties, and to decide on the most appropriate form of further support to offer. At the same time they will be considering safeguarding and other issues as well (Appleton, 2011).

Thus, the decisions made at this point are of key importance to the successful resolution of mother–infant difficulties through the provision of appropriate services. The importance of such early intervention work with children and families has also been outlined in a number of recent high profile reviews including Graham Allen’s (2011) work on early intervention, Frank Field’s (2010) report on childhood poverty and life chances and Eileen Munro’s (2011) review of child protection. Furthermore, given the UK Government’s commitment to expand the Health Visiting service by an additional 4200 health visitors by 2015 (DH, 2011), it is essential that health visitors’ initial assessment processes are as sensitive and specific as possible. An assessment that correctly identifies problems in the relationship between mother and infant at an early stage will enable mothers to be referred to the appropriate support that is best matched to their needs.

While standardised tools for assessing mother–infant interactions do exist in research contexts, for example, the CARE-Index (Crittenden, 2005), the PIRAT (The Parent–Infant Relational Assessment Tool) (Broughton, 2010) and NCAST PCI (parent–child interaction) Scales (Mischenko et al., 2004), they require specialist training and are not widely used in health visiting. As an example of the translation of such approaches into practice, Milford and
Oates (2009) have developed a protocol to guide health visitors in the early identification of maternal mental health problems and infant attachment difficulties which is part of a care pathway programme.

There is limited published research evidence of how health visitors make assessments of mother–infant interactions, and these studies rely largely on health visitors' reports of their practice. In a focus group study with 24 health visitors, Wilson et al. (2008) reported health visitors drawing on multiple sources of information in assessing parent–child relationships, as Appleton and Cowley (2003, 2008a) and McAtamney (2011) have also reported, including observational data, use of risk factors, knowledge of local norms and intuitive reactions. These researchers found that the health visitor sample had received little formal training on analysing social relationships between parents and children (Wilson et al., 2008). In a later pilot study Wilson et al. (2010) explored how well health visitors agreed in their observations of 4 video-recorded mother–child interactions, where the children were one year of age. They found less agreement amongst the health visitors when “high frequencies of negative behaviours were seen alongside positive behaviours” (Wilson et al., 2010: 20); and while health visitors were more likely to identify problems after a half hour training session, they were asked to rate the same videos post-training, so there may well have been practice effects.

It was this dearth of research evidence about how health visitors assess early post-natal mother–infant interaction that led us to conduct this study. We wanted to address this gap in the research literature through a mixed-methods approach, and this paper reports on a study which examined the ways in which health visitors assess mother–infant interactions in the post-natal period, and the consistency of judgements between different health visitors.

2. Research design

This study incorporated two phases of data collection. The study involved two Primary Care Trusts (PCT) and two universities. Mothers were recruited from PCT ‘A’ and health visitors from PCT ‘B’. In Phase One detailed observations and analyses of mother–infant interactions were conducted. The video-recordings were coded to derive a number of objective measures of the quality of the interactions using the Global Ratings Scales of Mother–Infant Interaction (Murray et al., 1996). In Phase Two, health visitors' assessments of clips from a selection of the video-recorded mother–infant interactions, with infants in the age range of 6–12 weeks, were examined by use of rating scales and in-depth interviews.

2.1. Aim

The aim of this research study was to examine health visitor assessments of mother–infant interactions, in order to evaluate the processes by which health visitors identify problems around infant and maternal mental health.

2.2. Objectives

1. To examine the processes by which health visitors identify problems in mother–infant relationships in the post-natal period in comparison to other measures.
2. To determine the parameters which health visitors use in making judgments about the quality of mother–infant interactions.
3. To explore which parameters are most important in determining the accuracy of health visitors’ assessments of mother–infant interactions as shown by agreement with objective measures.
4. To examine the consistency between different health visitors of their judgments of mother–infant interactions.

2.3. Methods

2.3.1. Ethical review

Ethical approval for the study was initially gained from Oxford Brookes University in December 2008 and from the NHS National Research Ethics Service in March 2009 – ref number 09/H0603/5. Research governance approvals were sought from both areas and the study began at the beginning of April 2009.

Ethics dilemmas can arise from the moment a research project is conceived and all researchers have an important obligation to carefully consider ethical issues when conducting research. In this study the well-being of mothers and babies took precedence over the research procedures at all times. Mothers were made fully aware at the beginning of the study of the research team’s moral and professional obligations to children and the ethics principle of ‘avoiding harm’ to study participants. Limits on confidentiality were discussed with mothers in advance. Mothers were informed that if the team was concerned at any stage about a child’s safety or well-being, or that an infant may be at risk of significant harm, or we had serious concerns about the mother’s well-being, then we would discuss this with the mother and refer our concerns to the mother’s health visitor, GP or a safeguarding professional.

Mothers agreeing to participate in the study were informed that their interactions with their infants might be viewed by health visitors from another PCT, if their clips were selected for use in Phase Two.

2.3.2. Phase One: recruitment and sample

Health visitors working in PCT ‘A’ were informed about the study through a series of three initial professional development days where their agreement was sought in helping to recruit mothers to the study. In Phase One first time mothers living in PCT ‘A’ and their 6–16 week old infants were invited to participate in the study. Health visitor working in the PCT were asked to give out an information pack about the project to all first time parents at the new birth visit. The pack contained information about the project and a reply paid envelope to return if mothers were interested in participating. We then invited mothers to come to the university laboratory when their infants were between 6 and 16 weeks of age. This age was
chosen to correspond to the age at which health visitors are likely to make a home visit or have client contact (Hall and Elliman, 2003; DH, 2009).

Our decision to focus on mothers arose from two considerations. First, there are well-known differences in the interaction styles of mothers and fathers (Belsky, 1979) and so, in order to simplify the process of comparison of interactions both for the health visitors and for the researchers who are deriving the objective measures, we removed the variation arising from sex of carer. The other consideration was more practical. The majority of health visitor assessments focus around mother–infant rather than father–infant interactions and so our choice of participants also reflects the realities of practice. While research has identified some long-term developmental effects of fathers’ interaction styles with their children in early childhood (Grossmann et al., 2002), the evidence base is much stronger for the substantial effects of mothers’ relationships with their infants in the first 18 months after the birth (Grossmann and Grossmann, 2005).

The recruitment of first time mothers and their 6–16 week old infants in Phase One of the study initially proved challenging because of the difficulties in reaching new first time mothers and engaging them in the study. The study also faced the added contextual difficulties of conducting research with babies during a national pandemic of swine flu. Initially we relied on health visitors working in PCT ‘A’ to recruit mothers and infants to Phase One. Because of cutbacks in the health visitor service nationally which had an impact on the study site, health visitors initially struggled to provide mothers with additional information about the study at the new birth visit, as there was a lot of other information to give out. Thus the recruitment strategy for mothers and infants to the study was adapted, following consultation with and permission from the Chair of the ethics committee.

The research team altered the recruitment strategy in a number of ways. Rather than the health visitors distributing an information pack to all first time mothers at the new birth visit, health visitors were asked to give out a colourful flyer about the study instead. One of the research team regularly attended local child health clinics and Baby Café’s (a national network of drop-in centres to support breast feeding) to discuss and provide information about the study for first time mothers, for the purposes of recruitment. Mothers were also recruited through the local university’s baby and parent coffee mornings held on a monthly basis.

In total 17 mothers and their infants took part in this phase of the study. All mothers who agreed to participate were included in the study sample.

2.3.3. Phase Two: recruitment and sample

In Phase Two, we recruited 12 health visitors from PCT ‘B’. All 45 health visitors working in PCT B were approached about their potential participation in the study during a professional development day. Those who expressed interest in participating in the interview phase were asked to complete a response slip and return it to the research team. From those health visitors who agreed to take part, 12 were purposively selected to take part in the video assessments and interview. A maximum variation sampling strategy was used by the research team to recruit practitioners with a range of health visitor experience levels. From our previous research experience, we believed this sample size and selection strategy was likely to offer an adequate range of experience to meet the informational needs of this study (Patton, 2002). As this was an initial phase of inquiry, when we were attempting to determine the parameters by which health visitors arrive at a judgement about the quality of mother–infant interaction, this sample enabled us to undertake a detailed analysis of the interview data and health visitors’ ratings of the filmed mother–infant interactions.

2.3.4. Data collection

2.3.4.1. Phase One: observation of mother–infant interactions and completion of self-report questionnaires. Mothers who agreed to take part were invited to a video observation laboratory when their infant was aged between 6 and 16 weeks old. Infants and their parents were videoed through a one-way mirror. The observation room was set up and furnished to resemble a room at home with comfortable seating and soft furnishings – toys, baby seat and baby changing facilities, thus ‘normalising’ the videoing situation. Mothers were also encouraged to bring in and use their own toys and baby changing equipment if they wished.

Mothers were contacted by telephone to arrange a visit at a time convenient for them. On arrival at the laboratory mother and baby were welcomed, the mother was given a brief overview of the procedure to be followed during the visit, offered refreshments, a private room for feeding, baby changing facilities and an opportunity to ask questions.

2.3.4.1.1. Self-report questionnaire and demographic data. Once written consent was obtained, mothers were asked to complete some psychometric questionnaires which were administered to assess maternal mental health. These included: (i) the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) scale (Zigmond and Snaith, 1983) to assess levels of anxiety and depression, and (ii) the Mothers Object Relations Scale – MORS-SF My Baby Scale (Oates and Gervai, 2003; Milford and Oates, 2009) which is a 14 item self-score questionnaire scale that provides information about the mother’s views of her baby to assess maternal perceptions of infant warmth and invasion towards the mother and to identify potential attachment difficulties. These assessments were used for screening purposes to ensure that none of the mothers was suffering from clinically significant levels of either anxiety or depression, or substantial attachment issues.

Each mother was also asked to provide brief demographic data to include measures of family structure, occupational status and parental age, and to answer a series of background questions relating to herself, the journey to the laboratory, how the baby was feeding and sleeping, and anything unusual that might have happened with the baby in the previous 24–48 h. This information
was used to provide relevant contextual information for the health visitors in Phase Two.

2.3.4.1.2. Observation. Mothers were then shown the observation room and encouraged to make themselves comfortable. When mother and baby were settled, videoing began. Each mother’s interaction with her baby was observed and video recorded for approximately 20 min. Mothers were asked to play, hold and interact with their baby as they would do at home, so we observed a range of care routines (including putting on a cardigan), breast feeding and bottle feeding, nappy changes and play activities/quiet times. A whole morning or afternoon was allocated for each mothers’ visit so they did not feel rushed and also had an opportunity to breast or bottle feed their baby if necessary. After the visit mothers were reimbursed for their travel expenses, they were sent a DVD copy of the footage taken of them and babies were given a ‘touch and feel’ book as a thank you.

Data collection in Phase One took place over a period of 4 months. Nine of the filmed interactions were selected by the research team to use for further study by the health visitor sample in Phase Two. The interactions were selected to reflect a range of different interactional styles and all involved infants aged between 6 and 12 weeks. For Phase Two it was necessary to select mother–infant interactions that reflected a range of interactional styles and varying levels of maternal sensitivity and infant responsiveness. Mothers were aware that a short video clip of their interaction with their baby might or might not be selected by the research team for use in Phase Two of the study. The 3-min segments of video recording were selected on the basis that they showed a care routine, toy play and face to face contact. We also considered the quality of the video and sound levels, mother’s position to the camera and whether there was a good view of the interaction.

2.3.4.2. Phase Two: assessment of mother–infant (M–I) interactions by health visitors. Twelve health visitors from PCT ‘B’ were recruited to take part in the second phase of the study, which took place over a six week period. Data were collected at a second university site. Health visitors were invited to come to the university on individual visits. During a visit they were asked to view 3 min segments of free play and care routines from 9 selected mother–infant interactions, recorded during Phase One, and to make an assessment of the quality of the relationship between mother and infant as if the recording represented observed behavior at a 6–12 week postnatal home visit. Data collection was audio-recorded during this Phase and the researchers (JA and/or JO) made additional notes on a pre-developed video-rating form.

There were four separate stages to the interview. In stage one, the video clips were shown to each health visitor in random order to avoid order effects. All mother–infant dyads were unfamiliar to the health visitors as they were recruited from a different PCT. The health visitors were provided with some background information about each case, equivalent to what they might have at the time of a home visit (Table 1).

After reading the background information about the first mother and infant, the health visitors were shown the related video segment and then asked to rate the M–I interaction. They were asked to rate each M–I interaction as fitting into one of the following 3 categories:

- no concerns; all aspects of interaction are positive;
- some concern; at least one aspect of the interaction is not positive;
- serious concern; more than one aspect of interaction is not positive.

In the second stage of the interview, the interviewer (JA/JO) taking each video clip in turn, explored with the health visitors the basis on which they were making their rating and assessments. The health visitors were questioned about the features of the mother–infant interactions that they were taking account of in their assessments. Using a structured interview schedule we were able to gain insights into the perspectives of the health visitors by exploring cues and significant events during the interactions. Research has previously shown that video playback is an effective means of stimulating health visitor recall about client interactions (Bryans, 2004, 2005). In the third stage of the interview, we adopted Kelly’s (1955) personal construct theoretical approach using ‘triadic elicitation’ to elicit health visitors’ constructs (ideas) about the mother–infant interactions. The ‘triadic elicitation’ technique involved the video clips being presented in triads (group of three) and health visitor respondents being asked to say which two were most comparable and in what ways, and how they differed from the third.

“The constructs which underlie the distinctions are dimensions of the opinion” (Bowling, 2002: 293).

This approach allowed us to probe the health visitors to provide a rationale for their assessment decisions and judgements (Meek, 1998; Appleton and Cowley, 2008a,b).

In the final stage of the interview, following the rating of the 9 video clips, their examination and the exploration of the three sets of triads, the health visitors were asked to

| Table 1 |
| Background information provided to health visitors on each mother–infant case. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother–infant</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother – age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant – gender and age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of pregnancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems in pregnancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleeping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other details last 24–48 h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When last saw own health visitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video observation lab visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s report of baby today and on journey to video observation lab</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PCT A

17 video recordings

select

9 videos selected

Edited to 3 mins

Health Visitors view and rate videos and interviewed

12 Health Visitors recruited

9 x 12 HV-video datasets (n=108)

Data analysis

PCT B

17 M-I pairs recruited

Fig. 1. Flow chart illustrating the study sample and data collected.

rank each of the 9 M–I interactions from the best quality of interaction to the poorest quality, using a still photograph from each video clip as a prompt. The health visitor interviews lasted between 1 and 2 hours.

Fig. 1 is a flow chart illustrating the study sample and data collected.

2.3.5. Data analysis

2.3.5.1. Phase One: observational data of mother–infant interactions. All the video-recordings from this phase of the study were coded in detail to derive a number of quantitative measures of the quality of the interactions. All analyses were carried out on a 10 min continuous section of the total session and were subject to checks for inter-rater reliability based on independent coding of a 10% sample of each measure. The key analysis was a rating of quality of the interaction, including maternal sensitivity and intrusiveness, infant engagement and interaction quality using the Global Rating Scales (GRS) for mother infant interaction (Murray et al., 1996). The GRS ratings were independently carried out by two researchers. There was a high level of agreement between them ($r_s = +.85$, $n = 9$, $p < 0.01$).

The GRS have been used extensively in research into early mother–infant interaction as evidenced by the fact that the original report (Murray et al., 1996) has been cited over 600 times. The Scales look at how responsive mothers are to the signals from their baby, including their success in engaging their baby in interaction. Each aspect of the interaction is rated on a 5-point scale. Mothers who have a well-attuned relationship will be highly responsive and there are likely to be sustained periods of interaction with the baby smiling and cooing in response to the mother. Such mothers will have high scores on the GRS. Scores on the GRS have been shown to relate to many aspects of maternal and infant behaviour including maternal depression and infant cognitive development (Murray et al., 2003).

2.3.5.2. Phase Two: assessment and rating of mother–infant interactions by health visitors. Several analyses were carried out to examine the consistency of the health visitor assessments of the mother–infant interactions with the assessment produced using the GRS ratings.

2.3.5.3. Phase Two: interview data. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and data were analysed using a systematic process of qualitative content analysis. For each transcript, members of the research team worked in pairs, initially independently analysing the transcript to facilitate both consistency and rich interpretation. Themes were reviewed and revised until agreement was reached and then interpreted and categorised into higher-order themes. Data analysis incorporated an inductive and data-driven approach as we were interested in identifying the constructs that health visitors were using in making their judgements about mother–infant interactions. NVivo8 software was used for data organisation, management and retrieval. The data were subjected to Miles and Huberman (1994) three stage analysis process of data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing. Later in the analytic process interviews were coded by two coders according to whether the primary focus of a health visitor was on the behaviour of the mother, the behaviour of the baby or the interaction between the two.

3. Results

3.1. Health visitors’ education, training and knowledge

The 12 health visitors who participated in the study were all female. The length of time participants had been working as a health visitor, ranged from 0 to 32 years (mean 17.5 years), with several being very experienced practitioners. Only three of the health visitors reported recalling having had any formal education and training on the way mothers and babies interact during their health visitor training/education courses. The general view from most of the participants was that this was something that they learned in practice, had discussed with their Community Practice Teachers and/or learned about from their own reading or attendance at presentations post-qualifying. None of the health visitors had received any recent education in this area. As one participant stated: “I mean we did infant and child psychology and, you know … how you would hope to see a positive relationship between mum and baby, and therefore
you would recognise when it wasn’t positive. But yeah… it was such a long time ago!” (HV 38)

During the interviews, no participants displayed a detailed knowledge about attachment theory and the relationship between mother and infant.

3.2. Health visitor concern ratings of video clips in relation to overall GRS rating

The GRS ratings are organised into a series of dimensions that relate to the behaviour of the mother, the baby and the interaction between them. In typical development, where the mother is not suffering from any clinical symptoms of depression, there tends to be a close relationship between scores on the different dimensions and so a preliminary analysis was carried out to explore the inter-relation of the dimensions. A concordance analysis revealed that there was a high degree of relationship ($W = .86, df = 5, p < .001$) and so, in subsequent analyses, the score on the interaction dimension was used as a proxy for the overall scale.

The score on the interaction dimension of the GRS was used to divide the 9 mother–infant dyads into three equal-sized groups of high quality interaction, medium quality interaction and low quality interaction (see Table 2, final column). This assessment was then compared with that of the health visitors who had also been asked to rate each mother–infant interaction as being of low, medium and high concern.

Table 2 shows that there was considerable variation in the health visitor assessments. In order to examine the relationship between the health visitor ratings of the mother–infant interactions and the GRS ratings, a series of correlation analyses were carried out in which health visitors’ ranking of the quality of interaction was compared with the rank order derived from the GRS. The Spearman correlation coefficients and significance levels are shown in the bottom row of Table 2. All were positive but they ranged between .17 and .83. In eight cases, the relationship between the health visitor rankings of the interactions and the rankings derived from the GRS ratings was not significant and in the other four cases it was ($r_s = .68, p = .045$ (two cases); $r_s = .72, p = .03, r_s = .83, p = .006$).

3.3. What explains the variation in health visitor ratings?

Given that there was considerable variability in the judgements that health visitors made about each video clip, and a corresponding variation in the size of the correlation between the rank order produced by each health visitor and the GRS rank order; the next analyses explored factors that might explain this variation. The first variable we considered was health visitors’ years of experience in health visiting practice. Fig. 2 shows the relationship between years of experience and the size of the correlation calculated in the previous analysis. Statistical analysis revealed that there was a non-significant relationship between these two factors ($r = .47, p = .125$). In a small sample the failure to find a significant relationship should be treated with caution in view of the fact that there was one outlying score representing a very experienced health visitor whose assessments were rather different from those derived from the GRS.

A key aspect of assessing the mother–infant relationship is that it involves looking at the behaviour of both partners in the interaction. This is what the GRS ratings do since they give equal weight to the behaviour of mother and infant and to the response of the mother to the baby and vice versa. Close examination of the pattern of health visitor assessments of the video clips (see Table 2) highlighted two particular cases where there appeared to be substantial discrepancies between health visitors’ judgements and the GRS rating. There was considerable variation in the concern rating of BT113. This was rated at a medium level on the GRS rating because the baby was so unresponsive and inert, while the mother was picking up on cues that the baby gave her and was attempting to engage and interact with him. BT107 was coded on the GRS as low quality and therefore high concern and the health visitors all scored this as low or medium concern. This interaction came out as low quality on the GRS because the baby was quite unresponsive, fretting and a bit self

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother</th>
<th>Health visitor</th>
<th>GRS</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HV31</td>
<td>HV32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT101</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT104</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT105</td>
<td>M/H</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT106</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT107</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT108</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>L</td>
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<tr>
<td>BT109</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>L</td>
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<tr>
<td>BT110</td>
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<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BT113</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Correlation coefficient | .17 | .57 | .36 | .45 | .45 | .68 | .68 | .72 | .44 | .83** | .54 | .28 |

L – no concerns; all aspects of interaction are positive; M – some concern; at least one aspect of the interaction is not positive; H – serious concern; more than one aspect of interaction is not positive.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.
absorbed, and the mother was not really picking up on these cues.

This initial examination raised the possibility that some health visitors were not giving due consideration to the subtleties of the mother–infant interaction and, in particular, were not fully considering the cues that were provided by the behaviour of the baby. Across all health visitor accounts of the interactions there were 546 references to the mother, 121 to the baby and 51 to the interaction. In other words there was a predominance of references to the mother. However, there was considerable variation among the health visitors with the smallest proportion of references to the baby being zero and the highest being 30.5%. To examine the impact that consideration of the baby had on the health visitors’ judgments, we carried out a correlation analysis to examine the relationship between the relative frequency with which health visitors referred to the baby when explaining their assessment and the consistency of their judgments with the GRS rankings. (This is analogous to the previous analysis in which we considered years of experience.) The correlation revealed that there was a highly significant relationship between the extent to which health visitors referred to the baby and the GRS rankings ($r_s = .75, p = .005$). This relationship is depicted in Fig. 3.

3.4. **Health visitors’ assessment styles/practices**

The health visitors’ responses varied considerably in the interviews. Some explored a lot and discussed issues quite deeply, while others made very quick judgements about the rating of each M–I interaction and some did not seem to want to explore any further. This extract illustrates a health visitor drawing on a number of factors in the interaction between mother and baby and apparently adopting a holistic and factual focus to her assessment:

“Well I would go for very low concern with this baby, simply because... what I’ve observed is that there is a good mum/child interaction, she’s looking at the child, and she’s holding the child confidently. I’ve also noticed that she’s... talked an awful lot and the child has been vocalising back. And everything that they’ve done so far she’s made sure that she’s talking to the child and she’s... aware that the little girl’s looking elsewhere as well and trying to bring her back. And all the time the voice is soft, it’s encouraging and I feel quite happy in that, and I think yes, they’re certainly getting on well and yes, she’s only 8 weeks old but there seems to be good bonding there” (HV 36 describing BT104)

A minority of participants appeared to have difficulty in providing detailed examples to justify their concern rating. For example, some health visitors talked about mothers being ‘in tune’ with the baby but did not actually explain what they meant by this. The following description contrasts with the extract above:

“Well I know she’s breastfeeding, that’s a bit obvious [information contained in background information]. I just get the feeling that... she probably doesn’t look after her that often... I just get the sort of impression that it could easily be... a woman looking after somebody else’s baby... I don’t know why, um, and while she was playing with the telephone, the baby just wasn’t looking at the telephone and she was engaged very much on the mum’s face... and mum didn’t really pick up on that until right at the end. Um... I think I would say some concern” (HV 42 describing BT104)

3.5. **The main focus of the health visitor assessment**

In view of the general lack of agreement with the GRS ratings, the interviews were re-examined to look at whether, during the interviews for each video clip, the health visitors’ narrative focused mainly on the mother’s behaviour, the baby’s behaviour, or the interaction/relationship between the mother and baby. The following data extracts provide examples of data coded in this way.

*Mother focused:*

“She was loving, she was caring, she was happy to sit there and just talk to her baby...” (HV33)

“She’s talking, lots of variation in the tone of her voice and she’s... pre-empting what she’s going to do.” (HV32)
Baby focused:

“That was a tired baby that wanted to go to sleep.” (HV35)

Relationship focused:

“So the interaction between the two was very nice, she responded when he made a sound, she made a similar sound back and talked throughout which was really pleasing to see.” (HV37)

“So no sort of intimate connection between the two during that episode.” (HV42)

“She’s quite close to him, and he was vocalising beautifully, he was copying mum… I found myself smiling watching them so it came across as quite a positive, um, positive relationship.” (HV38)

One of the interesting features of the results is that during the interviews, when explaining their judgements about the ratings they had given, the health visitors’ narratives were more likely to focus on the mothers’ behaviours (46%) or the relationship between the mother and baby (53%), than on the baby. The lack of primary focus on the baby suggests an area for further training, which is also supported by the health visitors’ comments. For example one clip, BT108, was an excellent example of positive mother–baby interaction, with lots of talking and response from the baby. A number of the health visitors commented mostly on the degree of physical contact between mother and baby, and did not seem to pick up on the baby’s responsiveness to the mother and the amount of interaction that was going on.

4. Discussion

This exploratory study was conducted in two English Primary Care Trusts and sought to find out more about the processes by which health visitors evaluate mother–infant relationships. This paper has presented our findings on how a group of health visitors assess mother–infant interactions in the early post-natal period. Although small in its scale, the use of the same video material to examine each health visitor’s assessments has enhanced the reliability of the research. As far as we are aware, this is the first study that has examined health visitor assessment of mother–infant relationship in the early post-natal period using such an approach. The study has illustrated the considerable variability in health visitor assessments, when compared with the GRS ratings. One of the key findings of the study was that none of the health visitor participants displayed detailed knowledge about attachment theory and research, or about developmentally important aspects of parent–infant relationships. Indeed, many of the health visitors reported being keen to develop their knowledge base, through continuing professional development training in the assessment of parent–infant relationships. Previous research has also suggested that there is a need for health visitors to develop their practice skills in the understanding and assessment of parent–infant relationships (Wilson et al., 2008, 2010; Pettit, 2008; McAtamney, 2011).

Public health nurses across the world predominantly work with mothers and infants as part of health promotion and early intervention services (Cowley et al., 2012). Government policy in the UK has reiterated that health visitors are well placed to work with new parents and infants and to detect problems early in the development of the mother–infant relationship, to provide appropriate support and to refer on to other early intervention services where necessary (NICE, 2006; DH, 2009, 2011). As the Health Visitor Implementation (DH, 2011: 7) plan has summarised: “Intervening early, working with families to build on strengths and improve parenting confidence and, where required, referring early for more specialist help, including specialist mental health services, is the most effective way of dealing with health, developmental and other problems within the family.” Yet this study’s findings suggest that health visitors in this study would value and benefit from further education in this area and that this would increase health visitors’ skills, knowledge and capacity to identify parent–infant relationship problems.

We examined the variation in each health visitor’s rating of 9 video clips of mother–infant interactions and found a non-significant relationship between health visitors’ years of experience and level of agreement with the GRS ratings. As we have already noted, this finding needs to be interpreted with caution because there were only 12 health visitors in our study and one of these had an outlying score. Nevertheless our results suggest that number of years in health visiting practice does not necessarily guarantee improved skills in assessing mother–infant interactions. We then looked at health visitors’ accounts of the behaviours of mother and baby when describing the interactions and found a predominance of health visitor references to the mother rather than to the infant. To examine the impact that consideration of the baby had on the health visitors’ judgments, an examination was made of the relationship between the relative frequency with which health visitors referred to the baby when explaining their assessment and the consistency of their judgments with the GRS. The correlation revealed that there was a highly significant relationship.

A further qualitative examination of health visitors’ assessment styles and practices also revealed differences in health visitors’ approaches to the assessment of mother–infant interactions. This showed that some health visitors adopt a holistic and factual focus to the assessment, while others appeared to be more vague in their reporting and seemed to have difficulty articulating the basis of their judgements about a particular video-clip.

Parent–infant relationships involve three key elements: the parent, the infant and the behaviours that take place between them. The lack of reference to the baby by the health visitors in this study is indicative of the need for professional reflection on aspects of infant development and further training in this area to support the nurturance of “sensitive parenting” (Oates et al., 2005: 30). Health visitors should have the confidence and skills to identify both the strengths and limitations of a
mother’s interaction with her infant. A particular focus of such training could be on recognising the indicators in infant behaviour of engagement with, and emotional relating to the mother, as well as increasing sensitivity to observing infant behaviours to which a mother’s sensitive responding would be appropriate. This finding has implications for initial health visitor education and training, as well as continuing professional development.

This preliminary work suggests that a national survey of Specialist Community Public Health Nursing (Health Visitor) training curricula could provide useful information about how health visitors are currently trained in this important area of practice and to identify gaps in provision. Learning resources could then be developed to include a focus on assessment of mother–infant interaction and these could be tested empirically for their use in developing student and qualified health visitors’ skills in systematically evaluating mother–infant interactions.

5. Conclusion

This study has contributed to an understanding of how health visitors make assessments of mother–infant interactions. As a small exploratory study, it has provided empirical evidence which can be used as an impetus to encourage more professional reflection on the importance of paying greater attention to infant behaviours when assessing parent–infant interactions. In spite of the need for reliable identification of risk from observation of mother–infant interactions, and for assessments that are both sensitive and specific, our study found little consensus across a sample of health visitors in their ratings of a series of video clips of mother–infant interactions according to the perceived level of concern. The health visitors we interviewed often reported that their initial training and subsequent continuing professional development had left them ill-prepared to assess the intricacies of mother–infant relationships. Identifying risk in mother–infant interaction is regarded as a core health visiting skill, yet our study findings indicate a need for improved training for health visitors in the formation of judgments about the quality of mother–infant interactions is evident.

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