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AROHA KI NGĀ TAMARIKI
New Zealand Resource Teachers:
Learning and Behaviour

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
TE KUPENGA O TE MĀTAURANGA

FRONT COVER

Laura Macnab

Waingaro School, Ngaruawahia

Laura Macnab is 12 years old and attends Waingaro School as a Year 8. She loves all animals especially horses, dogs, cats and monkeys. When she is older, she wants to become a veterinarian. Playing soccer, riding her ponies, helping her mum and dad on the farm and watching the All Blacks play are just a few of her hobbies. Sports to her are so much fun and horse riding, soccer, rugby and gymnastics are her favourite. Writing, art and maths are her favourite subjects at school. Laura loves playing the guitar and this was her inspiration for her art work.

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Kairaranga

Weaving educational threads. Weaving educational practice.

Kairaranga is a New Zealand Journal of Education Practice

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Editorial

Welcome to the first issue of Kairaranga for 2010; we are enjoying our second year working in partnership with Massey University. We feel sure that you will gain a great deal from the depth and diversity of the articles in this issue showcasing the work being done with and for our young people both from early childhood through to secondary school.

We have invited Professor James Chapman to ponder on the challenges and celebrations of his career and describe what he sees as the inspirations for New Zealand's educational future in his interview with us.

In the following articles we read about the developments of Frameworks of Practice for psychologists working at Group Special Education from Robyn Stead. We get some insight into how SENCOs can work in partnership with Speech Language therapists from Michele Cunningham, and Angela Ward poignantly shares her research about how disabled students may face barriers to their learning and friendships in secondary schools. We are invited by Violet Pou to enter into the world of professional development that is alongside teachers involving them in enhancing their practice. Ian Johnson, now on sabbatical in the UK, describes his research using the Fonetik's spelling system, and Helen Steven's describes how the proximity of teacher-aides can improve outcomes for students. To help occupational therapists understand the barriers and facilitators to inclusion from the students' perspective, Helena Hemmingsson and Merrolee Penman share insights to including the voices and perspectives of students. Finally, Lara Sanderson asks us to consider just how informed consent may be obtained and used in educational settings.

We hope this issue finds you all continuing to strive for better educational outcomes for students and that these articles may provide some further support for your work in partnership with your learning communities.

Cath and the Kairaranga Team

Kairaranga

An Interview with Professor James Chapman

Pro Vice-Chancellor, Massey University

Cath Steeghs
RTLB, Fairfield Cluster

James Chapman, Professor of Educational Psychology and Pro Vice-Chancellor of the College of Education at Massey University shares his career highlights, his proudest achievements and some surprising details about his secondary school days which all provide an insight into a courageous academic who takes his role as "critical conscience" seriously, even if that means his views are not always popular with the establishment.

What was school like for you?

In many ways I've come into education as something of a pretender because my school record, especially my secondary school record, was absolutely appalling and, had a classification existed in New Zealand at that time, I would probably have been classified as learning disabled. Labelled and not helped, as is often the case for kids who have learning disabilities or learning difficulties in New Zealand. I failed University Entrance. I sat the exam, got very low marks and then went back into what was then the Lower Sixth, and got accredited. I was at the young end of my cohort so went back for an additional year in the Upper Sixth and in the first year they introduced the Bursary exam, I failed that. But then I figured I had time on my side, I had intended to get a tertiary education, either teachers' college or university. So despite getting

a failed result I decided to go to university – Victoria - and things improved from there on in. The only subject I failed at university was the subject I was best at in secondary school. So I guess as educationalists we often say that past performance or behaviour is often an indicator of achievement and that isn't always the case. The challenge for the system is how to figure out who can make the best of a different type of environment, or of an opportunity. That was what happened for me. The university environment suited me and I was able to pick the subjects that I really enjoyed like history. I ended up double-majoring in it but had come bottom of the class in my Upper Sixth year. English, in which I had done reasonably well at secondary school, I failed in my first year at university and I had to repeat it in the second year. I ended up taking four years for a three year BA degree with a double major in education and history.

What made you keep going after so much failure?

Failure in the sense of not accomplishing goals was not an option. That was not imposed on me, it was pretty much self-driven. No-one in my family or in the families of my cousins, as far as I know, went to university. In my family I am the only one. So I was under no pressure to go to university although my Dad was a professional consulting engineer, he'd done it the hard way after WWII having been in the war. I just had an inherent determination; it was internally imposed rather than externally driven. In my last year at secondary school we organised a carefully staged raid on the careers teacher's office, to find out what the recommendations post secondary school were for us. Not surprisingly, because I was a poor student it was recommended that my chances of succeeding at university were virtually zilch. I just laughed and thought that was hilarious and when I got my bachelors degree I wanted to go back to the school, and just gesticulate in unpleasant signs about what these people could do with their recommendations. So I got hooked onto history and education and tossed up for what to do next. I opted for an honours year in education and then went to secondary teachers' college in Christchurch on the new campus at Ilam and did my training in history, geography and social studies. While I was there I started my masters thesis and did my data collection at one of my section schools; Porirua College. I did a cross-cultural study of identity formation, comparing Māori and Pakeha boys, the sort of research that would

not get done these days. That led me into my passions. I had an intense interest in Māori education and things Māori. I took a Māori language minor in my programme at teachers' college, chose to go to Porirua College, then to Rerekohu District High School in Te Araroa on the East Cape, just to absorb and learn as much as I could.

At that time in my career I don't think I was aware that I was working towards passions in research that would colour my career. They had grown out of my determination to gain qualifications for myself and they have inspired me ever since.

Did you meet any mentors on this qualification and research pathway?

I had an excellent thesis supervisor, John Nichols, at Victoria University who was absolutely one of the leading researchers in the broad field of achievement motivation and he was a very, very key person in my career. I had a meeting with John when I was finishing my master's thesis in my first year of teaching at Horowhenua College in Levin. He asked what I intended doing in the future. I had taken out a studentship and had a two-year bond. I told him that once I'd finished that I'd go overseas like everyone else and teach. He asked if I had thought of doing a PhD and I told him that I didn't really know what a PhD was. I thought I couldn't do one because of the struggle I'd had to get that far. He told me that my thesis wasn't just a great topic, it was the design of my research, the tightness of writing and that no-one had done anything like it, so there was no reason not to do a PhD. In the end he talked me into doing a doctorate in Canada or the USA. I applied to three universities and chose the University of Alberta in Canada. I had a short OE in the UK and Europe and then went to Canada and started my doctorate. It was a programme in the Department of Educational Psychology with 100 PhD students on campus plus about 200 Masters students so the place was absolutely humming. A lot of Alberta oil money was going into the university, with lots of students from all around the world. I had planned to do my doctorate in cross - cultural psychology to link back to work I had started in my masters and my interest in Māori achievement and education. But it became clear that the changes that needed to take place about who researches on or with indigenous peoples were starting to occur in Canada and I respected that and figured that, far be it for me being a New Zealander to come to Canada and do cross-cultural research with First Nations peoples. Fortunately I was nabbed by a doctoral supervisor who had worked with other New Zealand students who had all gone on to make significant contributions in the world. Fred Boersma chose me as another kiwi. He is a mentor that I have maintained contact with ever since. He was disliked by a number of students and faculty members. People said that whatever you did, not to work with Fred

but we got on like a house on fire. We shared a dry sense of humour. He had changed his own research direction and had developed an interest in learning disabilities as an emerging field and we got to working on this. I was interested in self-system variables in my master's work and in that context I had looked at Erikson's identity theories and some other self-related aspects. I did my thesis on academic self-concept, achievement expectations and the academic locus of control among children with learning disabilities, and also looked at teachers' and mothers' expectations and perceptions of kids with learning disabilities and compared them with normally achieving children. That research got me into developing a measure of academic self-concept as there wasn't one at the time. There were measures of general self-concept which had been used quite extensively, some are still being used, but self-concept theory had already gone way beyond those general measures so we ended up designing, testing and publishing, a measure of academic self-concept.

How did all this research feed your passions?

I returned to New Zealand in 1980 and took up a position at Massey University and I had the pleasure of working with Ken Ryba who was doing his own PhD. We team-taught special education for many years after that. It was good that he was a Canadian and had been to a different university but we did have quite a lot in common. We got along extremely well and he was a great mentor for me in terms of helping me to develop my understanding, still incomplete, of special education.

I replicated the research for my PhD in Canada but in a longitudinal study over two years and then subsequently over five or six years with children at three intermediate schools. I followed a cohort of 1220 children focusing on self-esteem, self-concept, locus of control, and identifying children who would meet North American definitions of learning disabilities and looked at what was happening to them in terms of self-concept and self-esteem. Of course not surprisingly, in line with my thesis, the kids who achieved poorly in school developed strongly-held beliefs for the most part that they were no good, they were useless, they were thick.

Here I was back in New Zealand with a freshly-minted PhD in learning disabilities but with nowhere to go with it because this area did not exist. I had returned to an environment that was very different to the one I had been in for four and a half years at the University of Alberta. SPELD got to know of me and was interested in my work on learning disabilities, especially the self-concept aspects. I had published a couple of papers that were highly critical of the work in learning disabilities. That's the problem when you get into a field; you see all the warts and the ways it doesn't work. Both papers raised issues

with the field and I was quite strident and critical. I was critical throughout the 1980s because I felt SPELD was not moving with the times and the academic community had already discredited a lot of what they stood for. In hindsight I regret that I was so stroppy about it. I think I should have been more helpful rather than critical. I was probably just critical rather than constructively so. If I had to do it again I would do it differently.

The thing that bothered me most at the time was the definition and identification of learning disabilities and the psychometric approach to the identification of kids with learning disabilities, which was basically average to above average IQ assessed by the WISC--R. I was very familiar with this due to my work in Canada. Identification of LD was based on a gap between average and above average IQ and the core achievement in at least one area of achievement like reading. It was this gap between supposed potential and achievement but of course IQ tests, in isolation, do not measure potential. Other factors like major sensory problems or home life or background disadvantage have to be considered. But this view had already been discredited. I also had contributed to the literature and I knew that the Department of Education in Wellington would also disagree with this view. That's why SPELD was always moving uphill I think. The people in the Department of Education were very well read, some more so than me and they were absolutely right to not recognise learning disabilities but the regret I have is that they should have done something else. Just saying no and sending them away, and not recognising their work was not enough.

Marie Clay was totally against the concept of learning disabilities. We both appeared in a parliamentary select committee to make representations on Katherine O'Reagan's private member's bill seeking recognition of learning disabilities as a category. We both agreed for different reasons that it should not be a category. SPELD had their heart in the right place but they were going in the wrong direction and I was intensely frustrated. I knew that time would show that they were wrong but it was such a waste of energy and time.

New Zealand was moving towards non-categorical, needs-based special needs and special education, so recognising learning disabilities the way SPELD wanted didn't make sense.

I think it was difficult for SPELD because they seemed interested in my messages around self-concept so I was possibly attractive to them as a speaker because I would talk about self-concept but then I would throw in the other stuff about the problems with their view of learning disabilities. So for them it was probably a bit of a Catch-22.

With the self-concept stuff I departed from the

mainstream views pretty early on, as I do right to this day. People have said that you have to fix up kids' self-concept if you want to fix up kids learning. A long time ago, taking a cognitive motivational approach to it, I said that it would not work. What we've done around self-concept is create in some schools a culture of indulgence because we think we need to focus heavily on a child's self-esteem and a child's self-concept in order for kids to be able to learn effectively, particularly kids who are not learning well and are struggling. I think the research shows clearly that is completely the opposite of what we need to do. We should have both high expectations and cognitive elements such as strategies, such as learning how to learn strategies and coupling those of personal agency and with self-efficacy. Rather than saying that it's not their fault, start by teaching how to learn for ourselves.. I think the self-esteem movement has done enormous damage, especially in special education and remedial education, because well-meaning teachers have tended to emphasise that to protect kids from failure. I think that's a huge mistake. Failure is a naturally occurring part of learning. It's how we manage failure that's the critical issue.

What are the metacognitional strategies teachers should be using?

I think one of the unfortunate parts of teacher preparation, and I am saying this as the head of a College of Education, is that there's not enough attention given to learning how to learn. Some of my colleagues would probably want to run me out of town for saying that. I mean in a formal research-driven sense around metacognition and all the bits and pieces that are associated with metacognition. There is just not enough in New Zealand schools and I believe there is enough evidence to show that that's the case. Certainly when I've run lectures or workshops on metacognition all the eyes get huge and the lights go on. People say this is the first time they've heard this and ask why they didn't get this when they were at teachers' college or why they didn't hear this when doing a course on such and such. To me it's not new; it's been evolving since the 1970s. Even today, in 2010, for a large number of teachers it is a relatively new concept. That's a real shame because kids' learning about how to learn and teachers providing scaffolding, in terms of the tool-set for how to learn, is one of the best things that teachers can do. It's far better than telling kids you're fabulous when the kids know that they're not.

Children need to be given some strategies to help with learning and then along with that a self-efficacy type message which follow on from the strategies. I guess the guts of it is asking, "Why did I do well on a particular task?" and answering it with something like, "I did well because I thought about what was required; I used the

right kind of strategy. It's not because someone told me I'd be okay or because it was easy. It's the notion that I used this particular strategy. It was something that I did that made the successful outcome." That allows a student to take credit and responsibility for their own learning to a greater extent. So you change what often happens with failure-prone kids. You change the cycle of learned helplessness. For many years I talked about that at a fairly general level but since working with Bill Tunmer on reading, I have been able to link it specifically to reading strategies. The most effective reading strategy for children learning to read is the strategy associated with word level decoding. Despite what many teachers have been taught to do in New Zealand, the research is absolutely overwhelming that effective work on the decoding strategies are necessary but not enough to develop competence in learning to read. So teaching kids to guess, to look at the picture, or to read on to the end of the sentence and go back and see what word makes sense is a dysfunctional strategy because the chances, as research shows, of a child correctly identifying a word are generally about 10% for the words that carry the meaning in text. In a paper that Bill Tunmer and I published on the relationship between self-efficacy and specific reading strategies we were able to demonstrate that there was quite a tight fit between the two. That was something that hadn't been done before. Fit-for-purpose learning strategies require that the strategies link effectively with the type of learning that is required according to the specific subject area.

How would you describe the educational research scene in New Zealand? Where do you think it should be heading?

I think educational research in New Zealand is in a dismal phase at the moment. Virtually the only funding you can get for educational research in New Zealand comes from the Ministry of Education and the MOE increasingly has tended to fund operational and policy type research which is understandable. The longitudinal research that Bill Tunmer and I did seems to be impossible now unless the MOE has some view that the outcome of the research will fit adequately with their policy settings or, if there is any chance that the research will not fit with their policy settings, then there is less chance that the research will be funded. That certainly is my recent experience.

Many other developed countries have independent research funding available for educational research but in New Zealand we don't or it is extraordinarily hard to get hold of. So educational research in New Zealand is significantly under-funded. It is no wonder that education will always struggle to do well in the PBRF league tables of subject disciplines because compared with other subject disciplines it just doesn't get the money. I think there has been an emerging problem in terms of a lot of

educational research being qualitatively orientated. This in and of itself is not a problem but it has got so out of balance now, with relatively little of what we would call classic quantitative type research. Now there are faults with both research paradigms; I happened to train in the old-fashioned quantitative paradigm and there is place for both but a lot of what is called research at the moment is little more than anecdotal navel gazing that isn't really able to be generalised. Often at times, as a result of that, it adds little of use in terms of policy or contribution to educational theory

We need to correct the balance in terms of funding, we need to correct the balance in terms of methodology and I think the Ministry of Education itself needs to play a much stronger leadership role in respecting hard core, robust quantitative research which includes control groups which I know are a problem at the Ministry of Education. I know education is not medical science; it's not like other branches of science where it is easier to have a control group; however some radomised interventions or randomised trials as are mandatory in some aspects of educational research in the United States should be undertaken in New Zealand. We've got to move more towards some serious research controls, otherwise policy is going to be made, in a number of areas, based on research which has some serious flaws in it.

What is the proudest moment of your career to date?

That's a hard one, but if I focus on the research side I think my proudest achievement has been working with Bill Tunmer and bringing two areas of research together from Bill with his background in linguistics and reading acquisition and my background in cognitive motivation. This pulled two areas together to focus in on reading acquisition and the emergence of reading disability, identifying in very young children, during the reading acquisition phase, the kids who develop initial and ongoing reading problems, and identifying the strong link with cognitive self-system factors. I had been thinking about it in the 1970s during my PhD studies and talked about the link between learning theory and cognitive motivation. They were tending to run parallel and no one had really brought the two together tightly. Bill and I brought the two together quite tightly in one article in the British Journal of Educational Psychology and we were jointly awarded a prize from the International Reading Association in the United States. Our work looked at the unfolding of the link between reading self-concept and reading acquisition during the first three years of children starting to learn to read and of course the study was a longitudinal one. So from a research point of view pulling those two ideas together was waiting to happen. Bill and I clicked and we have had a very productive research, academic and personal relationship of about 23 years.

Courageous efforts are a thread of your academic life starting at secondary school and university where you succeeded against the odds, teacher opinion and the system. How do you feel that has made you focus your work in your academic career?

Bill and I have stood up against a New Zealand icon. We were critical of Reading Recovery. We have known from the work that Roger Openshaw has done in the New Zealand Archives in Wellington that showed how protected Reading Recovery was in the early days and the official records showed transcripts of discussions with various ministers including Lockwood Smith and Wyatt Creech, really wanting to protect Reading Recovery when it had initially been criticised by Tom Nicholson because the research design was flawed. That flaw never went away, it was just covered over. I am proud of New Zealand and I take the role of university academic seriously, in terms of the critic and conscience role and I think that's absolutely important. I think it's something for every academic staff member in every university to cherish and hold on to. We criticise from an informed basis, from an understanding of research, that you do so boldly where that's required and I think we are accountable. After all, the taxpayer pays us and if we think there is something wrong we have to tell them. They might not agree with it and there are a number of opinions but you stand up and are counted. In terms of taking on Reading Recovery it certainly drew the ire of some people although tackling the reading establishment in New Zealand so far has not been very successful and Bill and I despair that we have made very little impact on policy. I am amazed at some people who say that you shouldn't say things that will only rock the boat, or ask how I say these things when I'm the head of a college of education. I believe that being the critic and conscience means that's what you do. It's not about popularity, it's about expressing your views based on good research for people to think about.

INTERVIEWER PROFILE

Cath Steeghs

Cath Steeghs works as a Resource Teacher of Learning and Behaviour in the Fairfield Cluster in Hamilton. She has been part of Kairaranga since its inception and currently supports the work of Kairaranga by co-ordinating each issue.

Frameworks for Practice

Robyn Stead
RTLB, Howick/Pakuranga Cluster

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the types of assessment models used by registered psychologists employed by Ministry of Education: Special Education (MOE:SE) who work in the area of severe and challenging behaviour. The aim of the study was to identify and explore frameworks for practice which are currently used at MOE:SE; the theories which underpin these as well as which aspects of the frameworks were supportive of multi-agency/multi-disciplinary work.

A semi-structured interview format was used to encourage participants to discuss the frameworks and theories which they use during practice in the field. The participants were six randomly-chosen registered psychologists who work at MOE:SE.

While responses varied, the most commonly reported frameworks for practice were Effective Interventions for Behaviour Challenges, Functional Behavioural Assessment and Situational Analysis. The theories which the participants reported as underpinning their practice were also diverse, although behavioural theory was reportedly used by all participants. Collaboration was reported most often as being a supportive aspect of frameworks which were used during inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work.

INTRODUCTION

Practice Paper

Keywords: assessment, practice frameworks, psychologist, severe behaviour, situational analysis

Purpose of the study
Intern psychologists who are preparing to join the profession are statistically most likely to find employment within MOE:SE. It is of interest to pre-service psychologists to learn more about how practicing registered psychologists work within the organisation.

BACKGROUND

Ministry of Education: Group Special Education
MOE:SE is the largest employer of psychologists in New Zealand according to the Psychology Workforce Annual Survey (2006). The work of Psychologists who are employed at GSE is guided by the Internal Specialist Services Standards (MOE, 2006). In her introduction to the Specialist Services Standards, Barbara Disley, Group Manager, MOE:SE, notes that the work of the professionals (this includes psychologists) is to support 'children and young people to be: present, participating, and engaged in experiences that maximise learning [and that] this work contributes to the important outcomes we are seeking: achievement, wellbeing, community and workforce participation' (p.13).

Ministry of Education definition of severe and challenging behaviour
The Ministry of Education defines severe and challenging behaviour of children and young people as 'behaviour that may endanger themselves or others, damage property, or affect the child or young person's social interactions and learning' (Ministry of Education, Severe Behaviour Service, 2008 p.17).

In-Service training at MOE:SE
Since 2007 GSE has engaged in an in-house nationwide training programme. The purpose of the training is to ensure that practitioners are aware of effective interventions for children and young people with severe and challenging behaviour as supported by recent research. This training programme is called Effective Interventions for Behaviour Challenges (EIBC).

The EIBC training programme has been informed by two large meta-analyses of research into severe behaviour: Meyer and Evans (2006), which focuses on severe behaviour in children and youth with developmental disabilities, and The Church Report (2003), which focuses on children who are considered to have potential for normal development and display characteristics of anti-social behaviour at an early age.

Multi-agency/interdisciplinary work
Registered psychologists working at MOE:SE are required to work with a wide range of other agencies and professionals from other disciplines. These may be other professionals who are employed by MOE:SE such as speech and language therapists, occupational therapists, early intervention teachers, special education advisors and specialists on the education of children with hearing or vision impairment. Outside agencies which work with psychologists from MOE:SE may include, but are not limited to, the police, staff from Child, Youth and

Family Services, Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour, teachers, school administrators and medical professionals.

Frameworks for practice
Two influential sources of frameworks of practice in New Zealand are Group Special Education and Massey University.

Ministry of Education
The Practice Leader: Behaviour, Professional Practice Unit, Ministry of Education, has noted that 'Models of practice, frameworks etc will vary according to how the practitioner has been trained, their own experience and background and their own personal values and principles. The only "framework" required of MOE:SE behaviour practitioners is the Specialist Service Standards (SSS)' (Cull, personal communication, August 21, 2008). SSS are a guide to service delivery and are tied to the review process, Review of Individual Behaviour Service (RIBS). Together, RIBS and SSS are tools for the Ministry of Education to promote and monitor standards of service delivery. It is left to the individual practitioner to choose a model which fits with his or her particular background, values and principles.

Massey University
Massey University is currently the only provider in New Zealand of preparatory training for registration as a psychologist in the field of education. The framework, Situational Analysis, taught to pre-service psychologists, is described by Annan (2005) as a framework for practice which has both style and structure and is able to be applied with both individual and systems fieldwork. When considering Situational Analysis, style refers to the "particular theoretical position" of the practitioner, while structure refers to the 'steps taken by practitioners to gather, analyse and use information' (Annan 2005, p. 133).

LITERATURE REVIEW
The purpose of this exploratory research was to review the frameworks which were likely to be featured in discussion with the study participants.

Research which informs EIBC
Neither Meyer and Evans (2006) nor Church (2003) explicitly discuss a process for fieldwork where analysis of situations takes place before interventions are considered. Their work concentrates on intervention rather than on a broad analysis of the whole situation.

Church focuses on early identification of children with anti-social development through a screening process and the research which describes effective intervention for children identified as developing anti-socially throughout their developmental stages.

Church (2003) is quite prescriptive in his discussion of analysis stating that 'A review of research into the development of anti-social behaviour in children indicates that we now have a reasonably good understanding of the way in which anti-social development occurs' (p.3). He further notes that research has also identified:

> The learning processes which need to be targeted by any intervention are the positive and negative reinforcement processes which teach, strengthen and maintain defiant, coercive and aggressive responses during interactions with other people. The contexts which need to be targeted are the child's anti-social interactions with parents and siblings (the home context), with teachers and classmates (the school context) and with peers and associates (the playground and recreational contexts) (p.3).

The implication that Church makes is that there is a high-ground in fieldwork from which clarity about situations can be easily gained.

Meyer and Evans (2006) have completed a meta-analysis of research into effective interventions for children and youth with developmental disabilities. They discuss the complexity of situations in which psychologists who work with children and young people demonstrating severe and challenging behaviour are involved, and note that 'there will not be a specific intervention or strategy that is demonstrated to be effective in the abstract, so that it can then be used with assurance by any reasonably skilled teacher or clinician' (p.31). Whilst they acknowledge the complexity of and review the literature on what constitutes effective intervention, they do not provide a process for practice which can be used by psychologists in the field to help them to work through the complex issues integral to the situations they engage in.

Functional behavioural analysis
Both Church (2003) and Meyer and Evans (2006) state that Functional Behavioural Analysis (FBA) is one of the most commonly-used procedures to determine the purposes (or intent) of behaviour. FBA is a strategy which employs many methods to gather information that indicates the reason for or function of behaviour (Gresham, Watson & Skinner, 2001). It developed from the field of applied behaviour analysis and is the practical application of FBA which is used in experimental conditions to measure the effect of changing variables on a specific behaviour. FBA takes an environmental approach and its theoretical stance avoids locating the problem within the child. FBA provides a process or structure to enable psychologists to work through fieldwork from the initial referral through to closure of the case.

Situational analysis

Monsen, Graham, Frederickson and Cameron's (1998) article on problem analysis relates to Annan's (2005) article on situational analysis as they both present frameworks for practice which psychologists engaged in fieldwork can use. It is helpful to look at Monsen et al.'s (1998) work in order to gain perspective on Annan's (2005) situational analysis.

Monsen et al. (1998) report that fieldwork is often complex, confusing and deals with situations which have been in existence for some time and have already proved resistant to intervention. Monsen et al.'s article about problem analysis discusses the difficulty experienced by psychologists who work in the field in finding situations which can be clearly defined, with interventions easily flowing from the definition of the problem.

Monsen et al. (1998) propose that a problem analysis framework allows practitioners to explicitly demonstrate their reasoning, application of theory and rationale for specific data gathering, as well as the conceptual links between these areas of practice. This means that the practitioner's work is transparent, and can be challenged or supported. Importantly it allows the practitioner to avoid the role of "expert advice dispenser" (Monsen et al., 1998, p.239), which can leave participants feeling disengaged with the problem and unlikely to feel empowered to be part of making necessary changes.

Annan (2005) explains situational analysis as a framework which allows psychologists to 'tailor their fieldwork to the diverse situations in which they work' (p.131). Both Monsen et al. (1998) and Annan (2005) cite Robinson's (1987) problem-analysis method as being influential in the development of their frameworks. Annan (2005) particularly credits Robinson as being influential in the development of the structure of the framework.

Situational analysis has both style and structure. It is the style of the framework which differentiates it from the work of both Robinson (1987) and Monsen et al. (1998) and this relates to the 'particular theoretical position taken in the ascription of meaning and the construction of new solutions' (Annan, 2005, p.133). The particular theoretical positions of situational analysis are: 'ecological, collaborative, evidence-based and constructive' (Annan, 2005, p.145).

Annan (2005) addresses the issue of evidence-based interventions which is so prominent in the meta-analysis reports of Church (2003) and Meyer and Evans (2006). She proposes that situational analysis combines both evidence from the research and the personally gained knowledge of the participants. This approach means that all participants in a situation are valued and included in a collaborative process to develop interventions which are specific to the situation.

The research reviewed has highlighted that EIBC and FBA are focused on intervention while situational analysis provides both a style and structure for addressing casework from referral to closure.

METHOD

Negotiation: An initial request was made to a district manager of a regional area at MOE:SE for permission to interview registered psychologists about their work with children and young people with severe and challenging behaviour. A project proposal was developed after this initial discussion.

The project proposal was taken to a meeting of district managers and discussed. The lead practitioner for behaviour in the area agreed to coordinate the interviews and contacted the intern psychologist to discuss the details of data collection.

The lead practitioner for behaviour organised a day of meetings at both office locations for the intern psychologist to conduct the interviews with the volunteer participants. The intern psychologist also had the opportunity to meet some of the other staff who work with registered psychologists. It was agreed that all interview notes would be typed and sent to the participants for checking and modifying and that the final report would be sent to the lead practitioner subsequent to handing in to the university for marking.

Participants: Participants included six registered psychologists employed at MOE:SE, in a regional area, spread across two offices. These psychologists volunteered after being invited to participate in the study via an email sent by the lead practitioner for behaviour. Participants were invited to take part in a study about the frameworks they used in fieldwork with children with severe and challenging behaviours which would be undertaken by an intern psychology student from Massey University. All participants signed informed consent forms and an organisational consent form was also signed by the lead practitioner for behaviour.

There were five females and one male. Ages ranged from 25–35 years to 50+ years with a mode of 50+ years. Length of service in MOE:SE as a registered psychologist ranged from 10 months to 15 years with a mean length of service of 6.5 years, case loads ranged from 15 to 36 students seen within one term with a mean of 25 cases seen per term by a psychologist.

Procedure: An interview schedule was developed which contained 10 questions relating to frameworks for practice as well as information about age ranges, length of service, gender of practitioners, numbers of children or young people typically seen and kinds of behaviours encountered in fieldwork. Questions were a mix of open and closed and were chosen to elicit information about how practitioners worked in the field, allowing them to choose their own words to describe their personal experience.

Each participant was interviewed individually with a scheduled interview time of one hour. Questions were asked in order with the intern psychologist making notes as replies were given. Clarifying questions were sometimes asked by the intern psychologist or participants as they felt necessary. The interview tone was conversational. Copies of the interviewer's notes were emailed to participants to check for accuracy. Data was collated and organised according to emerging common themes.

RESULTS

Kinds of behavioural concerns referred to registered psychologists at MOE:SE:
There were 14 different reasons for referral reported by the six registered psychologists with violent verbal or physical behaviour being reported by five of the six participants as a reason for referral; the next two most commonly mentioned were anxiety and non-compliance, with all other reasons being reported one time (see Chart A).
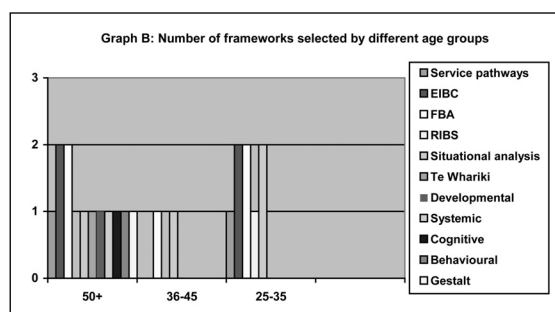
Anxiety	2/6
Violent verbal or physical behaviour	5/6
Task avoidance	1/6
Non compliance	2/6
Mis-match of participants perceptions	1/6
Property damage	1/6
Difficulty with communication	1/6
Self regulation	1/6
Learning	1/6
Autism spectrum disabilities	1/6
Rigid thoughts	1/6
Deviant behaviour	1/6
Parenting difficulties	1/6
Safety of self and others	1/6

Chart A: Reasons for referral

Frameworks for practice: Graph A displays the 11 different frameworks for practice reportedly used by the six registered psychologists who participated in the study. All psychologists reported that they used more than one framework for practice.

Four of the six participants used Effective Interventions for Behaviour Challenges (EIBC), Functional Behaviour Assessment (FBA) and Situational Analysis, two reported using Service Pathways, while RIBS, Te Whaariki, Developmental, Systemic, Cognitive, Behavioural and Gestalt frameworks were each mentioned once.

The psychologists who reported using the largest number of different frameworks were in the 50+ age range (Graph B). Situational Analysis was reportedly used by all of the participants in the 25-35 and 36-45 age groups and one participant in the 50+ age group. Service Pathways were mentioned both by a psychologist in the 50+ age range and a psychologist in the 25-35 age range. Some of the participants who reported using Situational Analysis noted that they used it particularly to organise data into dimensions leading to analysis and used FBA as a method of data collection which contributed to dimensions.

Graph A: Most common frameworks selected by registered psychologists

Graph B: Number of frameworks selected by different age groups
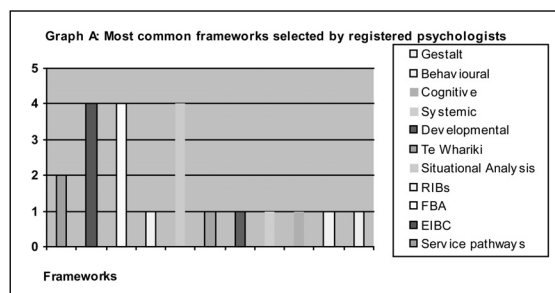
Theories which underlie practice: Graph C contains data about the 14 theories reported by the registered psychologists as underlying the frameworks they use. All psychologists reported behavioural theory underlying their practice. Developmental, ecological and cognitive theories were reported by five of the six psychologists. Narrative, psychometric and learning theories were reported by two psychologists each with Drawing, Attachment, Neuro-linguistic, Cognitive Behaviour Therapy, Social Learning, Solutions-Focused and Socio-Cultural theories each being mentioned once.

Graph C: Theories reported by general category
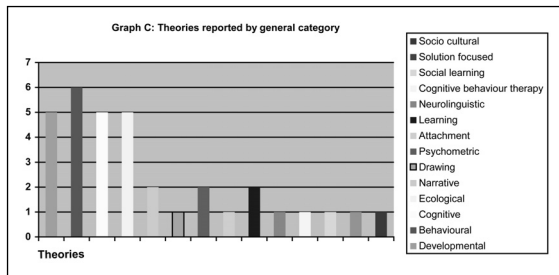
All psychologists selected a wide variety of theorists with two noting that their choice of underpinning theorists was "eclectic". The largest number of theorists selected by an individual was 11 and the smallest, three, with the mean number being six.

One of the psychologists who reported developmental theories underlying her framework for practice noted that 'it all comes back to ages and stages', and another noted that developmental theorists were helpful to underpin practice with 'children as they move age-wise [through the education system]'.

Aspects of framework for practice which support successful outcomes: Graph D shows the 12 aspects of frameworks which the participants reported as supportive of successful outcomes when working with children and young people who displayed severe and challenging behaviour. There was very little repetition of aspects by the participants. The aspects which were reported by two participants were collaboration, positive reinforcement and defining dimensions. One participant noted that collaboration got 'buy-in [which] was very important so that people don't feel dictated to'. All other aspects were reported once.

Graph D: Aspects of framework which support successful outcomes
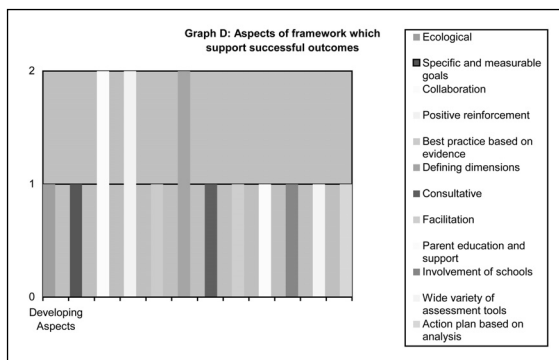
Aspects of the framework for practice that are still developing: The participants were asked "Are there **any** aspects of the framework of practice that are still developing?" The word **any** was chosen carefully so that there was no implication that the participants should, through the framing of the question, define areas which needed development.

All participants did report areas which they needed to develop as a practitioner. These are displayed in Graph E. Timeframes were mentioned twice. The participants said this was due to the new training in EIBC and a reflection on the time it takes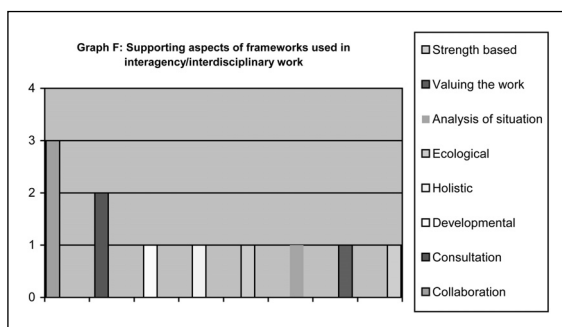 to learn and integrate new procedures (such as filing) until they become more automatic. All other aspects: qualitative data needed to be included, cognitive aspects need to be included, section to include key barriers, effective data collection which teachers will use, paperwork, expectations to always get it right, expectations of number of children seen, new assessment tools, DSM knowledge, intra-personal characteristics such as emotions, were mentioned once. One of the more experienced registered psychologists reported that she was still learning.

Graph E: Aspects of the framework of practice which need development
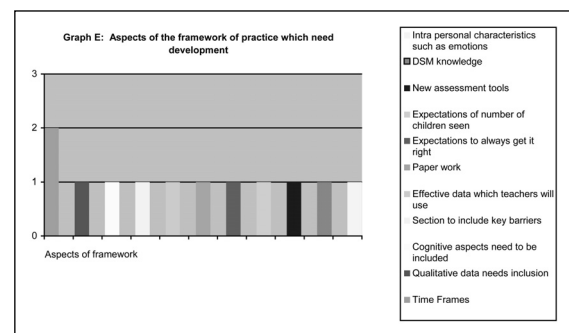
Aspects of the framework for practice which are supportive of inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work: While the processes to develop inter-disciplinary/inter-agency interventions are often prescribed by the local and national management of MOE:SE, four of the six participants reported using regular meetings to develop their inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work. One psychologist reported that maintaining regular communication through email or phone contact was a helpful process. Another said that clearly defining and documenting roles and expectations encouraged successful inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work. One of the psychologists noted that the situational analysis framework was very useful as it allowed her to clearly explain her interpretation of what was happening in the situation. Another psychologist said that there was 'a risk that different perspectives on a situation could cause conflicting opinions' but that 'frequent communication' and 'collaboration' allowed her to work better with other professionals and generate 'a greater chance that different specialists can negotiate the best form of assessment and planning appropriate to the situation for the child, leading to better outcomes'.

The participants reported eight supporting aspects of the frameworks which they used in inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work (Graph F). Three of the six psychologists reported finding collaboration supportive, while two of the six reported finding consultation supportive; the six other supportive aspects were reported once.

Graph F: Supporting aspects of frameworks used in interagency/interdisciplinary work

Legend:
- Strength based
- Valuing the work
- Analysis of situation
- Ecological
- Holistic
- Developmental
- Consultation
- Collaboration

DISCUSSION

Common reasons for referral

The most commonly reported reasons for referral for severe and challenging behaviour were violent verbal or physical behaviour, non-compliance and anxiety, with social or learning difficulties reported only once. It appears from this data that schools are referring and GSE are prioritising those referrals which are focused on violent behaviour rather than those that focus on loss of social opportunities and learning. In its definition of severe and challenging behaviour the Ministry includes behaviour which affects 'social interactions and learning' (Ministry of Education, Severe Behaviour, 2008, p.18). The reasons for this are doubtless varied and could include the focus of the supporting literature of EIBC training on behaviour and behavioural theorists, the backgrounds, ages and length of experience of the individual participants, the kinds of referrals which schools make to MOE:SE, who is able to make referrals to MOE:SE, and the need for MOE:SE to prioritise referrals.

Frameworks for practice

The three most commonly mentioned frameworks for practice involving children and young people who have severe and challenging behaviour were EIBC, Situational Analysis and FBA. Some of the participants of the study specifically noted that they used FBA as part of their data-collection phase and that it helped them to define dimensions or aspects of a situation. It is interesting that they used FBA as a tool to help them as they worked within the situational analysis framework. The popularity of EIBC and FBA may be due to the recent training in EIBC which psychologists working at MOE:SE have undergone in the past two years.

Service pathways are an overarching framework specific to MOE:SE which is an organisational expectation for service standards as is RIBS, a review tool for ensuring service standards are adhered to in groups of fieldwork rather than individual fieldwork. The selection of a wide variety of frameworks for practice by the psychologists in the 50+ age group may be correlated to their average length of service (11 years) and consequent exposure to a wide variety of frameworks. It may also be correlated to their varied cultural, work and educational backgrounds.

Theoretical underpinnings

The unanimous choice of behavioural theories to underpin the frameworks used is perhaps influenced by the recent training in EIBC. Behavioural theories are widely discussed in both the meta-analyses (Church, 2003, Meyer & Evans, 2006;) which have informed the EIBC training. Behavioural theories are closely linked to FBA with Gresham, Watson and Skinner (2001) noting that operant learning theory underpins FBA.

Ecological theory, selected by five of the six participants, is noted by Annan (2005) as being both part of the style and structure of situational analysis. Other theories which are tied closely to the situational analysis framework are narrative, social learning and solution-focused theories. While Annan's article about situational analysis discusses some specific theories which informed the construction of the framework, the framework is flexible enough to allow the participants to bring their unique knowledge to the situation in order to achieve outcomes which are viewed by the participants as constructive.

Supportive aspects of frameworks in inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work

The most popular choice by practitioners for supportive aspects of their frameworks of practice in inter-disciplinary/inter-agency work was collaboration. Annan (2005) directly addresses working with professionals from other disciplines and puts forward situational analysis as a way to enlist participants with multiple viewpoints as collaborators in the process of working towards new and positive outcomes. FBA provides a method of gathering data and presenting it, which facilitates understanding of why behaviour is occurring and highlights those areas which may be most likely to create beneficial change when intervened with.

The wide range of supportive aspects of frameworks for practice which were reported by participants may be reflective of their range of age, experience and backgrounds. Situational Analysis, EIBC and FBA frameworks appear to have been influential of the aspects which were reported, with positive reinforcement, collaboration and defining dimensions all being cited by more than one participant.

One of the most experienced psychologists reported that she was 'still learning' in response to the question about areas of frameworks for practice which needed development. This is perhaps reflective of both the recent training in EIBC which is currently being integrated into fieldwork and the nature of working with people who are individually unique and are involved in unique situations. It would be expected that aspects of the frameworks for practice be continually developing for the individual practitioner. Annan (2005) notes that both systems and individuals are diverse and that the situational analysis

framework, which was reportedly used by four of the six psychologists, has been designed specifically to support fieldwork which is peculiar to each situation.

Conclusion
Data has been organised in this report to reflect the frameworks for practice most commonly reported by the participants, who were six psychologists working at MOE:SE, how these frameworks were supportive of a wide range of fieldwork and also specifically how they supported fieldwork which involves inter-disciplinary/ inter-agency work. Each of the more commonly named frameworks - EIBC, FBA and Situational Analysis - has been described and examined in relation to each other and the responses given by participants.

The responses given regarding frameworks and supporting theories could perhaps be described as diverse or, as some of the participants said, 'eclectic'. This may be reflective of the acknowledgement by MOE:SE that registered psychologists have a variety of backgrounds and training, and therefore use a variety of frameworks (Cull, personal communication, August 21, 2008). It may also be reflective of the recent training in EIBC, which has taken place at MOE:SE and the educational programme leading to registration which is offered through Massey University which uses situational analysis as its framework. The registered psychologists in the 50+ age range selected the largest number of frameworks and this may reflect their experience with the profession and exposure to multiple frameworks.

It was interesting that the most common combination of reported frameworks used was EIBC, FBA and Situational Analysis. Perhaps this is because situational analysis is a broad enough framework to include the use of other frameworks as they are pertinent to the work. As the questions were asked specifically about working with severe and challenging behaviour, it might be expected that EIBC and FBA were frequently mentioned due to their applicability to working with severe and challenging behaviour. The limited number of participants of the study will limit the potential for generalisation of the results.

The research conducted has provided specific information about how some practising psychologists work within MOE:SE. The study has also been informative about how situational analysis can blend with the other frameworks for practice which are provided during in-service training at MOE:SE.

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After teaching in the United States and New Zealand I completed my internship in Educational Psychology in 2008. Currently I am working with the Howick/Pakuranga Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour. I use situational analysis as my framework for practice and am enjoying the opportunities working as an RTLB to apply this framework.

Working with Children with Specific Communication Disorders
A Professional Development Programme for Teachers

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ABSTRACT
Primary teacher training programmes in New Zealand do not provide training about specific communication disorders (SCDs), despite prevalence of SCDs of approximately 7%. This pilot study investigated the effectiveness of a three-hour professional development (PD) programme for a specialised group of primary teachers, Special Education Needs Coordinators (SENCOs), around working with children with SCDs in the classroom. Six SENCOs from different schools participated. Effectiveness was measured using a pre-test/post-test within-subjects design. Outcome measures were (1) a knowledge questionnaire and (2) a videoed interaction with a new-entrant child. SENCOs increased the specificity of responses to open questions and improved their scores on closed questions, with a significant improvement in knowledge about characteristics of the children. Eleven strategies were counted in the videoed interactions; seven improved and two deteriorated. SENCOs reported satisfaction with programme content and length. Additional research is recommended to further develop the PD programme into an effective resource for classroom teachers.

Practice Paper

Keywords: classroom, language, professional development, specific communication disorder, teacher.

INTRODUCTION

Specific communication disorders: definition and prevalence
Children with specific communication disorders (SCDs) are characterised by delayed or disordered acquisition of oral language in the absence of other major neurological, physical or global impairments (Knox, 2002). Tomblin et al. (1997) found a prevalence of 7.4% amongst five-year-old children in the United States, which is consistent with figures from the United Kingdom (UK) (Dockrell & Lindsay, 1998; Knox, 2002; Purdy, McConnell, Fraser & Gillespie, 2007).

Specific communication disorders are commonly referred to as specific language impairment (SLI) or more recently, specific speech and language difficulties (SSLD) (Dockrell & Lindsay, 1998). Due to the heterogeneous nature of children with SCDs and the fact that the terms "SLI" and "SSLD" are not used in New Zealand currently, this population will be referred to herein as *children with specific communication disorders (SCDs)*.

Impact of specific communication disorders on school-aged children
Specific communication disorders which continue beyond the pre-school years are likely to be long-term (Stothard, Snowling, Bishop, Chipchase & Kaplan, 1998). They have been shown to have a significant impact on affected children academically (Dockrell & Lindsay, 1998; Knox, 2002; Stothard et al., 1998), socially and behaviourally (Jerome, Fujiki, Brinton & James, 2002; Knox & Conti-Ramsden, 2003). Dockrell and Lindsay (1998) found an average delay of two years in the language and literacy skills of 59 Year 3 students with SCDs in the UK. Knox (2002) found that the majority of a group of 100 Year 6 students with SCDs in the UK did not reach the minimum standard in national curriculum assessments across subjects. Oral language is the medium of instruction in mainstream schools. Children with impaired language will therefore have difficulty accessing all areas of the curriculum.

North Shore Language Unit and inclusion
The majority of children with SCDs in New Zealand are educated in mainstream settings. New Zealand's only language unit, the North Shore Language Unit (NSLU), is based at Takapuna Primary School in Auckland and is due to close this year. This unit provides two years of full-time education for children with severe SCDs from new-entrant level to age seven. Achieving successful transitions from the NSLU to mainstream settings was one of the motivations for the current study. The majority of New Zealand teacher education programmes do not include compulsory papers on inclusive education. With the closure of the NSLU, virtually all children with SCDs will be educated in mainstream settings, with teachers who have received no training in this area.

International research indicates that teachers perceive they lack knowledge, training, resources and confidence to work with children with special needs (Dockrell & Lindsay, 2001; Marshall, Ralph & Palmer, 2002; Sadler, 2005; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). Conti-Ramsden, Botting, Knox, and Simkin (2002) found that most mainstream teachers receiving a child from a language unit felt under-qualified and ill-resourced. Children

in their classes performed more poorly on language measures than those whose teachers were happy with the placement, highlighting the link between teacher perceptions and outcomes for children with SCDs.

Professional development programmes for teachers
The limited coverage of inclusive education in initial teacher education means teachers are likely to need post-graduate and in-service professional development (PD) in this area. Research investigating effectiveness of such programmes has shown the difficulty of changing teacher practice, and highlighted aspects of PD programmes that may lead to greater success (Ahsam, Shepherd & Warren-Adamson, 2006; Coggins, 2008; Gersten, Vaughn, Deshler & Schiller, 1997; Girolametto, Weitzman, & Greenberg, 2003; Showers, Joyce & Bennett, 1987).

Professional development programmes targeting language skills at the pre-school level were investigated by Girolametto et al. (2003) and Ahsam et al. (2006). In both studies pre-school teachers were trained to facilitate children's language development and interaction skills, and positive outcomes were shown. Coggins (2008) implemented a PD programme focusing on conversation, auditory processing, and vocabulary learning for teachers at an Australian primary school. A pre-/post-test showed a positive shift in teacher knowledge. Teacher feedback was overwhelmingly positive.

The aim of the present pilot study was to create a PD programme for SENCOs that would (1) increase SENCO knowledge about SCDs and (2) increase their facilitative interaction skills with children with SCDs. SENCOs are primary school teachers with an additional role of overseeing the needs of children with special needs within their school. The ideas of several authors were drawn upon, including Girolametto et al. (2003), Ahsam et al. (2006), Coggins (2008) and Wellington and Wellington (2002). It was hypothesised that following the PD programme, SENCOs would (1) demonstrate improved knowledge about SCDs through their responses to a knowledge questionnaire and (2) demonstrate increased use of strategies covered in the PD programme during a videoed interaction with a child. If successful, the PD programme and evaluation tools could be further developed for a wider group of teachers.

METHODOLOGY

Participants
Six SENCOs from different primary schools on Auckland's North Shore participated. They came from schools that parents of current NSLU attendees were considering enrolling their children in, after they had left the language unit. Informed consent was obtained from parents of NSLU children, and principals and SENCOs of the mainstream schools. Participating SENCOs had between 17 and 30 years teaching experience and reported little or no previous training related to working with children with SCDs.

The new-entrant teacher at each participating school was asked to identify a child who may benefit from additional oral language support. Informed consent was obtained from the parents/caregivers. The researcher also obtained consent from the children by reading aloud to them from an assent form written in child-friendly language. The researcher signed the form if the child agreed to participate. Information on the children's speech and language status was not collected as the investigation focused on SENCOs' interaction strategies.

Design and procedure
A PD programme, entitled *Working with Children with Communication Disorders*, was developed by the authors. Three SENCOs attended the programme together, and the remaining three attended individually. The programme aimed to (1) increase SENCO knowledge about SCDs, (2) assist SENCOs to interact more effectively with children with SCDs in order to maximise the children's learning and, (3) provide a package which SENCOs could easily deliver to other teachers.

Three one-hour sessions consisted of a powerpoint presentation, questions for discussion and practical activities. The focus of each session was as follows:
• Session 1: Introduction to communication disorders and general strategies for teachers.
• Session 2: Strategies for specific areas of difficulty.
• Session 3: Communication disorders and the curriculum.

SENCOs were asked to try specific strategies in the classroom between sessions for discussion in the following session. Following final assessment, each SENCO was given a resource folder and compact disc containing materials used during the programme.

A pre-test/post-test, within-subjects design was used to measure outcomes. SENCOs were assessed using a (1) knowledge questionnaire and (2) videoed interaction working on a set task with a child, prior to and following participation in the PD programme. SENCOs also completed a programme evaluation questionnaire.

The knowledge questionnaire contained two parts. Responses to Part 1 were collected before Part 2 was given.
Part 1 contained three open questions:
1) What characteristics would you expect a child from the NSLU to have?
2) Think about the curriculum. What will the child have difficulty with? Why?
3) In what ways could you help this child in the classroom?

Part 2 contained 40 closed questions to be answered with *yes, no* or *unsure*, and was in two parts:
Part A: Characteristics of children from the NSLU.
Part B: Strategies to help these children in the classroom.

Videoed interaction data was obtained by videotaping each SENCO completing a set task within a 20-minute time limit with the child participant from their school. Materials provided were: written instructions about how to complete the task; reading book; laminated line drawing related to the book with five items coloured in and three additional items drawn in colour; uncoloured copy of the same drawing; 10 different coloured pencils, including the eight colours used in the laminated picture. Two different reading books were used in counter-balanced order across SENCOs and across sessions. The task required SENCOs to: (1) go through the book with the child, trying to ensure that by the end (a) the SENCO had some idea of the child's concept of print and/or reading ability, and (b) the child had a good understanding of the book's content, and (2) get the child to colour and draw on their copy of the picture so it looked like the model picture. SENCOs were instructed to refrain from pointing to the coloured pencils or parts of the picture.

RESULTS

Questionnaire: open questions
The number of relevant points made by each SENCO for each open question was tallied (Table 1) and responses were analysed using content analysis (Thomas, 2006). Points were deemed relevant if they related directly to the question asked, even if they were not consistent with specific programme recommendations.

Qu.1 = child characteristics; Qu.2 = areas of difficulty;
Qu.3 = help in classroom

	Baseline				Final				Difference
	Qu. 1	Qu. 2	Qu. 3	Total	Qu. 1	Qu. 2	Qu. 3	Total	
SENCO 1	5	6	4	15	2	3	7	12	-3
SENCO 2	5	5	5	15	7	5	7	19	4
SENCO 3	3	3	1	7	4	2	6	12	5
SENCO 4	6	3	4	13	7	6	6	19	6
SENCO 5	5	5	4	14	3	2	6	11	-3
SENCO 6	5	5	9	19	5	6	6	17	-2
Total	29	27	27	83	28	24	38	90	7

Table 1: Number of relevant points made by each SENCO for open questions at baseline and final assessment.

The most notable change was seen in Question 3, for which the number of relevant points increased by 11, and five SENCOs showed improved knowledge. More detailed sub-categories were included in responses to this question after training, especially under *strategies for giving instructions* and *visual aids*.

Content analyses results indicate that following the PD programme:
• Information about strategies was more salient than theoretical information
• SENCOs were more focused on comprehension difficulties, particularly giving instructions and using visual aids
• There was more focus on the child's overall functioning in the classroom rather than specific deficits
• Some comments made at baseline that were not discussed or were discouraged during the PD programme did not appear at final assessment.

Questionnaire: closed questions
Results for Parts A and B were analysed separately (Table 2). Two points were assigned for correct answers, one point for *unsure* and no points for incorrect answers, with a possible total of 40 points for each part. The mean score for each part across the six SENCOs was calculated for baseline and final assessments, and compared using a Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test. There was a significant improvement in Part A scores [Z=2.02, p=0.04]. Part B scores also increased, but the difference did not reach significance [Z=1.62, p=0.11]. Overall, there was an increase in the number of questions answered correctly, the number of questions answered incorrectly remained largely unchanged and there was a drop in *unsure* responses.

[a] Questions about characteristics; 20 items
[b] Questions about strategies; 20 items

Section of Questionnaire	Baseline			Final		
	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD	Range
Part A[a]	27.33	3.83	22-31	32.67	4.37	27-38
Part B[b]	25.50	1.64	24-28	29.00	3.74	25-35

Table 2: Baseline and final scores for each section of the closed questionnaire.

Closed questions were identified where there was an increase of three or more SENCOs answering correctly at final compared with baseline assessment, as these were the most useful for measuring change. The closed questions meeting this criterion related to:
(1) awareness of: a) the range of difficulties faced by children with SCDs and b) the children's difficulties being specific to language, and
(2) importance of teachers reducing language load and augmenting talk with gesture.

Videoed interactions
Videos were analysed for the number of occurrences of 11 strategies covered in the PD programme (Table 3). Strategies were selected which were appropriate for

use in a one-to-one setting, could be counted reliably, and encompassed a broad range of areas covered. For six strategies, negative points were counted when the strategy was not used when indicated, or a specified converse behaviour was observed. *Improvement* was defined as an increase in positive points, combined with a decrease or no change in negative points for strategies where negative points were measured. *Deterioration* was defined as a decrease in positive points, combined with an increase or no change in negative points for strategies where negative points were measured. Other patterns were defined as *neutral*. Detailed guidelines were developed to ensure consistency in counting the strategies, and the researchers watched each video several times to check accuracy. Due to time constraints, an inter-rater reliability check was not possible as part of this pilot study, however, ratings were discussed amongst the researchers to ensure consistency in the coding of behaviours.

The mean number of points for each strategy at baseline and final assessment was compared using Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Tests. No changes were statistically significant at the $p<.05$ level; however there was a statistical trend for reduction of negative points on the following measures: G4 (not attempting to elicit a correct answer) [$Z=1.83$, $p=0.07$] and C1 (giving indirect instructions) [$Z=1.75$, $p=0.08$]. Mean session lengths were: baseline 15.54 minutes (SD 5.08; range 8.33-21.17); final 16.36 minutes (SD 4.07; range 11.45-21.45).

[a]G=general (whole session); R=reading activity only; C=colouring activity only

Code[a]	Strategy	Difference in means		Outcome
		Positive points	Negative points	
G1	Active listening	0.17	---	Improved
G2	Visual aids to highlight words	2.50	---	Improved
G3	Response time	1.33	0.00	Improved
G4	Cueing strategies	1.83	-1.00	Improved
R1	Establishing story context	-2.5	---	Deteriorated
R2	Highlighting story vocabulary	1.5	---	Improved
R3	Discussion following reading	-3.5	---	Deteriorated
C1	Direct instructions	0.83	-2.83	Improved
C2	Breaking instructions down	-0.33	-0.33	Neutral
C3	Giving time to complete task	0.33	-0.33	Improved
C4	Exact repetition if needed	-0.50	-1.17	Neutral

Table 3: Differences in mean number of occurrences of strategies (positive and negative points) at baseline and final assessments and interpretation of outcome.

Programme evaluation questionnaires
Programme evaluation questionnaires were returned by five of the six SENCOs. Results of Part 1, where SENCOs were required to respond using a seven-point scale, are listed in Table 4. Responses to each open question contained in Part 2 of the questionnaire were organised into data-driven categories. A total of seven comments (both general and specific) were made about practical strategies under the *most useful parts of the programme* question. The majority of respondents did not make any comments under *least useful parts of the programme* and *additional things they would like to see in the programme*. Under *impact on day-to-day teaching*, five comments were made about modifying teacher-talk style, and two comments were made about increased awareness of children's needs. Four SENCOs felt increased confidence about working with a child from the NSLU, and three commented that they could refer to the programme notes. One SENCO commented that the realities of the classroom would have an impact on the support they could offer. Four SENCOs felt that the length of the programme was *just right*; the fifth did not respond to this question.

[a] Responses on a seven point scale, where 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree

Question	Mean[a]	SD	Range
1. I have a better understanding of communication disorders now than I did before I took part in this programme.	5.8	0.84	5 - 7
2. I feel better equipped for working with children with communication disorders now than I did before I took part in this programme.	6.0	0.71	5 - 7
3. There are aspects of the training that I am able to use immediately in my day-to-day teaching.	5.8	0.45	5 - 6
4. I feel confident about passing my learning on to other teachers at my school.	6.2	0.45	6 - 7

Table 4: SENCO responses to Part A of the programme evaluation questionnaire.

DISCUSSION
This study aimed to increase SENCO knowledge of SCDs, and provide strategies which SENCOs could use to assist children with SCDs to succeed in the classroom. Outcomes were measured using questionnaires and videoed interactions.

Knowledge questionnaire
Part 1 of the knowledge questionnaire asked three open questions to gather information about the SENCOs' general understanding of SCDs and their impact on children. The 40 closed questions in Part 2 aimed to gather more specific information about the SENCOs' understanding of particular aspects of SCDs. Results indicate that practical information about strategies may have been more salient than theoretical information about SCDs. This is consistent with the findings of Gersten et al. (1997), who highlighted "the reality principle", that is, the importance to teachers of suggestions which are concrete, practical and specific.

In responses to the open questions, there was a much greater emphasis on comprehension difficulties at final than baseline assessment. This may reflect raised awareness of the comprehension difficulties faced by children with SCDs, and the pervasive impact of these difficulties on accessing the curriculum (Dockrell & Lindsay, 1998). The changes suggest that, after training, SENCOs were thinking more about the child in the context of the classroom than focusing on their deficits. The programme covered other topics that were less strongly reflected in responses such as modification of curriculum tasks and strategies to assist with reading comprehension. Future modifications of the programme should consider how best to change knowledge and behaviour in these areas.

Accuracy of responses to the closed questions significantly improved for Part A but not Part B, suggesting that SENCOs gained more knowledge about characteristics of children with SCDs than strategies to use with them. This is not consistent with responses to open questions and the use of strategies during videoed interactions, and is likely to reflect poor closed question design. The closed questions were designed so that it would be difficult to guess the correct answer, leading to somewhat obscure wording, which could have contributed to the negative finding. For example, for Part B, Question 4 (*ensure there is adequate lighting in the room*), several SENCOs commented that adequate lighting would be important for all children, so answered *yes*. The intended answer was *no*, as this was not specifically relevant to children with communication disorders. The discrepancy in these results highlights the value of including a range of outcome measures.

The knowledge questionnaire was designed specifically for this pilot study. Many previous studies looking at the effectiveness of PD programmes for teachers measured changes in observed behaviours, but not knowledge (Ahsam et al., 2006; Gersten, Morvant & Brengelman, 1995; Girolametto et al., 2003). Coggins (2008) used a questionnaire specifically related to the material she taught. As the questionnaire for the current study was designed to measure SENCO knowledge at a more general level it cannot easily be compared with existing literature. Some items in the knowledge questionnaire should be revised and reliability should be confirmed before it is used again as an evaluation tool.

Videoed interactions
The 11 strategies measured on the videoed interactions related to the ways in which SENCOs used language to facilitate successful participation for the child. Conversational analysis research has shown that the structure of conversation can affect learners' comprehension and expression (Schegloff, Koshik, Jacoby & Olsher, 2002). The way teachers use language is particularly important for children with SCDs (Nelson,

1991). There were no statistically significant changes in the coded results of the videoed interactions; however, there were some interesting trends. An improvement was seen for seven of the eleven strategies. Four of these (G1 active listening; G2 visual aids to highlight words; R2 highlighting story vocabulary and C1 direct instructions) are directly related to facilitating comprehension. A further two (G3 response time; C3 giving time to complete task) relate to comprehension in that they allow increased processing time and reduce language load. These findings are consistent with responses to the knowledge questionnaire. Comprehension difficulties and the use of visual aids and clear instructions were mentioned more frequently in responses to the open questions at final than baseline assessment. There was also a marked improvement in correct answers to the closed question about using gesture when speaking.

Showers et al. (1987) found that teachers' actions are directed by the cognitions which enable a practice to be selected and used appropriately. They emphasised the importance of generating these cognitions as part of PD programmes. SENCOs' increased knowledge of comprehension difficulties, evident in the knowledge questionnaire responses, may have led them to use a larger number of strategies that would assist with comprehension.

An apparent deterioration was found in the use of two strategies (R1 establishing story context; R3 discussion following reading). Both involved engaging the child in discussion, often by asking questions. Knowledge questionnaire responses indicated increased SENCO awareness of comprehension difficulties, and that asking a lot of questions may be inappropriate. This may have led to reduced discussion about the story. It would be beneficial to include in the PD programme alternatives to questioning, such as tasks to improve syntactic awareness and teaching the child strategies to monitor their comprehension (Tunmer & Cole, 1991).

The lack of significant findings for the videoed interactions may reflect the constraints of the selected tasks, or a lack of statistical power due to the small number of participants. Alternatively, the problem may have been lack of opportunity for observation and feedback for SENCOs using the recommended strategies in the classroom. Coaching with regular feedback and discussion is an important element of changing teacher behaviour (Gersten et al., 1995; Gersten et al., 1997; Showers et al., 1987). It may be beneficial to build this kind of coaching into the programme, although the benefits would need to be weighed against the additional time commitment.

The ability to draw comparisons between the video and questionnaire data highlights the benefit of measuring change in both knowledge and observed behaviours.

Future studies should also include inter-rater reliability checks of the video data.

Programme evaluation questionnaires
SENCOs were generally happy with the content and length of the programme. The enthusiasm with which they participated despite their busy timetables indicates that they strongly felt the need for support around working with children with SCDs. They felt the programme had had an impact on their day-to-day teaching, and were more confident about working with children with SCDs, as well as educating other staff. This feedback is similar to that received by Coggins (2008) following her PD programme for primary school teachers.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS
Results of this pilot study investigating the impact on SENCO knowledge and behaviour of a short, relatively simple PD intervention are encouraging. SENCOs gave more relevant, specific answers to open questions, scores improved on closed questions with the change reaching significance for "characteristics", and improvements were seen on seven of the eleven videoed interaction strategies. Results suggest the most salient information related to giving instructions clearly, using visual aids, and the impact of SCDs on performance across all areas of the curriculum.

Future PD programmes should include opportunities for observation and feedback in the classroom and more strategies for assisting children with SCDs with reading comprehension. Measuring both knowledge and observable behaviours is valuable. The three-hour PD programme improved SENCO knowledge of SCDs and there was a trend for increased use of some strategies, particularly those related to facilitating comprehension. Thus, further development of the PD programme and outcome measures is warranted.

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AUTHOR PROFILE

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Michele Cunningham is a recent speech-language therapy graduate, having completed the University of Auckland's Master of Speech Language Therapy Practice (MSLTPrac) degree in 2008. This work was completed as part of the MSLTPrac research requirements, in collaboration with two University of Auckland Speech Science staff members, Drs Suzanne Purdy and Linda Hand. It is hoped that this work will promote knowledge of specific communication disorders and facilitate development of resources to help these children succeed in mainstream education. Michele is currently working with adults with communication and swallowing disorders at Tauranga Hospital; however she also retains a strong interest in child language.

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Linda Hand is a Senior Lecturer in the Speech Sciences Programme, Department of Psychology at the University of Auckland. Linda worked as a Speech Language Therapist in NZ for around 10 years, before going to the US to do a MA in Speech Language Pathology at the University of Iowa, then working as a lecturer at the University of Sydney in Communication Sciences and Disorders where she stayed for 20 years, in the process completing a PhD in Linguistics at Macquarie University. She returned to NZ in 2007 to take up her present position. Her fields are child language, functional linguistics and culture and communication.

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"When they don't have to sit there they don't. They'll go and sit somewhere else"

Students with disabilities talk about barriers to friendship.

Dr Angela Ward
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ABSTRACT
Students learn best when they feel accepted, included and have positive social relationships. Over a period of two school years, four students with disabilities told their stories of the reality of their secondary school experiences including their experiences of friendships and social relationships in their classrooms and out-of-class settings. This article presents some of the contextual factors that were identified as supporting and/or hindering positive social relationships and learning.

Unintentional and intentional barriers to positive social relationships are explored, and some implications for teachers, as they promote student learning within the classroom, are presented. Teachers are invited to listen to these stories and reflect on their pedagogy so as to learn how to create supportive learning environments where the values and principles of the New Zealand Curriculum are supported and where the key competencies of Relating to Others; Participating and Contributing; and Managing Self are developed.

Practice Paper

Keywords: *Friendships, key competencies, pedagogy, secondary schools, social relationships, students with disabilities.*

INTRODUCTION
We would all agree that friendship and positive relationships are an important part of our lives and that it is a truism that people have a basic need to be valued, liked and respected by others, and to experience warm, reciprocal relationships; our friends satisfy our need to belong, to understand who we are, and support us as we face new experiences and challenges. Because children spend a great deal of their time in school settings, the school plays a role in social learning. This is part of our responsibility as teachers to create environments where children will develop the skills that will 'enable them to live full and satisfying lives' (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 8). However, there are contextual factors that create barriers for children to get to know each other, as well as "othering" students with disabilities: a practice that influences the perceptions of students without disabilities as they ask themselves, "Would this person make a good friend?"

This article explores some of the stories of four students with disabilities about their secondary school experiences, particularly their social experiences, and contextual factors that shaped these. The first section briefly explores the nature of friendships and positive social relationships in inclusive schools. Following an outline of the research project, the findings are presented using Pivik, McComas and LaFlamme's (2002) framework of four barriers to inclusive education.

So what literature can we draw on to help us here?

Friendships and positive social relationships
Adolescents with disabilities have the same desires and needs for friendship as their peers without disabilities, and secondary education can provide a context to encourage independence and develop social relationships (Thomas, Bax & Smyth, 1989). However, for students with disabilities, making friends and establishing positive relationships can be made more difficult by what may be an 'already problematic life' (Smith, 1997, p. 258). Such confounding factors may be the nature of their disability, stigmatisation, and problems with family as adolescents seek more independence. Barnes (1990) and Field, Hoffman and Posch, (1997) maintain that the inability to address these students' needs is a characteristic of non-inclusive schools and another contributing factor to poor social outcomes.

Inclusive schools
Inclusive education involves more than placing students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms; in inclusive schools working in an ecological model, students learn together in classrooms that support their diverse needs. Inclusive schools recognise that students are disabled by the environment and social practices, as well as by their bodies (Shakespeare, 2006). In a deficit and exclusive model, a lack of friends is construed as the students' fault and often withdrawal social skills programmes aim to teach the students with disabilities the social skills that are required to establish positive social relationships (Scanlon, 1996); this model does not address the social skills of the students without disabilities or other factors in the environment, for example, teacher attitudes and pedagogy, that do not support positive social relationships. There are also issues of transfer and generalisation (Nesbitt, 2005).

Inclusion, one of the principles of the New Zealand Curriculum (MOE, 2007) seems to be easier at the primary school level than the secondary perhaps because of fewer constraints, such as a grade level curriculum and the pedagogical approaches of secondary teachers (Meyer, 1996). Secondary schools have been much slower in moving towards and developing inclusive classrooms (Cole & McLeskey, 1997), and there is a perception that secondary schools, by retaining their traditional structures and practices, are slower than primary schools to change and embrace inclusive ideologies and practices (Thousand, Rosenberg, Bishop & Villa, 1997). In secondary schools, students are expected to use their skills to learn information, and because secondary teachers work with large numbers of different students each day, contact time is more limited than in the primary school context (Schumaker & Deshler, 1994). There is also pressure from the assessment system and "getting through the curriculum". Some researchers argue that in a traditional model, the concept of difference is perpetuated and the status quo is maintained in pedagogy and school structure with little innovation and change (Carrington & Elkins, 2002). Consequently, to include inclusive practices will require a critique of traditional pedagogical models (Thousand et al., 1997). Furthermore, organisational features of most secondary schools (e.g. individual timetables, changing classrooms, and multiple teachers) can hinder the development of peer relationships and thus also need critical analysis (Schnorr, 1997).

There is an extensive international literature base on students' friendships and social relationships (Meyer & Ward, 1999). Three main themes emerge: *proximity* – children make friends with those children who are near them i.e. same class, same age, same neighbourhood: *opportunity* – children need opportunities to be together and to share interests and experiences, and *facilitation* –for young children's parents to facilitate early friendships. However, once children are at school, teachers need to create an environment whereby children have opportunities to be in proximity to each other in order to learn social skills and make friends. Proximity is necessary for making new friends for friendships to develop; students need to be connected with a subgroup of peers, other than informal interactions related to class activities and routines (Schnorr, 1997). These informal interactions as part of a supportive learning environment enable students with disabilities to be noticed by their peers with positive characteristics identified, thus reducing stigma and encouraging the valuing of diversity; informal interactions can lead to positive social relationships and friendships.

Six "frames of friendship"
An important contribution to the literature on friendships and social relationships is the work of Meyer et al.,

(1998). From their participatory research with adolescents with disabilities, the researchers described a range of social relationships between students with and without severe disabilities. This "frames" perspective addresses the issue of viewing friendships from a model other than a traditional one. They purport that in all settings children fit into six friendship frames: Best Friends; Regular Friend; Just Another Kid; I'll Help; Inclusion Kid; and Ghost/Guest. Best Friends are the ones who share intimate thoughts and worries and are usually drawn from the group of Regular Friends. Regular Friends are the friends who socialise in and outside the class but may not share their closest secrets. Just Another Kid reflects the relationships with classmates that all the students' experience whereby students are not Regular Friends with all the students in the class but everyone is accepted as a classmate with common experiences of being in the same class. The Inclusion Kid is one who interacts with his/her teacher-aide and teacher but has little interaction with the other students. This can be created when the teacher uses language such as "the ADHD Kid" or "the ORRS Kid" and when the teacher sees the student as the responsibility of the teacher-aide. This frame may include the I'll Help frame within a charity model whereby the student with a disability is seen as always needing help; helping may be the only interaction with students without disabilities. At worst, the student with a disability is not treated as part of the class (a Ghost) or regarded as an invited Guest. This can be a reflection of exclusionary language or the student not being on the roll of the class, for example, being on the roll of an attached unit; this implies the student does not belong but is visiting. It is also evident when the curriculum and physical environment are not adapted for the student, and when the student is not included in group or class activities. These latter frames do not reflect inclusive classrooms and the principles and values of the curriculum.

The New Zealand curriculum
'Learning is inseparable from its social and cultural context. Students learn best when they feel accepted, when they enjoy positive relationships with their fellow students and teachers, and when they are able to be active, visible members of the learning community' (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 34). This statement comes from the New Zealand Curriculum in the section on Effective Pedagogy: teacher actions promote student learning, and thus recognises that teachers play a vital role in creating the environments that support learning – both academic and social. The curriculum makes explicit reference to creating supportive learning environments with specific suggestions of how this might happen in classrooms, thus promoting and facilitating students' academic and social learning such as shared activities and conversations, learning partnerships and learning communities. In order to be effective teachers supporting the curriculum's vision of confident, connected, active and

lifelong learners by developing related values and key competencies, they must recognise some of the barriers that may inhibit such learning and seek to address these in their pedagogy.

From their research, Pivik, et al., (2002) suggest some factors which create barriers that inhibit the inclusion of students with disabilities thus storying students with disabilities as The Inclusion Kid or as Ghosts or Guests (Meyer et al., 1998). They identified four categories of barriers to inclusive education in schools that affect social acceptance and subsequently positive relationships: '(a) the physical environment (e.g. narrow doorways, ramps, seating); (b) intentional attitude barriers (e.g. isolation, bullying); (c) unintentional attitudinal barriers (e.g. lack of knowledge, understanding, or awareness), and (d) physical limitations (e.g. difficulty with manual dexterity)' (Pivik, et al., p. 97). I wanted to explore these factors from the perspectives of students with disabilities to see if these barriers were apparent in their school contexts and if so, highlight the implications for teachers with suggested ways that they could create supportive and inclusive learning environments. There has been a dearth of research investigating the perspectives of students with disabilities of their experiences at secondary school. The Pivik, et al. model is useful for understanding students' experiences within a socio-cultural context.

THE RESEARCH PROJECT

Narrative inquiry
I used a narrative inquiry methodology to answer my research question: "What is the nature of the social relationships and friendships of four students with disabilities in four secondary schools in New Zealand; and what factors shape these relationships?" Narrative inquiry is a research approach that enables an understanding of experience as lived and told stories. It is grounded in Dewey's (1938) understanding of education as experience and Bruner's (1985) theory of narrative cognition as a way of knowing. Listening to and including students' stories in the research text validate their experiences. Establishing a collaborative research relationship takes time and space, and involves the researcher developing skills as an active listener, thereby strengthening the students' voice.

Participants
Over a period of two school years, four students with disabilities who were verified as having high or very high needs and who received funding through the Ongoing and Reviewable Resourcing Scheme (ORRS) told their stories of the reality of their secondary school experiences: the transition to high school and their experiences of learning, friendships and social relationships in their classrooms, and out-of-class settings. The stories of their teachers, teacher-aides and

principals, siblings and peers were placed alongside and analysed. The schools were all co-educational schools in the North Island of New Zealand.

Research tools
The students', siblings' and parents' stories were recorded in interviews in their homes; other interviews were conducted in the schools. I also made observations in each of the four schools and wrote field notes and a journal of the research process. Documents including Individual Education Plans (IEPs) and each school prospectus was also sourced and included in the analysis.

Ethics
The Massey University Human Ethics Committee approved the research and addressed issues of confidentiality and anonymity, social sensitivity, truthfulness and minimising of harm. In an ethic of caring I had a primary responsibility to all those who shared their stories of experience with me (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

Introducing the students
Sam has cerebral palsy and uses crutches or a wheelchair to move around. He experienced a range of friendships that fitted Meyer et al.'s (1998) six frames of friendship but for Sam it was all about change - change in friendships, changing dynamics in friendships and also personal change. His stories show a strong sense of maturing, reflection and personal agency in shaping his social relationships, thus challenging social perspectives that construct students with disabilities as passive learners.

Gemma, who has congenital vision impairment, found it difficult to make friends, and her stories tell about moving from group to group seeking acceptance. Her stories tell about the dynamics of her closest group of Regular Friends and the relationships of the girls within the group. Her stories highlight how the perceptions of peers, as well as personal and contextual factors, shape social relationships.

Adam has Duchennes muscular dystrophy and his stories are about the attitudes of his peers and teachers that affected his social relationships. He told stories of bullying and being the Inclusion Kid and Ghost and Guest in his classrooms. However, a strong theme is his maturity, reflection and personal agency in coping with the bullying alongside the support of a Best Friend.

Sarah, a Māori student with spina bifida, is a strong young woman who met some confrontation with cultural and disability issues in the context of her school, and her stories tell how these influenced her identity and her friendships.

FINDINGS

All the students valued their friendships; friendships were important in their lives. Their stories highlighted and endorsed Meyer et al.'s (1998) frames of friendships and also identified a number of contextual factors in their schools that supported and/or created barriers to facilitating positive social interactions and relationships.

Contextual factors

Some contextual factors related to societal, curriculum, and pedagogical practices that created and/or supported barriers to the development of positive social relationships emerged from the stories. I concluded that these barriers, both physical and attitudinal, directly, but also indirectly, affected peers' perceptions of the students with disabilities somewhat negatively, thus reducing opportunities to get to know each other and make friends. The barriers are outlined using the Pivik et al., (2002) model. These barriers are illustrated with comments from the four students, and some teachers, in my study; I draw on these in the discussion to highlight inhibiting practices and suggest supportive pedagogical practices that link to the intentions of the New Zealand Curriculum in creating supportive positive learning environments.

(A) The physical environment

For some schools, this was the first and easiest issue to address when enrolling a student with a disability. All the schools had some ramps. One school had installed a chair lift in one Nelson block that enabled Sam to access upstairs computer rooms, however Sam felt that because he did not have a key and relied on his teacher-aide, this made him look different in front of his peers.

There were difficulties with wheelchairs in science labs with narrow spaces between the benches and students had to sit at the end of rows or in the front. This reduced opportunities for natural social interaction. Often the students in wheelchairs were situated at the front of the room and I observed Adam sitting behind the teacher as he used the whiteboard to demonstrate part of the lesson to the rest of the class. A desk was often left for the teacher-aide to sit at and even if the teacher-aide was not present, no one sat in the desk thus creating a barrier to interaction and highlighting the Inclusion Kid/Guest frame where the student with the disability is isolated and not part of the buzz of the classroom:

> If you've got a teacher-aide people tend to not sit next to you because there's got to be a desk free in case the teacher-aide wants to come and sit next to you… so they usually leave me kind of alone. (Sam)

And:

> When they don't have to sit there they don't. They'll go and sit somewhere else. (Sam)

There are implications here for teachers to consider seating arrangements that do not isolate students in wheelchairs, and to consider how using a teacher-aide can separate students from their peers and natural support. Teachers must ask: Can all students interact? (Conway, 2008). Facilitated social interaction in classrooms supports the key competency of Relating to Others and can lead to friendships on the out-of-school landscape. Isolation in the classroom supports the Ghost/Guest frame and the Inclusion Kid frame creating an "us and them" exclusionary culture.

(B) Intentional attitude barriers

One of the more obvious of these was the ongoing bullying and social isolation that Gemma, Adam and Sam experienced from peers which also affected other peers' perceptions of them:

> Kids are so mean! I got stick every day…oh third form it was sort of like a big thing like, 'Oh Gemma needs a helper lady!' (Gemma)

> Some boy tried to tip me out of my wheelchair and then he ran away laughing… (Adam)

> Yeah, I got spat at! He spat at us going down the ramp. Who wants to get a shower of spit? (Adam)

> I go past her and she says: 'Oh gross! He's following me!' (Sam)

> She told me to 'F…off!' She just stares and stares at me…and is really mean to me. (Adam)

Adam reflectively justified this bullying as a wider problem: he saw this as influenced by family attitudes:

> I just think she's got something against people in a wheelchair…maybe her parents don't like disabled people either. She's just copied them. Yes, I don't think it's her as much as she's doing what her parents do probably.

Sam experienced this in a different way:

> They don't like passing the ball to me 'cos I might drop it and quite often it's mainly the boys 'cos if we're playing a game like soccer, the girls are pretty good and will pass the ball to me but the boys are just over-competitive…and so yeah…they just don't pass the ball to me…much. They get real competitive so it's hard to join in.

In Year 9, physical education was Sam's favourite subject but isolation through competitiveness meant he 'put it down the list'.

These stories highlight issues of bullying in schools (MacArthur & Gaffney, 2001; Sullivan, 2000) and the wider societal issues of gender and competition

supported by socio-cultural hegemonic masculinity (Connell, 1996; Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005; Light & Kirk, 2000) that are discussed in more depth in Ward (2007). Key competencies of Participating and Contributing, and Relating to Others develop in a culture of belonging where it's okay to be different. The implications for teachers are to be critically observant of practices, barriers and attitudes that support stigmatised difference, and to address these with school-wide policies and practices.

(C) Unintentional attitudinal barriers

Both the students' and the teachers'/teacher-aides' stories indicated that this factor was pervasive and influenced actions and opportunities for social interaction/relationships in the classroom and school. In some instances the research process caused some teachers to reflect on their attitudes, for example, as a researcher I became a direct catalyst for two teachers to reflect on their pedagogy:

> It wasn't until I heard that you were coming that I realised when I thought about it how little interaction he has with other students and I hadn't really noticed it much because I haven't had a lot of dealings with students in wheelchairs. Yeah it wasn't something that I'd been aware that I wasn't doing much until yeah…until you were coming. (Maths teacher)

> Actually when I saw this was coming up it started me thinking about yeah, how little interaction he had. It's quite sad! (Form teacher)

Some teachers reflected that their training had not prepared them for inclusive education:

> I was trained 20 years ago and you know, not trained to be able to deal with anything different. (Maths teacher)

A principal supported this previous statement:

> I think mainstream teachers might not necessarily acknowledge that the social agenda is there. I would say that they definitely think it is *not* their role. They teach subjects, not students. We have a number of primary trained teachers and their philosophy is a little different. They're more open to modifying the curriculum so the student can take part and the primary teachers are far more open whereas the secondary trained teachers say, 'Oh but this is the course!' There's still a long way to go!

Other teachers did not speak directly to the student in a wheelchair:

> Some relieving teachers say, 'Does he do any work here?' They'll say to my teacher-aide… 'He' or 'Is it doing the work or something?' It's terrible! I'm not an "it!" (Adam)

Although Adam conceded:

> Some teachers need to get a bit more helpful. Some teachers have been surprising. They got better after they got used to me.

Another teacher regularly ignored the student placing him in the Ghost frame:

> He thinks I'm invisible half the time. The only time he talks to me…is when he notices me. Sometimes he doesn't even know I'm in his class…hands out books! Misses me! It's really annoying! It depends what mood he's in…sometimes when he's in a good mood he'll talk to me. When he's in a bad mood he doesn't even see me. (Adam)

One teaching strategy that all the students mentioned as a welcome opportunity to work with their peers and engage in work tasks as well as social interaction, was groups:

> I enjoy working in groups better. It's like you don't have to do *all* the work…it's like you *share* the work…'cos it's real frustrating when you have to do it all yourself…especially when you have to write big long answers. (Sam)

> I'm in a group yeah…which is good. At least they'll talk to me! (Adam)

However all noted that group-work was used rarely, for example:

> In maths – definitely not! In English – sometimes. (Sam)

And some teachers reflected on this too:

> We should probably have done more group work but we probably didn't because I was conscious of trying to get through the course and having to move along I guess. I did an activity one day and they had to go and search for things in groups and one girl who probably isn't all that academic said, "Oh that was heaps of fun! Why don't we do that more often?' and I thought, 'Yes, you're right! We should!' but you're always constrained by the fact that you've got to try and teach them the syllabus and get through it all. (Economics teacher)

However, another interesting comment:

> I'm primary trained so I'm used to working with groups. (Science teacher)

A notable lack of knowledge and understanding was displayed by Sarah's' teacher when she constantly mispronounced her Māori name ('She could have tried harder' – Sarah (her chosen pseudonym) and by another teacher when she wanted to play netball with her peers:

She said I couldn't play netball because I was in a wheelchair. She said it was too dangerous. I said to them, "I'm not dangerous! I've played for many years!'

Teacher-aides also frequently created barriers for the students thus influencing the perception of peers:

If they're there then the other kids still see it as, 'Oh he still needs help!' kind of thing. (Sam)

Other stories told of how teachers did not understand the role of the teacher-aide:

I support the teacher-aide! (Science teacher)

"Unintentional attitudinal barriers" is a factor that has important implications for teachers' pedagogy. Teachers must critically observe and reflect on the kinds of relationships that students have in class and address the issues of The Inclusion Kid/Ghost/Guest frames that are apparent (Meyer et al., 1998). Teachers must reflect on the language that they use – do teachers model inclusive language and acceptance of difference (Thorburn, 1997) whereby supporting the Just Another Kid frame?

Another important issue that arose in my research and which supports other research is the role and use of teacher-aides. Understanding the role of teacher-aides and how both teacher and teacher-aides can support students in classrooms whilst developing key competencies of Participating and Contributing, Managing Self, and Relating to Others is vital when creating an inclusive culture and a supportive learning environment for *all* students in the class (Giangreco, 2003; Giangreco, Edelman, Luiselli & MacFarland, 1997; Thorburn, 1997). This also supports and models the Just Another Kid frame and encourages the development of Regular Friendships.

Thirdly, both academic and social outcomes must be assessed and addressed (Alton-Lee, 2003; Brophy, 2001); facilitating shared learning through creating a learning community, and the use of structured teacher-selected groups is one effective practice that teachers could add to their pedagogical repertoire (Baloche, 1998; Brown & Thomson, 2000; MOE, 2007). There are implications for schools to plan school-wide professional development so teachers can learn inclusive practices and develop awareness of the students' perspective and examine their own attitudes and values.

(D) Physical limitations
All the students had some physical limitations: Sam with mobility and lack of dexterity in his hands; Gemma with limited vision; Adam with lack of mobility, dexterity and strength, and Sarah with lack of mobility. Although in some instances this was a barrier and some teachers' practices did not address it, other teachers did this by getting out gear if the teacher-aide was delayed or

photocopying or enlarging notes; the latter of course involves forward planning! Differentiation and adapting the curriculum to meet the academic, social, and physical needs of all students is vital in Creating a Supportive Learning Environment (Janney & Snell, 2000; Udvari-Solner, 1995) where *all* students learn and the student with the disability is Just Another Kid. The Individual Education Plan (IEP) process can support this process. *Not* addressing the specific needs of the student with a disability models and supports the Ghost/Guest frame.

CONCLUSION
The students' and teachers' stories highlight a number of areas that teachers could consider if they are to support the vision, principles and values of the curriculum, and create caring supportive learning environments that value diversity and include a social agenda (Alton-Lee, 2003; Brophy, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 1997). Underpinning all these suggestions is professional development and implications for pre-service secondary teacher education. An important section of the New Zealand Curriculum is the section on effective pedagogy (MOE, 2007). I urge teachers to reflect on the pedagogical stories they live by and reflect on what may be competing (and even conflicting) stories in the new curriculum. Identify the tensions that might exist and engage in conversations and share ideas of how to address the social agenda in secondary school classrooms in order to address equity, inclusion, diversity, respect for others, human rights, and integrity. Listen to your students' stories – what can they tell you?

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Nurturing an Invitational Approach to Professional Development

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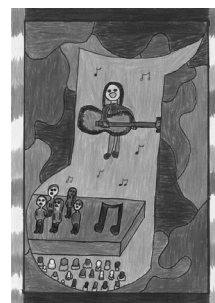
ABSTRACT
Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) are agents of change, charged with the responsibility to facilitate paradigm shift from traditional to inclusive models of educational theory and practice. With seven years experience in an RTLB role I have come to the realisation that if there is congruence between a practitioner's value and belief system and the ethos that underpins inclusive pedagogy, the journey of change will likely be a seamless one. When there is incongruence the journey is quite often a much more difficult one; however, if successful, in terms of achieving paradigm shift, is a journey worth sharing with others.

INTRODUCTION

This is a story of paradigm shift, a celebration of commitment made by a "traditional/punitive" teacher: of re-positioning to a strengths-based orientation using an invitational approach in professional development.

An "invitation to think" versus "gifting knowledge" is considered the quintessential point of difference between constructivist and traditional models of teaching and learning (Askew & Lodge, 2000). It is this, the "invitation to think", which has ultimately guided and shaped the professional development approach presented here.

Setting

The setting for the development of this *Invitational* approach to professional development is a North Island secondary school. The key player in this story is Teacher X, an experienced classroom practitioner who was required to teach outside Teacher X's specialist area in a core subject Year 10 class.

The journey begins

At the end of Term 2, 2007 this core subject Year 10 class was formally referred for RTLB assistance and duly allocated through the Review and Intake process. The issue identified: disruptive behaviours across two classroom contexts obstructing teaching and learning.

Data gathering to needs analysis

The RTLB, in partnership with the Year 10 Dean, held a series of separate meetings with all the teachers of this class and also with the students to gather their stories. The stories shared a common theme – disruptive behaviour impacting upon the quality of teaching and learning in two classroom settings invoking feelings of frustration, anger and despondency.

Developing intervention

The information generated from the sharing of stories was acknowledged and reframed into language that offered "possibilities". There was an invitation to both the group of teachers and class of students to visualise and describe an ideal teaching and learning lesson; and then to consider how this lesson might be co-created to occur and be sustained in a lived reality. This information served as the intervention and was called the "Treaty". The overarching goal: To create a quality teaching and learning environment where everybody can be successful.

Teacher X's class was one of the two settings identified as the place where disruptive behaviours occurred with this group of learners. Teacher X was prepared to have the implementation of the intervention Treaty "monitored" in the class. Therefore the rest of this article is dedicated to Teacher X's role and experiences in this journey.

Implementing intervention

The implementation of the Treaty required the RTLB to provide in-class support, and to gather "evidence of change" in the classroom context. This occurred through:

- Cyclic classroom observations of teacher teaching and five target students' learning – *once a week for a total of 16 weeks.*
- Two minute interviews with the five randomly-selected target students
- Post-observation reflective conversations with the teacher – *once a week*
- Class-wide surveys for student feedback – *twice a term.*

Evaluating & refining intervention

The Treaty served as a critical document of mutual accountability, and was always used as a point of reference when analysing information generated from the data-gathering tools listed above. As a formal agreement between students and teachers it provided a crucial pathway forward in terms of providing a space and opportunities to forge respectful relationships. For example, the Treaty required Teacher X to greet the

students with a smile, to say hello… and when they left the classroom Teacher X was expected to say good bye and 'hope you have a nice day'.

For their part in the teaching and learning contract, the students made a collective commitment to 'listen to the teacher when he/she asked for their attention'; 'to adhere to the 3-strikes then time-out' for inappropriate or disruptive behaviour; to appoint time keepers whose responsibility it was to inform the teacher there was five minutes to go before the bell rang providing time for students to pack up.

Initially Teacher X considered the smiling, warm greetings and farewells, to be very contrived – "I feel I'm being insincere". Nonetheless Teacher X persisted and in due course came to share with the RTLB "it no longer feels contrived…I feel good about greeting them … and smiling because I really do look forward to teaching them".

A description of these data gathering tools and the purpose they served is presented below.

Data gathering tool – classroom observations
Drawing upon the knowledge and experiences of Professor Glynn at the University of Waikato, the RTLB developed an observation tool for implementation in classroom contexts. Professor Glynn met regularly with the RTLB over a two month period to discuss the structure and format of the observation tool; consider the purpose and possible impacts of implementing this tool in classroom contexts; as well as what might be focused on and recorded.

The purpose of this tool was to capture information from the classroom environment and then to offer this data to the classroom teacher for processing. This was done within the context of a professional, reflective conversation. To address issues of judgmental and value-laden observation data, the RTLB adopted a "descriptive" approach when executing the classroom observation. The observation tool that was developed requires an observer to:
• Describe what is happening in a teaching and learning episode (55 minute lesson).
• Interview and record views about learning from five randomly selected students in the classroom.

The observation tool requires adherence to a prescribed timeframe including:
• 10 minutes for recording what is happening to set the teaching/learning scene.
• 25 minutes dedicated to recording alternating chunks of teacher teaching, and 5 target students learning.
• Two minute interviews with each of the five target students.

• Five minutes to record the closure of the teaching and learning episode.

Data gathering tool – interviews with target students
Included in the design of this observational tool were two-minute timeslots for the observer to interview each of the five target students. This occurred in the final quarter of the lesson with the last five minutes dedicated to observing how the teacher closed the teaching and learning episode.

Students were then invited to answer these two questions using one of the responses high/medium/low
• Would you tell me what your level of engagement in learning has been so far in this lesson?
• Would you tell me what your level of thinking has been so far in this lesson?

They were then invited to justify their responses. The RTLB posed the invitation:
• Would you like to tell me why you consider this is the level of your:
    – Engagement in learning?
    – Thinking?

Data gathering tool – reflective learning conversations template
Concurrent with developing the observation tool the RTLB also prepared a template to manage and capture information from the professional conversations with Teacher X during the post-classroom observation. The principle of minimizing observer influence was paramount when developing this template. This template was constructed according to the following 5 x "A" format:

Artefact: In the context of this story, the artefact used was usually the classroom observation. In one session a video clip of students involved in a cooperative learning task served as the artefact. An artefact creates an opportunity to engage in professional conversations.

Analysis – The teacher is invited to think about and draw meanings from the information contained in the artefact, in this case the observation sheet. In the initial meetings, the RTLB used two key questions to initiate the analysis phase. The teacher is asked whether they consider the 'described teaching acts' recorded on the observation sheet were:
• Examples of invitations to learners to think or,
• Examples of the teacher gifting knowledge.

Acknowledgements – An opportunity for the teacher to acknowledge to themself variables that might be considered when reading/reflecting upon the observation data. For example, one of the variables was a target student returning to class after a week's absence which led to Teacher X offering a copy of the teaching notes.

Advice – An invitation to the teacher to offer themself advice. Knighton's (2007) work in the area of teacher feedback shaped this section.

In this work precedence is placed on teacher strengths and capacity to bring meanings and understandings to their own lived experiences. That is to say the teacher has first-rights to name his/her "acknowledgements" and first-rights to proffer "advice" to themselves reflecting a strengths-based orientation wherein a safe and respectful space is provided for individuals to "name" their circumstances, their struggles, their experiences, themselves. The power to name one's owned lived reality, including one's "self", one's situation and condition, is 'the beginning of real empowerment' (Saleebey, 1996, p.303).

Action: The teacher is invited to consider how the advice proffered to self might be put into action.

The RTLB discreetly used the "5A" framework by writing "AAAAA" across the top of a blank page. As both progressed through each aspect the correlating "A" was simply marked off. In this way, the recording of information generated from the professional conversations was "free-flow", uninterrupted and unconstrained by a "boxed" style template.

Refining Treaty intervention

As Teacher X became more competent in working within the parameters of the "Treaty", "value" was added to the intervention. For example, to manage student behaviours, the focus was upon celebrating strengths and capabilities. Drawing upon the "3 strikes and out" strategy Teacher X created the "3 strikes and in for a reward" every 15 minutes saying, 'I'm going to check that everyone is on task and if you are then you each get a reward tick'. The fact that Teacher X was open and transparent in the process, coupled with the fact everyone had the opportunity to be engaged when checked, meant every student could earn their reward points.

OUTCOMES

There were a number of shifts and changes noted in this particular classroom setting including greater responsibility taken by the teacher to remove barriers to success for all of the students in the class. For example, Teacher X offered students who had missed the previous lesson, the lesson plan in hardcopy format. For those students who had been "identified" in the 5A meeting as having special needs, Teacher X would spend extra in time working alongside of them. The RTLB noted through classroom observations, that Teacher X increasingly engaged in conversations with students in an "alongside of" position – in other words either crouching down to their eye level or, if a spare chair was available, sitting down at the desk next to them.

Journey One concluded with an in-class celebration with Teacher X, the students and the RTLB. Students had bought a box of chocolates for all to share, and formally acknowledged the changes that had been made by their teacher. Teacher X had been one of two teachers identified by students as being "difficult" and "uncaring". The fact that Teacher X had been prepared to consider "other ways" of teaching bespeaks a person of courage and commitment, a practitioner who positioned themself within an ethic of care.

CONCLUSION

The catalyst for achieving change in this context was Teacher X's commitment to "reinvent" themself to meet the demands of a 'new [cultural] environment' (Teacher X, personal communication, 2009). As a story of "reinvention" this article speaks to an experienced "traditional/punitive" orientated teacher shifting to a collaborative model of teaching, to the creation of "relational" classroom environments imbued with an ethic of care and respect (Noddings, 1982, 1984, 1986). It is a story of teacher and students achieving agency, an acknowledgement and celebration of strengths and capabilities wherein acts of co-construction invited a future of possibilities.

The RTLB asked that this article close with a quote from Teacher X:

> I used to have power as a punitive teacher - I had developed sophisticated techniques as a punitive teacher - but this didn't work in this school… [now] I have learnt how to use positive approaches… I don't want to go back…I think it is more healthy to use positive approaches…once you have a strategy that works you want to make the strategy even better… more elaborate… sophisticated… .

(Extract from Journal capturing Teacher X & RTLB professional conversations, 2007)

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Other:
Email from Teacher X to RTLB (2009). Reflective feedback on this article as work in progress.

Professional Development Journal containing information drawn from conversations between RTLB & Teacher X in 2007.

AUTHOR PROFILE

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Violet Aydon-Pou
My name is Violet Aydon-Pou, an RTLB working in the Hamilton West Cluster. I entered the service in when I won a position in the Matamata Schools Cluster. In 2005, with a teachers study award, I completed my M.A. with a literacy research study 'Rangiwai'. This year I won one of the RTLB Association inaugural study awards. My proposed course in 2010 is to begin developing an educational model of supervision as a Doctoral study.

In preparing my application for the RTLB Association study award I drew extensively upon my work experiences with a seasoned teacher and his students. This article speaks to the first cycle of these experiences.

Does the Fonetik Spelling System improve Standard Spelling Scores?

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ABSTRACT

This seven month trial was undertaken to determine if the Fonetik spelling system (Jackson, 1994) enabled students with and without spelling difficulties to enhance their regular spelling scores. A sample of 270 students aged between 8 and 13 years were involved. The students were based in 8 schools within an RTLB cluster. The Fonetik system was introduced to all the students within their regular classroom settings. The results indicate that Fonetik was successful in increasing regular spelling scores for students with spelling difficulties and that it can be successfully implemented in schools with guidance from RTLB. This matched the conclusions of the first trial conducted by Croft and Boyd with the support of NZCER (1993).

RESEARCH

Practice Paper

Keywords: *Dyslexia, electronic spellchecker, phonetic, special needs, spelling.*

INTRODUCTION

This school-based implementation trial aimed to identify if Fonetik could improve regular spelling scores for students who were struggling with spelling. The aims of the trial were to:

1. Improve regular spelling scores for all students

2. Identify if the students with low initial spelling scores targeted by Fonetik increased their scores in comparison to their more-able peers.

3. Clarify if one particular year group benefited more than other year groups.

4. Assess the effectiveness of Electronic Phonetic Spellcheckers (EPS) to support the Fonetik system.

5. Gather teacher feedback upon the effectiveness of the Fonetik system.

The purpose of the trial was to identify if Fonetik was an appropriate intervention to assist students with spelling difficulties.

BACKGROUND TO THE TRIAL

Fonetik is fundamentally different from other spelling programmes because it teaches struggling spellers how to spell a word phonetically if the standard spelling cannot be recalled. It targets students who find they struggle not only with spelling but with their written language output.

Moseley (1993) concluded that poor spellers do not have poor oral language vocabulary. He found that poor spellers commonly pick easy to spell and short words. They also repeat words they know in their writing rather than risk using ones they do not. This means that there is a lack of risk-taking with spelling which reduces their ability to put ideas on paper. Kervin and McKenzie (2005) found that pressure put on students to use correct spelling is one of the biggest barriers to writing.

The outcome of such pressure is noted by the Ministry of Education (MOE) (2008) who recognise the effect of poor spelling on students' self-esteem and note that '…there are undoubtedly emotional and social consequences' (p.44). There is little doubt that students with limited spelling skills will write less to avoid making mistakes. The MOE has stated that expertise in spelling is essential to writing (Jackson, 2008a). This abandons the MOEs whole language process writing policy which maintained that spelling skills were acquired by incidental learning.

Gentry (2001) adds that 'all children can become expert spellers….. the ones who do not are probably lazy' (p.1) and identifies this as a false assumption of teachers along with 'expert spelling is caught from reading and writing' (p.1). These sentiments may be true for some students but for others it may be that the strategies taught to them for spelling have not been assimilated or that they have a barrier to their learning such as dyslexia. In this case we owe it to our students to continue looking for effective remedial spelling programmes which incorporate the use of electronic aides like word processors, EPS or predictive text for instance.

Fonetik meets a number of criteria identified in several publications (MOE, 2006, 2008) which identify the need to equip students with the skills needed to make themselves understood via written communication. They indicate that effective spellers should write words and say them aloud to help them learn spellings and may even exaggerate pronunciation using syllabification (as in Fonetik). MOE add that in any class a proportion of the students will write words "as they sound" (phonetically) For example "caught" may be written as "cort" or "kort". MOE writes that dictionaries are not always helpful for such students

as they may not be able to identify the correct initial word for example "uround" for "around". The use of Fonetik and EPS may circumvent this issue because the EPS would provide the correct spelling from the phonetic attempt.

MOE (2006) indicate that 'a phonetic spellchecker is useful for poor spellers because it is organised by sounds rather than letters' (p.162). EPS are used in the UK (British Dyslexia Association, 2009) and are recognised to provide correct spellings from "even quite strange" spelling attempts. These ideas are incorporated in the Fonetik system and following Michael and Jackson's (2003) seventh succesful field trial of Fonetik in Western Australia, the system was implemented at a school-wide level.

Kervin and McKenzie (2005) identify that good spelling involves flexible and strategic problem-solving and highlights the importance of students being aware of a variety of strategies to help them spell words. Surely then it is important to expose students to new systems (MOE, 2008a) to assist them engage with spelling and thus enhance their writing.

Jackson (1994) states that students require only two skills to produce a decipherable phonetically regular spelling - knowledge of the five short vowel sounds and the ability to break words into syllables. Fonetik thus unlocks the complexities of written English language by reducing the complex rules and irregularities to only two simple teaching steps. Phonetic spelling patterns are readily recognised and decoded i.e. "stoodents" instead of "students". Phonetically regular spelling attempts are marked with one tick and standard correct spellings are marked with two ticks. Students can then correct phonetic spellings to standard spellings by utilising an EPS. Alternatively the same outcome can be achieved by cooperative proof reading.

With the recognition of spelling attempts in the manner described above students' self-esteem can be raised. Lutz (1986) and Zutell (2009) support this notion by identifying that if schools wish to make use of recent insights into language development then changes in teachers and public attitudes about the need to spell every word correctly are required. This change was achieved in Western Australia following Michael and Jackson's (2003) intervention when existing marking conventions within the test school were altered to recognise phonetic spellings. Rankin's (1994) trial on Fonetik showed that the system improved spelling skills for failing students, so the idea of using phonetic spellings is not new - perhaps just unrecognised.

Croft (2004) indicates that the purpose of writing is to convey information and whilst spelling contributes to the understanding of the message, correct spellings are not always required communicating the meaning within the

text. He maintains that students should be encouraged to write using variant spelling codes on first rough drafts.

Jackson (2007) reports that the majority of students with spelling difficulties are boys and that up to twenty percent will be still spelling at the level of the average seven to nine year old by the time they reach secondary school. He adds that whilst secondary schools do offer remediation systems these mostly focus upon reading. This is a problem because reading does not always improve spelling but there is evidence to suggest that improving spelling does improve reading ability. Evidence of Fonetik's success is presented by Jackson (2002) and shows that students made a 39% gain in correct attempts at spelling and concluded that students who made more gains in phonetic spellings made more gains in regular spellings.

METHODOLOGY

Description of the Fonetik System

Jackson (1994) developed the Fonetik system to assist students struggling with regular spelling. Fonetik aims to teach students how to spell in a phonetically regular way, for example "enough" could be spelt "enuf" using a phonetic approach. Fonetik involves teachers recognising phonetically regular spellings as well as standard spellings and seeing them both as recognisable spellings. EPS are used to convert phonetic spellings into regular spellings.

The target student group are those of late primary, intermediate or secondary age level. The students should know letter-sound correspondences and have reading and oral language ability which exceeds their spelling and writing skills.

Description of the electronic spellcheckers

Example of a Franklin electronic spellchecker used during this trial

The Franklin EPS was utilised during this trial. This model is easy to use and proved popular with both teachers and students. Once the student has worked out the Fonetik spelling they type it into the spellchecker and press enter. The regular spelling which most closely matches

the phonetic attempt is displayed. They retail for $49.95 via BDL (HYPERLINK "http://www.bdlfranklin.co.nz" www.bdlfranklin.co.nz) or Dick Smith electronics. Forty spellcheckers were purchased with the support of the Learning Support Fund and a grant from the Dyslexia Foundation.

Why was Fonetik selected to assist students with spelling?

A large number of referrals received within the writer's RTLB cluster are for students who are struggling with literacy. A large percentage of those referrals are for students struggling with spelling and written expression with spelling ages often three to four years below their chronological age.

Upon reading the Fonetik guide book (Jackson, 1994) the writer felt that Fonetik would be an appropriate cluster-wide intervention The system seemed simple and cheap to implement with the bonus that it could be delivered to whole classes of students no matter what their spelling ability. The system enhances inclusion because it enables students with spelling difficulties to participate alongside their more able peers more easily and is therefore an appropriate intervention for RTLB (MOE, 2007a).

Selection of schools and students

Eight schools and 16 classes including a total of 270 students were selected for participation. The students were aged from Year 5 (chronological age 9) up to Year 8 (chronological age 13). All of the students within each class were tested. Those absent from pre- or post-testing were not included in the final results.
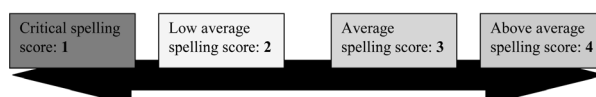
All members of each class were trained to use Fonetik and had access to the EPS. The trial was designed to enable equal opportunity for all students to make use of the system when they needed help with spelling. By this approach the more-able students would not need to use their "Fonetik" skills as often because they had greater spelling knowledge. Whilst the omission of a control group is not ideal, the analysis of results was able to identify the pre- and post-intervention score changes for students within each of the scoring ranges and identify the success or failure of Fonetik to assist each group.

DATA COLLECTION

Pre-testing

Initial testing was conducted in February, 2009 using the South Australian Spelling Test (SAST) Test 'A' (Westwood, 2005). Each class took between 20 and 30 minutes to complete the test. The SAST consists of 70 graded words which are read out and then re read in a sentence to clarify meaning. Students were instructed to attempt all 70 words.

All tests were marked and scored in accordance with Westwood's (2005) instructions. The SAST was selected for the test as it had been normed upon a large representative sample in South Australia in 1993 and 2004. The normative age related bands were:

| Critical spelling score: **1** | Low average spelling score: **2** | Average spelling score: **3** | Above average spelling score: **4** |

The bold numbers within the boxes **1-4** enabled the students who were most likely to be assisted by Fonetik to be identified from each class groups (those with Band 1 or 2 scores). The remainder of the student sample results in the average (3) and above average (4) attainment bands were also recorded.

Post-testing

The SAST was re-administered in September, 2009.

All teachers were given a 14 question evaluation of Fonetik following the post test to gain their comments and interpretation of how effective the system had been.

Treatment of results

The pre- and post-test results were compared and average regular and phonetic spelling scores were obtained. The results were then combined by year groups from all 8 schools enabling an analysis of which year group benefited most from the intervention. By using the SAST normed scale results for standard spellings from pre- and post-tests, students' movement between the four segments were tracked, enabling those who started within the critical and low average ranges in particular to have their progress objectively measured from "hard" empirically-based data. Each student was assigned a score of 1 - 4 from the result of their spelling tests from the normed tables enabling correct standard spelling bands to be ascertained.

Fonetik training outline

Students and teachers were trained in the Fonetik system following the teaching steps in Jackson's (1994) manual. The main points covered involved letter/sound correspondence, syllabification and encouraging the students to 'spell the word as it sounds' if they did not know the correct spelling.

Students were instructed in their class groups. Initially the students from each class identified as being within the critical and low average spelling ranges were given a 30 minute training session. They were the students who would normally be targeted individually or in small groups and by giving them an extra session their familiarity with Fonetik skills was enhanced. Following this tuition they, along with their remaining classmates and teachers were given two more 30 minute training sessions as a class group. The final session incorporated instruction on how

to use the EPS. EPS were given to each class dependent upon the number of students within the class. The larger classes had four EPS each with other smaller classes having between one and three.

During the intervention three mentoring sessions within each class and each school were completed. This involved the writer visiting each class revising the Fonetik system with the teachers and students. During the trial period students were prompted and assisted in their regular classes by their teachers to utilise the Fonetik system and the EPS. Teachers encouraged their students to use Fonetik spellings in their draft work when they were unsure of the regular spelling. Following teacher advice on their Fonetik attempts students accessed the EPS. This enabled teachers to reinforce the Fonetik system's steps.
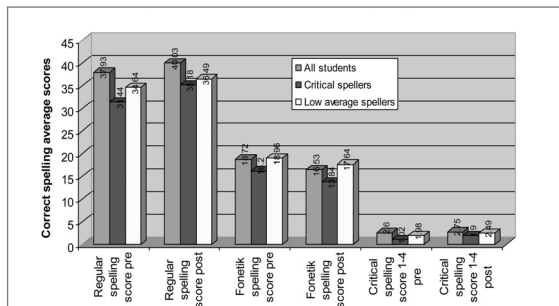
RESULTS

Figure 1: Summary of pre- and post-intervention average spelling scores.

Figure 1 shows:
Students classed as critically-low spellers pre-test had lower phonetic spelling scores than the other two groups. Post-test, the whole samples regular spelling score had increased by an average of 3 spellings. Those classed as low-average spellers improved by 2 spellings whilst the students classed as critical spellers increased by 4 spellings. This indicates that the students whose spelling improved the most were those classed as having the lowest spelling scores initially, Post-intervention, all three groups averages for phonetic spellings reduced, indicating their regular spelling had improved.

The average rating scale score for the whole group rose to 2.75 from 2.60 indicating that the sample as a whole had improved their standard spellings.
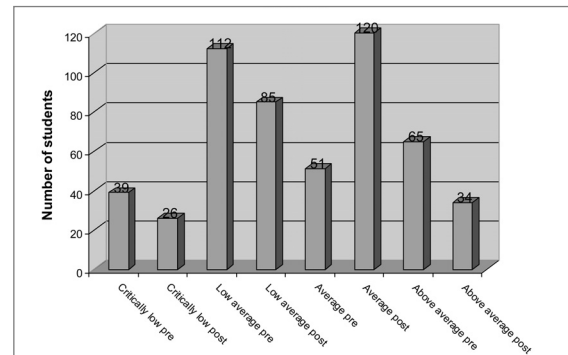

Figure 2: Student numbers within each of the four spelling ranges pre- and post-intervention.

Figure 2 indicates that:
• There was a reduction (13 students) in the number of students within the critically-low spelling band, indicating that they had moved into a higher band.
• The students within the low-average area of the scale reduced by 27 students signifying that they in turn, had moved up the scale.
• The students scoring within the average scale increased from 51 pre test to 120 post-test. This means that of the 69 new students who moved into the average band, 38 students had increased their spelling scores to lift their attainment into the average band.

In summary, the students Fonetik targets from the critical and low-average ranges pre-test had progressed into either the low-average range or average-range following the intervention. A number of the above-average students who Fonetik does not target had regressed into the average range.
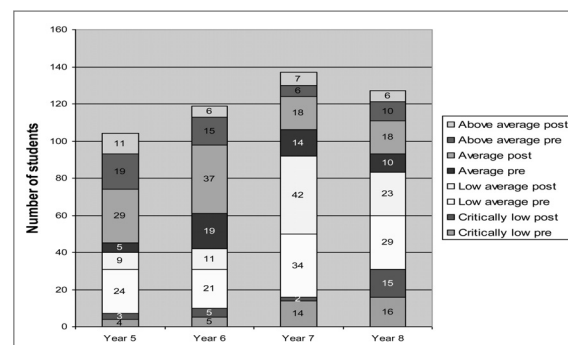
Figure 3: Comparison of the number of students within each spelling score range by year group pre- and post-intervention.

Figure 3 indicates that following the Fonetik intervention:
• Year 5: The average range scores increased by 24 students. The low-average and critical reduced by 16. This shows that 16 students increased the standard spelling scores and moved into the average band.
• Year 6: No change in the number of critical-range

students was noted. Students within the low-average range reduced by 10. Students in the above-average range reduced by 9. Students in the average range increased from 19 to 37, indicating that 10 students had moved from the lower ranges into the average range, indicating a trend of improved regular spelling scores.

- Year 7: Students within the critical-range reduced by 12. The low-average range increased by 8, average range increased by 4 students. The students in the above-average group increased by one. This was the only year group to show an increase in the above-average range, indicating a trend of improved regular spelling scores.

- Year 8: Students in the critical-range reduced by 1. Students in the low-average range reduced by 6. Students in the average range increased by 8. Above-average students decreased by 4. This indicates that the overall trend for this group was increased regular spelling scores.

Further analysis of results
- Years 5, 6, 7 and 8 all showed general improvements with students moving up the spelling ranges.
- Year 7 was the only group to improve regular spelling scores in all ranges.
- Years 5, 6, and 8 did not show improved scores for students within the above-average range supporting the idea that Fonetik best supports students with low-average and critical spelling scores.
- Six Year 7 students and five Year 8 students jumped two levels across the scoring range from either critical- or low-average range, to the average or above-average ranges respectively.

Teacher feedback following the intervention
All teachers participating in the Fonetik field trial were given a fourteen question evaluation sheet to assess their views on Fonetik. Twelve evaluations were completed and a summary of comments is outlined under the headings below:

Teachers regular spelling programmes which ran in tandem with Fonetik
- Essential spelling lists
- Frustrated speller
- Quota spelling
- Smartwords
- Switched on to Spelling
- You can spell (x2)
- Spellodrome
- SpellWrite

On Fonetik
The 12 respondents identified the system as being easy to implement and that the training and mentoring provided by the RTLB was sufficient. They also agreed Fonetik had a place within the classroom and that they would continue to use it. Teachers unanimously identified the low average spelling students as the group who gained the most from the system followed by the critical speller's.

Electronic Phonetic Spellcheckers (EPS)
Respondents indicated that the spellcheckers were easy to use and effective. The majority of teachers felt that they were essential to the effectiveness of the system.
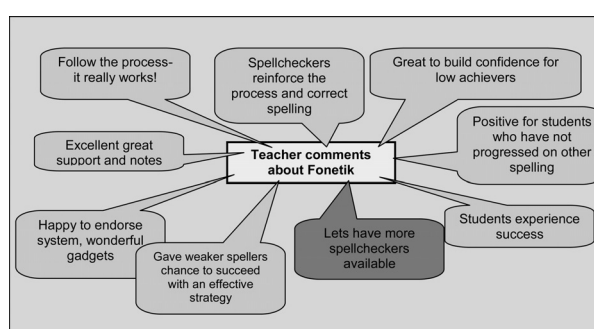

Figure 4: *Teacher comments about Fonetik:*

DISCUSSION
The results provide good empirical support for the Fonetik remedial spelling system being more widely used within New Zealand schools. The majority of students improved their regular spelling scores (Figure 1). The students with low or critical spelling scores were able increase their scores in general. Their scores lifted more than students initially in the other ranges (Figure 2). Each year group showed similar positive increases between the ranges, especially between low average and average ranges which Fonetik targets. The EPS were seen as an effective and integral part of the system. Teacher feedback towards the system was extremely favourable indicating it was easy to implement, gave effective results and could run across the curriculum and alongside other spelling programmes.

Teachers should be mindful that Fonetik targets struggling spellers and such students are the ones who will benefit most. Figure 2 shows clear evidence that Fonetik works for the students it was designed for: competent spellers do not benefit from using Fonetik.

Fonetik ran alongside a variety of other spelling programmes and showed that it could be run whilst other spelling programmmes were being utilised. Whilst it was beyond the scope of this trial, future research could be completed to test Fonetiks' effectiveness when used on its own. The results gained by this trial are positive

in that they demonstrate Fonetik can be implemented within regular cross-curricular classes to assist struggling spellers without compromising the class programme or any existing spelling programme.

The Resource Teacher: Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) team within the eight schools noted significant changes for students whom she had been monitoring for a number of years. She indicated that the Years 7 and 8 students had shown huge improvements on her testing which was also completed in February and September 2009. She informed the writer that the only new programme had been the use of the Fonetik system. This supports the findings of this trial.

A further reason for selecting Fonetik as the remedial spelling system of choice was because it utilises assistive technology in the form of EPS. Even though the EPS are widely available and in use in a number of other countries, many teachers within the writer's cluster were unaware of them. The Information and Communications Technology (ICT) policy identifies the importance of using assistive technology to improve learning outcomes and enable students to participate fully within society (MOE, 2003). Due to the recognition of dyslexia within New Zealand (MOE, 2007) and the government's pledge to assist students diagnosed with dyslexia, the use of electronic spellcheckers should become more common within schools.

CONCLUSION
This trial has shown clear evidence indicating the effectiveness of the Fonetik spelling system for the students it targets. The teacher feedback was extremely positive and shows that Fonetik can run in association with other spelling systems (which are not supported by empirical data with regard to their efficacy) and be utilised across the curriculum.

The results of the trial show that RTLB can implement the system across their clusters easily and efficiently with motivated class teachers. RTLB can also demonstrate the systems efficacy by utilising the pre- and post-intervention assessments and presenting them to their management committees. This trial has also shown that Fonetik can be run as a successful whole-class intervention but indicates that highly competent spellers may not benefit from participation.

The trial was limited as no control group was incorporated into the design. There is scope for further studies to address this deficiency along with assessing the effect of training students within the target groups individually or in small groups away from their class. The trial did not identify if Fonetik influenced written output. It seems plausible however, to suggest that if phonetic spellings are accepted in all class work except for publication copies that written output could be expected to increase.

With a change of heart within our schools and the recognition that pressure for correct spelling reduces written output for our low-ability spellers there is hope that many more of the thoughts and ideas of our students can be captured on paper. By recognising phonetic spellings as an educational achievement in draft work, written output will increase and the confidence of our struggling spellers should lift. They could, in the words of the Literacy Task Force (MOE, 1999), be able to finally write as well as they can speak.

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Impact of Proximity of Teachers' Aides and Support Strategies

Advantages and Disadvantages

Helen Stevens
Verifier, Ministry of Education

ABSTRACT

This paper draws on a wider literature review, completed by the author in 2007, about the effectiveness of teachers' aides (TAs). It discusses the effects of the proximity of TAs on the students with disabilities to whom they are assigned. It also reports on studies where TAs have been trained to support the students to interact with their peers and where TAs have trained students to interact with other students. The advantages and disadvantages of these factors are discussed.

Practice paper

INTRODUCTION

The allocation of teacher-aide (TA) time has increased hugely over the past ten years, both internationally and in New Zealand. There is considerable concern about this in the professional literature (Giangreco & Broer, 2005; Giangreco, Broer & Edelman, 2001; Giangreco, Edelman, Broer & Doyle 2001; Howes, 2003; Jones & Bender, 1993) and amongst those involved in the planning and/or delivery of special education. This is especially so where TAs are supporting students with significant disabilities. There is little empirical research demonstrating the effectiveness of TAs in supporting students to participate and learn at school, and what factors contribute to their effectiveness. There is a major tension between those who consider extensive use of TAs in an instructional role is acceptable (Chopra & French, 2004; Howes, 2003; Pickett, Litkins & Wallace, 2003; Pickett, Steckelberg & Vasa, 1993) and those who consider it is not (Giangreco et al., 1997, 1999 & 2001; Giangreco & Broer, 2005; Grigal, 1998; Jones & Bender, 1993; Moore et al., 2004;). Nevertheless, the most common strategy used for supporting students with severe disabilities in regular classrooms is to allocate a TA (Giangreco et al., 1999; Giangreco et al., 2001; Werts et al., 1996; Wolery et al., 1995). With reference to an article by Martella et al. (1995), Causton-Theoharis & Malmgren (2005) stated that the involvement of a TA may be the crucial support that enables a student with intensive academic and/or behavioural needs to be educated in a regular classroom.

Teacher-aide proximity to students

A number of studies have explored the effects of proximity of TAs on students with disabilities and/or challenging behaviours. The studies mainly suggest that TAs should avoid close proximity to the target student in order to avoid adverse effects on the student's wellbeing, learning and social interaction with peers. However, the TAs must be close enough to provide timely support. A study undertaken by Giangreco et al., (1997) reported that students with multiple disabilities in regular classes spent much of their time in close proximity to TAs who often functioned as the student's main teacher. They stated that excessive proximity of the TA resulted in problems such as:

- less ownership of, and responsibility for, the student by regular class teachers.
- separation from classmates.
- dependence on adults.
- interference with peer interactions.
- loss of personal control.
- limitations on receiving competent instruction.
- loss of gender identity by students with disabilities (taking a male student to a women's toilet area).
- interference with instruction of other students.

A study by Werts, Zigmond and Leeper (2001) produced different results. They measured the effects of proximity of a TA on the engagement and type of interaction of primary-aged students with significant disabilities. Two treatment conditions were measured – TA less than two feet, or more than five feet, from the student. Moving a TA from more than five feet away to within two feet of the student increased academic engagement and more verbal interaction between the TA and the student was associated with this. The authors therefore suggested that closer proximity should occur when academic engagement is the desired outcome. Unfortunately, the study did not consider TA proximity between two and five feet away from the student and that may well have been a significant treatment condition to have included. Giangreco and Broer (2005) challenged the Werts et al. (2001) study stating that the students in the study were used to working with TAs and therefore suggested that an equally logical explanation for the results could be that the students had become over-dependent on their TAs.

Another study, undertaken by Young, Simpson, Smith Myles and Kamps (1997), observed variation both in the extent of proximity and its impact on a range of behaviours (i.e. on-task, in-seat, self-stimulation, and inappropriate vocalisations) of three students with autism.

Teacher-initiated interactions with the target students were infrequent, but teacher involvement was higher when the TA was more than two feet away from the student. However, the authors noted that there were weaknesses in their study that affect inferences that may be drawn from the data. Howes, Farrell, Kaplan and Moss (2003) considered the Young et al., (1997) study, which was critical of close proximity, was unreliable as the results were not particularly consistent in terms of the effect of any one aspect of TA behaviour. They considered the results may have had more to do with the individual differences between the three students rather than the proximity of a TA. Nevertheless, Young et al., (1997) stated their view that they were 'of the strong opinion that inclusion is not an appropriate option for every student with autism, particularly when the inclusion is full time with a paraprofessional who has not been trained in the field and whose presence supplants a teacher's involvement' (p.37).

In a small New Zealand rural secondary school, Kavermann (1998), who studied the perceptions and experiences of TAs, reported that the TAs remained in close proximity to the students they were working with for much of the time in class. She reported that TAs required to work in this way tended to form "a bubble of isolation" that inhibited rather than facilitated inclusion. TAs spoke of the frustration they felt when required by the system to support students in a way that they did not believe to be best practice. Kavermann also reported that both the teachers and TAs she interviewed agreed that it was:

> The teacher's responsibility for ensuring work was provided for students with special educational needs at their level of ability. Teachers and teacher-aides (sic) recognised that teachers had not received adequate training to fulfil this complex task. There was general agreement that the task was probably too much for teachers to do on their own. In practice, however, the perception of the educators was that the teacher-aides (sic) were left to do the majority of the adaption of the regular class work, which was done in most cases on the spot during the lesson. (p.25)

A study by Hemmingsson, Borell & Gustavsson (2003) considered how help was provided for seven students with physical disabilities and how TAs influenced their participation in school. The students were aged seven to fifteen; five were in regular classes and two in special education classes and all had a different level of need. A striking observation was that some of the TAs were always seated close to the student while other TAs kept a distance of a couple of desks away. They all provided some practical help but the help was varied according to the proximity of the TA to the student. They described three TA types:
- "assistant as a stand-in for the student" – TA stayed close by and did everything for the student so student never asked for help

- "assistant as a help-teacher" – not so close by but observed the student and provided help when the student expressed verbally or visually that it was needed and then withdrew again
- "assistant as a back-up resource" – TA remained well in the background and the student signalled for support when it was needed and waited for help until the TA arrived.

The authors noted that although the assignment of a TA is to positively impact on the student, their study showed that a TA can both facilitate and hinder participation. Furthermore, they noted that the students had little control over when and how support was given.

Clearly the proximity of the TA to the student is a significant factor which needs to be taken into account. The argument that close proximity hinders participation by the student seems to be more compelling, but further studies are needed before this viewpoint can be regarded as conclusive.

How Teacher-aide proximity influences students' interactions with peers

Hemmingsson et al., (2003) reported that peers sometimes viewed students and TAs as a "package deal". Another finding was how TAs adversely affected the participation of the students in school. For example, TAs often separated the student from peers by moving the student to a desk away from peers or even working with the student in another room where there were no peers at all. The researchers also found that students seemed to prioritise social participation, in the sense of being accepted and included in a peer group, rather than academic achievement i.e. a student with a physical disability turned down support during an exam because his peers complained, even though this would result in a poorer result for him.

More recently, Malmgren and Causton-Theoharis (2006) found in a qualitative study of a student with an emotional and behavioural disorder, that TA proximity was the single most important classroom condition that negatively influenced peer interactions. They initially looked to see how a set of well-established factors, such as grouping patterns and level of task, influenced the classroom peer interactions of the student in an inclusive classroom. They found that most factors did not seem to affect the student's level of interaction at all. However, they found that the proximity of the TA assigned to provide him with support seemed to have a great impact on the number of predominantly positive interactions the student had with his peers. When his TA was close by, the student's interactions were severely inhibited. Of the 32 interactions with peers observed during the course of the study, 90% of them occurred during the short time frame in which the TA was not close to the student. Of a range of factors

that the authors expected to influence the student's level of interaction with his peers, only the proximity of the TA emerged as a significant factor.

Peer interaction with students
Causton-Theoharis and Malmgren (2005) showed the effectiveness of a four hour inservice training session held 1:1 with four TAs to enable them to facilitate interaction between the targeted student with severe disabilities and another student in the classroom. They emphasised that a major reason for placing students with disabilities in regular classes is to enable them to reap the social and academic benefits afforded their peers without disabilities. In the study, peer interaction was defined as any two-way communication, either verbal or nonverbal. A multiple baseline across four TA-student pairs was used over a nine week period. This included data collection, a four week suspension of data collection, followed by two maintenance probes.

Results showed that all four TAs increased their rate of facilitative behaviours after they received their training. On average, the students interacted twenty-five times more frequently during the intervention periods and maintenance probes than during baseline. The relatively small change in TA behaviour yielded a substantial increase in interaction between the target students and their peers. For all four student participants before the intervention, the rates of interaction were extremely low. The study confirmed that a relatively short and low-cost training programme could provide an immediate and potentially long-lasting impact on the overwhelmingly positive (the exception was just one negative interaction which occurred during baseline) interaction rates of students with severe disabilities in regular classrooms. Without this sort of training however, TAs can inadvertently intensify the social isolation of students with disabilities even though the regular classroom is considered to be an ideal setting in which to increase peer interactions and relationships (Causton-Theoharis & Malmgren, 2005).

A study by Shukla, Kennedy and Cushing (1999) compared two approaches for supporting the social participation of three intermediate school students with severe disabilities in regular classrooms. The researchers compared direct assistance from a TA, with peer support supervised by a TA after training and feedback was given. Results indicated that the peer support programme produced more frequent and longer social interactions for all three students. Peers without disabilities also demonstrated more frequent and varied social support behaviours to students with disabilities. Some improvement in the actual engagement of students with disabilities and their peers was observed in the peer support condition. These results suggest that peer support may be preferred to direct support from a TA for students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Other results were that the peers who performed at or above average in academic performance did not show any decrease in active classroom engagement, while the active engagement of peers who were performing below average academically improved their academic engagement by serving as a peer support for a student with severe disabilities.

Impact of prompts and natural supports by TAs
Four experimental studies stated that TAs reported satisfaction from learning and using new skills. Corresponding data indicated positive student outcomes, such as social skills and independent task engagement, when the skills were applied.

Martella et al., (1995) taught TAs and peer tutors to use effective teaching practices in special education classrooms to minimise problem behaviours. They gave systematic training in giving appropriate instructional commands, providing specific praise statements, and correcting errors without using negative comments. Martella, Marcharnd-Martella, Macfarlane and Young (1993) had already carried out the same training with a TA working with a student with severe disabilities who exhibited aberrant behaviours. After the TA had decreased her negative comments, the student's aberrant behaviours decreased and his compliance to requests increased.

Hall, McClannahan and Krantz (1995) looked at the issue of student dependency on TAs. They asked TAs to reduce their level of verbal and gestural prompting and to teach the students to use photo activity schedules instead. When the level of prompting decreased, the students' engagement and time spent on task increased. A later study by Hall and Macvean (1997) was conducted over three years and assessed the effectiveness of incorporating naturalistic prompting strategies by TAs for increasing target communicative behaviours of students with severe spastic quadriplegic cerebral palsy. A concurrent multiple baseline design replicated across three TAs was used to determine the effectiveness of verbal and written feedback regarding their attainment of self-selected goals for prompting target communicative behaviours. After the introduction of the intervention the prompting behaviour of all TAs increased, as did the target behaviours of all students. Increases were maintained five months after intervention for all three students observed and for two of three TAs. Whether it was the self-selected goals or the feedback or both together which were effective, was not tested.

Grigal (1998) also discussed the value of using natural supports in the classroom. She noted that developing an inclusive education programme in the context of a secondary school can be particularly difficult. With respect to the curriculum and instruction, she suggested

that natural supports for students with disabilities could be as simple as having the TA available for all students rather than only for those with disabilities. She said that the support of a TA may be essential during the initial placement of a student, but once the student is used to the classroom s/he should be given the space to seek help from a peer or the teacher. She argued that over time the TA can be used as a resource for all students in the class. Other researchers have taken a slightly different view. Martin, Jorgensen and Klein (1998) agreed that the use of a TA to support other students in the class was a good idea but also suggested use of the following strategies when planning for supports in a high school classroom to get the balance right between TA involvement versus peer involvement:

- Put the most natural support into place first, and add other supports later if necessary.
- Ask the student's opinion and honour their wishes.
- Discuss with all team members, including the class teacher, the benefits of using natural supports as well as the potential costs to other students or teacher.s
- Make support decisions that provide more rather than fewer opportunities for students without disabilities to get to know and make connections with students with disabilities.
- Change the nature of the activity or environment so that all students are working cooperatively and have to rely on one another for support.

They emphasised that the support needs to be provided in a way that promotes independence, interdependence, self-determination, and a reliance on natural supports.

CONCLUSIONS

TAs are the most common form of special education resource for virtually all students with significant disabilities or challenging behaviours in regular classes in New Zealand and internationally. They have the potential to both help and hinder the learning and social interaction of these students. Before assigning a TA to a student, questions should always be asked about which strategies the TA should use to best deliver support to the student, what behaviours the TA should avoid to minimise any negative impacts on the student and, most importantly, whether anyone else is better able to provide the support required.

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Making Children's Voices Visible
The School Setting Interview (SSI)

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ABSTRACT

Children and young people with disabilities educated in their local school may need services to get equal access to the curriculum. To ensure that any educationally-relevant services achieve the best outcomes, the students' own voices and perspectives should also be included. This paper introduces the School Setting Interview (SSI), an interview-based assessment that helps occupational therapists to understand the barriers to, and facilitators of, inclusion from the student's perspective. This information added to that identified by the teaching team and the parents/caregivers, can only lead to a "fuller picture" which all the team can draw from when determining issues and identifying potential strategies to address.

Practice Paper

Key Words: *Children-centered assessment, children's perspective, disabled children, school participation.*

Making Children's Voices Visible: The School Setting Interview (SSI): An assessment to enhance school participation of students with disabilities
Occupational therapists in educational settings have an important role to enhance school participation of students with disabilities. When developing and providing educationally relevant therapy services in schools it is vital to ensure that the children's own voices and perspectives are taken into account. This paper presents the School Setting Interview (SSI), (Hemmingsson, Egilson, Hoffman & Kielhofner, 2005) an interview-based assessment that helps therapists include children's own perspective on the barriers and facilitators to the inclusion in the school.

According to international agreements in most Western societies, children with disabilities should be educated in their local mainstream schools along with their peers (Ministry of Disability Issues, 2001; UNESCO, 1994; UNESCO, 2000). This policy came about with support from the movement towards equality for all, as people with disabilities advocated for their governments to create laws and allocate resources to make this happen. The New Zealand Disability Strategy is an example of an outcome of this advocacy (Ministry of Disability Issues, 2001) which includes objectives focused on providing the best education for disabled people and ensuring that disabled children and youth lead full and active lives.

At first many teachers and health professionals greeted this change towards inclusion with some anxiety. Peoples' concerns were often related to the risk of children with disabilities being bullied and left without friends, as well as a belief that regular schoolteachers lacked expertise in meeting the learning needs of the children. Many believed small classes specifically for children with disabilities would address these issues better and therefore be more beneficial for the child. However, academically, teaching in small homogenous groups has failed to show its effectiveness, and with respect to children's development and satisfaction with school, current research supports inclusion (Dickinson et.al., 2007; Grue & Heiberg, 2000; Hegarty, 1993).

Nevertheless in general, schools and the school curriculum are still planned and organised for children without disabilities who are physically independent and have age-appropriate cognitive and social skills. Consequently, many students with disabilities do experience environmental barriers to educational activities and socialisation in school that their peers do not have to struggle with (Hemmingsson, 2002). This in turn can influence these students' abilities to both access the curriculum and to be active and valued members of the school community.

Students' perspective
When discussing issues that influence the student's ability to be an active member of their school community, it is important to include that student's voice and perspectives. Occupational therapists working in a collaborative consultative model (Hasselbusch & Penman, 2008) in schools often focus on supporting teachers in their work. Listening to the parents and their concerns are also emphasised in family-centered models according to the ideas that needs shall be identified by those who know the child best. However, in order for the team to develop appreciated, effective and well-targeted solutions, it is not only essential but vital to include the child and their perspective (Conventions on the Right of the Child, 1990. If a solution is designed without the child

or young person's involvement, it might fail or not be as effective as intended by parents, teachers or therapists. Children with disabilities often have important insights and suggestions about the services that they are offered (Sturgess, Rodger & Ozanne, 2002; Tam, Teachman & Wright, 2008). Moreover, the opportunity to make choices, express preferences, set goals and self-regulate learning and behaviour have all been linked to more favourable educational and adult outcomes (Wehmeyer & Schalock, 2001). Thus, collaborative consultation should include children's own perspective for services to be effective and provide students with disabilities equal access to educational experiences. The School Setting Interview (SSI) is an assessment that assists the therapist to identify the issues from the perspective of the student with disabilities (Hemmingsson, Egilson, Hoffman & Kielhofner, 2005).

The development of SSI
Influenced by the disability rights movements (Swain, Finkelstein, French & Oliver, 1993) and the Convention on the Right of the Child (1990) Hemmingsson, in Sweden, initiated the development of the SSI in the middle of 1990s. At this time, paediatric occupational therapy assessments typically only addressed body-functions or the most basic daily actions of activities such as eating, dressing and toileting (Fisher & Short-Degraff, 1993; Law, 1991; et. al.). Furthermore, most existing assessments were developed for younger children attending preschool or primary school, and were not always suitable for older school aged children. Overall, occupational therapy assessments using a client-centred approach with respect to children with disabilities were lacking. For these reasons, the goal of developing the SSI was to create a client-centred interview assessment that addressed how physical and psychosocial environmental factors influenced participation in school, from the perspective of students with disabilities aged 9-19 years. Thus, the main issue was that the students themselves had a voice with respect to their schooling, services and how to enhance their participation.

The current SSI version 3 (Hemmingsson, Egilson, Hoffman & Kielhofner, 2005) is published in both Swedish and English by the Swedish Association for Occupational Therapists. It has been developed and tested (Egilson, 2005; Hemmingsson & Borell, 1996; Hemmingsson, Kottorp & Bernspång, 2004) and is used in clinical practice and research in Europe as well as in other parts of the world.

THE SCHOOL SETTING INTERVIEW

Key characteristics of SSI
The SSI was designed in accordance with the Model of Human Occupation conceptualisation of the environment, (Kielhofner, 2002), and concepts of client-centered practice (Canadian Association of Occupational

Therapists, 2002; Law, Baptiste & Mills, 1995). The SSI focuses on barriers and facilitators in the school environment as opposed to the student's limitations or diagnosis. The questions in the SSI are framed in neutral language to avoid problematising the child's functioning. The SSI asks the student how they perceive that they manage school activities and what social and physical adjustments they think might be needed in order to enable their participation.

Applicability
The SSI was developed specifically for students aged 9 years and upwards who have some type of motor dysfunction. However, it has also been found to be very suitable for students with psychosocial difficulties such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (Hauksdóttir & Júliusdóttir, 2007; Volk, 1998). One of the key reasons why the SSI is applicable to a range of children is the nature of the items (i.e. questions) that concerns everyday school activities all students take part in whether or not they have a disability. Although relevant for most children and young people, the student must have sufficient skills to communicate what they are experiencing. In the SSI the student's active participation in the assessment process is a prerequisite for scoring as well as the planning of environmental adjustments. However, the SSI has been used with students with speech and language issues, with the student using their assistive communication devices rather than voice, although the time for the interview may increase considerably which could impact on therapist's workloads.

Items and scoring
The SSI contains 16 items (see Table 1) with suggested follow-up questions providing the therapist with information about the student's functioning and need for adjustments within school. For each item, the therapist asks:
• How do you act /manage now in your class when you are going to (item)? Have any adjustments been made? If so, what type? Are you satisfied with the present situation? What adjustments would make school easier for you?

The general questions and the follow-up questions are formulated in simple language in order to ensure that they are easily understood by students of any age. Exactly how they are formulated and the number of follow-up questions may depend on the age of the student. It is essential the student understand the intent of the questions, as well as the therapist understanding the area of concern that the student wants to address.

After discussion with the student the following four-step rating scale regarding levels of student-environment fit is used for each item, with higher numbers indicating a higher level of match:

- A score of 4 denotes a 'Perfect fit' (no need for adjustments), a score of 3 equals a 'Good fit' (have adjustments and are satisfied), the rating of 2 indicates a 'Partial fit' (have some adjustments but needs some more) and a score of 1 denotes 'Unfit', when the student perceives that the school environment needs to be modified but no adjustments have been made.

1.	Write	*Taking notes, writing reports.*
2.	Read	*Reading from the board, turning pages.*
3.	Speak	*Participate in group work, speaks in front of group.*
4.	Remembering things	*Daily schedule, homework.*
5.	Do mathematics	*Writing numbers and formulas, using calculator and computer.*
6.	Do homework	*Location for homework? Need for personal/ technical assistance?*
7.	Take exams	*Need for more time, assistance or special equipment.*
8.	Do sport activities	*Dressing and undressing, P.E. days.*
9.	Do practical subjects	*Using tools and material needed.*
10.	Participate in the classroom	*Access to objects and school supplies.*
11.	Participate in social activities during breaks	*Interacting with friends, using play equipment.*
12.	Participate in practical activities during break	*Transferring within school, toileting, eating and drinking.*
13.	Go on field trips	*Joining the classmates, need for assistance.*
14.	Get assistance	*Availability and timing for assistance.*
15.	Access the school	*Getting in and out of school, library, cafeteria.*
16.	Interact with staff	*Teachers, therapists and other 0 adults.*

Table 1: School Setting Interview (SSI) items and examples of follow up questions for each item

The student-environment fit is operationalised as the level of the students' needs for adjustments in school. In SSI "needs" refers to the student's experience of what social and physical environmental adjustments he or she perceives are needed to enable participation.

Collaborative planning

As already mentioned, the SSI assessment can be used to enable the student's participation in school by using a collaborative approach to problem identification and solution finding. To enable better access to the curriculum, the SSI, in addition to the items and scoring, also provides a methodology for collaborative planning in order to adjust target school activities. This is a specifically important step in line with the client centred philosophy where the student is involved in the planning, thus having the opportunity to influence those instrumental in supporting their inclusion into the school environment.

The use of the SSI in research projects

The SSI has been used in several research studies regarding the student-environment fit of students with physical disabilities (Egilson, 2005; Hemmingsson & Borell, 2000, 2002). In line with international research (Coupley & Ziviani, 2004; Egilson, 2005; Schenker, Coster, & Parus, 2005, 2006) the results highlight that although physical environments might be satisfactory, students still felt excluded from classroom activities and interactions in the playground. Thus, more so than physical inaccessibility, the organisation of school activities and how they should be carried out to enable the student's participation were found to be major barriers to participation. A recent study compared the student-environment fit of students with motor impairments and psycho-social limitations in Iceland (Egilson & Hemmingsson, 2009). The results demonstrated that students with psycho-social limitations had needs for participatory arrangements in school, which were overlooked, and suggested them to be a priority for occupational therapy services.

The SSI has also been used as an interview guide (Prellwitz & Tamm, 2002) or as a complement to focus groups interviews (Asbjörnslett & Hemmingsson, 2008) in qualitative studies of how students with physical disabilities perceive their school environment. Results of these international studies emphasise the social consequences of environmental barriers such as exclusion from some of the activities in school although students strive to participate in all activities and to be "just like the others". This striving to be "like the others" was also a key theme that emerged from Ford's (2009) single site case study of a New Zealand child with very high needs attending his local school where all involved saw this child as being "a kid who is like the other kids", who belongs and who contributes to his class and school. (p. 164).

Concluding remarks

In order to enable children and young people with disabilities to attend their local school, to be a valued part of their school community and to access the curriculum, their voices have to be given credibility. Helping the student to articulate their opinions about the school environment and how well they are included in this environment is also an important factor in health promotion. It is a risk children may feel dependent, insignificant and powerless when adults define the problems and outline the methods for addressing these issues (deWinter, Baerveldt & Kooistra, 1999). Involving children and young people with disabilities in the

decision-making process in matters that influence their everyday lives, prepares them for active participation in society. The SSI is an assessment that enables children's participation in decisions that concern their every-day participation in school. With their input, their needs can be more accurately identified, and potential solutions to the identified issues impacting on their inclusiveness can be identified and discussed. Using the SSI can allow the student's voice to become visible for other team members. Thus, the SSI helps the team to provide services tailored to their needs and preferences of the child that in turn will enhance school participation.

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Informed Consent in Educational Settings and the Novice Researcher

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ABSTRACT
This article describes the informed consent process for an in-progress research masters thesis about the school experiences of senior secondary school students who have funding from Ongoing and Reviewable Resource Scheme (ORRS). It examines this in relation to the 'hierarchy of gatekeepers' (Powell & Smith, 2009, Stalker, 1998) and issues of capacity to give informed consent.

Practice paper

Key Words: Capacity, disability, ethics, gatekeepers, informed consent, school.

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND
Research ethics are of fundamental importance to any research. They define and shape the research process from the very beginning as they are the code on which academics rely on as guiding practice in the field (Hopf, 2004). As a novice researcher, for my very first piece of major research - an in-progress masters thesis - I chose to examine the school experiences of senior students who have funding from the ORRS. These students have been identified by the school and Ministry of Education as having "high-very high special needs" (Ministry of Education, cited in Brown & Thomson, 2005). It is research that is based in several different and yet overlapping theoretical and philosophical assumptions. These include the sociologies of both childhood and disability as well as the use of a children's rights discourse. They are all complex and distinct and yet they all have a commonality of viewing the individual as an active citizen within society (Alderson, 2003; Balen et al., 2006; Bluebond-Langer & Korbin, 2007; Christensen & Prout, 2002; Davis, 2007; Gittins, 2004; Jans, 2004; Jenks, 2004; Kehily, 2004; Mercer, 2002; Messiou, 2006; Morris, 2003; Oliver, 1996; Powell & Smith, 2009; Priestley, 2003; Punch, 2002; Roche, 1999, Shakespeare, 2006; Smith, Lister, Middleton, & Cox, 2005; Stainton-Rodgers, 2004; Taylor & Smith, 2009; Tichkosky, 2003; Whitehurst, 2006; Wyness, 1999).

For the research design I decided to work within a qualitative multiple case study framework (Yin, 2003) which included a data collection method of observations in schools and interviews with four students. Within this framework came certain ethical issues. One of the key ethical issues of this, and any research involving human participants, is informed consent. Informed consent is an interesting concept as it is interwoven with other ethical issues that include power, privacy and anonymity (Punch, 2002). All of these are ongoing concerns for a researcher and can arise at any stage of the research process (Coad & Evans, 2008). Also interwoven with informed consent, especially in the context of this research, are ideas of capacity to give informed consent. As we will see, students with disabilities have traditionally not given informed consent (Shakespeare, 2006); in fact, to conduct my research without parental consent, much negotiation between the 'hierarchy of gatekeepers' was needed (Powell & Smith, 2009; Stalker, 1998). These included the ethics committee and teachers.

This article hopes to describe the involvement of the "hierarchy of gatekeepers" in how disabled students are viewed and involved in the research processes. It will then discuss how informed consent is constructed for disabled students, with the continued use of adult proxies and finally, how issues of capacity continue to play a role within the hierarchy.

The hierarchy of gatekeepers
In a recent research article by Powell and Smith (2009), they discuss a hierarchy of gatekeepers in an educational setting. These included the ethics committee, the school (principal and teachers) and parents. Gatekeepers are generally a group or an individual including academics that all researchers have to negotiate with in order to access their target population. For my thesis, I only negotiated with the ethics committee and the school. This will be discussed later in relation to student rights. The first in the "hierarchy" however is the ethics committee.

Ethics committees play an important role in the research process. They both protect society, the academic institution and the researcher. However, in what Iacono (2006) describes the 'slowly creeping conservatism' (p.174) of ethics committees and Hammersley (2009) sees as a system that is generally out of touch with current research practices, they can become inconsistent and over-protecting of key sections of society which has led unwittingly to these sections being silenced. Generally, it is seen as a by-product of the research process, or rather of gaining ethical approval (Hammersley, 2009; Iacono, 2006; Powell & Smith 2009). It can be seen that sections of society, like

disabled students, have been silenced continually by non-involvement in research because they have been placed in the too-hard basket for gaining ethical approval (Iacono, 2006).

This filtering process of the hierarchy means that sometimes the target populations, in this case senior secondary school ORRS-funded students, can have their rights bypassed before the research has even begun (Powell & Smith, 2009). An implication for this protectionist/paternalistic stance is that the ethics committees tend to work within a medical model perspective (Hammersley, 2009) which views impairment and disability within a deficit theory (Mercer, 2002; Priestley, 2003; Shakespeare, 2006). This perspective continues to be at odds with the foundation literature for disability research, which suggests that such research be centred in and on the social model of disability (Mercer, 2002; Priestley, 2003; Shakespeare, 2006). There is a need to be inclusive of all "voices" within research or what Davis (2007) calls the 'polyphonics' (p.123) of disability research, especially those who have not had such opportunities in research or indeed society.
In my own research, trying to break the protectionist/ paternalistic barrier required a lengthy ethics approval process, especially surrounding the issues of informed consent and the capacity to give informed consent. Informed consent is so engrained in traditional research paradigms it is seemingly impossible to work within such a tradition and maintain inclusivity.

Informed consent process

The informed consent process is described as needing voluntary participation which is based on full and open information (Christians, 2000). This includes the risks/ benefits and what will happen to the information given (Mishna, Antle & Regehr, 2004). Traditional methods of gaining informed consent from children and people with disabilities have differed from that of the wider society (Alderson & Goodey, 1996; Shakespeare, 2006). This has been a matter of perceived capacity, an issue that will be discussed in the following section. This is in contrast with the literature of the sociologies of both childhood and disability and that of children's rights discourses (Alderson & Goodey,1996; Bluebond-Langer & Korbin, 2007; Christensen & Prout, 2002; Gittens, 2004; Jans, 2004; Jenks, 2004; Morrow & Richards, 1996; Powell & Smith, 2009; Punch, 2002; Roche, 1999; Shakespeare, 2006; Taylor & Smith, 2009; Tichkosky, 2003; Wyness, 1999) which suggest that research with children and people with disabilities should be conducted with the party of primary concern: children and disabled people. Yet, for students/children with complex disabilities proxies are continually used (Shakespeare, 2006), therefore their consent to the research process had sought assent as a token secondary action, rather than as a primary concern for those researchers. Furthermore,

many scholars have noted that the consent process for children and youth does not genuinely address them as participants in their own right (Alderson & Goodey, 1996). Instead, it gives overriding power to parents and therefore many researchers only obtain assent with a tokenistic sense of consent from the actual participants (Bloom-Di Cicco & Crabtree, 2006; Coad & Evans, 2008; Crowe, Wiles, Heath & Charles, 2006; Grieg, Taylor & Mackay, 2007; Howe & Moses, 1999; Morrow & Richards, 1996; Williamson, Goodenough, Kent & Ascroft, 2005).

Informed consent is interwoven with other ethical concerns like issues of power. This is of concern within the educational setting and can be found in the status of the students as being vulnerable because of maturation and disability labels (Grieg et al., 2007; Mahon, Glendinning, Clarke & Craig, 1996; Stainton-Rodgers, 2004). In relation to informed consent, the power of who gives consent is important. As highlighted earlier, adult proxies have been used for disabled students and indeed, the practices of the schooling system see that parental consent is necessary for student participation, which has seen some schools stick rigidly to this practice. This immediately places the students within an unequal power relationship. As power is an ambiguous and engrained aspect of research it is impossible to eliminate fully, however it is hoped that some strategies including asking for informed consent or 'informed dissent' (Alderson & Goodey, 1996, p.107) directly from the participants will lessen the effects of the power imbalance and at the very least, acknowledge their participation as individuals.

The use of adult proxies undermines this and ignores the inherent right of the participant to decide to give informed consent or informed 'dissent' (Shakespeare, 2006). By perpetuating the myth of non-capacity, traditional research is maintaining a deficit perspective of disability and students in general. It is important that the participants are recognised by any research as having the same human rights, authority and self-determination over their lives as any peer would have as a participant (even if this is not so in their life in general). This is especially important regarding any form of (non)participation, that the participants' inherent rights and wishes will not be over-ridden by formal powers of authority including that of the researcher.

It is important to note that not asking for parental consent as a part of the research was seen as a deviation from traditional educational research that describes gaining assent from children (Alderson & Goodey 1996; Fisher, 2003; Lewis & Porter, 2004; Morrow & Richards, 1996; Punch, 2002). The idea of assent did not seem appropriate for students who are considered legally independent of their parents at the age of 16 (Ministry of Youth Affairs, 2000) and whose peers would be afforded the same autonomy/self-determination. Some scholars

like Cocks (2006) advocate for assent when involving young children (under 10) as this takes an element of power away from parental consent for those who are not legally independent. However, in my research that would have been seen as tokenistic, disempowering and it could have even been seen as coercion. In order to satisfy any parental concern, students were given an information sheet that if they chose to, they could show it to their parents/caregivers.

As mentioned, other scholars like David, Edwards & Allred (2001) describe the consent process with students as being "educated" consent. This concept allows for several factors in the research process, including the inexperience of the researcher and the participants as well as viewing the consent process as ongoing. It also recognises that capacity to give consent does not have to be fully formed but rather comes with the growth of knowledge. Traditional research processes place emphasis on capacity to give informed consent and therefore key sections of society have been excluded because of a belief that they do not have the capacity to give informed consent; this includes children and people with disabilities (Alderson & Goodey 1996; Morrow & Richards, 1996; Shakespeare, 2006; Whitehurst, 2006).

Capacity to give consent: How do you know if no one has asked?
Capacity is seen as a key component of informed consent (Mishna, Antle & Regehr, 2004). Scholars have argued that vulnerable groups like those described in this research do not have the "capacity" to know the consequences that the research will entail (Mishna et al., 2004). This includes where and when the research data and the findings will be used and the risks and/or benefits for the participants. My own research was conducted because there was little evidence of research, especially New Zealand-based, that involved students who have "multiple and complex disabilities" (Whitehurst, 2006, p.57). There was a great deal of trust and goodwill between the 'hierarchy of gatekeepers' and myself throughout the research process. The few studies that have involved students with "complex disabilities" have all described assent by the student with informed consent as coming from the parents or other proxies (Clark, 2008; Shakespeare, 2006; Whitehurst, 2006). Equally, there is an emerging body of research, although small, with youth (and adults) who are 'non-verbal' that discusses involving them within research (RITE project, 2009). It is important with this type of research, as with any other, to uphold the participants' rights as citizens (Jans, 2004; Stainton-Rodgers, 2004; Taylor & Smith, 2009) and gain informed consent directly (or via an interpreter) from the participants rather than assent or capacity assertions from others. Studies of note include the British RITE study (2009), and the work of scholars such as Kelly (2007) and Morris (2003).

Nevertheless, judging capacity – that is, who gets to? how do you? - proved a major sticking point with all of the gatekeepers (those identified previously). Throughout the research, the rationale behind asking for informed consent from the students and not the parents had to be refined and redefined many times before the ethics committee would accept my proposal. The core belief that the students involved should have the right to accept or decline participation remained the same. Indeed, Alderson and Goodey (1996) have suggested that any/all participants who are not regularly involved in the process can misinterpret the consent process. This would then suggest that capacity or judging capacity should not have the importance that it has in traditional research but rather should be seen as an ongoing construction of understanding between the researcher and participant. This idea is furthered by scholars like Hammersley (2009) who have compared this type of social research to that of journalism or a form of social history where the researcher and participant have a shared interest.

The very idea of capacity is fluid. This can be seen within disability research with certain groups, such as those who have "moderate learning disabilities". Seemingly as a direct consequence of research and the 'explosion of disability literature' (Tichkosky, 2003, p.13) this group has been removed internationally from the "too hard basket" and have become accepted participants within social sciences. There is nothing to suggest other than an ethical rigour second to none and a little goodwill, the same cannot happen for students with multiple, complex or severe disabilities.

Finally, after the lengthy ethics approval process, I asked two schools if they would like to participate in the research project. One politely declined because they, as a rule, need parental consent for all visitors to the property. The other, however, said yes. They believed that it was possible for me to conduct my research because they stood as in loco parentis for all students. Consent was only asked for physical access to the school site. It was not taken as a right or a given that I would be able to recruit any students at all. All students were asked continually for their consent for me to: a) be in the classroom; b) interview them, and c) photograph them. Students who did decline all or certain aspects had their wishes upheld and respected. I spent several weeks building relationships with the students. During this time, I went into their classes but did not take notes and instead I made myself available to them so if they wanted to talk or needed help, I was there. The time spent building relationships with the students was invaluable and eventually it gave way to exposing them more and more to research practices. Using an "educated" consent process meant that they felt they could say and did say, "no" positively and assertively. It also meant those who were interviewed could feel confident when discussing their experiences, because they knew the process and what the material was being used for.

Final word

Research in educational settings with students who are considered "vulnerable" or "too hard" requires a cautiously optimistic enthusiasm on behalf of the school, great supervisors and good deal of perseverance. Those who are within the "hierarchy of gatekeepers" have a genuine need to protect society from researchers (Snook, 2003), however this must also be tempered with an openness to new (or new orthodox) ways of researching in order not to become stagnant (Hammersley, 2009; Iacono, 2006). There should instead be every effort not to (re)produce the same inequalities within the research process by encouraging researchers to maintain an informed consent process that does not fit with current research practices; this includes the emphasis on perceived capacity and assent. Consent is a continuous process, viewing it as a singular event means that views and perspectives of "vulnerable" groups will continue to be left out and ignored.

Schools that provide their students with the opportunities to be self-determined and autonomous are bucking the trend of cloistered protection and, in fact, signal the slowly shifting perspective of students from dependants to citizens (Stainton-Rodgers, 2004; Taylor & Smith, 2009). Ultimately, it must be acknowledged that there is a great deal of trust from those schools and students that participate in any research.

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Kairaranga Book Reviews

TEACH MORE, MANAGE LESS: A MINIMALIST APPROACH TO BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT
Christine Richmond

In the introduction, the author states that this book is not intended to provide a complete explanation of behaviour management, but it does offer the essentials that teachers can use to reflect on, and improve their own practices.

Effective teaching requires considerable skill in managing the myriad of tasks and situations that occur in the classroom each day. Chapter One emphasises the importance of being well-organised, and provides strategies and checklists which enable the teacher to spend more time teaching and less time managing.

In Chapter Two different behaviour management styles are looked at and teachers are helped to identify their preferred approach. The author identifies the strengths and weaknesses of the various management styles, and states that each style can be used effectively or ineffectively. Vignettes are provided to illustrate this.

Chapters Three and Four cover expectations of student behaviour and giving feedback and strategies for acknowledging student strengths. These strategies are straightforward and easy to implement. The author notes that teachers are continually modeling their expectations through their body language, gestures and vocal tones, which reinforces the desired behaviours.

Chapter Five discusses legal responsibilities and fair correction strategies. Richmond identifies the four groups of correction strategies outlining the benefits and pitfalls associated with each group. The groups are:
1. Body language strategies.
2. Verbal strategies.
3. Sanctions and "punishments".
4. Following through.

Richmond reminds teachers that whatever students have done, it is important for them to re-build the relationship and re-focus the students' attention on learning.

In Chapter Six Richmond gives examples of individual cases where teachers have been unable to engage challenging children in learning. Much time is often spent managing these students with little effect. When working with these students Richmond states that it is essential for teachers to:
- remain overtly calm whatever the provocation.
- state your expectations clearly.
- acknowledge the student's incremental improvement.
- privately correct disruptive behaviour.
- recognise and respond to dangerous situations.

Practical examples and strategies are given to demonstrate the above.

Classic behaviour management mistakes are discussed in Chapter Seven. As teachers, we have all made mistakes when dealing with challenging behaviour. Recognising that a mistake has been made, and taking responsibility for it is paramount. Richmond reminds us that as teachers we only can directly influence what happens in the school setting. Blaming parents, ethnic backgrounds, poverty, television and societal change for students presenting with challenges, does not solve the problem.

The final chapter contains advice and reflections that Richmond has collected from teachers and students during her work in schools. The chapter also includes six photocopiable checklists designed to be used as part of ongoing reflective practice.

Teach More, Manage Less is "user friendly" and the suggestions, ideas and checklists will assist all teachers to refine and add to their kete of effective behaviour management strategies. It also encourages teachers to reflect on some of their practices which are less effective.

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AT THE CUTTING EDGE: THE IMPORTANCE OF PHONEMIC AWARENESS IN LEARNING TO READ AND SPELL.
Tom Nicholson

With the plethora of books, manuals and programmes on literacy and literacy teaching, sometimes it seems like information overload. Tom Nicholson's book *At the Cutting Edge* has been around for a while and may have been reviewed in the past but I thought it well worth bringing back to our conscious attention.

Children's success in beginning reading is very highly correlated with their level of phonological awareness. Students need to learn the code of the Alphabet principle – that spoken words can be broken down into component sounds and that these sounds are represented in print by certain letters or groups of letters. Certain literacy knowledge and skills are prerequisites for further literacy learning. This includes phonological awareness, grapheme-phoneme knowledge and automatic recognition of familiar/high frequency words. Without mastery of phonic skills and adequate sight vocabulary, children will not reach the stage of automaticity in processing text and a degree of automaticity is needed for reading confidently, fluently and critically. I have found Tom Nicholson's book *At the Cutting Edge,* by far, to be most useful and informative in my practice of literacy teaching.

This second edition book presents research-supported approaches to literacy teaching that have been designed to make learning to read easier and more successful for all children. *At the Cutting Edge* is written in a straightforward, jargon-friendly style that will appeal to both parents and teachers. It provides evidence-based literacy activities that can be readily used by classroom teachers to enhance the learning of phonemic awareness. There are a number of copiable blackline maters to support teaching and learning. It discusses early readers, provides a phonemic awareness test, gives practical ideas for teaching phonemic awareness, the alphabet, spelling and phonics; looks at ways of going beyond decoding to focus more on comprehension; and provides a model of how we learn how to read and write.

Nicholson's professional background encompasses a career in teaching and research. He is co-director of the Centre of Excellence for Research on Children's Literacy (CERCL) and was elected in 2009 to the International Reading Association Hall of Fame (USA). His recent research interests include several reading projects at Grey Lynn, Flat Bush, Orakei and Stanley Bay schools in Auckland, and at the Massey Auckland campus at Albany. The research projects are designed to improve the literacy progress of pupils with reading difficulties by teaching phonological skills.

He is the author of more than 160 publications including 16 books. Recent books are Teaching Text Structures (2007, Scholastic, New York – with Sue Dymock), Phonics Handbook (2006, Wiley), Reading comprehension – Narrative and Transactional Texts (1999. 2001, 2002 – with Sue Dymock, published by NZCER), At the Cutting Edge (2nd ed., 2005, NZCER), Reading the Writing on the Wall (2000, and currently in revision), and Solving Reading Problems (2nd ed.,1997, NZCER). He was co-editor of Learning to Read (1999, Teachers College Press).

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BIBLIOGRAPHICAL DATA
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