The artwork on the cover is by Anna Xu, completed when she was a Year 5 student at Central Normal School in Palmerston North. The class focus for the artwork was the Maori legend, Ruatapu’s Revenge. Through this legend, the students learned about the koru design and how they could use it to represent the sea. They also experimented with colour contrasting and the use of three dimensional artwork to represent the story in their paintings. Anna’s kite is an example of this.

Children’s artwork has recently been used as a focus to design and paint murals, based on the theme of friendship, on a blank wall at Central Normal School.

Central Normal School has 490 students, and is made up of children from many different cultures. The school also has a large number of children with special needs. The school recently participated in the Index for Inclusion self-review process with staff from the Ministry of Education - Special Education, and they value the tremendous support they get from their local Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour.
Table of Contents

Editorial, Editorial Board and contact details

A snapshot of organisational provisions for Māori children and youth with special needs – Jill Bevan-Brown
Research paper

A Ministry of Education, industry and community partnership strategy – Alison Sutherland
Practice paper

What happened on 18 September 2004:
Life after the introduction of the Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act (HPCCA), 2003 – Maggie Roe-Shaw
Practice paper

A case study of students’ perceptions of goal setting as a tool for learning – Helga Grant
Research paper

Getting to the heart of the matter:
Examining the efficacy of a whole-school approach to behaviour management – Bridget Scott
Research paper

Foundations for behaviour management:
A systems approach – Diane Andrews and Trevor Clarke
Practice paper

Shortening the Tail:
A critical look at the prompts New Zealand Teachers use in teaching reading – Margaret Coogan
Practice paper

An interview with Don Brown – Lesley Dunn and Tiri Sotiri

Prevention through parent training:
Making more of a difference – Peter Stanley and Lesley Stanley
Research paper

Kairaranga Book reviews

Kairaranga Submission and Subscription information
Imagine our delight as we share with you the diversity of this issue: an issue that reflects the multiplicity of our colleagues and their daily encounters with young people, their families, and the academic institutions in which they receive their education. When we first began to gather the articles for this issue, we wondered how we would be able to present you with a coherent gathering, because this group of articles is truly diverse. These papers weave a thread of similarity however, which is the whariki of inclusion. For example Peter and Lesley Stanley’s discussion paper about parent training, Jill Bevan-Brown’s snapshot of organisational provisions for Māori youth and Maggie Roe-Shaw’s take on the Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act, to name but a few.

What we have realized from working together in this way is that diversity is a good thing! There is ampleness and strength in diversity. So we offer you this basket of articles in the hope that you will take something that you may add to your own basket. In this way, Kairaranga becomes the vehicle by which we can continue to replenish our stores.

Cath, Sonja, Alison

Imagine our delight as we share with you the diversity of this issue: an issue that reflects the multiplicity of our colleagues and their daily encounters with young people, their families, and the academic institutions in which they receive their education. When we first began to gather the articles for this issue, we wondered how we would be able to present you with a coherent gathering, because this group of articles is truly diverse. These papers weave a thread of similarity however, which is the whariki of inclusion. For example Peter and Lesley Stanley’s discussion paper about parent training, Jill Bevan-Brown’s snapshot of organisational provisions for Māori youth and Maggie Roe-Shaw’s take on the Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act, to name but a few.

What we have realized from working together in this way is that diversity is a good thing! There is ampleness and strength in diversity. So we offer you this basket of articles in the hope that you will take something that you may add to your own basket. In this way, Kairaranga becomes the vehicle by which we can continue to replenish our stores.

Cath, Sonja, Alison

Imagine our delight as we share with you the diversity of this issue: an issue that reflects the multiplicity of our colleagues and their daily encounters with young people, their families, and the academic institutions in which they receive their education. When we first began to gather the articles for this issue, we wondered how we would be able to present you with a coherent gathering, because this group of articles is truly diverse. These papers weave a thread of similarity however, which is the whariki of inclusion. For example Peter and Lesley Stanley’s discussion paper about parent training, Jill Bevan-Brown’s snapshot of organisational provisions for Māori youth and Maggie Roe-Shaw’s take on the Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act, to name but a few.

What we have realized from working together in this way is that diversity is a good thing! There is ampleness and strength in diversity. So we offer you this basket of articles in the hope that you will take something that you may add to your own basket. In this way, Kairaranga becomes the vehicle by which we can continue to replenish our stores.

Cath, Sonja, Alison
A snap-shot of organisational provisions for Māori children and youth with special needs

Jill Bevan-Brown
Department of Learning and Teaching, Massey University

ABSTRACT
This article presents the findings of a survey to gather information about the scope, prevalence and effectiveness of programmes and services for Māori children and youth with special needs. Analysis of relevant organisational documentation including a postal survey completed by 78 people from 56 different special educational, Māori, support and disability organisations, and 25 follow-up interviews, revealed that a wide range of services and programmes were being offered by organisations throughout Aotearoa/New Zealand. Out of the organisations surveyed fifty-eight percent were providing programmes and services especially developed or adapted for Māori, and forty-one percent had a person with particular responsibility for or expertise in this area. Common components of effective programmes and services were: the incorporation of cultural content; the involvement of parents, whānau, the Māori community, Māori organisations and Māori workers; and ready accessibility. Respondents described 56 different effective strategies and 39 challenges to providing for Māori children and youth with special needs. The five major barriers identified were: insufficient funding; lack of culturally appropriate resources and people with cultural and professional expertise; a shortage of culturally appropriate, relevant training; Pākehā-centric attitudes towards special needs provisions; and high stress levels of Māori staff working in the special needs domain.

KEYWORDS:
Māori, Māori culture, special needs, special education, culturally appropriate strategies, family involvement, effective practices.

INTRODUCTION
Māori learners with special needs are entitled to culturally appropriate and effective programmes and services. This entitlement is contained in a wide range of legislation and official documentation.1 However, despite this commitment on paper, there is considerable research to show that Māori learners with special needs are not being adequately provided for. The literature reveals that this includes:

• a scarcity of culturally appropriate implementation and delivery processes
• a shortage of programmes, services, resources and assessment measures in te reo Māori with a consequential low referral rate from kohanga reo and kura kaupapa Māori
• a failure to recognise and provide for Māori perceptions of special needs
• a low number of Māori amongst special education personnel
• a lack of support for Māori staff working in the special education domain
• a shortage of special education professionals with the cultural knowledge needed to work with Māori learners
• a lack of recognition of the importance of culturally appropriate services amongst principals, teachers, teacher aides and special education professionals
• a shortage of special education expertise and knowledge of SE2000 initiatives amongst teachers in Māori immersion facilities
• a lack of professional development specifically targeted for kaiako and kaiāwhina in total immersion education
• parental difficulties in finding and accessing appropriate help.

For an outline of this legislation and official documentation, see Bevan-Brown (2002, p.2).
METHOD

The organisation survey conducted in the initial phase of my PhD was an exploratory tool. Its aims were to:

1. Ascertain the scope and prevalence of services and programmes specifically developed or adapted for Māori learners with special needs.
2. Identify successful services and programmes offered to Māori children and youth with special needs.
3. Identify challenges organisations face in providing for Māori learners with special needs.

The organisation survey contained three components:

Postal Survey

A Postal Survey with seven questions relating to the provision, nature and extent of services offered to Māori learners with special needs was posted to 105 different special education providers, support services, Māori and disability organisations. These were selected from a list of agencies supplied by the Palmerston North Disabilities Resource Centre and from TAKOA 1996, (Te ake kumara o Aotearoa: Directory of Māori organisations and resource people in Aotearoa). The sample included all major special education and disability services in Aotearoa/New Zealand and also relevant support and Māori organisations. As a result of feedback from this mail-out and from personal contacts, 44 more questionnaires were sent. This second mail-out was mainly to people at the local branch level of national organisations. Feedback was received from 78 people representing 56 different organisations. Allowing for "address unknown" returns, the overall response rate for the survey was fifty-three percent.

Semi-structured interviews

Twenty-five follow-up interviews were conducted with contacts from the postal survey - seventeen were by telephone and eight were face-to-face. They were based on the written questionnaire but extended beyond that to include in-depth discussion of points raised by the participants.

Documentary analysis

A request for relevant "brochures, pamphlets, booklets, policy statements etc." was included in the written questionnaire. Twenty-seven organisations responded to this request. Further documentation was collected at relevant hui and seminars.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data gathered from all sources were combined and both qualitative and quantitative strategies were used in analysis. Qualitative analysis strategies were used on data relating to the scope and nature of programmes and services for Māori learners with special needs and to the challenges organisations face in meeting these needs. A qualitative approach was chosen to ascertain the prevalence of services and programmes for Māori learners with special needs. In calculating prevalence figures respondents were divided into four categories.

RESULTS

Prevalence and scope of services and programmes

The first question of the survey sought information about the existence of services or programmes specifically developed or adapted for Māori learners with special needs while question five inquired about the presence of people with responsibility for or expertise in providing these services and programmes. The answers given are presented in the following tables.

For question five, a variety of arrangements were mentioned. These situations were "official" responsibility delegated to individuals, Māori units or committees within an organisation. Their brief involved providing advice about service content and delivery and acting as advocates and Māori representatives. In other organisations individual Māori workers or whānau groups were regularly consulted but had no "official" responsibility or designation, Māori experts were employed by an organisation’s national body to advise and assist local branches when required, or itinerant Māori experts were employed who would work within a specified geographical area.

Six respondents who did not have people with Māori expertise in their own organisation consulted and used local Māori organisations, groups, experts, whānau and iwi as well as national Māori organisations and national experts when the need arose.

A variety of services and programmes in a wide range of areas was described. These included educational, social, recreational, promotional, medical, preventative, support and nurturing, assessment and screening, rehabilitation, liaison, therapeutic, referral, caretaking and accommodation, advisory, translation, advocacy, lobbying, fundraising and financial support, policy development, research and counseling programmes and services.

Successful services and programmes

An analysis of services and programmes reported as effective with Māori children and youth with special needs revealed 56 different strategies were being utilised. These strategies were grouped into eight categories: participation, partnership, cultural content, personnel, administration, policy, integration, and accessibility and equality. These wide-ranging strategies include:

- the use of whānau networks to identify needs and advertise programmes
- having Māori representatives on Executive Boards
- the development and use of Māori-appropriate resources such as Māori dolls in therapy, talking books about Māori characters and pātere used in asthma breathing exercises
- the establishment of administrative processes for internal or external cultural auditing
- active recruitment and training in Māori communities to provide a pool of community-based, support people
- policy commitment to target services to areas where Māori needs have been identified
- staff from Māori services working alongside Pākehā professionals in mainstream services
- whānau given a choice of service/meeting time and venue.
Weaving educational threads. Weaving educational practice.

COMMON COMPONENTS OF SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMMES AND SERVICES

An analysis of the research data also revealed that successful programmes and services contained a number of common components.

The incorporation of cultural content including Māori knowledge, skills, experiences, processes, language, tikanga, values and beliefs

Having a special need was not viewed as negating an individual’s culture. On the contrary, culture was considered to be a vital part of a person’s being and an asset to be nourished and drawn on in any intervention. The inclusion of cultural content in programmes and services demonstrated a commitment to and valuing of taha Māori. It was evidenced in the programmes and services delivered to children and youth with special needs and also in various professional development programmes. An example is the Tatari, Tautoko, Tauawhi tutor training programme. Each session began with a karakia and mihimihi before the whakapapa of the programme was given. The tutors were instructed using interactive techniques, practical demonstrations and experiential learning. Kaumatua were involved, and food was provided. Every session ended with a closing karakia.

### TABLE 1
Number and Type of Organisation Surveyed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Groups providing educational services in the special needs area.</td>
<td>Group Special Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Māori</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hapū, īwi or pan-Māori groups providing a range of health, welfare, social, disability and educational services to Māori.</td>
<td>Whānau Ora Services - Te Rūnanga o Ngāti Raukawa, Āwhina Wahine Inc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Groups providing a particular service to people with a range of special needs.</td>
<td>Riding for the Disabled and Parent-to-Parent Inc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Groups specialising in services to a particular category of disability.</td>
<td>IHC and the Cerebral Palsy Assoc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 2
Does Your Organisation Provide Specific or Adapted Services or Programmes for Māori Children and Youth With Special Needs?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>ADAPTED</th>
<th>NO ANS/NA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Māori</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 3
Do You Have Any Person/s in Your Organisation With Particular Responsibility for or Expertise in Providing Services or Programmes for Māori With Special Needs?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>NO ANS/NA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Māori</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Weaving educational threads. Weaving educational practice.
The inclusion of parents and whānau, the Māori community, Māori organisations and Māori workers

Parents and whānau

Durie (1985, 1994) and Pere (1991) and the Royal Commission on Social Policy (1988) all list whānau as a foundational component in their respective models of Māori Health, namely, Whare Tapa Wha, Te Wheke and Ngā Pou Mana.

...the family is the prime support system for Māori, providing care and nurturance, not only in physical terms but culturally and emotionally (Durie, 1994, p. 73).

This view was widely accepted and practiced by many service providers. Parents and whānau, especially kaumatua, were consulted and involved in service provision including the development, adaptation and implementation of programmes, in identifying needs and in advertising services. Some whānau members were also involved as participants in disability-related research.

Whānau involvement was interpreted in its widest sense, for example in one organisation a Māori worker reported that where a single parent was fl atting and did not have whānau support available, willing fl atmates and friends were enlisted to take on the role of whānau. Collective responsibility was created by all adults receiving training, and getting involved in the programme to support the child.

The Māori community and Māori organisations

The Māori community and organisations were involved in a variety of ways but the most common strategy used consultation and involvement as outside resource and support people in the delivery of programmes and services. However, from the survey one worker sounded a warning:

The wrong people are sometimes involved. Who should be consulted depends on the point of the consultation. The Rūnanga and national boards serve the purpose of meeting Māori interests at an iwi and national level, but often closer fl ax roots consultation is needed to determine local needs.

Māori workers

Many participants noted that Māori children, youth and adults felt more comfortable with Māori than Pākehā workers. For example, an urban, Māori worker with over 20 years of experience said she found that Māori chose to use a particular service because they knew someone who worked there rather than because it was handy or based at a marae.

Māori are a dislocated people and so will go to people they know and feel comfortable with … even if they don’t know the worker personally, they will feel more comfortable with a Māori because they can relate to them.

Ready accessibility

Many organisations went to considerable lengths to ensure Māori had ready access to their services. A wide range of strategies was used to ensure that child and parental involvement was not restricted by barriers such as inaccessible venues, unreasonable costs, lack of knowledge, inconvenient timing or inappropriate content. Asthma educators were particularly creative in this respect, advertising their services at marae functions, sporting and cultural events and popular locations such as shopping malls. As one woman from the survey explained:

I set my stall up outside McDonalds. I have a big bunch of coloured balloons that I give away. The kids see the balloons and drag their mothers over. It is amazing how many contacts I have made that way!

Major challenges

Data analysis revealed 39 different challenges faced by people and organisations that provided services and programmes for Māori learners with special needs. These were grouped into seven of the eight categories used for the positive strategies. Examples in each category illustrate their wide-ranging nature:

• Māori parents reluctant to participate, too shy to make their needs known or to complain about poor quality provisions
• Pākehā concepts of special needs used to identify Māori children
• high burnout and attrition rates of Māori workers with expertise
• organisations too small to provide a variety of programmes
• difficulty in translating national policy into practice at a local level resulting in policy tokenism
• a lack of coordination and liaison between organisations resulting in fragmented service provision and Māori “falling between the cracks”
• no wheelchair access on marae where services were being delivered.

Data analysis revealed the five most prevalent challenges in providing for Māori children and youth with special needs.

Insufficient funding to provide the workforce and resources essential for adequate services and programmes

Lack of funding was a major concern. It was seen as the main cause of understaffing.

In the mainstream services it is really about resourcing ... dotting one Māori person here and one group there, they can’t realistically achieve anything. There is just not enough people for the workload.

Similarly, Māori programmes, services and resources were not being developed because of the expense involved. Even when they were developed, they were often not utilised

2 No example of the partnership category was found amongst the challenges people described.
effectively because insufficient funding was provided to train people in their optimum use. One woman noted:

If programmes and resources are distributed in bits and pieces, you are doing a disservice to the programme, resource and research on which it is based but more importantly, you are doing a disservice to the students for whom they were intended.

Limited funding was cited as being a problem at both ends of the programme/resource development continuum. One person noted that any contracts she had been involved in did not allow sufficient money to do adequate market research to identify needs. The nature of the contract always assumed a certain need and did not allow for the validity or implications of this need to be investigated in any depth. Contract funding was seen to have other drawbacks apart from its limited amounts. In respect to service provision, some participants believed it contributed to job insecurity and a lack of commitment from both staff and "clients."

Lack of culturally appropriate resources and people with the cultural and professional expertise needed to work with Māori children and youth with special needs

This challenge went beyond the lack of funding to employ workers and provide resources. Even when sufficient money was available, the “right” people were often not available or the appropriate resources did not exist. The lack of Māori expertise was a particular problem for voluntary organisations. As one worker stated, “We are at the mercy of the people we attract and if we don’t attract Māori we have no Māori expertise available.”

Particular concern was expressed about the lack of culturally appropriate assessment measures and procedures. After describing the inappropriate questions asked in an assessment situation, one worker noted:

A lot of the resources that have been developed by Pākehā for Pākehā are not appropriate for Māori people. Do they have a choice if they want to be assessed in Māori? They don’t and with the way children are coming through the system at the moment, bilingual and bicultural, these resources will be increasingly needed. There are not enough people developing culturally appropriate materials and measures. Even if it is not bilingual at least it should be Māori-appropriate.

Lack of culturally appropriate, relevant training for staff in both mainstream and Māori services

There was widespread concern about the dearth of training to prepare people to work effectively with Māori children and youth with special needs. One Māori worker commented:

Māori need more input; we need more health professionals within the system itself. More education is needed. There was such a huia about cultural safety in nursing training but once they have an understanding of what Māori really are about then all those defences just seemed to melt away once they have a decent understanding of what actually is the problem. There should be ongoing education for all professionals, health, education, anything. There is a whole need for it. It is hard to change people’s attitudes until they learn the facts and then they are fine. Social workers look into Treaty issues, history, Māori issues etc. and I have found them much better to work with than say, health professionals, so it has got a lot to do with their training. They have a better knowledge of things Māori and so are a lot better at addressing Māori issues.

Another worker stated that finding appropriate training was a real problem. She felt that there was a lack of respect and credibility for Māori workers in her organisation because they had no “officially recognised” qualifications. She set out to rectify this by undergoing training but found a lot of what was taught went against her Māori beliefs and values. For example, her training emphasised objectivity and neutrality which she felt went against a Māori way of working. A co-worker who enrolled for a different course was told, “‘We want you to feel you can bring your culture with you.’ What did they think she could do, leave it behind??”

One woman was an advocate for on-the-job training. She had often seen excellent programmes for Māori children collapse when a change of staff was involved. She suggested that the “old and new people” should work together for some time before the old person left the job. This not only gave the new person the opportunity to learn the routines and finer details of the programme but it also gave them time to establish their own mana and to “pick up the wairua” of the programme. Unfortunately, she noted that circumstances rarely permitted such a training and adjustment period.

The research data showed that successful training programmes for Māori workers often included one or more of the following components:

• the involvement of kaumatua, “because if you train a kuia you cater for the whole whānau … You can cash in on their mana, influence, experience and spare time”
• iwi taking ownership of the training programme
• preliminary awareness sessions to get people interested and to alert them to the commitment required
• flexibility in content, style, delivery and timing, for example, provision for tangihanga attendance when necessary
• interactive, hands-on teaching processes involving group activities and allowing ample time for completion.

Pākehā-centric attitudes towards special needs provision

There were some respondents who did not value Māori services or recognise a need to consider Māori culture in service provision. Consequently, the development of culturally appropriate services was given a very low priority in their organisations.
The tendency to disregard or undervalue Māori services was noted by a worker for a Māori organisation. She reported “wasting” a considerable amount of time trying to get mainstream services “on side.” An example was given of a service that required doctors to refer patients to them. Despite spending a great deal of time visiting all the doctors in the region and explaining the service offered by the Māori organisation, only one referral had ever come from a doctor. Another Māori worker remarked:

You have got to go eighty percent of the way and that is trying. They meet you on their terms not yours. This is not always through arrogance but they are not sure of protocol so they withdraw from it. You become very sensitive about your credibility. Is it because we are Māori that they think like that? I could be doing some people a injustice but you are never sure.

In many mainstream organisations, Māori workers were hired on a part time basis. One Māori worker felt that this signified a lack of commitment on the organisation’s behalf. She explained that while there was plenty of work to be done, “it’s as if meeting the cultural needs of Māori clients does not warrant full-time employment!”

Some respondents stated specifically that they did not think it was necessary to offer services or programmes for Māori with special needs because, “Māori needs are no different from anyone else’s.” While another typical comment was, “We just don’t have the Māori clients to justify the expense does not warrant full-time employment!”

High stress levels of Māori staff working in the special needs area

An issue of great concern was the high stress levels of many Māori working in the special needs area. This stress was caused by a multiplicity of factors but principal amongst them were unreasonable workloads and the tension between Māori and Pākehā “ways of working.”

In many organisations, not only did Māori workers have high Māori “caseloads,” but they were expected to be on call to provide training, guidance and Māori expertise to Pākehā colleagues when the need arose. While they applauded growing cultural awareness among Pākehā, this often came with the price tag of an increased workload for them. This was evident even in the voluntary sector and is illustrated in this story told by one survey Pākehā participant.

No, we haven’t got anyone with Māori expertise in our organisation. We did have a Māori women join once. Her son had X. We were thrilled and asked her to join our executive. She only lasted one year, just stopped coming to our meetings. When she was approached to find out why, she said she had joined because her son needed help and that is all she wanted. She did not want to be the Māori expert for our organisation.

Workloads were just as high in Māori organisations where all workers had Māori expertise. While they might not have had responsibility for upskilling their workmates in Māori culture, they did have the previously mentioned burden of having to prove their credibility to many Pākehā workers and organisations.

Problems arising from different Māori and Pākehā “ways of working” were evident in both Māori and mainstream organisations. Māori workers reported taking a holistic, whānau-focused approach. However, the extra time needed to work in this way was usually not allowed for and required “outputs” could not be met. Working in this stressful situation often resulted in Māori workers becoming burnt out or leaving the service.

The reason why I left ... in the end was because I couldn’t work in a Māori way although I did try … I found working within their framework very restrictive. They couldn’t understand that going to a kohanga and working with a bunch of kohanga people had more impact on what you were dealing with behaviour-wise than working one to one … I had to fit in with their document, slotted into one of those boxes so they could say, “Yes, she is doing this,” and when you are placed into a box you are restricted by words. There’s no way I can be who I am … The goal at the end is the same but how we get there is what is different. We do things differently. They have box, box, box and that is how you get there and then for us, these boxes, maybe they will go sideways and come back around here but the outcome is more effective doing it the way we do it.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The organisation survey showed that a wide range of provisions existed for Māori children and youth with special needs. Fifty eight per cent of the organisations surveyed were providing programmes and services either especially developed or adapted for Māori. However, these programmes and services varied in their reported effectiveness and the degree of cultural input they contained.

On the positive side, 56 different strategies for providing for Māori children and youth with special needs were being utilized across a broad range of programmes and services. These strategies were culturally appropriate, empowering and resulted in successful service provision. On the negative side, 39 different barriers to culturally appropriate service provision were identified. Out of the organisations surveyed thirty-three percent reported doing nothing in particular for Māori children and youth and forty-one percent had no person with responsibility for or expertise in providing services or programmes for Māori with special needs. These are major causes for concern.

A number of the positive strategies identified are relatively simple to implement and could be employed by all organisations and individuals working in the special needs area. Others, are more involved and would require considerable planning, time, support and funding to achieve. Five improvements, in particular, are seen as vital.
Firstly, there needs to be a substantial funding increase in this area to enable more staff to be employed and decrease the stress levels of those who are presently struggling. Increased funding would also support appropriate research and enable the development of Māori-relevant assessment measures, resources, programmes and services. It is envisaged that these new provisions would be broad-based, holistic in nature, accommodate Māori perceptions of special needs. They would incorporate Māori values, perspectives and ways of working, as well as take cognisance of the learner’s home background, and involve and support their whānau. They would also be readily available in areas where Māori are presently under-serviced.

Secondly, bicultural training for all staff in both mainstream and Māori services should be developed. It is argued that preservice and in-service education should include a substantial, compulsory Māori component. Bicultural training would not only increase workers’ cultural competence but, hopefully, it would also help to change those Pākehā-centric beliefs and attitudes which, at present, work against the accommodation and valuing of Māori concepts and ways of working. To bring about this attitudinal change, the bicultural curriculum would need to include a critical examination of majority cultural influence in education and society and an in-depth consideration of the causes, impact and maintenance of unequal power relationships, prejudice, racism, disability, social injustice, inequality and poverty. Along with compulsory bicultural training, measures should be introduced to increase special educational expertise among people involved in Māori organisations and Māori-medium education.

Thirdly, given that many Māori children, youth and adults feel more comfortable working with someone they can identify with and relate to culturally, there needs to be proactive recruitment, financial assistance, mentoring and support programmes to increase the number of Māori working in the special education/disability field. In addition, to address the present disadvantage experienced by Māori learners with special needs in Māori-medium education, emphasis should be placed on encouraging bilingual Māori to enter occupations that involve working with Māori learners with special needs. While a future increase in Māori personnel will be helpful in relieving the present work overload, it is vital that emotional and practical support be introduced immediately to reduce high stress levels, and to avoid burnout and further depletion of the existing Māori workforce.

Fourthly, parental and whānau involvement should be increased. Educational establishments and organisations that provide a welcoming, supportive environment will encourage involvement. In addition, the introduction of a range of financial, organisational and administrative arrangements to enable access may be required. Parents and whānau need opportunities to have a genuine say in the education and care of their children with special needs. Since raising these children usually involves extra work and stress for parents and whānau, it is essential that participation in any early childhood, school or organisational activity be an empowering, beneficial, supportive and enjoyable experience rather than an added burden.

Finally, Māori should be involved in all decision making affecting Māori learners with special needs at national, regional and organisational, levels and be empowered to provide their own iwi, hapū and pan-Māori services. This measure would not only assist in reducing the identified shortages in culturally effective provisions for Māori learners with special needs but it would also help to lessen the general power imbalance in educational decision making that presently exists in Aotearoa/New Zealand. In order for Treaty of Waitangi obligations to be met, Māori need to be given the power and resources to determine their own future. This applies to all facets of life including the provision of programmes and services for Māori learners with special needs. If there is any field in which diversity in all its forms should be recognised, accommodated and valued, surely it is in special education!

REFERENCES


**PROFILE OF AUTHOR**

Jill Bevan-Brown is a senior lecturer in the Department of Learning and Teaching at Massey University. She is coordinator of the Batchelor of Education, Special Education. Jill’s 30+ years in education has involved teaching at all levels from early childhood to tertiary and has included service as a GLU teacher, in a special class, adjustment class, accelerate class and at Otaki Health Camp. Having Māori heritage, Jill has a particular interest in Māori learners with special needs and has researched extensively in this area.

Contact at: J.M. Bevan-Brown@massey.ac.nz
A Ministry of Education, industry and community partnership strategy

Alison Sutherland
Special Education Advisor, Group Special Education, Upper Hutt / Wairarapa

ABSTRACT
An education, industry and community partnership can provide an effective intervention for secondary school age students who are alienated from the education system and are exhibiting challenging, problematic behaviours. This article outlines a Ministry of Education/Special Education (MOE/SE), industry and community partnership that addresses the concerns of having students outside the school community during the school day. Case studies provide two examples of collaborative partnership in action.

KEYWORDS:
Secondary school pupils, integrated services, work experience, collaboration.

RATIONALE
The education, industry and community partnership strategy recognises that at Years 9 and 10, some individual students may benefit from an individualised programme of study that takes them outside the formal classroom — this may include a practical work experience in an industry of interest or attendance at a “hands-on” course offered by an outside provider. It also recognises that success in New Zealand’s secondary school system is not possible for all students given that there are students who do not relate well to the learning styles offered by some teachers. The compulsory and elective curriculum offered has little interest for some students (Wirth, 1983). Some students have been adversely affected by past school experiences (Hyman, Kay, Mahon, Cohen, Weber, Siegel, 2003; Hyman, Cohen, Mahon, Tabori, 2004), and some students have entered the school system burdened by outside-school experiences and on the trajectory towards youth offending (Blooomquist & Schnell, 2002; Cormack & Carr, 2000; Frick, 1998; Loeber & Farrington, 1998 and 2000; Nagin & Tremblay, 2004; Patterson & Yoerger, 2002).

The education, industry and community partnerships strategy incorporates a practical hands-on learning experience for a student that directly involves the deliberate collaboration between five parties: a student, their school, the student’s family, a community sponsor, and a business or industry provider. The liaison role is met by the education lead worker. The term industry is used to cover business, commerce, agriculture and services, and includes employers, the self-employed (McQueen, 1992), and voluntary organisations in the public and private sectors, including iwi organisations such as Rūnanga, (MOE, 1993; ERO, 1996).

The partnership activity usually occurs during the school day, but may overlap into out-of-school hours. It differs from work experience in that students receive some remuneration for their labour, and someone other than the industry supplying the work provides this monetary incentive.

THE ROLE OF EACH PARTICIPANT
The student is required to be punctual, motivated, willing to learn, honest and reliable; to reflect the characteristics of a good employee, to behave appropriately and to show respect to the industry and all the people working there. The student is also required to attend school as stated in the contract drawn up by the education lead worker.

A crucial component of the education lead worker role is to:
• match the workplace with the student’s interest (ask the students, their family and Teacher what their interests are)
• get the caregivers written permission to share information about the child with industry provider and community sponsor
• go to the yellow pages of the phone book to find local providers
• make appointments to meet with the manager of local providers to discuss the child and seek assistance
• follow-up discussions with letters outlining details discussed and agreed on
• put in place the appropriate structures to ensure success of the partnership, including identifying the possible risks to the student and the industry, and putting in appropriate strategies to address these
• liaise between all parties
• monitor the progress of the student in the workplace and at school
• assess and report on the outcome of the partnership to all parties.

The school’s role is to allow flexibility with the student’s timetable, and encourage the student to succeed. A suitable staff member should provide motivational support. The student has to be allowed to leave the school grounds at appropriate times. The school will report back to education lead worker on changes in the student’s behaviour.
The family support the partnership by encouraging the student to attend school and the workplace as outlined in an agreement, and ensure the child has the appropriate dress and care including health and clothing issues. They need to communicate with the education lead worker on any changes in the student’s behaviour and any concerns that might affect the success of the partnership.

The community sponsor provides an agreed amount of money based on a minimal amount per hour over a set period of time as an extrinsic incentive for the student to attend the workplace.

The industry provider provides a positive, practical and safe work experience appropriate to the student’s level of ability and interest as discussed with the education lead-worker.

**CONCERNS**

One of the major concerns around a student involvement in an education industry and community partnership during the school day is that it is time consuming and may result in a lesser chance of succeeding in examinations or gaining qualifications. This strategy is most suitable for those students who are already failing in the existing school system and have little chance of achieving academic success. Through involvement in the partnership, the young person has an opportunity to gain in a variety of ways including increasing their motivation to attend school (Russell, 1997), and the development of improved problem-solving, personal development and communication competencies (Rees & Rees, 1992). Schools, industry and community sectors also gain: “Through collaboration, each sector learns from the other as they acquire an understanding of each other’s goals and cultures,” (Sutherland, 1997, p 36). To address other concerns raised by schools, it was pointed out that under S 25b of the Education Act (1989), a Principal can exempt a student from attending classes to participate in a work experience programme.

One of industry’s concerns was the legality of having a student on their premises. Representatives from the New Zealand Department of Labour, Occupational Health and Safety (OSH) and the MOE assured me that the provision of a monetary incentive is not affected by the minimum wage regulations due to the students being under the age of 16. The OSH Handbook (S 2.17) states that “while no employer shall employ any person under the age of 15 in a place where goods are being manufactured for trade or sale … persons under the age of 15 may visit factory workplaces if under the direct supervision of an adult”. The industry provider is not providing remuneration, this comes from the sponsor, so the student is not considered to be employed by them.

Another concern from industry was the student being disruptive and a hindrance to productivity. Through the case studies outlined below, we found that the benefits of the student’s presence outweighed any perceived disadvantages, which was consistent with research-based evidence. Industry gained through the enhancement of their profile and relationships with the local community and through the increase in staff morale who worked with the students (Millett, 1997).

Both OSH and the MOE recommend that in the contract created for the partnership, industry must identify any risks to the student in their workplace and put in place appropriate strategies to keep the student safe. A policy of identifying risks to the workplace through the student’s behaviour and presence was also applied. Strategies were then introduced to overcome this.

**CASE STUDY ONE**

A partnership strategy was developed to address the needs of a year 10 boy I will call ‘Adam’. Ever the entrepreneur, Adam would find bits and pieces and sell them through local magazines. People said they found it difficult to warm to Adam because of his aggressive demeanour, repetitive lying, and habit of picking the sores on his face and arms and touching people with the remnants of bloody scabs. He would rarely look at people, his head was always down and he constantly muttered obscenities at anyone who got too near to him. Adam looked like a clown, with his bright pink hair, size 11 sneakers (he took a size 8) and his pants not only far too big for him, but tied with a piece of string and the trouser legs slit down the side and dragging behind him. Adam flaunted the rules: he would choose to exit himself from a classroom midway through lessons but the teacher or his peers never confronted him because he was too explosive. Adam was finally referred to Group Special Education (GSE) because his aggression was escalating in the school environment and because he was now absent from school more than he was attending. The truanting was less of a problem than his attendance.

Adam’s strength was his interest in “finding” bits and pieces off teachers’ desks, kids’ bags, the rubbish bins and gifts from “an old lady that lives down the street”. This boy clearly had an entrepreneurial spirit, albeit, slightly suspect. As far as I could ascertain, this was his only interest, so we built upon that. Adam received individual lessons on setting up and running his own business. The GSE lead worker convinced a local auctioneer to employ Adam two afternoons a week for 2.5 hours each day. He signed out of school at midway through lunch time, giving him time to eat lunch and allowing for travel time (a second community sponsor provided a second-hand bike, helmet and lock), and he would clock in at an agreed time and sign out when he completed his 2.5 hours. One office worker enjoyed taking responsibility for this process. She ensured he received a drink when he arrived – and he quickly bonded with her. Adam proved to be a keen, energetic worker and the workers in the warehouse where he was stationed took him under their wing. While he was only ever paid $10 for his 5 hours a week of scheduled work, Adam put in extra hours and also began to help out during the auction process in the evenings. With the encouragement of his work mates, Adam began to communicate more, he would take books and his homework to work and his truanting almost ceased.
Although his aggressive behaviours never appeared in the months he worked at the auctioneers, Adam was eventually excluded from his school because of an explosive incident where he shattered windows and smashed a computer. This suited Adam as he was able to devote more time to his newly developed business of “acquiring”, purchasing and trading used goods.

**CASE STUDY TWO**

Alienated from the mainstream education system, exhibiting serious and concerning behaviour in and out of school, this 15 year-old boy I will call Stace was known to the police and was at risk of being excluded from his college. Stace is an intelligent young man who aspires one day to attend university. Stace identified a private boarding school that had notable success over recent years with difficult young men and their NCEA results. Regrettably, their fees were an obstacle for many families. Recognising that Stace was on a trajectory to youth offending and the need for immediate intervention, an Education-Industry-Community Partnership was formed:

The family contributed to a $120 deposit on the school fees and supported Stace in his desire to go to his school of choice. MOE/GSE acted in the role of liaison with family, school, industry and community, and approved a boarding bursary for at-risk youth. Following an interview, the school agreed to take Stace into their Year 11 class and supported the transition. Local police covered a large chunk of the fees ($2,500), and a community organisation gave a donation to cover stationery, books and other curriculum expenses. A local horticulturalist employed Stace part-time in the last term at his local school and full-time over the school holidays. This kept Stace occupied and out of trouble during an at-risk time and enabled him to buy his own uniform, pay the activity fees and put money in a tuck-shop account for secondary school students who are alienated from the education system. While the partnership requires participating students to be out of school for part of the school day, in both cases outlined in this article it had the beneficial outcome of both boys being reconnected to learning. The education-industry-community partnership provided the meaning for why they were attending school.

**CONCLUSION**

By working collaboratively, education, industry and community personnel can provide a positive experience for secondary school students who are alienated from the education system. While the partnership requires participating students to be out of school for part of the school day, in both cases outlined in this article it had the beneficial outcome of both boys being reconnected to learning. The education-industry-community partnership provided the meaning for why they were attending school.

**APPENDICES**

A: Time Card

**REFERENCES**


PROFILE OF AUTHOR
Alison Sutherland’s professional background includes being a commerce head of department, secondment to the New Zealand stock exchange to implement the NZSE stock market challenge and Principal of Epuni Youth Justice School for young, violent offenders. She completed a Masters in Education in 1997 with a thesis on education and industry partnerships. She is now working on her PhD focusing on young offenders’ perceptions of their school experiences, and the assessment and interventions for students on a trajectory toward criminal offending.
**APPENDIX A**

**[Student’s Name] Time Card**

2.5 hours on Wednesdays and Thursdays (eg. 1.30 pm – 4.00 pm)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days of Work</th>
<th>Report in Time</th>
<th>Signed</th>
<th>Leaving Time</th>
<th>Signed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 17th April</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 18th April</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 24th April</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 25th April</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ANZAC DAY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 1st May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 2nd May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 8th May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 9th May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 15th May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 16th May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 22nd May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 23rd May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 29th May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 30th May</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 5th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 6th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 12th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 13th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 19th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 20th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 26th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 27th June</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. hours worked: [ ]

Total $: [ ]

Signed as Received: [ ]
ABSTRACT
This article provides an introduction to The Health Practitioners Competency Assurance Act (HPCAA) which took effect on 18 September 2004. The Act was introduced to provide consistent accountability across health professions and make it easier for the New Zealand public to understand what health service each registered professional provides. To make this transparent, each of the health profession’s Authorities registered under the Act, has consulted widely with members to establish a scope or scopes of practice which the profession operates in. By making these scopes of practice transparent, health professionals will be limited to specific professional activities defined by their Registration Boards and there will be penalties for operating outside these specified scopes of practice. Thirteen district meetings were held in 2004 to provide information to field staff about what the HPCAA means for their practice and what they can do about shaping practice to match the requirements of the Act. These meetings raised issues from the field about provision of equipment, professional development, portfolios, competencies, complaints and reflective practice.

KEYWORDS:
Health services, legal processes, Physiotherapists, Occupational Therapists, Psychologists, professional standards.

INTRODUCTION
The principal purpose of the HPCAA is to protect the health and safety of members of the public by providing mechanisms to ensure that health practitioners are competent and fit to practise their professions. The Act (Part 1, s3) seeks to attain this principal purpose by:

- a consistent accountability regime for all health professions
- determining for each health practitioner the scope of practice which he or she is competent to practice in
- developing systems to ensure that no health practitioner practises outside his or her scope of practice
- restricting specific activities to particular classes of health practitioner to protect members of the public from the risk of serious or permanent harm
- maintaining certain protections for health practitioners who take part in quality assurance activities
- providing for additional health professions to become subject to this Act.

Providing “consistent accountability” for each health professional includes provisions to prohibit persons who are not qualified to be registered as health practitioners of a profession from claiming or implying they can provide the services of that profession (Part 1, s7). It also prohibits persons without current annual practicing certificates (APCs) from practising the profession (Part 1, s8). The HPCAA states that each Authority must describe its profession in terms of one or more scopes of practice (Part2, s11). The “scope(s) of practice” are to provide the definition and boundaries of the profession; that is what, for example, Physiotherapists do, and the title of the scope of practice for Physiotherapists becomes a protected title. This prohibits health practitioners from practising their professions outside their scopes of practice. Each health practitioner must have the qualifications prescribed by their Authority, be fit for registration (which includes the ability to communicate effectively for the purposes of practising within their scope of practice), be registered for a scope of practice, and be competent to practice within that scope of practice (Part 2, s15&16). On recommendation of the Minister of Health the Governor-General may declare an activity that constitutes part of a health service to be a restricted activity if he or she believes that members of the public face risk or permanent harm if the activity is performed by persons other than those health professionals permitted to perform that activity.

The HPCAA provides mechanisms for improving the competence of health practitioners, and for protecting the public from health practitioners who practice below the required standard of competence or who are unable to perform the required functions of their profession (Part 3, s34). These mechanisms include competence reviews (Part 3, s36), recertification programmes (Part 3, s41), medical examinations (Part 3, s49) and quality assurance activities (Part 3, s52).

Within the Ministry of Education, three occupational groups have been affected by the HPCAA: Occupational Therapists, Physiotherapists and Psychologists. Although these three occupational groups work in education settings, they are registered health professionals, and there is on-going work in progress to ensure that all field staff have support in preparing for the 2005 registration year. Currently, there are nineteen occupational groups covered by the HPCAA: Chiropractors, Dentists, Dental Hygienists, Dental Technologists, Dental Therapists, Dieticians, Medical Practitioners, Medical Laboratory Scientists and Technologists, Medical Radiation Technologists, Midwives, Nurses, Occupational Therapists,
Dispensing Opticians, Optometrists, Osteopaths, Pharmacists, Physiotherapists, Podiatrists and Psychologists. Each of these professions has a Registration Board whose functions are to:

- prescribe the qualifications required for scopes of practice within the profession, and, for that purpose, to accredit and monitor educational institutions and degrees, courses of studies or programmes
- authorise the registration of health practitioners under the Act and maintain registers
- consider applications for annual practicing certificates
- review and promote the competence of health practitioners
- recognise, accredit, and set programmes to ensure the ongoing competence of health practitioners
- receive and act on information from health practitioners, employers and the Health and Disability Commissioner about the competence of health practitioners
- notify employers, the Accident Compensation Corporation, the Director General of Health, and the Health and Disability Commissioner that the practice of a health practitioner may pose a risk of harm to the public
- consider the cases of health practitioners who may not be able to perform the functions required for the practice of the profession
- set standards of clinical competence, cultural competence and ethical conduct to be observed by health practitioners of the profession
- liaise with other authorities appointed under this Act
- promote education and training in the profession
- promote public awareness of the responsibilities of the authority
- exercise and perform any other functions, powers, and duties that are conferred or imposed on it by or under this Act or any other enactment.

**HISTORICAL OVERVIEW**

The professions of Physiotherapy and Occupational Therapy until 2003 were covered by the Physiotherapy Act, 1949, and the Occupational Therapy Act, 1949. The professional definition of these occupations and scopes of practice described under these Acts were outmoded and outdated. Requirements included registration to practice for Physiotherapists and Occupational Therapists each year. However, the registration process only required the practitioner to send in a cheque, and there were no processes to ensure those registering were competent and fit to practice. There were no requirements for practitioners to demonstrate evidence of on-going learning or professional development activities in order to obtain an annual practicing certificate.

Similarly, the Psychologists Act, 1981, required psychologists to abide by a code of ethics, but there was no requirement for practitioners to demonstrate competency and fitness for practice. The introduction of the HPCAA has forced the Psychologist’s Board to introduce competency standards as required under the Act.

The introduction of the HPCAA has affected each occupational group differently. Each Registration Boards has decided on different approaches to recertification. These requirements have been developed for the 2005 registration year 1st April to 31st March, and may well change for the 2006 registration year. These requirements for recertification are based on the stipulation to demonstrate competency and fitness to practice at the time of application.

**COMPETENCE**

Although the HPCAA is based on health practitioner competence, the Act does not define or determine what competence is. It has been left to each of the Authorities to determine competence, fitness to practice and quality.

**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCCUPATIONAL THERAPISTS</th>
<th>PHYSIOTHERAPISTS</th>
<th>PSYCHOLOGISTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide photographic ID.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register current address and qualifications on the Board’s website.</td>
<td>Register current address with Board.</td>
<td>Register current address with Board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply competence information and attestation by a third party registered OT to competence and fitness to practice.</td>
<td>Self declaration, stating competence and fitness to practice, and participation in a CPD programme.</td>
<td>Statutory declaration stating competence and fitness to practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrange for supervision.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Supply evidence of qualifications to register in a vocational scope (clinical or educational).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment of $400.</td>
<td>Payment of $333.</td>
<td>Payment of $455.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Recertification is the requirement for obtaining and/or renewing an Annual Practicing Certificate (APC).*
assurance for the health practitioner group. The Authorities are obliged under the HPCAA to ensure that each practitioner applying for an APC is competent and fit to practise. In addition each Authority is required to set or recognise competence programmes for the purpose of maintaining, examining or improving the competence of health practitioners who hold or apply for practising certificates. These competence programmes may be made to apply to health practitioners registered with an Authority, in respect of a specified health practitioner or in respect of any class or classes of health practitioners. The competence programme may require the health practitioner to demonstrate competency through passing examinations or assessments, or through completion of a period of practical training. They may need to complete a period of practical experience, or undertake a course of instruction or a period of supervised practice.

The Occupational Therapy Board defines competence as:

a complex interaction and integration of four major components: knowledge, skills, judgement and diligence. These components are required sufficient to achieve the level of performance expected at the practitioner’s level of responsibility.

The Physiotherapy Board defines competence as:

the ability to consistently integrate and apply knowledge, skills, attributes and values in an independent, timely manner to a required standard.

The Psychologists Board in consultation with the College of Clinical Psychologists and the New Zealand Psychological Society have begun a competency statement, but this is still in draft format. The Registrar expects this to be made public in April 2005.

**RECERTIFICATION PROGRAMMES**

The HPCAA has bought public safety to the forefront of health legislation in New Zealand. A key part of protecting the public is ensuring that all health professionals are competent and fit to practise. Under S 41 (6) of the HPCAA, all registered health professionals are expected to maintain their competence. It is the responsibility of registrants to maintain this competence, not the responsibility of the employer.

A feature of the Act is the introduction of continuing professional development or ‘recertification’ programmes for practitioners. Each of the Authorities has their own recertification programme.

**Psychologists Competence Plan**

The Board has commenced planning the framework for the development of competency programmes, but at the time of writing this has not been made available.

**PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

Competence programmes have a component of professional development, and one method of documenting on-going competence is through a professional development (PD) portfolio. A PD portfolio represents a collection of evidence which demonstrates the continuing acquisition of skills.

---

**1. OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY COMPETENCE PLAN**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency self-assessment</th>
<th>Self review and evaluation of performance in relation to knowledge, skills, judgement and diligence based on the seven core competencies ²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objectives for continuing competence</td>
<td>Based on the outcomes of self assessment, identify one objective for each of the seven competency areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan for achieving objectives</td>
<td>Plan is made in consultation with supervisor(s), and electronically logged or kept in recertification portfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record competence activities</td>
<td>Record the activity(ies) undertaken to meet set objectives for continuing competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical reflection on outcomes</td>
<td>Identify changes in practice that have occurred as a result of the professional development activities undertaken through independent critical reflection, reflection with peers or with nominated supervisor(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>The Board’s code of ethics document requires all occupational therapists to receive professional supervision relevant to their work setting. A supervision log must be maintained and submitted with the continued competence recertification portfolio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

² Based on Occupational Therapy Board’s competencies for registration as an occupational therapist (2000)
1. PHYSIOTHERAPY COMPETENCE PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPD plan</th>
<th>Maintain a record of all CPD activities in a portfolio. Complete a minimum of 120 hours of CPD activity over three years beginning January 1st 2005. The minimum amount of time per year is 20 hours. There are four categories of CPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPD activity 1</td>
<td>Work-based learning. Could include case studies, reflective practice, peer review, supervision of students, project work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD activity 2</td>
<td>Professional activity learning. Could include membership of professional body, presentations at conferences, and developing skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD activity 3</td>
<td>Formal education learning. Could include courses, conference attendance, and submission of articles/papers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD activity 4</td>
<td>Self-directed learning. Could include reading, review of articles, and updating knowledge via internet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Development Plan (PDP)</td>
<td>The recording of CPD activities (evidence that learning has taken place). This is expected to reflect the physiotherapists area of practice and needs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Knowledge, attitudes, understanding and achievement, (Brown, 2002). Portfolios can be used to demonstrate a summary of the portfolio owner’s continuing education and workplace experiences. When used in a workplace specific context, portfolios move beyond an assessment tool by allowing the owner to create an individualised self-portrait of their competence and capabilities. Under the requirements of the HPCAA, each registered health professional is required to produce evidence of ongoing professional development, and a commitment to life-time learning, for their respective Authority. This credential system places the responsibility for learning, professional development and career direction on the individual practitioner (Weddle, Himburg, Collins & Lewis, 2002). The portfolio usually includes three components that reflect the conceptual basis for their use:

- the design (what are purposes and goals)
- the enactment (how will the goals be carried out)
- and outcomes (what are the results and how will these be analysed).

Each of the elements represents the process for building and assessing portfolios (Paschal, Jensen, & Mostrom, 2002). One of the important components for developing and using a PD portfolio is an understanding of reflective practice. Reflective practice can mean meditative or thoughtful or produced by reflection (O’Connor & Diggins, 2002). Used in the context of practice, this can be defined as thinking about how you practise your profession and how you refine your practice as a result of reflection. In this sense it is a cycle. Reflective thinking encompasses all your knowledge about professional practice in an education setting to provide safe and effective practice, for example, your knowledge of curriculum and the child or young person in the school or early childhood setting. The use of reflective practice in workplace learning for professional development means you have a toolkit for documenting your ongoing learning and the changes to your practice that arise from reflection. If, as part of the Authorities audit process, you are asked to provide evidence of competency and fitness to practice, your PD portfolio is the ideal vehicle to demonstrate this.

QUESTIONS FROM THE FIELD

During 2004, a series of district meetings, throughout Special Education were held to provide information to field staff and managers about the purpose, implications and potential changes to practice of the HPCAA. There were over 320 staff in attendance at these meetings, including Boards of Trustees, Therapists and Principals. These meetings generated 327 questions from the ten district gatherings. During the presentation (three hours with a lunch break), questions were encouraged from the floor at any time. This meant each presentation became slightly different depending on the types of questions and the sequencing of delivery. The content of the presentation remained constant. A member from each group was asked to record the questions, to ensure I could concentrate on answering (or asking my co-presenter to answer). It became apparent that there were two different strands of questions; firstly, those about organisational issues, and secondly, about specific Authorities intentions as regards recertification programmes, competence programmes and APC’s. The Physiotherapy Board, the Occupational Therapy Board and the Psychologists Board have been sent a list of questions specific to their occupational group to highlight the information areas registrants were clearly uncertain about. The organisational questions were thematically coded using an inductive thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998). The seven categories of questions identified are shown in Table 2.

These questions are currently being answered, and will be available on the dedicated Ministry Intranet and Internet page that includes Group Special Education (GSE) news. There will a HPCAA section on the website which will include all the questions and answers from the district meetings.

LEGAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE HPCAA

The following is a summary of an opinion from the Ministry’s legal division on the scope of employer indemnity for damages, costs and penalties incurred by employee health practitioners. This opinion also deals with the effect on employment in the cancellation of an APC and with the attestation of competency.
1. There is no implied indemnity for damages payable by an employee for negligence or other breach of duty in the course of employment.

2. There is no implied indemnity for legal costs incurred by an employee in defending criminal charges arising from the course of employment. Government departments do have the discretion to reimburse costs.

3. Under s86 of the State Sector Act, public servants are immune from personal liability arising from claims made against a department. The immunity extends to claims for professional negligence or any other breach of duty by a public servant for which the employer is vicariously liable.

4. Where claims of professional negligence are made against a public servant, they are entitled to be indemnified for costs under the cabinet rules.

5. There is no immunity for prosecution for disciplinary offences under the HPCAA.

6. There is no employer indemnity for penalties or fines against an employee health practitioner under the HPCAA.

7. The need for indemnity insurance may be limited to costs incurred by an employee in relation to proceedings under the HPCAA. It is unlikely that insurance is available for liability for penalties and fines under the HPCAA.

8. A person attesting to the competency of a health practitioner should only do so if they have personal knowledge of the practitioner and a genuine belief based on reasonable grounds that the practitioner is both fit and competent to practice.

### TABLE 2
Exemplars of questions raised at district meetings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>EXEMPLAR QUESTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Equipment                  | • If equipment is not provided by the Ministry, can we refuse to do a particular job?  
• Who decides what equipment is necessary to do a job, the professional or the employer?  
• Are we vulnerable if equipment is not provided?  
• In a dispute about equipment, how would this be dealt with?  |
| Human resources            | • How is GSE going to make the HPCAA fit with performance appraisal?  
• Will competence assurance, performance appraisals and service standards be linked?  
• Will the Ministry's human resource requirements be changed to reflect the competencies in the HPCAA?  |
| Professional Development (PD) | • Is the employer responsible for funding professional development for employees to achieve competence?  
• Does every person under the HPCAA have access to PD?  
• What is classed as PD?  |
| Portfolios                 | • What is a portfolio? What guidelines can we expect from the Ministry about portfolio development and planning?  
• Will there be a universal portfolio for all Ministry staff?  
• Will there be time allocated in work hours to update the portfolio?  |
| Competencies               | • Are schools and parents aware of professional competencies?  
• What is the organisational expectation of an individual employee about realistic competency as opposed to those written by the Authorities?  
• How will we deal with informed consent if we use a case study to demonstrate competency?  |
| Complaints                 | • Where or who will complaints about us go?  
• Is there counselling available from the Ministry about complaints?  
• If a complaint is serious enough to be stood down, will we still be on the payroll?  |
| Reflective practice        | • Is it the responsibility of the Ministry or the BoT via Principals to see that we practise reflection-in-action?  
• There seems to be a big assumption that we know how to reflect. Who will teach us?  
• What guidance from the Ministry can we expect about reflective practice and how it works?  |
INTRANET AND INTERNET INFORMATION

Table 3 shows a number of useful websites about the HPCAA.

SUMMARY

The HPCAA is law. All Occupational Therapists, Physiotherapists and Psychologists have a recertification process in place for the 2005 registration year. Practitioners must sign a statutory declaration and provide third party attestation, or a self declaration that they are fit and competent to practice. Occupational Therapists have been given a complete recertification portfolio by the Occupational Therapy Board. At the time of writing Physiotherapists and Psychologists have not been given a framework to assemble and build a professional development portfolio. The Ministry hopes to conduct, Guidelines to Building a Professional Development Portfolio, a series of workshops in the Districts over the next three months. These will give clear guidelines on how to turn living practice into reflective practice, and make links between the Authorities requirements for recertification and the Ministry’s performance management process.

All health practitioners should make themselves familiar with their occupational website and refer to it over the next twelve months with rigour because there may be significant changes and developments.

REFERENCES


PROFILE OF AUTHOR

Maggie Roe-Shaw is the Project Manager of the HPCAA within the Professional Practice Team, Ministry of Education, Special Education. She has a background in physiotherapy, and completed her PhD, Workplace Realities and Professional Socialisation of recently graduated Physiotherapists in New Zealand. Prior to her current position with the Ministry, Maggie worked for the University of Otago as clinical coordinator of final year physiotherapy students learning in the clinical setting, and in a variety of physiotherapy practice settings in Australia and the UK. Her professional interests include workplace learning, situated learning, reflective practice and professional development portfolios.

Contact at: maggie.roesahw@minedu.govt.nz

---

**TABLE 3**

**Website information about the HPCAA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WEBSITE</th>
<th>INFORMATION ON THIS WEBSITE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.moh.govt.nz/hpca">www.moh.govt.nz/hpca</a></td>
<td>Information about the HPCAA and Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs) on the Ministry of Health website.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.moh.govt.nz">www.moh.govt.nz</a></td>
<td>A pamphlet that explains how all registered health professionals are now governed by one piece of legislation, and how the HPCAA protects the public’s health and safety. Included in this pamphlet are contact details for the registering Authorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.legislation.govt.nz">www.legislation.govt.nz</a></td>
<td>Look under “Statutes-Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act” for the full 218 pages of the HPCAA. Copies of the Act can be purchased from Bennett’s Government Bookshop for $15.00.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.hdc.org.nz">www.hdc.org.nz</a></td>
<td>Information from the Health and Disability Commissioner about what to do if you have a complaint about a health practitioner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.hpdt.org.nz">www.hpdt.org.nz</a></td>
<td>Information about the role of the Health Practitioners Disciplinary Tribunal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.otboard.org.nz">www.otboard.org.nz</a></td>
<td>Information for Occupational Therapists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.regboards.co.nz">www.regboards.co.nz</a></td>
<td>An excellent website for sorting out FAQs and giving up-to-date information about the changing roles of Registration Boards. This site specialises in providing support services to public authorities responsible for regulating professions for the protection of consumer health and safety.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT
This paper discusses the feelings and perceptions of a group of Year 3-6 students regarding the usefulness of goal setting as a tool for enhancing their learning. The project adopted a case study approach which involved the researcher as an interviewer and observer. Data were collected through interviews, an observation and document analysis. Students were found to have positive perceptions about goal setting as a tool for helping their learning. Their perceptions appear to be a result of how this has been implemented in their school, particularly the level of autonomy they have in selecting personal goals and the focus on mastery learning.

KEYWORDS:
Goals, educational objectives, self-management, learning.

INTRODUCTION
Browsing through the principles in the New Zealand Curriculum Framework (NZCF) one will come across the following statements: "Students will be encouraged to become independent lifelong learners" through the "development of the knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes that will empower students to take increasing responsibility for their own learning" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 7). Continue further to the essential skills and one will read: "students will set, evaluate and achieve realistic personal goals" (p. 19). Bold statements – but what do they mean for teaching and how can they be achieved? Further, what do they mean for primary aged students who are beginning their journey of formal learning, and how can these principles be taught in a way that is meaningful and relevant to them? Finally, what do students think of these efforts to help them become independent lifelong learners? These questions provide the basis for this study.

One endeavour to bring to life the principles in the NZCF has been undertaken by a primary school in the upper North Island. Situated in a small town, this school has a strong learning culture with an emphasis on personal empowerment for lifelong learning. The school's goal setting programme is guided by two statements in their core values:

2. Accepting responsibility for one’s own learning and actions.

In addition, a core belief that "responding positively to changes in society and adaptation to new innovations is critical to the future development and success of our school" provides the basis for this school's goal setting programme, which was implemented school wide at the beginning of 2004. This study looks briefly at this programme and explores the value of goal setting as a tool for learning from the perspectives of the students.

WHAT DOES THE LITERATURE SAY?
Goal setting as a component of self-regulated learning
Preparing students for lifelong learning requires an understanding of the qualities and skills they need in order to become strategic, motivated and independent learners. Developing these skills and qualities enables students to take an active role in managing their own learning and behaviour and become self-regulated learners (Paris & Paris, 2001). Self-regulated learning is defined as an "active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate and control their cognition, motivation and behaviour, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment" (Pintrich, 2000, p. 453). The development of self-regulated learners is regarded as the ultimate goal of contemporary teaching efforts (Brophy, 2004).

The ability to self-regulate allows students to take control of their learning (Paris & Paris, 2001). Students who believe they can have influence over the management of their own learning are more likely to achieve success (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1996, cited in Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998). In addition, self-regulated learners are more likely to view their futures optimistically (Zimmerman, 2002). This involves the use of a number of key self-regulatory processes, with the relative presence of each accounting for variances in students’ level of achievement (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; 1998, cited in Zimmerman, 2002).

The component skills for self-regulation include:

- setting specific proximal goals
- adopting strategies for attaining the goals
- monitoring performance for signs of progress
- restructuring the physical and social context to make them compatible with the goals
- making efficient use of time
- self-evaluating methods used to achieve the goal
- attributing results to strategies used
- adapting future methods to ensure positive outcomes.

The goal setting process

Clearly, goal setting is an integral component of self-regulated learning (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998). The process of goal setting has a number of phases, each of which are required for the successful attainment of a goal (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). This begins with selecting a particular goal to be attained. A number of personal beliefs can affect goal choice including the learner’s self-efficacy, goal orientations (performance or mastery) and intrinsic interest in (or valuing of) the task (Locke & Latham, 1990; 2003).

Learners’ goal orientations are important because they affect how students approach learning tasks and evaluate their achievement. Learners’ goal orientations are generally divided into two categories: mastery (or learning) goals and performance goals. Learners with mastery goals are oriented toward “developing new skills, trying to understand their work, improving their level of competence, or achieving a sense of mastery based on self-referenced standards” (Ames, 1992, p. 262). In contrast, learners with performance goals tend to focus on preserving their sense of ability and self-worth by trying to outperform others (Dweck, 1999). Mastery goals should be encouraged because they promote deeper learning and self-improvement, whereas performance goals can result in superficial learning and constant comparisons to others (Stipek, 2002). Classroom contexts have been found to powerfully influence students’ goal orientations, and a number of structures and instructional strategies have been recommended to support the development of mastery goals (Ames, 1992, p. 267).

Once a goal has been selected, commitment to achieving the goal is required for successful attainment. Goal commitment is demonstrated by learners’ enthusiasm and determination to achieve the goal (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Guiding students in setting their own goals, rather than imposing goals on them, is one of the most effective ways to increase students’ goal commitment (Ridley, McCombs & Taylor, 1994, cited in Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Students who are committed to their goals engage in strategic planning by selecting learning strategies or methods designed to attain the goal (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1992, cited in Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998).

As action is taken to achieve the goal, goal monitoring is employed. Goal monitoring involves the continual observation of progress towards the goal, and adjusting actions to ensure it is reached (Brophy, 2004; Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Goal monitoring is followed by some form of evaluation (self or by others) about the level of attainment in relation to the criteria or standard initially set. This may lead to the setting of further goals or adjustment of current ones to ensure they are met. Although the term goal setting is used in this study, all aspects of the goal setting process are included.

Goal setting and motivation

Goal setting is an important motivational process (Bandura, 1988, 1997, cited in Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) because goals have a number of motivating functions. Firstly, they focus the learner by directing attention and effort toward goal relevant activities (Locke & Latham, 2003). Secondly, their level of difficulty can energise learners, with studies finding that students invest greater effort to achieve high goals compared to low goals (Locke & Latham, 2003). Thirdly, having goals can increase students’ persistence in accomplishing tasks (Alderman, 2004; Ames, 1992).

According to Marzano (1992, cited in Walker-Tileston, 2004), “a growing body of research indicates that when students are working on goals they themselves have set, they are more motivated and efficient, and they achieve more than they do when working to meet goals set by the teacher” (p. 4). The need for goal ownership is supported by Latham, Erez and Locke (1988, cited in Locke and Latham, 2003) who found that people are more likely to view goal attainment as important when they have participated in setting the goal. However, Latham et al. (1988) also found that goals set by others can be effective when a rationale for the goal is given and understood by the learner.

Characteristics of effective goals

Research has found that that the effectiveness of goals can be increased by a number of factors. Locke and Latham (1990; 2003) describe three characteristics that are required for creating effective goals. They include goals that are specific (rather than broad and general), immediate (rather than distant) and challenging (rather than too easy or too hard).

THE PROCEDURES OF THIS STUDY

This study set out to explore students’ perceptions about the usefulness of goal setting as a tool for learning. Specifically, it sought to answer the following questions.

1. What do students perceive as the usefulness of goal setting?
2. How do their perceptions correspond with the aims of the school’s goal setting programme?
3. What strategies do they find useful when goal setting?
4. What do they find difficult about goal setting?
5. How does gender affect their perceptions?

The study was undertaken in a contributing primary school with approximately 350 students. Goal setting has been implemented school-wide with each syndicate adapting it to make it age appropriate for their students. At the time of the interviews, the programme had been operating for about six months. The Principal considered the programme to be still in the implementation and development stage and intended to review it at the end of 2004.

Each class uses goal setting at different levels: personal, group and whole class goals. Though these goals are used in similar ways in the two sample classes, they are implemented over different time scales. For example, in Year 3-4, personal goal setting takes place on a weekly basis. The students each choose a goal to last for a week...
all interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed, with comments relevant to the research questions highlighted in different colours and grouped under appropriate headings to form categories. This allowed the researcher to identify emerging patterns from each interview and compare them with the others. Other additional information that emerged from the interviews was also collated and coded.

Participants’ comments included in this paper will use the following codes: (Pr) for the Principal, (MT) for the Year 3-4 Teacher, (ST) for the Year 5-6 Teacher, (MG and MB) for the middle girls and boys, and (SG and SB) for the senior girls and boys.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY
What do students perceive as the usefulness of goal setting?

Overall, the students felt that goal setting was useful for helping their learning in different ways. All groups agreed that goal setting helped them to improve and get better at learning. “They [goals] help you to achieve better things and help you to improve on your learning” (MB). “Goals help us with our learning and to guide us” (SG). Goal setting helped them to keep focused. “It [goal setting] helps with my thinking and concentrating on my work” (SG). “Goals keep you focused during the day and during the task” (SB). They also agreed that goal setting was useful for later life. “Goal setting helps your learning because then you know how to set goals for when you’re older” (MG). “[Goals] help us to learn and have a better future and make us feel confident” (MB).

Some of the students indicated that the usefulness of goal setting depended on the importance of their selected goal. This in turn affected the amount of effort they expended in trying to achieve it.

“If it’s the same goal you just write down randomly you wouldn’t achieve it because you wouldn’t really care, but if it’s a goal you really want to work towards you would try hard and achieve it” (SB).

In addition, the importance of a particular goal and the level of challenge it provided appeared to make a difference to the degree of satisfaction students feel when achieving their goals. Students reported feeling more pride when they obtained a goal they really wanted and experienced a greater sense of achievement when the goal was more challenging.

“The hard ones make you feel really proud because they’re real hard to achieve and the easy ones are just – OK” (MB).

“If I achieve a harder goal, I feel that I can achieve a harder goal than that” (SG).

The students cited feelings of disappointment and guilt when goals were not achieved, and either attributed this to lack of effort or an unrealistic goal. Their responses usually included a resolve to try harder or to modify goals to make them more attainable.

One group cited goal setting as a way of helping them to make good decisions about their behaviour and to subsequently keep out of trouble.
“It helps you to do better things because you’re doing the right things, not making bad decisions,” (MB).

“It helps you to get a good attitude, helps you to be good on the mat and helps you make any good decisions” (MB).

However, one group indicated that not all students found goal setting a valuable activity, but rather something they did because they had to.

“Some people just do it for the sake of it because their teacher told you to do it, to set a goal...so whatever the teacher says, they just go and write it down and take no notice really and say, ‘Yep, that’s over and done with, nothing else to worry about’” (SB).

**Was there agreement between the students’ perceptions and the aims of their school’s goal setting programme?**

The overall aim of the school’s goal setting programme is reflected in the school’s core values of “valuing learning” and “accepting responsibility for one’s own learning and actions”. The idea of using goal setting was developed to make learning important for students by using formative assessment strategies such as sharing learning intentions and providing feed-forward to guide students’ learning. The key purposes for implementing goal setting were outlined by the principal.

“One of the key words in our mission is to empower students. When we looked at ways we might empower students in their learning we wanted to increase responsibility and we wanted structures that would signal or focus on the learning. We wanted ways of making learning important for kids” (Pr).

In addition, the Principal cited some long term aims for goal setting.

“...what we are hoping for them to learn is to become more self-managing in their learning and to take more responsibility, and in the big picture – become lifelong learners. That’s what this is all about, and along the way the kids’ learning is a lot more focused and I think more effective and empowered” (Pr).

So, how did the students’ perceptions correspond? Goal setting was seen by the students as a strategy that guides their learning.

“It’s to help guide us in our learning and guide us through our learning” (SB).

 “[We do goal setting] to help us with our learning and to guide us and to help us achieve a goal” (SG).

They recognised goal setting will help them in the future.

“You do it because you want to be able to set goals when you’re older and achieve them, and then make them bigger and bigger and you’ll make a big success” (MG).

“It helps you to reach the higher stages and go the next step in life, the next level to just help us and guide us through our life” (SG).

**Goal setting improves the learning process.**

“Goal setting helps your learning because you can think that – I am good at this or I am not very good at it, now how could I do a bit more to get a bit more knowledge out of it” (MG).

Some identified goal setting as providing reasons for learning.

“It lets you know why you’re actually doing the things you doing and it gives a point of why you should be doing it” (MG).

Students recognised that goal setting makes achievement easier.

“[We use goal setting] to make things we’re meant to achieve, easier to achieve because we’re not trying to achieve the whole thing at once” (SG).

**Useful strategies for setting goals**

Students use the acronym SMART (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timeframe) when setting goals. Each group referred to the SMART goal criteria as a strategy for helping them make specific, achievable and measurable goals. The process of helping students develop the concept of a SMART goal was described by the middle Teacher.

“We talk at the beginning of the year about what a smart goal is, like would a smart goal be ‘I would like to be able to jump over the classroom’ or perhaps maybe ‘I’d like to jump a metre in the long jump’. So we talk about a goal that would be a sensible one that you could achieve in a week” (MT).

Students’ descriptions of the goal setting process showed that they understood the concept.

“When you’re doing your steps you have to make sure they’re nothing to do with another goal altogether, and you have to make sure they make sense, and you have to make sure you can achieve them, and make sure they’re not silly” (MG).

Other strategies identified differed between the middle and senior students. The middle students identified Teacher guidance and suggestions, and displayed learning intentions and ideas they had written in the middle of their goal setting books as useful strategies.

“When doing class goals, the whole classroom gives goals and [teacher’s name] if we say, ‘to be quiet’, she would change it into a specific one” (MB).

“I get my ideas from the learning and teaching on top of the wall and in the middle of my book” (MB).

“In our spare time we’re allowed to write in the middle of our book some ideas for goals, so I look down the list and think, what are we working on now, and then I think whether that would be a good goal to achieve in a week” (MG).

In contrast, the senior students described reusing past goals, extending a present goal, or using longer term goals (to last for a week) as useful strategies for ideas.

“Sometimes we choose ones we’ve done a few weeks before or something like that” (SG).

Others referred to the use of the classroom or literacy books as useful strategies.
“Sometimes if we haven’t accomplished a goal we do it again” (SG).

“If you've already done the same goal before, you add a bit more on ... like on Wednesday I usually set a goal about my basketball and if I score one goal one week then for the next week I add on one more goal and if I don’t get that amount I just keep with that goal for the next week” (SB).

“Sometimes you can use long term goals if you're stuck for ideas say if there's a four day sports thing, you can just have one long-term goal for playing fair and having fun” (SB).

**Difficulties in goal setting**

Running out of ideas was cited as the most common difficulty experienced by all of the students.

“We have no ideas ... I usually run out of ideas and I don’t have any in the middle of my book and it takes me longer to have a think and sometimes I have to do it at morning tea” (MB).

For the senior students, identifying new daily goals appeared to be increasingly difficult as the year progressed. This indicated that the senior students possibly felt saturated in relation to their personal goals.

“Well it's hard when you can’t think of what your goal is going to be and because we’ve been doing it for so long and we’ve put down pretty much all of the goals we can think of, it becomes hard to think of something new” (SB).

“We set goals everyday and we spend like 200 and something days at school so you've got to set like 200 goals a year and it starts becoming really hard because you run out of goals to set” (SB).

Other difficulties described by the students included writing steps for how they intended to achieve their goal, and identifying possible barriers or blocks.

“We have to do at least two steps, so sometimes it is hard to do the steps” (MG).

“It can be hard to think of the steps and blocks” (MG).

“Goals should have more than one step and that can be hard to think of” (SB).

The Teacher of the middle students observed that some of her students found it difficult to relate the steps to the goal, resulting in steps that belonged to another goal altogether. However, this difficulty may be age related as it was not mentioned by the senior Teacher or senior students.

**How does gender affect their perceptions?**

Age seemed to affect students’ perceptions of what goal setting was all about more than gender. The senior students felt strongly that goal setting was more valuable when the goal is something they really want to achieve.

“It depends how useful the goal is. If it is a goal you really want to work towards you would try hard and achieve it, but if it's the same goal you write down randomly, then you wouldn't achieve it because you wouldn't really care” (SB).

The middle boys mainly perceived goal setting as a strategy for helping them make good decisions about their behaviour and subsequently staying out of trouble.

“It helps you to do better things because you’re doing the right things, not making bad decisions you’re making good decisions” (MB).

“It helps you to be good on the mat and helps you to make good decisions” (MB).

In contrast, the middle girls perceived setting goals as useful when the goal was something they had not achieved already.

“It would be silly to write a goal, like if someone kept their desk tidy 24/7 and they always cleaned it out, then their goal shouldn’t be to keep their desk tidy because they've already achieved it” (MG).

“People do it because they’re doing something and they want to get better at it, so the best way is to set goals and think, what can I do to help me achieve my goal, and what could I try and stop me, and not let things stop you” (MG).

**DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS**

The results of this research suggest that these students hold positive perceptions about the usefulness of goal setting as a tool for enhancing their learning. Three main factors are identified as possible causes for these perceptions.

First, the students can see how goal setting is positively affecting their learning by experiencing the benefits of setting and achieving a variety of goals. Because the students are personally involved in setting their own goals, they experience the satisfaction of achieving challenges they have made for themselves. This feeling of autonomy helps students to take more control over their learning, helping them develop into “independent lifelong learners” (Ministry of Education, 1997, p. 7). This finding supports Brophy’s (2004) assertion that students need to be actively involved in setting and evaluating their own goals in order for goal setting programmes to remain effective over time.

Second, the students have developed a working schema of the goal setting process. All of the students know how to set, action and achieve goals, including planning how the goals will be achieved and identifying possible barriers. When goals are not attained, they are able to review possible reasons for the failure and engage in effective strategies to make the goal more achievable. The students cited lack of effort, the wrong attitude or an unrealistic goal as the most common causes for not achieving their goals. These attributions usually resulted in a resolve to try harder or to modify goals to make them more attainable, which is consistent with Pintrich and Schunk’s (2002) view that the ability to attribute failure to controllable factors can result in increased effort in the future. The students’ ability to reflect on their goals indicates that they are learning to take increased “responsibility for their own learning” (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 7), therefore developing into self-regulated learners (Paris & Paris, 2001).
Finally, the way in which the school has implemented the goal setting programme (with the aim of helping students focus on their learning) has strongly contributed to the students' positive perceptions. Throughout the interviews with the Principal, Teachers and students, there was an obvious emphasis on using goal setting as a mastery approach to learning. The students never referred to goal setting as a means of outperforming others, but rather a way of improving their own learning or behaviour. In addition, the students appeared to have a high level of commitment to achieving their personal goals as indicated by their enthusiasm and acceptance that the purpose of setting goals was to achieve them. These findings lend support to Ames' (1992) assertion that classroom context powerfully affects students' goal orientations, and Ridley, Combs and Taylor's (1994, cited in Eggen & Kauchak, 2001) claim that goal commitment is increased when students are guided in setting their own goals.

Other ways in which the school helped students develop positive perceptions of goal setting as a tool for learning include extensive modeling of the goal setting process and adapting how it is used to suit the ages of the students.

Comments from the students and their teachers support the findings in the literature that goal setting is an important motivational process (Bandura, 1988, 1997; Schunk, 1989a, cited in Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Though students were not directly asked whether they felt goal setting increased their motivation, the results indicate that it did. The key to this motivation appears to come from the autonomy students have in setting their own goals in cases where the Teacher sets it, the rationale for the goal is given which corroborates findings made by Latham, Erez and Locke (1988, cited in Locke & Latham, 2003).

Goal setting has a vital role to play in today's classrooms. It has positive links to motivation and self-regulation, two key components of effective thinking and learning. However, goal setting may not come naturally to all learners. The skills involved may need to be explicitly taught. This study has demonstrated that goal setting can be successfully taught to primary age students. For Teachers and Principals who are thinking about developing a goal setting programme, the following recommendations are suggested.

1. Use individual goal setting books so students can record their goals throughout the year.
2. Help students choose goals by making use of displayed learning intentions and encouraging students to write ideas down for future use.
3. Allow students to have ownership of their goals by allowing them to choose their own and ensuring they are involved in evaluating achievement of their goals.
4. Ensure that students set measurable goals. This will involve taking the time to teach the skills involved in setting, working towards, and monitoring goals.
5. Ensure that students set goals that are optimally challenging rather than too easy or difficult.

REFERENCES


PROFILE OF AUTHOR
Helga Grant is a qualified adult literacy tutor with Literacy Waikato and tutors primary and secondary students in English and Maths. She recently completed an Honours degree in Education at Massey University, specialising in educational psychology and literacy education.
ABSTRACT
This article reviews literature on whole-school approaches to behaviour management in order to address these questions: How is a whole-school approach to behaviour management defined in the literature? What are the key principles that make a whole-school approach effective? What are the key systems that make a whole-school approach effective? Is the involvement of students an important aspect of a whole-school approach? The review highlights current work on belonging, which shows that a person’s sense of belonging has an impact on their engagement and therefore achievement in a school setting. For a whole-school approach to be effective it must have a positive impact on the engagement of the students. The findings of this review suggest that schools implementing a whole-school approach must first examine the quality of the relationships within their school as these have an impact on students’ experiences of belonging. The principles and values about relationships that a school holds will shape the kind of whole-school approach they develop.

KEYWORDS:
Behaviour management, school behaviour, school culture, whole-school approach, school based intervention.

INTRODUCTION
Schools play a crucial role in shaping young people’s futures. It is the ongoing social interactions that enable children to learn about themselves and how to become accepted and competent members of their social worlds (Wentzel, 1999). The way in which a school manages its students will have an impact on their sense of belonging, their level of engagement and their achievements (Osterman, 2000).

“The school is at the heart of the future of the community. It is in the schools where children grow in knowledge, morality, their abilities to relate to others, their concepts of community and the ability to live life to the full. It is in the schools that the future of our societies gains formation and direction.” (McAdam & Lang, 2003, p. 50)

Effective behaviour management is an important factor in creating positive learning communities (Nelson, Martella, & Marchand-Martella, 2002). Some schools struggle to meet the needs of students with severe and challenging behaviours. While these students generally make up a small percentage of a school population, addressing their needs can require a large amount of school time and resources (Hayden, 1997; Prochnow, 1998). They are also likely to experience exclusion, which is often the ultimate intervention for students with emotional/behavioural and learning difficulties, alienates the students from their peers and their school community (Hayden, 1997). Children and adolescents who experience alienation from school often become adults who are socially alienated and experience poverty, political powerlessness, debt and criminal involvement (Hayden 1997; Orlemans & Jenkins, 1998).

Many schools attribute causes of behaviour difficulties or disengagement to individual students (Eber, Cauley, & Chafin, 2003; Prochnow, 1998; Thomson, 1999). They see something, for example a syndrome within the child such as ADHD, Aspergers, or, something in the child’s environment as being the cause of the behaviour and interventions are planned accordingly. This places the burden on the individual rather than on the school culture and organisation. Behaviour should be viewed as a whole school issue requiring a whole-school solution (Prochnow, 1998; Thomson, 1999).

The literature reviewed in this article shows that whole-school behaviour approaches are being used by some schools in the UK, US, Australia and NZ (Doig, 2000; Eber et al., 2002; Gaffney, McCormack, Higgins, & Taylor 2004; Hayden, 1997; McCurdy, Mannella, & Eldridge, 2003; Nelson et al., 2002; Parsons, 2002; Prochnow, 1998; Sugai & Horner, 2002; Thomson, 1999). Hayden (1997) points to a conflict in the literature citing Learmonth as linking whole-school behaviour approaches with a decrease in exclusions while Peagram is reported as suggesting that whole-school behaviour approaches can be linked with an increase in exclusions. Hayden concludes that the way in which school policies are implemented impacts on their effectiveness. The purpose of this literature review is to examine what has been learnt elsewhere to see what makes a whole-school behaviour approach effective. It asks the following questions:

• How is a whole-school approach defined in the literature?
• What are the key principles that make a whole-school approach effective?
• What are the key systems that make a whole school approach effective?
• Is the involvement of students in decision making an important aspect of a whole school approach?
Characteristics of New Zealand schools:
A New Zealand context
Suspensions and stand downs in New Zealand schools have increased from around 10,000 in 1996 to 22,000 in 2002 (Hancock & Trainor, 2004). Māori students and male students are over represented in the statistics (Collin, 2001). Interestingly suspension statistics from Ministry of Education (MOE) reports between 1996 and 2002 show that seventy-five percent of schools did not suspend a single student, two per cent of schools were responsible for thirty-five per cent of all suspensions and fifteen per cent for twenty-four per cent of all stand downs. Clearly, where you go to school in New Zealand can affect your chances of completing your education without disruption (Hancock & Trainor, 2004).

In light of the above New Zealand suspension statistics, it is possible that some schools are managing to meet students’ learning and behavioural needs better than others, or those students likely to need support are not getting into these schools.

Schooling as a process of social production and reproduction
Thomson (1999) describes a conflict in the range of expectations and mandates schools have set for themselves. Among other things, they are expected to fulfil the potential of each child, ensure children are active tolerant citizens and productive workers, sort and select for higher education and employment, discipline the unruly, and prevent future social mayhem. She argues that the need to sort and select dominates, ensuring that educational advantage is provided for the already privileged. She points out that much research has looked at how kinds of knowledge and pedagogies operate to further alienate certain raced, classed and gendered students. Thomson (1999) advocates for shifting the curriculum focus onto citizenship and social participation and providing all students with the knowledge and skills required for being active in a broader social context.

Inclusion
New Zealand law requires the provision of the basic right to education to all people aged between five and nineteen years in New Zealand (s3. Education Act, 1989). The prevailing belief is that it is in a child's best interests to be enrolled in a school. National Education Goals (NEG) are one component of The National Education Guidelines that are defined by s60A of the Education Act, (1989). The NEG are statements of desirable achievements by the school system, or by an element of the school system. They include equality of opportunity for all New Zealanders, identification and removal of barriers to achievement, identification of students with special needs and the provision of appropriate support for these needs (Ministry of Education, 2004).

In addition to legislation, Article 28 of the United Nations Convention for the Rights Of the Child 1989 (UNCROC), of which New Zealand is a signatory, recognises the rights of the child to education and states that State parties will make primary education compulsory and available to all, and encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education and make them available and accessible to every child. Article 29 states that education should be directed to the development of the child's personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential and the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2004).

In reality many students find their mainstream schooling interrupted, reduced or even finished as schools struggle to find ways to manage severe behaviour problems (Collin, 2001; Hancock & Trainor, 2004). Schools find the most difficult students to include are those with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Hayden, 1997). Behaviour should be viewed as a whole-school issue requiring a whole-school solution (Prochnow, 1998; Thomson 1999). Schools can then say they have done their best to meet their obligations to provide all students with an education as per the Education Act (1989) and UNCROC (1989).

How is a whole-school approach defined in the literature?
A whole-school behaviour approach as described in the literature includes a positive, flexible, comprehensive systems framework developed in consultation with pupils, staff and parents. It is designed to prevent problems through the provision of clear, consistent and agreed systems, policies and procedures (Doig, 2000). It can include a tiered approach, addressing behaviour issues at the school-wide or group/classroom and individual levels (Eber et al., 2002; Hayden, 1997; Nelson et al., 2002; Thomson, 1999).

It is most effective when underpinned by a set of principles agreed to and promoted by the school community. The principles of inclusion, belonging, relationship building and collaboration are often referred to in the literature (Doig, 2000; Gaffney et al., 2004; Thomson, 1999).

The approach requires a shared vision, goal and commitment to change from the management, staff and students of a school (Doig, 2000; Gaffney, et. al., 2004; Prochnow, 1998). An effective school-wide approach should have the same qualities as an effective teacher, that is, be consistent, firm, clear, caring, organised, enthusiastic and confident (Prochnow, 1998).

Whole-school approaches such as ‘Effective Behaviour Support’ (EBS) and ‘Positive Behavioural Interventions and Support’ (PBIS or PBS) are described in the US studies referred to in this review (Eber et al., 2002; McCurdy et al., 2003; Nelson et al., 2002; Sugai & Horner, 2002). These school-wide approaches have their roots in applied behaviour analysis (Sugai & Horner, 2002). They involve careful assessment of the school environment and application of positive behavioural interventions and systems across the school in an attempt to create positive learning and teaching environments and reduce problem behaviours.
They rely on practices and strategies that are research validated, use team-based problem solving and data-based decision making (Sugai & Horner, 2002).

Nelson et al., (2002) looked at seven elementary schools who implemented an EBS programme over two years. This involved developing a school wide programme through a consensus building, and participatory process. The programme consisted of five elements: a school wide discipline programme, one to one tutoring in reading, conflict resolution training for students, a video-based family management programme and an individualised, function-based behaviour intervention plan (primary, secondary and tertiary interventions). Findings from this study showed consistent declines in suspensions, emergency removals and office referrals in participating schools and an improvement in academic achievement across most subjects, except maths (Nelson et al., 2002). A similar project involving implementation of PBS in an ethnically and racially diverse inner-city elementary school also resulted in significant reductions in the overall level of office discipline referrals and student assaults (McCurdy et al., 2003). The US studies have a strong emphasis on a behaviourist approach and while they used a participatory, consensus building process, they made no explicit mention of the importance of relationship building. The important feature seen as critical to programme effectiveness was the comprehensive nature of the approach. This was seen as necessary in order to provide the differing levels of intervention required in a school. The interventions were designed to affect all areas of need (Nelson et al., 2002).

WHAT ARE THE KEY PRINCIPLES THAT MAKE A WHOLE-SCHOOL APPROACH EFFECTIVE?

The key principles belonging, relationships, and engagement are closely linked to each other and to behaviour management approaches. It is important to understand the link between these principles and the potential success of a whole school approach to behaviour management.

Belonging

“Belonging is defined as an individual’s sense of being accepted, valued, included and encouraged by others” (Baumeister & Leary, as cited in Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004 p. 80).

Osterman (2000) reviewed research on students’ sense of acceptance (‘belongingness’) within the school community. All studies reviewed came to similar conclusions that students’ experiences of belonging are linked with positive orientation towards school, class-work and teachers. Students who had a sense of belonging were more likely to show a stronger sense of identity, autonomy, intrinsic motivation, acceptance of authority and acceptance of responsibility to control their own behaviour. The students also showed higher academic engagement and achievement (Osterman, 2000). Conditions in the classroom and the school influence students’ feelings about themselves and in turn their experiences of engagement in that environment. Osterman emphasised the importance of developing organisational practices and policies which affect the development of students’ sense of community in the school (Osterman, 2000).

Relationships

The importance of relationships and the value that is placed upon them is a key aspect of establishing a sense of belonging (Certo, et al., 2003). It follows that it is also the key to a successful whole-school behaviour approach (Doig, 2000; Gaffney, et. al., 2004; Parsons, 2002; Rogers, 1995). Establishing positive, supportive and collaborative relationships between staff is an important precursor to examining and improving the relationships between staff and students and between students (Gaffney, et. al., 2004; Rogers, 1995). The principles, which underpin these relationships, are what will have the greatest impact on the culture of the school and, therefore, the experiences that staff and students have. The three schools described by Gaffney et al., (2004) identified respect as the key principal underpinning their approaches. In all three, it was the focus on relationships throughout the school that was the foundation for effective change (Gaffney et al., 2004). No two schools are the same, and they will hold values and beliefs particular to their community. Opportunities for staff to discuss and agree on the values that they hold as a school community is a crucial early step in establishing an effective whole school approach (Doig, 2000; Gaffney et al., 2004; Parsons, 2002; Prochnow, 1998; Rogers, 1995).

Engagement

Engagement is strongly linked with having a sense of relatedness or belongingness to a school (Certo et al., 2003; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Osterman, 2000). Engagement in the literature refers to ‘active, goal-directed, flexible, constructive, persistent, focused interactions with the social and physical environments’ (Furrer & Skinner, 2003 p. 149). Engagement is a good predictor of long-term academic achievement and school completion (Anderson et al., 2004; Certo et al., 2003; Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Following a study into children’s sense of relatedness and it’s link with academic engagement, Furrer and Skinner (2003) concluded that this sense of relatedness played a crucial role in their academic engagement and performance. Building the quality of children’s relationships should be a priority for schools (Anderson et al., 2004; Certo et al., 2003; Furrer & Skinner, 2003).

A commitment to positive supportive relationships in a school community leads to a greater sense of belonging or connectedness to that community for staff and students. This in turn is linked to students’ sense of engagement which is linked to their academic achievement. When considering effective whole-school approaches to behaviour management, relationships would seem to be at the heart of the matter.
WHAT ARE THE KEY SYSTEMS THAT MAKE A WHOLE-SCHOOL APPROACH EFFECTIVE?

Leadership

If a whole-school approach is to be effective, there is a need for the leaders of a school to foster caring, supportive, collaborative relationships. Effective leaders demonstrate respect and foster a sense of belonging, celebrate achievement and have a vision for the school they share, model and promote. They value staff and encourage initiative and they use systems which enhance communication (Dinham, Cairney, Craigie, & Wilson, 1995). Leaders hold the key to building a positive school culture and structure. The leadership of the school principal in deciding change is required as a crucial first step in implementing an effective whole-school approach. They must also have the ability to get ‘buy-in’ from their staff and students (Gaffney et al., 2004).

Effective Teaching

From students’ perspectives, an effective teacher is one who cares about them and has a belief in their ability to learn and achieve (Certo et al., 2003). This is communicated both in their interactions with students and the kind of learning situations they provide. In a study which explored students’ level of belonging and engagement in high school by obtaining students perspectives on school, Certo et al. (2003) found that students were more engaged when the school programme provided authentic curriculum and class-work. This included opportunities for discourse, small group work, cognitively challenging work, cooperative learning, participation in decision making and high quality instruction from the teacher (Certo et al., 2003). Students in the study described engaging teachers as those who did not talk too much, allowed students to be actively involved in a learning task, provided opportunities for students to work together, used a variety of instructional techniques and were enthusiastic about the subject matter. Teachers who cared were identified as most effective. Caring teachers were described as “relating to us”, “encouraging”, and “helpful”. Teachers who listened were seen as the most caring (Certo et al., 2003).

In a summary of three studies carried out between 1999-2000 across the primary, secondary (involving Māori and Pasifika students) and tertiary sector (involving Pasifika students), Hawk, Tumana Cowley, Hill and Sutherland (2002) highlighted key attributes that had been consistently identified by students and teachers as characterising an effective teaching/learning relationship. The attributes were empathy, caring, respect, going the extra mile, passion to enthuse and motivate, patience and perseverance, and belief in their ability.

Discipline

A discipline system which reflects a commitment to positive relationship building will have policies and practices that support a student to take responsibility for their behaviour and learn the skills needed to manage within a school environment (Doig, 2000). There was a reasonable amount of agreement in the literature about what made a discipline system effective. It is important for schools to develop an agreed ‘language of discipline’(Rogers, 1995). Schools need to be create clear expectations through discussions with staff and students about desirable school relationships and appropriate behaviour (Doig, 2000; Gaffney et al., 2004; Parsons, 2002; Prochnow, 1998). There is a need for consistent, fair and immediate responses across settings to both appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. Using language and responses that encourages student to take responsibility for their behaviour is important (Doig, 2000; Gaffney et al., 2004; Rogers, 1995). Providing support for students so they can develop positive relationships and learn to behave appropriately is also an important aspect of an effective discipline system (Prochnow, 1998). Directly teaching students the expectations and routines of the classroom, with opportunities for regular rehearsal, is an important aspect of an effective school-wide approach to discipline. Use of fundamental behaviour management practices such as active supervision, frequent positive contacts and good classroom organisation are also mentioned (McCurdy et al., 2003; Sugai & Horner, 2002).

Pastoral care

In a school which is committed to fostering a sense of belonging, students who do not meet expectations for behaviour are not removed but receive support and opportunities to learn how to interact (Gaffney et al., 2004; Parsons, 2002). School ethos has a major impact on how a particular child or behaviour is viewed (Hayden, 1997). Studies have identified that children who have been suspended or excluded are likely to be experiencing a number of stressful events or situations that make it extremely difficult for them to manage a classroom /school environment. These events include family breakdown, violence, being in the care of social services, accidents, a death in the family, unemployment and financial worries. The studies found that excluded children were experiencing on average six such events during the year of their exclusion (Hayden, 1997). It is clear from these studies that most students suspended or excluded are not ‘bad’ but in need of extra support to enable them to manage their current situation.

Many of the studies reviewed talked about providing support for those students whose behaviour difficulties were not always able to be addressed by the discipline system alone. This support involved providing interventions that addressed the needs of the individual and possibly their family. Interventions included one to one reading programmes, social skills training, parenting programmes, working with other agencies to coordinate support and providing whole school programmes that promoted well-being (Doig, 2000; Eber et al., 2002; Gaffney et al., 2004; McCurdy et al., 2003; Nelson et al., 2002; Thomson, 1990).

Professional development

Professional development that is designed to support a whole school approach can have many benefits for both
the staff and the school. In a school that values quality relationships, professional development is given a high priority and staff are given regular opportunities to update their knowledge and reflect on their practice (Doig, 2000). Inspiring curriculum delivery, a range of instructional techniques, and provision of a variety of learning experiences were identified by Certo et al., (2003) as effective ways of engaging students. Clearly it is important that staff set regular opportunities to access training and regularly update and refresh their skills in these areas. It is also important to provide training for staff that enables them to respond consistently and appropriately to severe or difficult behaviour (McCurdy et al., 2003; Prochnow, 1998). The literature describes some of the benefits of professional development for staff, such as beginning to use a shared language, having a better understanding of key concepts, and greater motivation and enthusiasm (Doig, 2000; Parsons, 2002; Prochnow, 1998). Osterman (2000) points out that organisational research over the last few decades has identified collegiality as one of the more important characteristics influencing teachers’ commitment, sense of efficacy and performance. The interaction and dialogue central to the notion of collegiality can lead to personal and professional learning among teachers. Again, if the underpinning principle is one of building relationships, the professional development provided can enable staff to form collaborative and supportive professional relationships.

**IS THE INVOLVEMENT OF STUDENTS AND IMPORTANT ASPECT OF A WHOLE-SCHOOL BEHAVIOUR APPROACH?**

Many of the articles describing the implementation of effective whole-school behaviour approaches talk about the involvement of students as being a key aspect of their success (Doig, 2000; Gaffney et al., 2004; Thomson, 1999). This involvement can be as simple as asking a group of students why they are always in the withdrawal room and then including them in planning a solution, or asking a student intending to leave school early what the school can do to make them want to continue their education (Thomson, 1999). Again, a commitment to fostering a sense of belonging and quality relationships enables a school to approach such issues in a student-centred way.

Gaffney et al., (2004) found that schools involved students in a variety of ways including training peer mediators, training all students in peer mediation skills, involving students in the development of school rules and classroom charters, and conducting safety audits amongst students. The students spoken with in all three schools had a good understanding of the school and classroom rules and the consequences for inappropriate behaviours.

**PRINCIPLES AND SYSTEMS – A SUMMARY**

There is a link between whole-school approaches and a reduction in suspensions and office referrals and an increase in academic achievement (Nelson et al., 2002). The literature also establishes a clear link between belonging, engagement, and achievement (Certo et al., 2003; Osterman, 2000).

In the words of Thomson, “Structures and culture are mutually constructed” (Thomson, 1999, p. 10). If a whole-school behaviour approach is to be effective, it must increase the level of engagement for all of its students. For a school to be able to foster a sense of belonging in its staff and students there is a need for commitment to building positive supportive relationships (Certo et al., 2003; Doig, 2000; Gaffney et al., 2004; Osterman, 2000; Parsons, 2002). This commitment must underpin systems such as leadership, professional development, discipline, pastoral care and valuing diversity in order to prevent behaviour difficulties and increase students’ sense of belonging and therefore engagement and achievement.

**CONCLUSION**

An effective whole-school approach requires the commitment and shared vision of an entire school community. Creating a community that fosters belonging begins with strong leaders who can bring staff together to examine the quality of the relationships in their school in a safe and effective way. Systems must reflect the shared vision held by the school. To be effective, this vision must begin with a commitment to positive and supportive relationships. This requires committing the time and space needed to enable staff to develop a shared vision through discussion, debate and shared professional development. This should be facilitated by the leaders, driven by the staff and reflect the needs of the whole school community.

If all students are to experience a sense of belonging and inclusion in our schools there must be a shift in the way that schools respond to severe and challenging behaviour. A commitment to all students who belong to a school community regardless of their circumstance could provide a different starting point for addressing unwanted behaviours. This perspective may allow for solutions, that support and include the student while working to eliminate their more inappropriate behaviours.

**REFERENCES**


**PROFILE OF AUTHOR**

Bridget Scott is a Special Education Advisor working for Group Special Education in Christchurch. In this role she works to support the needs of students with both severe behaviour difficulties and ongoing resourcing needs. Previously she has worked as a teacher for the Youth Education Service, a programme run by Group Special Education for students from Years 9-10. She also taught for six years in a number of inner London primary schools including two years in a unit for students with communication disorders and one year in a school for students with moderate to high needs.
Foundation for behaviour management: A systems approach

Diane Andrews and Trevor Clarke
Behaviour Support Team, Group Special Education, Southland

ABSTRACT
This article outlines the development and implementation of a project designed to help a school reflect on how well it has developed supportive behaviour management systems. The programme further encourages the school to implement more functional systems. When the local Group Special Education (GSE) office was offered an opportunity to develop some innovation projects, a proposal for looking at behaviour management as a school wide systems intervention was developed. The conceptual base was to focus on six targeted school systems believed to be the foundations for functional behaviour management, profile them for a school, report them in a way that has meaning and work with the school in improving functionality. The project has been used in seven schools in Southland and one in Canterbury. All the schools reported positive outcomes, and some schools made major advances in developing functional behaviour management systems.

KEYWORDS:
Behaviour management, social culture, school behaviour, whole-school approach, school based intervention.

INTRODUCTION
In this project, the writers defined the factors that facilitate, or hinder, the development of functional behaviour management systems. When these factors, or systems, were defined it was then necessary to develop ways of measuring them in the field, analysing them and presenting them back to the school in a way that was constructive and had meaning.

In our work as caseworkers in the GSE behaviour support team, we often observe schools and teachers in various stages of developing and implementing behaviour management strategies and policies. With less developed systems there are often few choices left for the poorly behaving student, the school has difficulty focusing resources on students with challenging behaviours and building a support team can be problematical. Schools have often stopped owning the “behaviour problem” and are looking to outside assistance to remove the student.

There are, however, very good examples of positive and functional behaviour management systems. In these schools supporting behaviour has clear pathways and accountabilities, focused resources, and more options. Agencies work together, parents are more available and supportive, and positive gains are acknowledged and built on. There is a support team placed around the student and each member has defined tasks. Much of the support is proactive, providing positive environments in the classroom and playground, and meeting the individual needs of students.

It is not uncommon for schools to search for specific programmes such as Assertive Discipline (Canter, 1992), Teacher Effective Training (Gordon, 1974), or Positive Behaviour Support (Sugai, 1994), that will address behaviour issues and, in doing so, fail to recognise that the successful management of behaviour encompasses a range of systems which all contribute to success. These packages may well encourage good class tone and provide a structure for teachers, but unless they are embedded in school systems, which reflect the desired culture of the school, it is likely that they will be operating in isolation. The programmes may give the school a sense of security, but are seldom responsive to specific school communities and sometimes lack the flexibility to respond to individual student needs.

The implementation of a one-off behaviour management system in a school can lead to the expectation that this will be a solution to all discipline “problems”. Behaviour management cannot be an “add-on” but needs to be an integral part of selected school systems.

CONCEPTUAL BASIS
The potential of school-wide interventions have long been recognised. Eaden (2004) notes a number of reports (Eber, 2002; Gill, 1989; Knoster, 2002; Nelson, 1998; Shaunessy, 2002) that advocate the “immense contribution” school-wide systems of behavioural intervention can make. Some students with behavioural and emotional difficulties do not fare well in regular schools and require school wide systems to enable “wraparound approaches” with individual plans and positive environments. Eaden (2004) reports White (2001) as defining unified expectations based around consistency, clear expectations, roles and responsibilities. This is a team or whole school responsibility and not the domain of individual teachers only. Shaunessy (2002) advocates a coordinated school-wide system that facilitates early identification and intervention. This increases the possibilities of more successful outcomes.

This project places the responsibility for developing positive school organisational change not on any single individual but with all the individual and collective components of the school. The school organisation is a collection of these systems. Managing behaviour has become increasingly
important to the organisational pattern of a school. The effectiveness of behavioural management strategies and programmes will be dependent on the effectiveness of the school organisation as a whole.

The writers determined six “foundation systems” for behaviour management through reviewing their own practice, reflecting on their own teaching experience, looking at accumulated data over several years of behaviour support work, researching existing approaches and interventions being used within GSE, and by reviewing current school-based programmes. Six interrelated systems within the school are targeted – pastoral care, valuing diversity, discipline, effective teaching, professional development and leadership. A review of the development and function of each of these systems produced a profile of the foundations necessary for supporting an effective behaviour management system.

The discipline system, which is sometimes the sole focus for behaviour management, is only part of the whole behaviour management structure in the school. In the profile it had equal emphasis with the other five systems. An effective discipline system will be positive and school-wide but still offer flexibility and responsibility.

The profile reported not on the standard of teaching in the school, but rather the systems that are in place to ensure that there is effective teaching. Some of these will be based around appraisal, shared planning, understanding of behaviour and the promotion of positive environments.

A system that makes certain a school values diversity will acknowledge the micro cultures of the school and community and ensure that programmes are in place to support these. It is important that individuals and groups are valued and are part of the whole school community.

The leadership system in a school relies on excellent communication and collective and individual responsibility. It needs to be inclusive in practice. Although it is important that leadership begins at the top, all individuals can have some leadership role.

The professional development system is an ongoing process enabling the school to make change and shape its school culture. It needs to be adequately resourced and supported. It can be an investment in both individual and whole school developments.

The need for a formal pastoral care system to proactively identify and plan for the needs of students and staff is an essential component of a behaviour management system. It creates a positive environment with structured supports for the school community.

These systems, when fully functional, will have evidence of the following qualities: -positive environments, inclusive practices, collective and individual ownership, consultative communication, and nonaversive strategies. These qualities help produce positive outcomes, commitment, partnership, positively shaped systems and longer lasting change.

THE PROJECT STORY

In 2001 the Southland Special Education office applied for surplus national money that was available for special projects. With this, the Behaviour Support Team seconded two full-time equivalent staff for one term to allow individuals time to pursue proposed innovation projects. The requirement was that each project should result in a permanent product that would contribute to our work in schools. A project focusing on looking at the systems underpinning good behaviour management was established.

This idea was presented to a local reference group made up of the Special Education District Manager, a local Principal and a Resource Teacher of Learning and Behaviour (RTLB). Feedback from this group indicated that the concepts on which the programme was based were acceptable and it was likely that the results of a profile would enable a review of behaviour management in a school and provide data to reflect on current systems.

The development of specific tools that would collect accurate data were trialled and retralled at a local school. Separate and specific questionnaires were designed to gather information on each of the six systems.

A formal school-wide trial was proposed. A school was identified and the Principal was approached with a request to trial the programme in their school. There was a clear understanding that the trial would provide an opportunity for the school to review its behaviour management systems and provide feedback to the authors regarding both the process and the outcome of the profile.

The authors spent two and a half days in the school. During this time, 45-minute interviews were completed with each teacher. All support staff, including the office person and caretaker, and a random selection of students were interviewed for about 15 minutes each. Some parents, Board of Trustee (BOT) members and the local RTLB were interviewed after school or in the evening. Observations were undertaken in each classroom and in the grounds at break
times using specifically designed observation sheets. The Principal was asked to produce documentation such as relevant policies, guidelines and newsletters from a list provided. This was not reviewed at the time but taken back to the office to add to the data gathered to be used during the report writing phase.

As a result of this initial trial some changes were made to individual questionnaires. The interview schedules for BOTs, parents and outside agencies were reshaped so they could be conducted by telephone. This enabled greater flexibility to ensure sufficient contacts were made, and it was found that the quality of this data was just as informative. The list of possible outside agencies that could be contacted was extended to include such personnel as Health Nurses, Resource Teachers of Reading, Resource Teachers of Māori and School Chaplains.

The preparation of the report required considerable triangulation of data. It was a compilation of accurate information and does not judge or condemn. The narrative was reduced to about two pages on each system and was concluded by a chart that highlighted the presence of important components of each system. Nothing could be written that did not come from several sources of information. Neither in the trial school or the six subsequent schools has there been any questioning of the accuracy of data.

The report was presented orally at a meeting of all staff and the BOT. This took approximately an hour and a half. A brief overview of the whole project was given, followed by individual system profiles. Extensive use was made of visuals. An initial response to the report was part of the presentation but the school was advised to set a later date for a full discussion. This enables written copies of the report to be studied in further detail and management can design an appropriate strategy for using the report.

Some schools have opted into a “probe” report each year. This can mean a full review of all six systems, but others have focused on specific systems. This requires less practitioner time and uses modified data gathering tools. The work still covers the principles behind each of the systems and may add some more targeted questions related to specific interventions.

Peer review of the programme and the process was an important component in updating and refining the tools. Other Psychologists and Special Education advisers in the local office joined teams undertaking the work in schools. The programme was given brief exposure during the first of the GSE South Island Roadshows and interest was shown from both other practitioners and from individual districts. More recently two workshops have been held in the Canterbury district for practitioners interested in the programme.

Guidelines ensure there is little variance from agreed procedures. In Canterbury, a team of three, after completing a daylong workshop, worked alongside the original practitioners to complete the profile in a school. A local coordinator has now been appointed to organise future teams and schools. The three who have undertaken the work in the first school are now in a position to lead their own teams.

During development, the challenge was to ensure the programme would be applicable in all schools. To date it has been used in contributing schools, full primaries, an area school, two intermediates, a secondary school and an integrated school. The logistics of carrying out a full profile in a large secondary school has yet to addressed but the data can be collected in a school of up to 500 students by using the equivalent of three staff for three days.

**OUTCOMES**

For some schools the report has been an affirmation of current practices. For others it highlighted several areas where systems have not existed or been functional. In some cases it clearly defined major areas for development and created a need for comprehensive planning and reorganisation.

Eaden (2004) reported in his review of seven schools undertaking the programme that six had made changes as a direct result of the profile. The most significant areas were in developing systems supporting pastoral care, valuing diversity and effective teaching. Four of the seven schools had actively sought help from outside agencies to address concerns and five of the seven schools reported positive improvement in student behaviour.

Review comments from the schools highlighted the following points:

- the value of having specialised information regarding core areas
- the programme was more effective than an Education Review Office report in bringing about change
- the process was thorough, sensitive and supportive.

Since the programme was implemented, schools have continued to report improved behaviour management and outcomes for individual students, focused planning, more formalised systems, and planned opportunities for reflection and review. They also continue to collect and monitor their own data. Schools have used the profile to report both general and specific information to parents.

Other schools have acknowledged the programme highlighted areas of need and gave them a starting point. In one school the BOT reported the profile helped them see the severity of the situation and gave them the confidence and motivation to make changes.
DISCUSSION

Although the project has been developed over a number of years it continues to be modified. We feel a number of points are clear.

1. A profile of functional school systems can be produced and this can be presented constructively and accurately to support a school.

2. Individual casework, and generally the ability to support a school, is significantly enhanced where the profile has taken place.

3. Schools are more likely to engage in professional development or school wide development after receiving the profile.

4. A key factor in changing attitude and school culture is the recognition that there are important inter-related systems which support behaviour management. The profile report highlights these systems and provides a formal structure for focused interventions. The probe report acknowledges and affirms progress, and provides a further opportunity for self review.

5. Pastoral care support and the way a school acknowledges diversity are often the first focus areas in this process.

6. A school needs time to make such changes – the profile exercise needs to be seen as part of a year long intervention at least.

7. Commitment from the principal and BOT, along with appropriate contracting, including negotiation of a service agreement, is an important ingredient for success.

Three issues have arisen for us as developers of the programme. Firstly, it was initially envisaged that pre-packaged modules for each of the systems could be delivered to any school that has a defined “weakness” in any particular system. However, the eventual diversity of interventions implemented by schools has been one of the strengths coming out of the profile report. This ability for schools to access specific help to strengthen an individual system has both encouraged ownership by the schools and ensured that the most appropriate help is provided. In this way the profile is complementary to other programmes.

Secondly, the question of whether the profile is an appropriate tool for a school in crisis has not been completely answered. A school in crisis may find it difficult to accept the presentation of the data collected. There are no interim strategies to provide immediate steps to avert risks. However, the system of gathering data is appropriate and the report can provide excellent baseline data. The need for each of the six systems to be functioning is important in any school. There can be an element of “relief” as existing problems are recorded and laid on the table for full and frank discussion. The programme can provide a structure for targeted interventions, and a more comprehensive focus on behaviour from a systems perspective encourages individual and collective responsibility among staff. The programme was not written to specifically focus on a school in crisis but rather as an opportunity for self-reflection for staff in any school.

Finally, the confidentiality of the information collected and reported is important. Some of this information is sensitive and designed for self-reflection rather than publication. As with other work within GSE, such as Eliminating Violence reports, there are unclear boundaries about how the information can be handled.

The project has enabled us to learn much about working with schools and has been very rewarding. Continuing to build up experience, broaden the base and revise the various tools will be essential. There is much to be gained from having a constructive process when working with schools not only in terms of increasing the likelihood or appropriate behaviour occurring but also to lift school awareness of the interrelationship between the different systems within their organisations. (Eaden, 2004).

REFERENCES


PROFILE OF AUTHORS

Diane Andrews

Diane Andrews taught for twenty years in a range of primary, intermediate and secondary schools throughout New Zealand. She joined SES (GSE) in 1998 and spent the next six and a half years as part of the behaviour service. A significant focus of her position was a focus on school systems development. Diane is currently teaching in a secondary school.

Trevor Clarke

Trevor Clarke taught for sixteen years in several areas of New Zealand before joining SES in 1990 and retraining as a psychologist. During his time with SES, and latterly GSE, Trevor has been involved in behaviour support and has a particular interest in developing systems support programmes for schools that increase capability and support individual casework.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors would like to acknowledge the support and ongoing encouragement of our GSE colleagues and, in particular, Murray Witheford, Southland District GSE Manager.
Shortening the tail:

A critical look at the prompts New Zealand Teachers use in teaching reading

Margaret Coogan
Resource Teacher of Learning and Behaviour, based at Pukekohe Intermediate

ABSTRACT
Research suggests New Zealand has the biggest gap between its highest and lowest achievers, and this is known as the “long tail”. The debate over whole language and phonics approaches to reading is unfinished, but must now focus on where the point of difference lies. While reading involves a range of skills, teachers need to model the prompts that relate to word level knowledge as a primary strategy and context cues as a secondary strategy. This involves attention to the rightful place of phonics. I will draw from research and my anecdotal evidence as a Resource Teacher of Learning and Behaviour (RTLB). I aim to question the prompts typically heard in classrooms and stress the need for sequential teaching, especially for beginning readers. Attention to “context” over the “word” is reflected not only in learning but in ongoing behaviour difficulties.

KEYWORDS:
Phonics, whole language, literacy, reading.

INTRODUCTION
The phenomenon of the long tail in educational achievement levels of New Zealand children is a matter of concern for both teachers and policy writers alike. That is the picture which emerged from the findings of three international studies (PIRLS, 2001; Innocenti Report Card, 2002; Pisa, 2000, cited by the Maxim Institute, 2003) that compared achievement levels in schools internationally. All three indicate that New Zealand has the biggest gap between its highest and poorest performance levels in reading, science and maths. This article explores achievement in literacy by specifically questioning the strategies young readers are taught in our primary schools. It draws on relevant literature, research involving strategies used by a struggling reader and anecdotal information I have gathered in contact with classroom practice on a daily basis. It questions the current plethora of initiatives offered to schools and a preoccupation with “big picture” approaches to problem solving and suggests that the answers may lie in looking more closely at effective teaching. While the Ministry of Education’s aim is to raise achievement and reduce disparity across the whole education system on a sustainable basis to ensure that New Zealand maintains its high international reputation and achievement rankings (Fancy, 2004), James Chapman described our performance in reading as ‘disastrous’ in The Dominion Post, 9 April 2003 (cited by the Maxim Institute, 2003). If we celebrate the achievements of our top students (and we do), how do we respond to the results of those who fail? Given that both groups and those in between are educated in the same system, how do we answer the question Why? What’s going on?

My role as an RTLB included the running of a parent tutor reading programme over a number of years – for Teacher Aides as well as parents – based on the video ‘Pause Prompt Praise’. The programme was designed to assist tutors help young readers become independent readers, and promoted the use of four strategies.

1. Using meaning or context.
2. Prior knowledge or background meaning.

It teaches tutors to pause and allow beginning readers time to attempt unknown words, then to prompt using the above strategies and to praise the use of these strategies, as well as correct reading. Participants in the programme invariably commented on their need to pause rather than rush in to prompt as their major learning need. But what of the prompts and the praise? My stance as the presenter of the programme was about to be challenged.

I had enrolled in a post-graduate reading paper through Massey University in the 1990s, when there was a continuation of the debate about the relative merits of the whole language versus phonics approaches to the teaching of reading. Briefly, whole language had emerged in the 1960s and 1970s, asserting that children learn to read through exposure to books in a literature-rich environment. It was a reaction to the code emphasis, or phonics approach, which taught letter-sound correspondence rules to “sound out” words, reading isolated words and was often dismissed as drill and not really reading. The handbook for the ‘Ready to Read’ series emphasised the teaching of reading in context over the decoding of words in isolation (Awatere-Huata, 2002). Since the 1990s, few educators disputed the need for both aspects in any approach to the teaching of reading. Teachers say they’ve always taught phonics, and that a literacy-rich environment is important. What has not been fully discussed is the point at which these two divergent approaches to the teaching of reading meet on a continuum, and just what the significant point of difference between them is. Awatere-Huata (2002) described the debate as “raging, despite the assertion that it is ‘tired’ and has served its’ purpose,” (p.30) and suggests that the problem lies
in failure to reach agreement about definition of terms such as whole language. Deighton-O’Flynn (2003) unashamedly described her phonics-based programme as a way of teaching children to read by “sounding out” (decoding) unfamiliar words [and] which do not enable children to read unfamiliar words” (p. 3).

Reading is about cracking the written code. It’s about getting meaning from print and about gaining insights into the relationship between the alphabetic characters (graphemes) and the units of sound (phonemes) they represent. In discussing the stages of normal reading development, Spear-Swerling and Sternberg (1996) use the metaphor of a road map to describe the journey normal readers embark on.

First stage – Visual Cue Word Recognition
These readers are non-alphabetic and they rely heavily on visual cues such as the two “eyes” with glasses on in the word look. They don’t yet understand that it’s the letters that carry the meaning. Look and say – a whole word approach.

Second stage – Phonetic Cue Word Recognition
These readers are developing alphabetic insight. At this stage the reader may recognise the word boat, but easily confuse it with boot or beat, since the ability to decode is based on recognition of the first and last letters of the word and its general shape. In the sentence “The boy sailed his toy boat,” the child is likely to choose boat because it fits in this context.

The Third Stage – Controlled Word Recognition
These readers have accurate but non-automatic word recognition. They begin to recognise groups of letters, but their lack of fluency impairs comprehension.

Fourth stage – Automatic Word Recognition
These readers are able to read more fluently and have good strategies which they use to process more and more “print-miles” of reading.

Fifth stage – Strategic Reading
These readers use a range of strategies to successfully manage their own reading.

Using the road map metaphor, Spear-Swerling and Sternberg (1996) point out that once off-track at any point along the way, poor readers see other sights and these are mostly negative. Of particular significance are the readers who go off-track at an early stage. We are familiar with the low self-image which develops and the attribution of failure to being “dumb” when previously they may have tried harder, the learned helplessness, and the “Matthew Effect” (Stanovich, 1986). Those who wander off-track at the second stage are easily missed. They do understand basic concepts about print and may even appear to be “on track”. But they employ the comparatively lower level strategies, such as initial letter or picture cues – lower level because they are not skills that can stand alone out of that particular reading context.

How do the strategies used by these poor readers differ from the strategies used by their more successful peers?
Tunmer and Chapman (1996) asked a group of children, “What do you do when you come to a word you don’t know?” The answers were revelatory and consistent. When faced with a word they didn’t know, good readers used strategies based on word level knowledge as their primary strategy. That is, they looked at the word and made an attempt based on what they already knew in order to decode it. In contrast, poor readers consistently used context clues such as background meaning, picture and what the word looked like – aptly described as “contextual guessing.” It was not that the good readers did not use these contextual cues, but they used them as secondary strategies, as a way of backing up their initial attempts.

THE CURRENT STUDY
My own research supports these findings. Using a case study of a 12-year-old-boy with the reading age of a 7-year-old, the project involved the use of two tape recorders. The student read on to tape No 1. We stopped the tape, rewound it and turned on tape No 2. He listened to his own reading, stopping to self-correct at his own pace. Meanwhile Tape No 2 was recording his responses (and mine!) The tape recordings provided not only a permanent record of my subject’s reading attempts but his metacognitive processes such as his ability to think about his own performance. The road map metaphor provided some insights as to where he had gone off-track in his reading progress. Note his departure in the following exchange about the new goat that had been wrapped in a blanket on the back seat of the car on the way home:

Text: Milly’s new home was the back paddock.

Reader: Milly’s new home was a blanket pocket.

Text: Milly was put back in her paddock.

Reader: Milly had pulled back her pocket.

While listening to himself on tape, he eventually self-corrected but his comment was illuminating:

Tutor: How did you know it was wrong?

Reader: (leaning on his hand): I looked at the picture.

Implications
A quick glance at the road map would suggest that my student had gone off-track at Stage Two. He was using partial phonetic cues – beginning and final letter clues only, meaning gained from a previous sentence and, of course, the picture. Perhaps taking in the overall look of the word was one of the negative sights he had seen when he
wandered off-track at an earlier stage in his reading development. I was beginning to ask myself questions about the strategies he learned early in his reading development. Did he just learn them or was he taught? The prompts that teachers model become the strategies children use when the teacher is no longer sitting beside them.

THE ONGOING DEBATE

So how does this relate to the ongoing debate over the convergence of phonics and whole language in the teaching of reading? Right there, when a reader comes to an unknown word. Prompts about the word itself relate specifically to phonics or code emphasis; prompts about meaning, context and visual attributes relate to whole language. Of course, reading is always a combination of high and low level skills. It is a mix of phonetic and cognitive ability. But the primary strategy used by good readers draws on their knowledge and their understanding of the written code they are cracking. The secondary strategies – relating to context – are used by good readers to check their initial attempts. Such prompts include: Would that make sense? Does it sound right?

Teachers who are unaware of the dangers encountered at this point of the “road” unwittingly reinforce any attempts the young reader makes by praising the reader for what could just be a good contextual guess. Unless word-level knowledge is used as the primary cue, they encourage children to rely on inadequate strategies which lead further off the path to strategic reading. Most Teachers claim to teach a variety of reading strategies. The debate has shifted. Again, it is no longer about whole language or phonics, but about “the extent to which one cue source should be given a greater or lesser emphasis than others in the decoding process.” (Greaney, 2001, p.21). Results of his study about teacher prompts suggest that there may be problems inherent in early reading texts, which rely on predictable sentence patterns, and in encouraging young readers to rely on this, “teachers [unwittingly] encourage the reader to rely on [this] as the main cue source even at higher text levels” (Greaney, 2001, p.29). It is when the text becomes more difficult and less predictable that the reader needs word identification strategies.

Listen to teachers hearing children read: “Try that again … read on … what might happen if …? … get your mouth ready ….”. Good learners in any classroom will gain the insights necessary to crack the written code in spite of the method of teaching. They build up an understanding of how language works and use context clues to back up their attempts at decoding. Our struggling readers need to be taught what good readers already know – that letters are a way of representing sounds, and that they must have a minimal level of phonemic awareness, and the ability to pull short words apart into their individual sounds (phonemes). Cracking the code means looking at the word itself, understanding that the letters are representations of sounds, and then fine tuning its meaning by seeing how the context contributes to its meaning. The letters represent the sounds of language. Little words are important. It is a high level skill and our good readers master it but our poor readers need to be taught. Conversely, by paying too much attention to context, “misreading” can occur. It is a low-level strategy – a back-up skill.

One of the earliest realisations the subject in my study gained about his reading behaviour was that he would often leave out small words in the text. It may be that he perceived the big words as being the difficult and therefore more important words.

Tutor: Any surprises for you today?

Reader: Yes, the little errors I made.

The significance of these little errors should not be underestimated, as was shown in the passage he read about an accident.

Text:
He saw no one was hurt.

Reader:
He saw that one was hurt.

The omission of this small word altered the meaning so that he missed the main point of the passage. It was not a real accident, but an ambulance drill.

As RTLB, how do we find out where a reader is on the path? Observe what they do when they come to an unknown word. Find out their level of word knowledge and teach the next skill. Bryant (1975) has a useful pseudoword assessment which tests a student’s basic decoding skills. Not really reading because it’s out of context? This assessment of ability to “read” nonsense words is an apt appraisal of competence with decoding print. If they cannot read ‘jit’ or ‘gret’ how will they ever read jitters or regret? The important thing is that teaching is sequential, and the stages and questions lead on to each other.

1. Phonemic awareness
2. An ability to say letter sounds/names
3. A recognition of sight words
4. A blending of sounds
5. A simple code for letter/sound relationships where one letter represents one sound
6. Recognition of vowel sounds
7. Consonant clusters?
8. A complex code where sounds can be represented by more than one letter?

(Deighton-O’Flynn, 2004)

So what of pausing, prompting and praising? Pause, of course, but let’s take another look at the prompts, and therefore the praise. Are we so pleased that learner-readers have “almost got it” that we unwittingly miss the point – that
these poor strategies, left unchecked will eventually lead them off-track? It is my intention to challenge RTLB and other educators to look more closely at the reading strategies commonly modelled by teachers. Why is it that there is such a wide discrepancy between those who “get it” and those who don’t, between our high achievers and our low achievers in literacy – a long tail, in fact?

It is my belief that for many of our struggling learners, school is too academic too soon. Lack of phonemic awareness is arguably the greatest predictor of a child becoming a poor reader (Pressley, 1998). Add to that poor fine motor and visual perceptual skills and coordination difficulties, and are we unwittingly teaching these children that there are no rules or principles in life – that it’s all about contextual guessing? As Windsor (2004) notes in his discussion of postmodernism, our society is “more enamoured with the world than with the word, and with the context rather than the text” (p. 5).

There is a plethora of initiatives aimed at raising achievement and reducing disparity. Is our education system itself engaged in contextual guessing? Trying anything? Our prison inmates are characterised by their illiteracy. Is this the key to the relationship between learning and behaviour difficulties? If not, why the long tail?

REFERENCES


Maxim Institute (2003) In harm’s way: educational achievement of New Zealand pupils – an international comparison.


PROFILE OF AUTHOR
Margaret Coogan (M. Ed. Special Education, BA, Dip Tchg) has worked as a Resource Teacher of Guidance and Learning, and is now an RTLB based at Pukekohe Intermediate. She is currently the national coordinator of the NZRTLB Association. This paper formed the basis of a presentation given to learning support teachers at their induction training workshop (SLS Initiative) in Palmerston North, July 2004.
An interview with Don Brown

Team leader (Southern Division) of the Resource Teacher
Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) training programme

Lesley Dunn
Psychologist, Group Special Education, Waikato

Tiri Sotiri
Resource Teacher of Learning and Behaviour based in Oakune

Don Brown has been one of the leading voices in special education in New Zealand since the mid 1970s. As director of clinical psychology training at Victoria, Chief Psychologist in charge of the psychological service, Director of Special Education prior to the Tomorrow's Schools restructuring, Chair of the Teacher Education division of the School of Education at Victoria, and team leader for the development of the Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) training programme, Don’s influence and leadership over many years has been significant.

Many of the desirable practices in working with children in special education that we believe are important today were introduced and/or promoted by Don twenty years ago: practices such as inclusion, ecological assessment rather than disability classification, and parent involvement in decision making. Don has an ongoing passion and commitment to an equitable access to New Zealand education for children who require additional special educational support.

Don’s description of his work as an educational Psychologist in the early 1970s when he looked for ways to reach those children in schools who through disadvantage or disability were struggling, brings through clearly the themes of working collaboratively with others in settings which are part of children’s everyday lives.

“In the early 1970s a team of us in the Porirua Psychologist Service set up an in-schools programme, where we would not test kids. We didn’t accept referrals but we would visit the schools on a fortnightly basis and work with the staff on issues that arose. And it worked beautifully and we got good feedback from it.

I saw the Psychological Service as a hugely important group of people able to work in the interests of teachers and children. I saw them working contextually in the classroom, and I saw them as people who could support their teaching colleagues … In my thinking, you don’t support teachers by taking kids away from them, you don’t support teachers by giving them intelligence test reports which are indecipherable anyway and ineffective in any event.

The 1970s and 1980s were challenging times for educationalists who, influenced by overseas research and trends, were starting to believe that all learners should be included in their community schools. One of the battles was over the medical model and the categorisation of children into “conditions”. Labelling children meant that they ceased to be treated as individual learners with the right to go to their local schools.

We had to prevent the terrible business that the Americans have with something like 16 categories in their legislation … They can’t take kids on the basis of their presenting position and abilities and capacities [into regular schools]. They have to take them [into schools] under categories.

This was not an easy issue, and Don recalled going into one SPELD meeting in Hamilton where he was booed because of his opposition to the inclusion of a category of specific learning disability in the Education Act (1989). In the 1970s and 1980s many Psychologists took a stand based on their reading of the literature of the time, and refused to use intelligence tests.

[Psychologists] had to be staunch and to stand up against the perceived wisdom basically of an education system that wasn’t based on current research.

One of the difficulties for those psychologists was the commonly accepted use of intelligence test scores for special class placement. Don’s reaction in 1986 when he was Director of Special Education was to discontinue the requirement for those tests – not a popular move among some practitioners who favoured a quick labelling method and habitually removed “problem children” from the classroom.

Back in the 1970s special classes proliferated; it was not always easy to push for mainstreaming. I remember there was one mother in a Dawn Start programme who said she was going to get me a t-shirt which said “If it moves, mainstream it” … [But] it was a struggle to convince people that equity [of access to regular schooling] was an important social and moral issue. And it was a struggle to demonstrate that by adapting the curriculum and providing the right kind of resources, it’s very difficult not to justify inclusion.

There was a lot of fear about inclusion in those days. I remember an occasion where we had a little girl in the early intervention programme who not only had some form of intellectual disability but also had leukaemia, and she was beautifully included into a school in the area. A TV film crew
went out to do a documentary. They filmed this youngster in the classroom. The Teacher had her nicely included into the class programme. The crew interviewed the mother, and then some mothers of the other children. They all said this was wonderful and they thought it was a great idea.  

Everybody [said they] enjoyed her company and they thought it was good for their own kids too … I got a telephone call from the an official of a Teacher organisation who said, “What do you think you’re doing? I’ve heard that they’re filming this youngster in the school.” And he said, “That’s setting a terrible precedent for the other teachers. They might be expected to have the same thing!”

As Director for Special Education, Don promoted the involvement of parents in shaping special education’s directions.

I had said that no conference or workshop that we held that came out of the Special Education area, could go ahead if it didn’t have a group of parents there. And not just one or two. We wanted them to be in sufficient numbers that they weren’t over-awed or out-gunned by the professionals.

From one such workshop came the Parent Pack, an informative manual written about special education services by parents and for parents. It went to a second printing and was extremely well received.

In 1985 Don was the recipient of a Fulbright Scholarship. On his return to New Zealand he found himself immersed in 18 months of extensive consultations that would result in the draft Special Education Review. The draft review never went any further than a draft because the Minister accepted it and said that’s what I want. We submitted it for overseas evaluation. We gave it to Jack Bardon and Maynard Reynolds, who both wrote back saying that it was far-sighted, innovative and ahead of its time. It didn’t go as far as we would today but it was a major step to mainstreaming and toward inclusion.

Following the Picot report in 1988 Tomorrow’s Schools took education, including special education, in a different direction, and in 1989 the Special Education Service (SES) was set up as an independent corporate organisation funded largely by government contracts.

Don’s reaction to this:

I was unhappy about what was going to happen to special education after 1989 and I wasn’t wrong. The failure to focus on schools and teachers and students in the schools, in favour of a corporate model was, in my view, a disaster... If you wanted special education to be effective, you had to take it away from the old [specialist] model. In the draft review we made it very very clear that it should be a needs based collaborative system involving parents, Teachers, Principals and Psychologists. Now Psychologists of course, as we all know, were decimated under the SES. And that was in my view, a disaster, educationally a disaster. You lost, to education in New Zealand, some of the best qualified, most experienced and most insightful people available. The [Psychologist] training programmes got lost. Those training programmes were described internationally as of high standing. It was a good programme and the model was evolving into today’s collaborative, collegial, needs-based approach.

The implementation of Tomorrow’s Schools brought a career change for Don. After a few years of working extensively in secondary school consultation and on his doctorate, he became immersed in building the new special education support service, the RTLB.

We asked how the RTLB concept came up.

If you look at the principles of the draft review, you will see them present in the RTLB guidelines. And I believe that there remained, between 1986 / 1987 and 1996 / 1997, a memory trace and some innovative work by some people in the Ministry, Merris Cochrane for one, who could see that if you wanted Special Education to be effective, you had to take it away from the old model, the specialist model.

The RTLB model was designed to provide the needs-based, collaborative system argued for in the 1987 draft Review of Special Education.

The leadership of Special Education does not need somebody with a vision, it needs people with vision … people who understand, thoroughly understand, the developing literature. And who have the determination and the strength and the will to consistently insist on moving in the direction that the research takes us.

Don is proud of the work that many RTLB do, although he acknowledges that their output can be variable. He was particularly concerned about those who had not taken up the opportunity for further training. I could take you to some RTLB who I regard as doing outstanding work and not just one or two, numbers of them. But you have to remember there’s nearly 800 of them. Some of them have never trained. Some of them have got equivalent degrees but not equivalent preparation … Every single RTLB who leaves the training programme has demonstrated that they can work to an evidence-based model. Whether they still do so has to do with leadership and professional development.

We asked about the opportunities for ongoing professional development for the RTLB service. Don pointed out that some of the research undertaken by RTLBs as part of their master’s degrees was quite outstanding. Professional development needs to be a guided development model. And it can be guided from within the profession … You have to look to those RTLB who have demonstrated a developing capacity in a scientist practitioner model. When questioned on the ERO report on RTLBs Don agreed with the recommendations, especially about management of RTLB by their local management committees. However he was not sure that the recommendations were obtained by valid and reliable methodologies.
An RTLB should be able to demonstrate that their practice is effective. The method by which they do that however doesn’t have to be a standard interview measure of a student’s progress. If the RTLB are working effectively, some of the youngsters they are working with won’t know they are the focus of the RTLB work. So asking the students about the RTLB’s work may not be valid.

An RTLB is working with a Teacher who has one or two students who are struggling with an area of work. The RTLB knows that you will not easily get a Teacher to undertake an intervention if it is focused on only one or two students which typically requires a huge amount of additional work. But you if you can work with the Teacher to engage the class in an associated activity, or even the same activity but at different levels of intensity you have a better chance of improving the situation.

That kind of approach is collegial and collaborative. It’s a problem solving model. It’s ecologically sound, it’s inclusive, and it’s a scientist practitioner model. It meets all those criteria. Why would you interview those two students? It makes no sense. What you need to do is interview the student about the outcomes [that they wanted to see happen for the referred students].

We discussed the challenges of the RTLB structure, with its multiple line control, and principals with varying special educational philosophies. Don was quick to point out that did not mean that the RTLB service should be taken over by any other organisation.

Any association between the RTLB and another group should be based on the capacity of the other group to demonstrate its expertise in an inclusive special education model, following ecological assessment principles and demonstrating a scientist practitioner approach to their work … The RTLB do not need to be taken over by anybody. What they need is effective leadership and effective professional development and people with vision and courage to ensure that the model is maintained. Working with others with a comparable approach is ideal. Unfortunately RTLB are working to a developing paradigm which is still not shared by many associated organisations.”

Don spoke on the subject of leadership. …..We no longer have a central bureaucracy. We’ve got street level bureaucrats, about 3000 of them, one in every school. What you’ve got is everybody interpreting policy. And the question is have you got agreement? [among government, public servants, managers, and practitioners] If you look to see whether or not there is a synchronisation of those things at those levels, the answer is No, there isn’t…. I don’t think it’s being unfair to say that while the Ministry is producing some excellent material and engaging in essential research on effective teaching and learning it is also producing some material which is not consistent with its own policy.

Some examples were to do with de facto categorisation: the Attention Deficit Disorder guidelines, guidelines on ‘learning styles’, programmes for ‘gifted’ children.

If you believe in an ecological approach, it is not helpful to categorise with all its inherent expectations. Far better to approach each challenge in a problem solving way. What is the current ecology in which the student is presenting the concerns, what hypothesis might you agree with the teacher, what intervention is likely to work?

We’ve always had categorisation because human beings want to categorise, but in terms of people who are, if you like, in the know, people in leadership roles should know better.

However, the Ministry seems responsive to feedback – it recently changed its reporting requirements for RTLB from an emphasis on deficit categories to account for ecological practices.

I am impressed with the way RTLB are working to enhance the capacity of Teachers to meet the needs of students with special teaching needs. We are aware that there is no special pedagogy for special education, only intensified, targeted, adapted and modified approaches to delivering the curriculum. As I work with RTLB and schools around the country I find many examples of this close interaction. More though, I see schools, and increasingly secondary schools, adopting a strategic approach to mixed ability teaching, introducing cooperative learning into the classrooms and finding ways to meet the needs of all their students. There is some way to go (as the UNESCO and other reports show) but we are on the right track. The Ministry has made clear the need for an inclusive system based upon a sound understanding of evidence based practice. I see the RTLB and other Special Educators playing a major role in advancing that goal for all students.

The future of special education will depend on who has the controlling position at the time, as to whether or not special education will continue to move toward the development of an equitable and an effective programme. You cannot regard special education in isolation from general education. All Teachers must become more effective in working with a diverse range of students, and school systems must enhance that practice. The one thing you can be certain of is that if special education is not merged into the regular education setting then it will fail to achieve the goals of equity and effectiveness. If you keep special education focused on a small percentage of your population… if you don’t allow that broader range [children who are failing] to become your focus, then special education will continue to be an appendage of the education system. Furthermore you cannot ignore mainstream education because it is into that setting that students with special teaching needs will receive their education. Unless the systems of education are consistent with the demands of the modern world, the 21st Century, the knowledge society — however you want to describe it — then we will be missing the point. We will be missing the point.
KEYWORDS:
Special education, education psychology, inclusion,
Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour.

AUTHOR PROFILES
Lesley Dunn is a Psychologist currently working in Early
Intervention and completing a PhD with Massey University.
She first met Don back in 1978 when he offered her a place
on the Educational Psychology Training programme.

Tiri Sotiri is an RTLB based in the National Park area
of the central North Island. He first met Don when he was
head of the New Zealand Psychological Association, and later
worked for him as Assistant Chief Psychologist when he was
Chief Psychologist and Director of Special Education.
Prevention through parent training: Making more of a difference

Peter Stanley
Department of Human Development and Counselling, The University of Waikato.

Lesley Stanley
Special Education Early Intervention Team, Bay of Plenty East.

ABSTRACT
Responding to serious behaviour problems requires new practice answers and emphases. Best practice principles and a developmental perspective indicate that the family should be the focus of preventative work. The Incredible Years parent training series is described as an important example of an empirically-supported programme that is presently being used in Tauranga and elsewhere in New Zealand. Impediments to prevention efforts are discussed and arguments are made regarding the relevance and significance of preventative strategies.

KEYWORDS:
Behaviour problems, prevention, early intervention, parent training, family involvement.

INTRODUCTION
Children and youth with serious behaviour problems, such as young people who are persistently disruptive, noncompliant and antisocial, represent significant challenges for health, welfare and education agencies. The sources of frustration include the complexity, intensity and the antagonistic nature of the presenting problems, the inability to access relevant support for clients, and the lack of interventions that make important and lasting differences. These issues are likely to be further compounded by a seemingly inexhaustible supply of new cases.

The Psychologists, Social Workers, Teachers and Special Educators who work with young people with problems are at the butt of social change. As the connections and coherence among social institutions such as schools, families, churches and neighbourhoods have diminished, so too has the capacity of parents to effectively monitor, protect and socialise their children (Reid & Eddy, 1997; Rich, 1999). New problem behaviours have emerged, including unprotected sex, drug abuse, violence and depression to replace the "old morbidities" of nutritional deficits and health issues (Dryfoos, 1994).

It is also likely that aggression in children is escalating and is being exhibited earlier (Campbell, 1990; Webster-Stratton, 1991). In addition, behavior problems seem more disturbing, and the outcomes appear more destructive (Walker, Zella, Close, Webber & Gresham, 1999).

PRACTICE PRINCIPLES FOR THE PRESENT AGE
Professional practice needs to acknowledge the new realities and to programme accordingly. There are some realisations that should be given special prominence in a contemporary perspective. Firstly, behaviour problems in childhood must always be given serious professional consideration. Capaldi, DeGarmo, Patterson, and Forgatch (2002) comment that it is hard to overemphasise the importance of childhood conduct issues for maladjustment in men, and the consequences are also profound for their intimate partners and for the next generation of children. The Paediatricians' old rule, that most children's issues are just passing phases, is no longer relevant in these more perilous times (Reid & Eddy, 2002).

A second guiding principle concerns the centrality of the primary caregiving relationship to child outcomes. Luthar and Zelazo (2003) conclude a review of resilience research with the assertion that the importance of supportive adults in the lives of children has been repeatedly and consistently demonstrated. Again with respect to resilience, Masten (2001) and Masten and Coatsworth (1998) say that young people who achieve competence in the midst of adversity have done nothing more, or less, than access the powerful processes of normal adaptive development, and caring prosocial parenting is a crucial context for this “ordinary magic” to occur.

The third matter is the amount of effort that is required to bring about sustained change for young people who are at risk for negative life events and outcomes. Programmes need to be powerful and direct, and to match the presenting problem (Walker et al., 1999). A continuum of behavioural supports should be available, and for school-aged children and youth, multicomponent strategies are often needed to accord with the multicausal, multiple settings and intransigent qualities of problem behaviour (Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Reid, 1993). A number of commentators argue for continuing interventions for at-risk children and families, which contrast with conventional "one shot" approaches (Dishion, Andrews, Cavanagh, & Soberman, 1996; Kazdin, 1997a; Zigler, Taussig, & Black, 1992).

Endorsement of empirically-supported programmes is another criterion for contemporary professional practice. Quite simply, all intervention options are not of equal merit and it is preferable to make choices in relation to reliable and verifiable data (Kauffman, 1999a). It is a fact that most psychological treatments for child problem behaviours have not been evaluated scientifically but there are some promising approaches to conduct difficulties. These include parent training, functional family therapy, multisystemic therapy and cognitive problem-solving skills training (Kazdin, 1997a). It has been suggested that research-based practice
is synonymous with accountability and it does not detract from the importance of individual professional skills and competence (Chambless & Ollendick, 2001; Evans, 1997). Empirically-supported programmes assist in “narrowing choices, maximizing results, and minimizing harm” (Sugai, 2003, p. 217).

The fifth and final response component is preventative strategies for serious behaviour problems in children and youth. Prevention has been described as possibly the most important lesson to be learned from the history of work with emotional and behavioural issues (Whelan, invited commentary, in Kauffman, 2001) and the writers on this subject use graphic language to emphasise its importance. Traditional responses to individuals with established behaviour problems are depicted as backloading (Forness, 2003) and a casualty-repair reaction (Cowen, Hightower, Pedro-Carroll, Work, Wyman & Haffey, 1996) to a pipeline packed with young people experiencing traumatic events and outcomes (Walker & Sprague, 2002). Without doubt, preventative approaches are the most practical way to proceed as the pyramid of numbers inevitably promises less and less to increasing numbers of children and youth who are problems to themselves and to others.

A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE
The significance of childhood problems and parenting, and the need for appropriate programmes and prevention are given substantial support by the numerous studies that have traced the development of conduct problems and antisocial behaviour. As Reid (1993) says, there has been a lot of success in mapping these behaviours from infancy to adolescence. The lifespan view is exemplified in the discipline of developmental psychopathology (Cicchetti & Cohen, 1995) and in the organisational model of development (Yates, Egeland, & Sroufe, 2003). In these approaches, both adaptive and maladaptive outcomes are the products of events, or antecedents, which build on each other and have a cumulative effect. However, the direction of development, or trajectory, is always probabilistic rather than certain, as young people can make and be affected by unanticipated choices (Sameroff, 1995).

There are strong links between early indications of antisocial behaviour and subsequent manifestations. For instance, Broidy et al., (2003), report an international cross-site analysis that includes both the Christchurch Health and Development Study and the Dunedin Multidisciplinary Health and Development Study, which shows chronic physical aggression in childhood to be a distinct predictor of violent and nonviolent delinquency in adolescence for males. Indeed, the consistencies that have been found for early indices are of such magnitude as to prompt some commentators to describe antisocial tendencies in strongly deterministic terms. Walker et al. (1999) say that an established antisocial behaviour pattern is like an immune disorder, which makes the person susceptible to other diseases, and Kazdin (1987) compares conduct disorder to diabetes, a chronic complaint to be managed rather than cured.

There are now repeated calls in the literature for research on the mechanisms and processes that take children along the pathways to competence and maladjustment (Doll & Lyon, 1998; Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000). The elucidation of these operations has obvious importance for prevention and it signals a much more sophisticated and useful approach than is afforded by the current listings of risk and protective factors. A major development with respect to conduct issues and antisocial behaviour has been the uncovering of coercive family processes as an explanatory device. This is the work of Gerald Patterson and colleagues at the Oregon Social Learning Centre, (http://www.oslc.org) and it accounts for noncompliance and consequent maladjustment in the aversive exchanges of child and caregiver. The parent makes demands of the child who responds with sufficient negativity such as whining, yelling, temper tantrums and physical attacks, for the caregiver to back down and back away. The young person’s oppositional responses, which are initially negatively reinforced by parents, are subsequently shaped and confirmed by teachers, peers, and others (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992; Reid, Patterson, & Snyder, 2002).

Kauffman (2001) observes that the homeliness of the coercion mechanism belies its importance. The significance of family processes is shown in the fact that poor parental discipline is an even better predictor of later antisocial behaviour than is an early childhood history of behavioural difficulties (Reid, 1993). The pivotal role of parenting is also apparent when the relative effects of risk factors are compared, and in this regard it is noteworthy that parents can continue to raise competent children while burdened with depression, engaging with illicit substances and living in poverty. The Oregon model hypothesises that these less direct, or distal, influences are mediated through the microsocial events that occur between children and adults (Reid & Eddy, 2002).

FAMILY-FOCUSED INTERVENTIONS
The above principles for practice when combined with the developmental perspective on antisocial behaviour, strongly suggest that the family should be the prime focus of professional efforts. For most children, the family is the first and most enduring proximal, or direct, socialising influence. As a setting, it has a special capacity to extend its protective influence into other social contexts such as the peer group and the school (Reid & Eddy, 1997). In an early statement, Gerald Patterson patently defined the power that parents possess.

Only a parent loves the child enough to go through the hundreds of trials in which the child learns when he can, or cannot, use pain control techniques. Later, his wife or his psychoanalyst may give him love and support equal to that given by his mother, but they cannot teach him at a molecular level those subtle skills that he should have learned prior to age six or seven. Parental power, relative to a preschool child, is simply overwhelming. Social workers, or friends, or therapists do not possess an equivalent means
for punishing adolescent and adult deviant behaviour. They may help the adolescent to feel better about his antisocial behaviour but they cannot stop the behaviour in the sense that a parent can (Patterson, 1982, pp. 220-221).

It is impossible to begin professional work with parents too soon. However, in practical terms, infancy, early childhood and when children begin school, are optimal times for intervention. The appeal of infancy and early childhood is that the family often has exclusive influence during these periods, although this is changing with the increasing use by parents of childcare facilities. The first year of primary school is also a good time because it is possible to make reasonably accurate predictions about the likelihood of continuing difficulties at this point while still being able to enlist the involvement and support of parents and teachers for programmes (Coie, 1996; Stanley, 2003a). Intervening at a young age avoids the additional complications and continuing distress of well-established problems. Nevertheless, family-focused work should be considered for a young person at any stage who is evidencing elevated levels of oppositional behaviour (Stanley, 2001).

Placing families at the centre of professional activities does not mean that individual child factors such as temperament and health or other social contexts, such as school and neighbourhood, are ignored. An issue with child attributes is that they are frequently both parts and products of transactional developmental processes (as exemplified by coercion in the Oregon model) and it can be difficult to distinguish them from family variables (Luthar & Zelazo, 2003). As well, we need to be wary of attributing causative status to characteristics such as anger, low self-esteem and depression in antisocial young people. These are often the concomitants and consequences of ineffectual and aversive parenting, and programmes that attempt lasting change via these aspects are inevitably destined to fail (Reid & Eddy, 2002).

Extrafamilial risk and protective factors are typically significant to professional responses for children and youth exhibiting persistent disruption, noncompliance and antisocial behaviour. An intervention that ignores these conditions can be fatally weakened but workers can also appear to have an excessively narrow purview that could effectively result in the “individualisation of social problems” (Smale et al. in Jack, 2001, p. 68). Yates et al. (2003) reflect on the multiple challenges that can exist in caregivers’ lives and conclude that “comprehensive and successful intervention efforts aimed at disadvantaged youth and their families should target the parent-child attachment relationship in the context of a family-focused, multipronged, interdisciplinary programme” (p. 256).

THE INCREDIBLE YEARS TRAINING PROGRAMMES

The Incredible Years series of parent, teacher and child group-training programmes developed by Webster-Stratton and her colleagues (e.g. Webster-Stratton & Herbert, 1994; http://www.incredibleyears.com) is an empirically-supported, family-focused intervention system that has been widely adopted by youth agencies in the US and also employed in Canada, Scandinavia, Holland and the UK (McHale, 2004), and is now being used in New Zealand in some districts by services such as Special Education (Ministry of Education, 2004). The purpose of the programmes is to prevent delinquency, drug abuse and violence. The short-term objectives of the series are to reduce conduct problems and promote social, emotional and academic abilities in children, and to facilitate parental and teacher competence. The long-range goals are to provide a cost-effective, community-based, prevention programme while also responding to young children with early onset conduct problems (Webster-Stratton, 2000).

Incredible Years is based on social learning principles and it uses a collaborative and consultative training model, which enables and empowers participants to formulate solutions to child management issues that will work for their unique family and classroom situation (Webster-Stratton, 1998). The training involves participant analysis and discussion of microsocial events that occur in relationships with children as seen on videos of adult-child interactions and experienced through role plays, group problem solving and homework activities. There are in fact three parenting programmes – Basic, Advance and Supporting Your Child’s Education – that allow for a “one shot” response or ongoing interventions. Additionally, parent training can be complemented by the child programme (known as the Dina Dinosaur Social Skills and Problem-Solving Curriculum) and/or the teacher programme, when a multi-element involvement is required.

In subject matter, the Basic Parent Training Programme covers play, praise and rewards, effective limit setting, and handling misbehaviour. This course can focus on early childhood (ages 2-7 years) or the early school age (5-12 years). For the latter group, more time is spent on problem-solving, monitoring, logical consequences and some special problems, such as lying, stealing and hitting. The Advance Parent Programme (focusing on children aged 4-10 years) reviews material from the Basic Programme and stresses the application of communication and problem-solving skills to relationships, both with adults and with children. The Supporting Your Child’s Education Programme (for ages 5-12 years) requires completion of the Basic Programme. It addresses promoting the child’s self-confidence, fostering good learning habits, dealing with discouragement, participating in children’s homework and using parent/teacher conferences to advocate for the child.

Webster-Stratton and others (Spitzer, Webster-Stratton & Hollinsworth, 1991; Webster-Stratton & Herbert, 1994) have identified the stages that parents pass through on the journey to becoming increasingly competent caregivers. Firstly, parents must acknowledge that the family has a child management issue. In the second stage, as they acquire new strategies, caregivers experience feelings of despair and hope. A period of adjustment follows as it is realised that there are no magical solutions. In phase four, or “making the shoe fit”, the training principles are adapted to individual
circumstance. In the final stage, parents begin to show effective coping and greater acceptance of the child, and they realise that they have ongoing needs to obtain support and to refresh. This analysis is of practical assistance to trainers. It also offers exciting directions for exploring the interplay between parent ideas and the process of effective therapy (Johnston, 1996).

The Incredible Years parent, teacher and child training series have been rated by the US Department of Justice as an exemplary “best practices” programme. To achieve this status, the programmes were rated by independent reviewers on the following 14 dimensions:

- theory
- fidelity of interventions
- sampling strategy and implementation
- attrition
- measures
- missing data
- data collection
- analysis
- other plausible threats to validity (excluding attrition)
- replications
- dissemination capability
- cultural and age appropriateness
- integrity
- utility.

The series has been endorsed by the American Psychological Association as a well-established intervention for conduct problems in children. Randomised control group studies have shown moderate to substantial effects on the parenting practices of socioeconomically-disadvantaged mothers with mental health problems (Baydar, Reid, & Webster-Stratton, 2003). Positive long-term effects have also been demonstrated across cultures and the programmes have proven to be of high acceptability to all groups (Reid, Webster-Stratton, & Beauchaine, 2001). A local evaluation of the parent training is now available (Lees, 2003) and further assessment is planned by the Medical School, University of Auckland (Bleckmann, personal communication, April, 2004).

The formal endorsements of the Incredible Years are complemented by parent testimonies.

For me personally I have learned that I am not the only one with a child that does not fit in. I am not the only one that has felt that the world is against me and my child. My child’s behaviour is not unique, not a result of bad parenting and not personal. I do not have the world’s most difficult child … This course provides an essential ‘tool box’ of techniques that allows both the user and recipient to better appreciate and communicate with another in a safe and healthy environment, geared for growth. It is truly a course for those who want to invest in their child and family. (Name withheld, personal communication, September 16, 2004.)

Lesley Stanley is an experienced parent trainer and involvement with the Incredible Years has shown that it is a refuelling and energising experience for professionals and, in part, this is because it promotes collegial support with the training delivered in pairs, and it is a practical response to high caseloads. The principal satisfaction, however, is in having methods that work and in being able to make more of a difference. Additionally, direct experience indicates that the programmes establish professional and parent partnerships that can be returned to when difficulties reoccur. Moreover, it has been demonstrated that community agencies can work together and engage with families who have multiple problems and cross categorical service boundaries. The next step for service providers could be to link training programmes to screening and identification procedures and to address problem behaviours systematically, as well as effectively (Stanley, Rodeka, & Laurence, 2000). Lastly, to ensure that these various benefits and possibilities continue to be available, it is essential that facilitator training is readily accessible and treatment fidelity is rigorously maintained (Webster-Stratton, n.d.).

THE PREVENTION OPTION

Preventing and delimiting behaviour problems through parent training programmes, such as the Incredible Years series, has a self-evident logic and it can be difficult to understand why it is not the foremost intervention presently in use by education, health and welfare services. However, there is a comprehensive array of philosophical and practical ploys that are remarkably effective at stymieing preventative efforts. Kauffman (1999b) has catalogued the various obstructive gambits that are used by both the public and by professionals and they include avoidances, misinterpretations, and protests. These impediments to prevention can take an escalating toll on effective casework. In a review of various interventions, Church (2003) says that the best programmes have been shown to work for seventy-five to eighty percent of preschool children, sixty-five to seventy percent of children aged 5–7, forty-five to fifty percent of children aged 8–12 and a “small fraction” of adolescents who exhibit antisocial behaviour. Furthermore, Church estimates that the monetary costs of successful interventions increases from $5,000 for a five-year-old to $60,000 for a 15-year-old.

How problem behaviours in children are conceptualised is a major complicating issue for prevention. Family-centred professional work is avowedly ecological and it tends to align with systems theory, where causality is understood in terms of “simultaneously occurring, mutually influential, and interrelated phenomena” (Henggeler, Schoenwald, Borduin, Rowland, & Cunningham, 1998, p. 11). By contrast, conventional agency approaches incline towards attributing fault to distinct and static entities, whether within the child or the environment, and categorising accordingly, such as conduct disorder and child protection. Service delivery based on these notions of discreet cause is professionally limited because it is inevitably reactive and cannot account for
positive developmental outcomes (Glantz & Sloboda, 1999). For clients it is personally limiting, because the responses are inherently pathologising and stigmatising. By contrast, dynamic and inclusive models, which are committed to competence enhancement, more readily acknowledge and respect what clients bring to the helping process.

The idea that children and families are influenced by, and respond to, a myriad of forces is a major departure from the linear logic of categorisation and labelling. It is also a response to the charge of “family-blaming” that is sometimes levelled at parent training. Families are typically enmeshed in a host of dynamic and reciprocal associations, which cross both social settings and time, and if fault is to be found it should be in a system of relationships rather than in people. As indicated, it is the categorisation approaches that allocate blame and in the case of psychiatric diagnoses, such as Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, that can attribute the problem to the child while simultaneously absolving the parents (Read, Seymour, & Mosher, 2004). Arguably, neither blaming nor absolving, which are both judgements, should be a part of an informed and rational approach to professional work.

A second complicating matter for preventative efforts concerns the place of science in the remediation of behavioural problems. Empirically-supported programmes have been both a target and victim of postmodernism (Kauffman, 2003; Nelson, 2003; Sasso, 2003) but perhaps more significantly they may simply not be understood by important occupational groups that work with children and youth. The education profession in particular, according to Simpson (1999), readily accepts methods that are not validated or empirically based. The use by our schools of a succession of unproven drug education packages gives some support to this view (Stanley, 2003b). As well, there may be a cultural component in the aversion to packaged programmes. The Kiwi approach is do-it-yourself and to display no B fencing-wire improvisation (King, 2003), rather than be told what to do.

We should never lose sight of the enormous personal, social and economic costs associated with conduct difficulties and antisocial behaviour. For the individuals who complete the course, from early coercive exchanges to adult criminality, there awaits unemployment, failed relationships, substance abuse, institutionalisation and a "marginal existence characterised by a constant stream of crises" (Patterson et al., 1992, p.14). Each of the negative antecedents of this adult status is a significant social problem in New Zealand in its own right, and the familiar list includes child maltreatment, bullying, school failure, sexually transmitted diseases, teenage pregnancy, depression, suicide, and motor vehicle accidents.

The advent of proven parenting programmes might be likened to the discovery of antibiotics in medicine. Now there is an intervention that can reliably interrupt a maladaptive developmental trajectory and simultaneously build capacities in the caregiver and the child. Potentially, parent training is the therapeutic gift that goes on giving as the siblings of the target child benefit (Kazdin, 1997b) and the intergenerational cycle of dysfunction and disadvantage is broken. There is a marked contrast between this approach and many contemporary provisions. According to Church (2003), none of the following interventions has been shown to have long-term beneficial effects for the antisocial adolescent: probation and parole, individual counselling, group counselling, family counselling, vocational counselling, activity centres, alternative education programmes, mentoring, outdoor programmes or deterrence programmes such as boot camps and "scared straight".

In the future, and in response to new societal realities, services for young people are probably going to be increasingly integrated, consumer driven, cost conscious, and outcome oriented (Illback, 1997). The new generation of parenting programmes, including the Incredible Years, is representative of this trend while meeting injunctions for interventions to be grounded in solid theory, based on replicable empirical evidence, and referenced to the creation of best practices (Walker et al., 1999). For practitioners, these demands for accountable, relevant, and useful services may effectively translate into a journey similar to that experienced by caregivers during parent training (Spitzer et al., 1991; Webster-Stratton & Herbert, 1994). There will be phases of acknowledgement and adjustment, and other stages when programmes are individualised and emerging coping strategies are supported. The very important lesson associated with this difficult and taxing process is that it is the characteristics of the intervention, and not of the client, that determine the outcome (Webster-Stratton, 1998).

REFERENCES


PROFILE OF AUTHORS

Peter Stanley is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Human Development and Counselling at The University of Waikato in Tauranga. He is also a Registered Psychologist who was previously employed by Specialist Education Services (SES). Peter’s interest in the prevention of problem behaviours stems from experience working with students with challenging behaviour, and from previous career involvements as a Guidance Counsellor, primary and secondary school Teacher, Probation Officer and Police Constable.

Lesley Stanley is a Registered Psychologist and Lead Practitioner with the Special Education Early Intervention Team in Bay of Plenty East. In 2003, Lesley travelled to Sheffield to attend workshops for certification as a Parent Group Leader for the Incredible Years Parent Programme series and as a Child Group Leader. She has subsequently facilitated seven Basic Parent Training groups. She is also a member of the Incredible Years Guardian Group, which is an association of education, health and social service agencies in Tauranga that are offering the Webster-Stratton parent programmes. Lesley’s interest in parent training goes back to the early 1980’s when she first ran groups for caregivers seeking behaviour management strategies and support.
LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS IN AOTEAROA NEW ZEALAND (THIRD EDITION)
Deborah Fraser, Roger Moltzen, and Ken Ryba

This team of editors presents their third edition of this text which is becoming known as a resource par excellence, one that is increasingly used as a set text for many undergraduate and graduate papers, but which is also accessible and eminently useable for seasoned practitioners. This edition reflects even more strongly than the past two the paradigm changes in special education in New Zealand towards collaborative multi-disciplinary teams working together to find solutions for young people to enjoy inclusive educational experiences with their peers. It is, as the editors explain, a work of substantial achievement not only due to the fact that there are now 25 writers many of whom have worked in collaborative teams to produce their chapters but also because this edition focuses on enabling strategies, policies and principles for and with young people that can be readily utilised into classroom and school practices. This relevance to the practitioner is what makes this text so outstanding.

The reader is taken on a tour of history in attitudes, history and discourses in the first chapter which contextualises the following four chapters to major research bases, policies, effective teaching practices and cultural ecologies. Chapters six to nine focus on the business of collaboration and how it can be a strategy that will support the work of practitioners as they work in partnership with young people and their families to ensure that educational opportunities are equitable and inclusive.

The following chapters focus the reader more specifically into areas of educational need which may provide colleagues with useful starting points to work from in areas such as Early Intervention, students who have learning and reading problems, those with intellectual disabilities, behavioural challenges, special gifts and talents, low vision, those who are deaf and hearing impaired, those who have physical challenges and finally those students with less obvious needs, such as those of a social nature.

The organisation of the text leads to its easy use as a dipping resource for colleagues who are working with a young person and wish to have some guidance, strategies and advice to begin their intervention work for and with the young person. Substantially useful also at the end of each chapter is a list of resources, many internet links, further reading lists and a detailed listing of reference material which may further support colleagues as they work to find solutions for their particular situation.

Readers of this text will find that the editors have not attempted to force each chapter to conform to one philosophy or approach, rather they have allowed the breadth and diversity of work for and with young people with special needs to be showcased. This provide us with a text that will have enduring usefulness for the diversity of collaborative teams that are working with them on a daily basis. To quote the invited guest Ian Evans in the foreword, "slowly but surely special education is finding its one voice and direction in Aotearoa / New Zealand" and it is through such collaborative illuminating texts that this rich history and progress will continue. I am sure you will enjoy dipping into this feast of knowledge and hope as much as I did.

REVIEWER PROFILE:
Cath Steeghs
Cath Steeghs is a Resource Teacher of Learning and Behaviour based in the Fairfield Cluster, Hamilton. She is also a founding member of the Kairaranga editorial team.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL DATA
Title: Learners with Special Needs in Aotearoa New Zealand
Editors: Deborah Fraser, Roger Moltzen and Ken Ryba
Publishing Date: April 2005
Publisher: Thomson Dunmore Press, 102 Dodds Street, Victoria, Australia
ISBN Number: 0-17-01274-43

THE CULTURAL SELF-REVIEW:
PROVIDING CULTURALLY EFFECTIVE, INCLUSIVE EDUCATION FOR MÄORI LEARNERS.
Jill Bevan-Brown

If capability and specialisation in education are to play any meaningful role in the structure and operation of teaching and learning, these roles must meet acceptable professional standards. This book is the ideal medium towards achieving such standards. Jill Bevan-Brown’s The cultural self-review provides a structure and process that teachers from early childhood centres through to secondary schools can use to explore how well they cater for Mäori learners, including those with special needs.
Drawing from some of the content of a six-year PhD research programme, Bevan-Brown adopts a methodical style – a style suitable for a book intended to be a user-friendly resource for an educational community that values the significance of culture. Chapter one outlines the influence of culture in general, and in special education in particular. Not content to leave the matter there in a passive state, she signals why and how provision must be made to provide for cultural diversity, and offers a three-step stairway to cross-cultural competence. The metaphor of this stairway draws its power from its simplicity. It is about understanding one’s own culture first, about the influence of the Pākehā culture on the New Zealand education system second, and third, about recognising the necessity to increase one’s knowledge of the cultural background of the learners one teaches. It is proposed that when these three factors have been seriously considered, then “your understanding of how this influences them, and your ability to use this information to provide an education that is relevant, meaningful, affirming, and effective for the learners from all cultures” will take shape.

Following the explanation of the stairway to cross-cultural competence, Bevan-Brown goes on to describe in chapter two, the development of the cultural self-review. This chapter outlines the process involved, the approach taken, and the issues raised. Chapter three outlines the structure, process, and products. In these chapters the reader encounters a number of graphics. At first glance these might appear somewhat overwhelming, but in fact they are the engine-room of the cultural self-review’s operation. These chapters outline the framework which provides a set of key items for analysing programme components including; environment, personnel, policy, processes, content, resources, assessment, and administration. Chapter four considers what a completed cultural input framework would look like, and an exemplar, compiled from the strategies identified in the research, is offered. This is a compelling constellation of culturally effective strategies that sit beneath a common set of principles.

This is a text that, in a non-intrusive yet persuasive way, serves as a reminder to educators that the effects of diversity will not go away. If things become more acute when Māori students are served, then so be it! Daily we deal with challenges. We have moved on from the one-size-fits-all paradigm. We are in a new place – one where culture is key. This book offers superb ideas that are up to the task of providing significant benefits to all students, teachers, whānau, and community.

Dr Bevan-Brown’s book is, as ever, clear, concise, accurate and readable. It is all here, a view and review by a senior academic in this field. He whakamiharo te mahi a te kaituhi nei. Ngā mihi nui.

**REVIEWER PROFILE**
Angus Hikairo Macfarlane affiliates to the Te Arawa waka. He is a senior lecturer at the University of Waikato where he coordinates cultural psychology papers in the Master of Special Education programme.

**BIBLIOGRAPHICAL DATA**

**Title:** The Cultural Self-Review: Providing Culturally Effective, Inclusive, Education for Māori Learners

**Author:** Jill Bevan-Brown

**Publishing Date:** 2003

**Publisher:** New Zealand Council of Educational Research: Wellington

**ISBN Number:** 1-877239
Subscription

When paying by cheque, ensure your name, school and cluster are clearly stated. Accounting services seldom supply any details.

Name(s) of RTLB subscribing under this remittance:

Name(s) of school(s) to be invoiced for this subscription:

Address(es) of Schools to be invoiced:

Ph:  Fax:  Email:

Number of copies required per issue:

Amount to be paid: $   ($15.00 per issue or $25.00 for both issues in 2005)

N.B. Kairaranga does not have a GST number.
All payments to: Kairaranga, PO Box 12383, Hamilton.
GUIDELINES FOR PAPERS SUBMITTED TO KAIRARANGA

- Kairaranga considers the following education related papers as written documents:
  
  **Practice Papers** - Papers celebrating effective practice and implementation of programmes. (Up to 2,500 words).
  
  **Position Papers** - Papers outlining a writer’s view on a current educational issue. (Up to 2,000 words).
  
  **Research** - Papers summarising research studies involving quantitative and / or qualitative analysis of data, or reviews of the literature. (Up to 3,500 words).
  
  **Storied Experience** - Papers reporting the experiences of children, parents, caregivers, teachers, support staff and professionals in various learning settings. (Up to 1,500 words).
  
- *If you have the kernel of an idea that doesn’t quite fit the above please email kairaranga.journal@minedu.govt.nz and you will be connected with one of our editorial team who will support you on your road to publication.*

- An abstract of not more than 150 words should be submitted along with each article.

- Articles sent as hard copy should be on numbered, separate and single sided sheets, with double line spacing. Articles can also be emailed to kairaranga.journal@minedu.govt.nz. Figures or graphs should be sent separately as tiffs, eps or jpeg files, as well as being embedded in the text of a word processing document. A disk or email version should be saved in Microsoft Word with the filename extension .doc.

- Authenticity of articles will be the responsibility of the submitting author.

- Minor abridgement of articles will be at the discretion of the Editor. If time allows, authors will be contacted before the publication of edited articles.

- Kairaranga will retain copyright of all articles published.

- Articles submitted to Kairaranga should not have been published with exactly the same format or content elsewhere.

- Authors are asked to submit a 50 word personal profile of themselves, their organisation, and / or other affiliations for reader interest.

- Kairaranga is a peer reviewed journal. For further information on the peer review process email kairaranga.journal@minedu.govt.nz

GUIDELINES FOR REVIEWS OF TEXTS, RESOURCES AND PROGRAMMES

- Reviewers are asked to submit a 50 word profile of themselves, providing their professional details and affiliations at the end of the review. This information may also be submitted as part of the review.

- Reviewers will take responsibility for the appropriate and correct use of people, places, companies, publishers, etc.

- Reviews will become the property of Kairaranga.

- Reviews will reach the Kairaranga address by the date published on the letter of invitation.

- Abridgement of the review will be at the discretion of the Editorial Board.

- We are looking to explore many varied and potentially contradictory views on issues relating to educational practice which may be included within the texts, resources or programmes. This should result in views being expressed that do not necessarily reflect the opinions of the Editorial Board.

Submissions for Volume 6, Issue 2, 2005

**Deadline:** May 30th, 2005

**Send to:** kairaranga.journal@minedu.govt.nz
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Editorial, Editorial Board and contact details</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A snapshot of organisational provisions for Māori children and youth with special needs – Jill Bevan-Brown</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research paper 3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Ministry of Education, industry and community partnership strategy  – Alison Sutherland</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice paper 11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What happened on 18 September 2004 Life after the introduction of the Health Practitioners Competence Assurance Act (HPCCA), 2003 – Maggie Roe-Shaw</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice Paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A case study of students’ perceptions of goal setting as a tool for learning – Helga Grant</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research paper 22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting to the heart of the matter: Examining the efficacy of a whole-school approach to behaviour management – Bridget Scott</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research paper 29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortening the tail: A critical look at the prompts New Zealand Teachers use in teaching reading – Margaret Coogan</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice paper 35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An interview with Don Brown – Lesley Dunn and Tīri Sotiri</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention through parent training: Making more of a difference – Peter Stanley and Lesley Stanley</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kairaranga Book reviews</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kairaranga Submission and Subscription information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>