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The artwork on the cover is by Ainsley Boen, a Year 5 student at Greenhithe Primary School. Ainsley was born in New Zealand and then lived overseas before shifting to Auckland in 2012. Art has always been a constant in her life; she also loves reading, baking and spending time with friends. She painted this flower for her mum after taking an art class where they learned to ‘fill the page with colour’.

Greenhithe School is on Auckland’s North Shore and has a current roll of 520 students. Their school motto is ‘Learn to Grow’, and Ainsley’s flower represents this well.
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Editorial

Welcome to the first edition of Kairaranga for 2015. At the time of going to press, members of parliament were about to debate the second reading of the Harmful Digital Communications Bill that will make it an offence to send messages or post material to cause harm. This offence will be punishable by up to two years in jail or a $2,000 fine. Schools, parents and young people themselves have long grappled with the harmful effects of cyberbullying, and this potential legislation may be welcomed. However, as Karla Sanders from Sticks’n’Stones (a New Zealand anti-cyberbullying project) points out, it may not be appropriate to criminalise people as young as 14 for actions that they may not fully understand the consequences of (Stuff, 2015). There is no doubt, however, that the issue of cyberbullying must be addressed. As the authors of an article in this edition of Kairaranga point out, cyberbullying is linked to a range of serious adverse outcomes, and growing numbers of our young people are experiencing this form of abuse.

We begin this edition of Kairaranga with an interview with Associate Professor Jill Bevan-Brown who retired from Massey University at the end of 2015. Associate Professor Bevan-Brown has had a long and distinguished career in inclusive and Māori education, and in this interview she shares with Paul Mitchell her passion for the field, her early influences, and the things that have driven her work over the years.

In the second article, Tegan Lynch, Vanessa Green, Chris Bowden and Susan Harcourt report on a study examining parents’ perspectives of cyberbullying. This is followed by an opinion piece where John Grant discusses the issue of tertiary education for adults with intellectual disabilities. The fourth article by Carolyn White and Alison Kearney presents findings from a small New Zealand study into the impact of school stand-downs. This article overviews the use of stand-downs in New Zealand schools and explores alternatives to this practice. Next, Dorothy Howie provides an overview of the Feuerstein Approach, and describes her work in this area. The sixth article by Vicki Morkel and Tara McLaughlin discusses social and emotional competence, and its importance in young children’s development. They explore strategies that teachers can use to promote the development of social and emotional competence. Finally, Gayathri Prabhakar Pillai explores the literature on the Te Kotahitanga programme with an emphasis on the Effective Teaching Profile.

Finally, with sadness, we say goodbye to Jo Cunningham a Kairaranga editorial board member who passed away after a courageous period of time battling illness. Jo made a significant contribution to this journal and to the wider education community, and she will be very sadly missed. We send our heart-felt sympathies to her friends, colleagues and family.

Nga mihi nui
Alison Kearney
for the Kairaranga Editorial Team


Kairaranga

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Interviewing Jill Bevan-Brown was a pleasant and interesting way to spend a Sunday afternoon. I started by asking Jill what she has been doing recently and was delighted to hear she had launched a book during the past week. Jill told me she had started the book in 1989 and because she simply didn’t have the time, she would have still been writing it for the next ten years if she hadn’t brought others on board to write their contributions too. In the latter half of 2013 Jill contacted five other Māori women academics, Doctors Mere Berryman, Huhana Hickey, Sonja Macfarlane, Kirsten Smiler and Tai Walker to assist with the writing. Including Jill, the authors represented five different universities and were each able to share their particular expertise through the book. This book, Teaching Māori Children with Special Needs – He Mahi Whakahirihia, has its foreword written by Linda Tuhiwai Smith, Professor of Māori at the University of Waikato, and is published by NZCER. Jill says the strength of the book is its shared authorship and the fact that it is based on research studies that included over one thousand Māori with special needs and their whānau.

Jill officially retired in December 2014 to support her husband who has Lewy Body Dementia, but is still working with her PhD students and teaching a short course on ASD associated with the Post Graduate Diploma in Specialist Teaching. Jill has just handed over to Dr James Graham the role of co-ordinator for Māori, Pasifika and Multi-Ethnic input into the qualification. Jill was working in tandem with Sonja Macfarlane in this role; Jill the Massey co-ordinator and Sonja for Canterbury University.

Jill’s career in education formally started when she went to teachers college, aged sixteen. There wasn’t the same ease of choice of occupations then for women, it was pretty much nurse or teacher and she says she drifted into teaching. Later in teaching Jill became interested in children with special needs as a natural flow-on of her early lessons in social justice. ‘My father was an All Black who wasn’t allowed to go to South Africa’.

Jill remembers her father, Vince Bevan, not being able to go on the tour because he was Māori and also remembers being indignant because her family was proud of being Māori so she couldn’t understand what was happening. This unfairness, combined with her Catholic upbringing that focused on service before self, and family and friends who had struggled in the education system were all influences that led Jill to special education and helping those in need, and noticing and taking action where she saw issues of social justice.

Who Jill is and who and where she came from saw her being asked to be in a debating team in 1969 in her first year at Wellington Teachers’ College. Asked because she was Vince Bevan’s daughter, with the moot of the debate being about apartheid.

Jill always knew that she should help make people’s lives better.

After Teachers College, Jill taught in Titahi Bay and Porirua in Wellington before doing the big OE for three years. Amongst other experiences she lived on a Kibbutz in Israel and taught in London. On her return home, Jill became a Guidance and Learning Unit Teacher (GLU), at the beginning of the GLU initiative, for the intermediates in Porirua, Titahi Bay and Tawa in Wellington.

Later, Jill had four children, in the middle of which she moved to Otaki and got a job at the Otaki Health Camp. Her whakapapa is to Otaki. While at Health
Camp the one year specialist teaching diploma came up at Palmerston North College of Education and Jill took a year off Health Camp to do this. Jill never returned to Health Camp because she took over the Māori papers and special education papers at PNCE which later merged with Massey University. She did her PhD when she worked at Massey University. Jill went on to develop the Bachelor of Education in Special Education and teaching. This was her main job up until the Post Graduate Diploma in Special Teaching was introduced.

Over this time, Jill was also actively engaged in over 20 different research and evaluation projects including studies of Māori perspectives of giftedness, intellectual disability, Autism Spectrum Disorder and vision impairment. A highlight of these various studies was talking to, and working with, hundreds of Māori children with special needs, their parents and whānau. This included gifted children, who, from a Māori perspective, are considered to have special needs. Jill stated that she has been “blown away by the dedication and resilience of many parents of children with special needs who work tirelessly for their children often against great odds, ignorance and prejudice”. In 2007 she joined forces with two such parents, Bernie Wastney and Gayle Te Kooro-Baker to form the PAI4ASD Charitable Trust which produced the DVD “In My Shoes”. To date, twenty two thousand free copies of this DVD have been distributed on request to people and schools throughout New Zealand and overseas. Jill says she has been inspired by people in all areas of her work. ‘I have been blessed to work with committed, knowledgeable people and have learnt such a lot from them. Mainly women, some men’.

In retirement Jill will still be reading and keeping up to date. ‘You don’t stop thinking when you retire. There’s plenty more to learn and do’. Jill likes Mahatma Gandhi’s take on life, ‘Yes, but that was last week, I’ve learnt a lot since then’. Knowledge grows, and along with this, beliefs and opinions can change.

Jill concluded our interview by telling me, ‘What I have achieved so far in my life has been because of my family and the wonderful relationships I have with people who have supported me and enabled me to do things that I couldn’t have done by myself. This is the message – we are very aware of the importance now of the relationships teachers have with children. We can only be optimally effective if we have a good relationship with children. Children will bend over backwards for people who genuinely show care for them. We need to ensure that we show the same care in relationships we have with the adults we work with. Learning about each other increases the chance that people can work, support and help each other, through the trust that is built. Strong relationships in a group make for a stronger group. It’s not just making us more effective with students but with people generally’.

In caring for her husband, Jill is positive about the opportunity this brings to her to celebrate all of the dimensions of this man that Lewy Body Dementia cannot change, and her commitment to him and studying the most effective supports that can be put in place for people with this condition will no doubt provide research and insights for future generations.

Biography: Jill Bevan-Brown PhD

Jill Bevan-Brown is a descendent of the Ngāti Raukawa, Ngāti Wehiwehi, Ngai te Rangi & Ngāti Awa ki Waikanae tribes of Aotearoa/New Zealand. She recently retired as an Associate Professor at the Institute of Education at Massey University where she had worked since 1990. In her long and distinguished career, Associate Professor Bevan-Brown has produced numerous books, journal articles and other quality-assured publications and directed research and professional development projects. She has delivered keynote addresses nationally and internationally and has been the recipient of awards and accolades. In 2012, she received the Inaugural Te Manu Kotuku Award presented by GiftEdnz in recognition of her outstanding service and contribution to the education and development of gifted and talented children and young people in Aotearoa New Zealand and in 2013, the NZARE Te Tohu Pae Tawhiti an award for Māori researchers who have made a contribution to education research that is both outstanding and long-standing.

INTERVIEWER PROFILE

Paul Mitchell

Paul Mitchell is the cluster manager for Resource Teacher: Learning & Behaviour (RTLB) Cluster 16 based at Nawton School in Hamilton, and has worked since 1982 as a mainstream class teacher, principal, special education advisor for MOE, and an RTLB. When not working, Paul enjoys time sailing in the Hauraki Gulf, and assisting the Hamilton Operatic Society, of which he is President.

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An editorial board member recently passed away after a courageous period of time battling illness. We remember her contribution to this journal and to the wider education sector in her work as an educational psychologist and a mentor to those entering the profession. Jo was on the editorial board of *Kairaranga: Weaving educational threads. Weaving educational practice* - a professional practice journal for teachers, specialist teachers and those working within inclusive education. She supported those contributing to the journal, including taking on the editorial role for Volume 8(2) in 2007.

One of the many characteristics of Jo was her quiet but determined ability to influence across many groups within education. Her generous, insightful and down-to-earth manner meant she connected well with diverse individuals and groups. Always with the learner in mind, Jo helped others to develop their professional skills in supporting young people. She was generous with her time, and used her many networks and skills to support those across the wider educational community.

Jo was also the first Educational Psychology Practice Advisor appointed by Victoria University for their new educational psychology programme in 2012. She left a legacy in terms of establishing their contemporary EdPsych Test Library and providing support to the first cohort of interns. One of the graduates recently noted that ‘Jo was a great teacher and mentor. My year group are fortunate to have been able to learn from such an experienced practitioner’.

We are reprinting the obituary written for the NZPsS e-circular Connections.

**OBITUARY JOANNE CUNNINGHAM**

We are sad to advise members of New Zealand Psychological Society (NZPsS) of the untimely passing of Joanne Cunningham, a valued friend and colleague to many psychologists in Wellington and across the country. She had been unwell for some time but true to her modest style remained more concerned for others than for herself. Many psychologists will remain extremely grateful for the sound and thoughtful advice which she provided for them, often in a personally difficult time. She was also very forthright about issues facing practitioners and in defending their independent professionalism.

Jo qualified as a psychologist in 1983 when she gained her M.A. (Applied) in Psychology from Victoria University. She subsequently worked as a psychologist in the Ministry of Education for about 30 years, covering a wide range of developmental, academic and behavioural issues for pupils aged 5 to 18 within a multidisciplinary team before joining the faculty of Victoria University to establish supervision and casework arrangements for interns, and teaching and designing a lecture series. Above all Jo was a skilled psychologist, an enthusiastic mentor to her younger and less experienced colleagues and was also a loyal servant to the Society and the profession.

Jo was a member of the Wellington Family Courts Association from 1984 -1997 and on the executive of the Psychological Service Association (which represented Dept of Education Psychologists from 1982 to 1991). She was a long-standing member of the NZ Educational Institute and heavily-involved with negotiating pay and conditions in post ‘Tomorrows Schools’ transition. Jo received training for the Board’s Complaints Assessment
Committee in 2004 and chaired several committees under the HPCA legislation from this time. From 2004 to 2007 Jo was a co-opted member of the New Zealand Psychologists Board Supervision Review Panel. She joined the editorial board of the RTLB Journal *Kairaranga* when it was managed by the Ministry of Education. Jo also founded ‘HAGS’, a group supervision team of private senior Clinical and Educational Psychologists within the Wellington area.

Jo had been a member of NZPsS since 1980 and was on the Executive of the Society for 7 years. She became Secretary/Treasurer of Women’s Division of the Society. She was the Treasurer for the Wellington Branch of NZPsS from 1995-1998 and coordinator of the educational subcommittee. She was heavily-involved in setting up and contributing to the Society’s ‘Supervision 2000’ (‘Option D’ supervision-to-registration) scheme which ran until about 2006 and directly supervised five ‘Interns’ within the Ministry of Education. She was the Director of Professional Affairs for the NZPsS from 2005 to 2012, and acted as Convenor of the Ethical Issues Committee over the same period.

As well as being a very committed practitioner, Jo was an unfailingly kind, thoughtful and a deeply-respected colleague. In her typically understated manner, she had a very long reach and influence on psychology within Aotearoa/New Zealand and accordingly, this year, she was elected as a Fellow of the Society. We will all honour and mourn her passing.

*Quentin Abraham and Peter Coleman*
ABSTRACT

Cyberbullying is a significant issue among young people both in New Zealand and internationally. To develop effective and unified prevention and intervention strategies, it is important to understand the perspectives of all parties. However, there is currently limited research on parents’ perspectives of cyberbullying. This applied research project has analysed parents’ responses to their child being cyberbullied. An anonymous, online questionnaire yielded responses to seven questions from ten participants. These qualitative responses were analysed thematically to produce overarching themes that reflect the experiences of parents whose children have been cyberbullied. The ten participants’ responses revealed that parents have a range of emotional reactions and take a variety of actions in response to their child being cyberbullied. They also feel that multiple parties are responsible for intervening in cyberbullying. Limitations, future directions, and implications for successful home-school partnerships are discussed.

Keywords: Cyberbullying, parents experiences, qualitative research

INTRODUCTION

Bullying is a widespread issue which has been linked to a variety of adverse outcomes for children and young people, such as depression and suicide ideation (Turner, Exum, Brame & Holt, 2013). One recent cross-national study of 1,378 adolescents reported that 32.7 percent of male and 36.4 percent of female participants had been cyberbullied (Hinduja & Patchin, 2007). Moreover, bullying may have negative effects on both the victim and the bully. That is, bullies have been shown to be at greater risk of being engaged in other adverse behaviours and activities, such as substance abuse and delinquency (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

Cyberbullying is commonly defined as “an aggressive, intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact, repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself” (Smith & Slonje, 2010, p. 249). This can include cellphone bullying, picture/video clip sharing, intimidation, harassment, embarrassment, or exclusion through the use of technology. Beale and Hall (2007) argue that the development of recent technology has influenced cyberbullying as perpetrators are able to ‘hide behind the screen’. As such, accountability for bullying, identification of bullies, and risk of punishment are all diminished.

For cyberbullying in particular, the reach of bullies’ actions is unrestricted: it can occur across contexts, in any location and at any time. That is, it can occur beyond the school and within the home (Beale & Hall, 2007). As such, teachers report confusion over the responsibility of dealing with cyberbullying related to the location in which cyberbullying occurs (Green, Harcourt, Mattioni & Prior, 2013). Teachers report that, since the bullying often occurs both in school and at home, the responsibility of dealing with cyberbullying should be shared across these environments. It is currently unclear whom parents see as responsible for dealing with cyberbullying: this could differ from the view of teachers. Consequently, this confusion may be a barrier to effective prevention and intervention of cyberbullying situations.

As the location of cyberbullying can vary, and many parties may be involved, it is important to explore wider perspectives and responses to cyberbullying situations. Effective prevention and intervention strategies require a multi-systemic approach that involves families, schools, and the wider community working together (Olweus, 1993). However, before this collaborative approach can happen, all parties need to understand the views and perspectives of each other. Dehue, Bolman and Völlink (2008) identified that most research on cyberbullying that does include the adult perspective has focused on the teacher’s views. As such, there is currently limited
research on parents’ perspectives of cyberbullying and they have only recently been researched in relation to traditional bullying (Sawyer, Mishna, Pepler, & Wiener, 2011).

Sawyer et al. (2011) conducted in-depth interviews with 20 parents whose children had disclosed experiencing traditional bullying. This qualitative research found significant variation in participants’ definition of bullying, how they identified bullying behaviours, and what parents suggested to their children to try to overcome the bullying. During the study, some of the parents had been previously unaware that their child had been bullied. Their reactions included feeling “very surprised” that their child was bullied and some parents described “not being surprised” because they viewed bullying as an unavoidable part of growing up. Parents also described their children’s reaction to being bullied. These included school avoidance, psychological effects, and emotional responses. One limitation of this study was that some parents found out about the bullying while they participated. Therefore, this study was unable to provide information about what they did next, or where they turned for support or intervention. Furthermore, no incidences of cyberbullying were discussed. Sawyer et al. (2011) further explained the importance of the parent’s perspectives of bullying as their views can greatly affect their response to bullying situations and the subsequent effectiveness of their response.

Another recent qualitative study exploring parents’ experiences, in relation to traditional bullying, only included parents who were aware that their child had been bullied. In this study, Harcourt (2013) found that parents experienced a range of emotional responses to their children’s bullying – both negative (e.g. distress) and positive (e.g. increased resiliency). Harcourt discussed parents’ views on the responses, both positive and negative, and the responsibility of schools. This study did not contain the perspectives of parents whose children have experienced cyberbullying. The current study addresses this by specifically focusing on the parents of children who have experienced cyberbullying. Moreover, Harcourt also recognised the need for future research to focus on understanding parents’ use of strategies and the sources of information and advice that parents utilise in responding to bullying situations. The current study addresses this and identifies the action parents take when supporting their child through cyberbullying situations.

Several studies on cyberbullying that include the parents’ perspective have used quantitative research methods. One such study by Dehue et al. (2008), using a questionnaire, found that parents reported lower levels of children engaging in cyberbullying (4.8 percent) than children reported (17.3 percent). Parents also reported lower levels of children being cyberbullied (11.8 percent) than children reported (22.9 percent). That is, Dehue et al. (2008) found that parents underestimated the extent to which their children were being cyberbullied and/or were cyberbullying others. There is a distinct lack of similar qualitative research: such that, a recent systematic review looking at qualitative research from parents’ perspectives in all forms of bullying found 13 studies, of which only two specified cyberbullying (Harcourt, Jasperse & Green, 2014). The first of these studies, Cassidy, Brown and Jackson (2012), used a qualitative questionnaire to examine parents’ knowledge of social networking, their experiences with and level of concern about cyberbullying, and ideas for cyberbullying prevention. The second study identified by Harcourt et al. investigated perceptions of cyberbullying in three Hawai’i middle schools using a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews with three parents (Mark, 2009). However, it was not clear if the children of these parents had personally experienced cyberbullying.

One overarching conclusion from these two studies is that parents appeared to be less concerned about cyberbullying than children (Cassidy et al., 2012; Mark, 2009). However, this could be because they were not as aware of cyberbullying, and thought of it as less serious than children and young people did (Cassidy et al., 2012; Mark, 2009). This is further supported by the evidence of parental underestimation found by Dehue et al. (2008). Furthermore, while parents viewed the school as having a role in the prevention of cyberbullying (Cassidy et al., 2012), there was also confusion over the differing responsibilities of parents and schools concerning the prevention of, and intervention in, cyberbullying situations (Mark, 2009). Overall, these conclusions illustrate the need for further research with parents whose children have been cyberbullied, so as to describe their personal experiences and identify their views on the responsibility for intervention.

This review has identified an opportunity to contribute to the existing literature by addressing the current research gaps. These research gaps include a lack of qualitative research from the perspective of parents whose children have been cyberbullied, the action these parents take, where they turn for support, and who they see as responsible for intervening. The current study sought to answer three main research questions. The three research questions were:
1. How do parents personally and emotionally respond to their child being cyberbullied?
2. What actions do parents take and what support do they utilise in response to their child being cyberbullied?
3. Who do parents see as responsible for intervening in cyberbullying situations?

METHOD

Ethical clearance and informed consent

Ethical clearance was gained for this research from the Human Ethics Committee at Victoria University of Wellington. An informed consent form was provided at the beginning of the questionnaire. Participants were required to indicate that they had read an information sheet and the consent form and were voluntarily participating before they could proceed to the questionnaire.

Questionnaire development

The current study utilised a qualitative research method in the form of an online questionnaire with open-ended questions whereby parents described their experiences, feelings and responses to the cyberbullying of their children. Participating parents and caregivers were invited to respond to the anonymous questionnaire, hosted on the Qualtrics survey website. The questionnaire was adapted from that of Harcourt (2013). The questionnaire consisted primarily of open-ended, qualitative questions asking participants to describe their response to their child being cyberbullied. The questionnaire also included several questions regarding specific details of their child’s cyberbullying experience, and collected basic demographic information. The qualitative questions in the questionnaire were:

1. Please describe your thoughts and feelings when you first found out about the cyberbullying.
2. Please describe, in as much detail as you can, what effects the cyberbullying had on you personally, your child, and your other family members (i.e. your emotions as you went through the process of responding to the cyberbullying).
3. Please describe, in as much detail as you can, how you responded when you found out your child had been/was being cyberbullied (i.e. any action you took).
4. What were the effects of these actions on your child and the situation?
5. Did you receive any form of support or advice while dealing with the cyberbullying?
6. [If ‘yes’ was selected] please describe this support or advice.
7. [If ‘no’ was selected] what type of support or advice would you have liked?
8. Please explain who you think is responsible for intervening in cyberbullying situations and supporting those experiencing cyberbullying and their families.
9. Do you have anything else you would like to say about your experience of supporting your child during his/her experience of cyberbullying? Please share any further comments you may have, remembering that your responses will remain anonymous.

Participant recruitment

This project aimed to recruit parents or primary caregivers of a child from any age group who was currently experiencing, or had previously experienced, cyberbullying. Given that a wide range of children and young people may experience cyberbullying, the demographic characteristics of participating parents (such as age or ethnicity) were expected to vary widely; therefore, no restrictions were placed on these or other demographic characteristics during participant recruitment. As participation was anonymous, participants completing the questionnaire were asked to ensure that no identifying information be included in their responses.

Firstly, a webpage was created for this project at cyberbullyingsurvey.com. Similar to the website used in Harcourt (2013), this website provided potential participants with general information about the project, described what participating in the study would involve, and introduced the student researcher, project supervisors, and provided contact details. It displayed links to websites where parents could find resources and support for dealing with cyberbullying. Finally, it provided a link to the questionnaire on the Qualtrics website. The advantage of this webpage was that potential participants may have found it easier to go to the webpage address than typing the complex details of the Qualtrics website link.

Secondly, recruitment notices advertising the project and the webpage address were distributed in one New Zealand city. Paper copies of the notices were placed in public locations where parents may have seen them. In addition, national parenting support groups and organisations (e.g. Skylight Trust) were contacted with a request to post the notices on their websites, social media pages and newsletters. Lastly, following on from media interest in prior bullying research at Victoria University of Wellington, two local newspapers were contacted about the research
and two subsequent articles were released. These articles could also be accessed online and therefore nationally. Harcourt (2013) recognised the success of recruitment through social networking; that is, 81 percent of participants stated that they had heard about the study through email or Facebook. Additionally, this recruitment method has been detailed by O’Connor, Jackson, Goldsmith and Skirton (2014) who evaluated the social networking site Twitter as a means of getting participants for online health research. They established that Twitter was an effective means of recruitment which enabled researchers to engage with difficult-to-reach populations while also providing anonymity, accessibility and convenience. Therefore, the researcher of the current study advertised the project throughout her social media networks (i.e. Twitter and Facebook), encouraging participants to forward the link on to interested parents.

Data analysis
The analysis developed themes that were linked to, and driven by, the data with no predetermined coding scheme that data were required to fit (Braun & Clark, 2006). This study performed a thematic analysis using the steps outlined in Braun and Clark (2006). These six steps were:

1. Familiarising yourself with your data. This included reading and re-reading the data, noting down any initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes. This involved coding features of the entire data set and ordering data into relevant codes.
3. Searching for themes. After ordering data into codes, the codes were collated into potential themes.
4. Reviewing themes. This involved checking if the themes worked in relation to individual codes and the entire data set.
5. Defining and naming themes. This involved ongoing analysis to refine the themes, overall analysis, and developing clear names and definitions for themes.
6. Producing the report. Lastly, the researcher selected extracts from the data that related to the research questions and existing literature, and used these to produce a scholarly report of the analysis.

Data was refined through re-reading to develop a comprehensive coding scheme; meanwhile, any errors were identified and corrected before being incorporated into the analysis. Dependability of data was checked through a co-author to ensure that codes, themes and overall analysis were consistent and valid. This process resulted in 100 percent agreement.

RESULTS

Participants
During the twelve-week data collection, a total of 11 surveys were completed. One response was excluded as it did not meet the definition of cyberbullying. This left a total of ten responses to be analysed in this study. Of the nine participants that indicated their age, the mean age of respondents was 44.8 years. Nine out of 10 participants were women; all nine were the mother of the child they discussed. The remaining participant was a male and the father of the child they discussed. Four participants indicated they heard about the research through Facebook, four through their child’s school, one through a newspaper article about the research, and one via word-of-mouth. All participants indicated that they lived in New Zealand at the time of the cyberbullying.

Participants’ children ranged in age from 11-17 years. The mean age of participants’ children when the cyberbullying began was 13.6 years, with a standard deviation of 1.9 years. Six participants specified that the child they discussed was female, and four were male. Seven out of 10 participants indicated the bullying had been going on for zero to one month before they found out. Nine participants identified that their child knew the cyberbully; one participant’s child was unsure of who the cyberbully was.

Main findings
Parents responded to incidents of cyberbullying in three main ways: their initial reactions focused on addressing the hurt their child had experienced, they then took action and finally, they reflected on, and tried to engage with, those who they thought should take responsibility. The findings from this study are ordered into three major themes that reflect these responses. The themes and categories will then be discussed in relation to theory and research on cyberbullying and linked back to the research questions.

THEME 1: UNABLE TO UNDO THE DAMAGE
Parents described different personal and emotional responses to their child being cyberbullied. Most initial reactions involved a negative emotional response to the perceived trauma and damage their child had experienced. These initial reactions also involved feelings of empathy towards their child and reflection on the meaning of the event in relation to parenting identity, skills and needs. Many parents described cyberbullying and the accompanying responses as contributing to family and/or marital stress. The resounding message was that parents felt
“hopelessness in being able to undo the damage done” to them, their child, and their family.

a) Emotional reactions toward the event/s
Parents described experiencing powerful emotional responses to their child being cyberbullied. Five parents described feeling angry about what happened. One parent described feeling “upset, angry, [and] determined to bring the bully to justice”. This reaction and desire to confront the bullies was echoed in the responses of other parents: “My husband was angry and wanted to confront the bullies”. Three parents also reported experiencing feelings of hopelessness that were related to their inability to prevent the event and the subsequent suffering. One parent said: “There weren’t many thoughts. Just a feeling of hopelessness that a machine could enable such hurt and destruction”. However, not all parents reported feeling angry and hopeless. One parent described feeling proud that her child had felt she could approach her and had talked to her about the cyberbullying: “Fortunately my daughter showed me the text messages when she found out and I was very proud of her”. This is an example of a parent wanting to support their child through cyberbullying and wanting to be approached when it happened.

b) Empathy for their child
Seven parents described feeling sad and hurt that their child had been cyberbullied and they had empathy for their child and their child’s experiences, including a sense of loss of an ideal youth. One parent described how they had felt disappointed that the cyberbullying had tainted their child’s experience of childhood and how [he/she] “wanted him to have happy teenage years making fun memories”. Another parent was disappointed and saddened that [his/her] child had been mistreated by others: “It was heart-breaking to see a confident, lovely child who just desperately wanted to fit in with his peers be treated in this way”. One parent described having empathy for [her/his] child because of the unfairness of the cyberbullying and the impact it had on her: “My child went from being so happy to feeling like she should be killed because [she] couldn’t understand why people would target her in such an insidious way and feeling like she could do nothing and nothing would get done”.

c) Self-reflection
Parents reflected on their own identities and skills, identifying instances of harm to their own emotional and mental well-being. Five parents reported reflecting on their identity and ability as parents when their child experienced cyberbullying; this often led to a feeling of failure. One parent explained: “It makes you feel as if you have failed your child”. Another parent described how the cyberbullying had an impact on both of the parents’ mental health: “We felt completely hopeless. It is a parent’s role and instinct to protect their children. We felt we were powerless. To be honest I kind of had a breakdown which I tried very hard to hide from my daughter as I knew we had to be strong for her”.

d) Family stress
Lastly, parents described feeling unable to undo the damage that cyberbullying had inflicted upon the whole family. Seven parents reported experiencing an increase in stress, stemming from the cyberbullying, which affected the wider family. One parent wondered “Why our family?”, whilst another parent explained that the whole family was affected, and they were “subject to incorrect taunts [and] lies spread about us”. Other parents found that the cyberbullying affected the relationship between parents. One parent explained that there was “some difference between mum and dad views on how to limit the risk and cell phone access” and this was a source of stress and tension. Another parent experienced a similar tension between parents about how the situation should be best managed: “Her father just wanted to beat the living daylights out of the students involved to teach them a lesson, which causes stress in the marriage as you are having to try and diffuse the situation”. Parents also described that the incident had significantly affected family dynamics and damaged relationships: “The family dynamic has now been so thrown that one of our sons is alienated from his father as a result and now only lives with me”.

THEME 2: STAND UP, STEP IN, AND MAKE A STATEMENT
Parents described a range of actions taken to access and provide support for their child. These fell into four categories: direct action, indirect action, monitoring the situation, and supporting their child. Six parents took more than one form of action, often simultaneously, such as approaching the bully’s parent and the school around the same time. However, three parents described taking another approach when the first or subsequent approach did not stop the cyberbullying, for example, approaching the bully, and when that did not stop the
cyberbullying, approaching the police. One parent
described using multiple strategies of monitoring the
situation to gather evidence, talking to the bullies’
parents, and when those parents refused to intervene,
they then approached the school and were referred to
the police by the school. Some parents experienced
adversity in the action-taking and support-seeking
process, primarily due to other parents or the school
deciding to intervene: “I just had to stand up and
step in and make a statement and stand by my son
and my stance”.

a) Direct action (e.g. approaching the bully or their
parents directly)

Three parents described standing up and stepping
in to take a direct form of action when they found
out about the cyberbullying. These approaches
included contacting the bully or the bully’s
parents directly i.e. “I contacted the bully myself
and asked them questions around the bullying”. These
direct approaches had both positive and
negative reactions from the bully and/or their
parents. One parent explained: “The time I
phoned other parents was successful”, while
another parent’s experience was less successful:
I telephoned the parent of one of the main
bullies and asked if he could get his daughter to
remove comments as they were very damaging.
He said he would get back to me and phoned
the next morning to explain that he would not
get his daughter to remove comments as she
was entitled to express her opinion.

Furthermore, this parent then contacted a parent
of another bully: “I phoned another parent who
said ‘It’s not my fault no one likes your daughter
and my daughter is not the only one’. All three of
these parents also used an indirect approach (see
Category 2b, indirect action) in addition to the
direct action.

b) Indirect action (e.g. notifying, reporting, support/
advise-seeking)

Eight parents described stepping in by taking
some form of indirect action to address the
cyberbullying: three of these parents also used
direct approaches. Indirect approaches included
notifying, reporting, and seeking advice. Parents
reported contacting the school their child and
the bully attended to make a complaint, to
encourage them to take action, or to get support.
Three parents also contacted the police. One
parent stated: “I notified the police immediately”.
Another parent described contacting the police
when the cyberbullying became an ongoing issue:
“When it didn’t stop and would occur every now
and then, I took it to the police”. One parent
described being referred on to the police by the
school. These three parents’ overall responses
suggest they were satisfied with the police
response to the situation.

Five parents explained that they had difficulty
when they approached their child’s school, with
the school rejecting responsibility to intervene.
Two parents described some initial hesitation from
the school, but they stood by their stance and
then experienced a change in the situation and an
improved outcome for their child afterward. One
parent said:
We gathered evidence and took it to the
school, which is where the bullying began
which then flowed into cyberbullying, with
very explicit threats of violence. Initially, the
principal tried to say it flowed the other way,
but eventually took it seriously and the school
environment has become safer as a result.

Another parent found that the school was
unwilling or unable to take action: “We went to
the school and the school said their hands were
tied as the cyberbullying occurred outside of the
school grounds. The school, however, advised us
to go the police”.

Overall, parents described mixed responses from
their children’s schools regarding the school’s
responsibility to intervene. One parent described
how “the school put a support programme in
place including a series of workshops to bolster
the self-esteem of targets/victims to make them
more bully-proof which is a really positive
outcome”. Other parents found that schools often
failed to walk the talk: “The school tried to be
supportive but in the end it was all talk”. Some
parents felt the school was more concerned
about the bullies than the victims: “In my view
the school wilfully supported and protected
the perpetrators of the bullying”. One parent
described that “the school were a bit wary of
getting involved”, while another explained the
ineffectiveness of their school’s response and
support for their child: “They tried to support him
but it never really went away”.

c) Monitoring the situation

Two parents described monitoring their child and
the cyberbullying situation with a view of staying
updated, gathering evidence to take to the school
and police, and protecting their child from further
cyberbullying. One parent described it as:
At first I would check [the website/s] every day to see what they had written about her, secretly, as we tried to ban our daughter from accessing these sites. I became obsessed with it and my husband really tried to discourage me from reading it. Some of it I saved and printed and took to the police.

This particular situation also shows the use of indirect action and the occurrence of family stress illustrating the complex nature of cyberbullying intervention and multiple-strategy use by parents. Another parent explained that they “immediately changed phone number and she was only to give the number out to close friends”.

d) Supporting their child

Four parents described stepping in to support their child while they experienced cyberbullying. Support mainly involved talking and accessing professional people who could help. Three parents took their child to counselling. One parent described talking with [his/her] child: “I talked to her about it and I also got her older sister to talk to her about it”. Another parent described being supported by an in-school mediator; the “mediator spoke to both me and my daughter and made sure my daughter felt safe again at school without these girls being nasty to her. My daughter knew she could go to any of the teachers for support”.

Four parents indicated they did not receive any form of support or advice while dealing with the cyberbullying. The first parent indicated that there was no support they would have liked as the incident was minor in scale. The second parent thought that support or advice would not help the situation and the only thing that would help was if the bullies were punished. The third parent wanted strategies to help their child deal with the cyberbullying directly. Lastly, the fourth parent wanted more intervention and victim-support from their school.

THEME 3: THE MORE PEOPLE WHO STAND UP AND SAY SOMETHING ABOUT IT, THE BETTER IT WILL BE FOR EVERYONE

Parents identified a number of people they thought were responsible for intervening in cyberbullying situations and who should support the victims of cyberbullying and their families. Parents identified that schools, parents of both the victims and the bully, and peers had a responsibility to intervene. Overall, parents recognised that many parties were responsible for intervening and some suggested that intervention needed to come from multiple areas in order to be effective. As one parent put it, “The more people who stand up and say something about it, the better it will be for everyone”.

a) School responsibility

Three parents felt that the main responsibility for intervening in cyberbullying fell to schools if the cyberbullying occurred in school time. One of these three parents explained that they thought there should be “greater support and genuine support from schools if it is happening during school hours”. Another reiterated that the best place to intervene is at “school if occurring in school time”. Three other parents thought a more collaborative approach would help: “I think whoever sees cyberbullying going on any social media or through phones should do something about it”. Another parent agreed: “If it comes from the school, then that is the place to address it, with the support and involvement of parents”. One parent explained: “The school is ‘in loco parentis’ and is 100 percent responsible for bullying perpetrated by pupils against other pupils, whether the bullying takes the form of cyberbullying or another form”.

b) Parental responsibility

Two parents reported that the parents of the bully were responsible and had a duty to stand up and say something about it to stop cyberbullying. One parent questioned the role of parents to guide their children’s moral and ethical development: “Obviously the parents are accountable. Are they not teaching or raising their children with morals and ethics?” Another parent suggested that “a great part [of the responsibility] should be on the parents of the kids doing the cyberbullying”.

Four parents suggested that the responsibility to intervene instead falls on the parents and families of the victim of cyberbullying. However, they recognised that “kids don’t always want to tell their parents what is going on” but that “families need to be aware of it, that it is happening in their home”.

c) Peer responsibility

Three parents said that there should be a greater peer/bystander responsibility to intervene in cyberbullying and to offer support to victims. One parent found that peers and friends were not always in a position to intervene: “Good friends would not stand up for her as they feared they would become a target”. Another parent’s child experienced re-victimisation after they intervened in the cyberbullying situation and this was an “embarrassment for [their] daughter as the
whole school found out about it” and she was subsequently “further hassled as she had brought it out in the open”. Another parent found that attempts to intervene could inflame the situation and make it worse: “Nothing seemed to stop these kids and it seemed to escalate with more kids jumping on the band wagon”.

DISCUSSION

This study has analysed the experiences of ten parents whose children have been cyberbullied. Parents described their emotional responses, what actions they took, where they turned for support, and specified who they saw as responsible for intervening in cyberbullying situations. The findings of this study are similar to previous literature in that parents of bullying victims experienced a range of emotional responses. The current study and the existing literature, when juxtaposed, show some similarities between parents’ responses to traditional forms of bullying and cyberbullying. Harcourt (2013) found that parents of bullied children experienced a range of emotional responses to their child’s bullying – both negative (e.g. distress) and positive (e.g. increased resiliency) and this study also found negative (e.g. hopelessness) and positive (e.g. being proud of their child) emotional responses. Parents also described feeling sad and hurt, and that the cyberbullying had tainted their child’s experience of the happy teenage years they had hoped for their child. Some parents reported feelings of failure in their parenting ability as they felt unable to protect their child. Furthermore, most parents reported stress in the wider family.

Harcourt (2013) found that the strategies parents take when their child experiences traditional bullying included supporting the child, seeking support, and approaching the school and the bully. The current study found that parents of children who are cyberbullied take similar action, that is, they also approached the school, the bully, and supported their child themselves. Parents in this study often took more than one form of action simultaneously, but sometimes this was when their first action failed to resolve the problem. Parents faced a variety of issues when trying to take action against cyberbullying. Most surprising were the responses given to one parent when she approached the parents of the cyberbullies. The parent of one of the cyberbullies explained that her daughter (the perpetrator) was entitled to express her opinion even though this was hurtful to the victim. This situation implies that some parents may believe that it is okay for their child to bully others, as this is their way of expressing their opinion. Future research could clarify parents’ responses to their child cyberbullying others.

In the current study, parents identified a number of people they thought were responsible for intervening in cyberbullying situations and who should support the victims of cyberbullying and their families. Based on these responses, some parents agreed that everyone is responsible and others saw the school as responsible – but only if cyberbullying occurs on school grounds. Looking at traditional forms of bullying, Brown, Aalsma and Ott (2013) found that 10 out of 11 parents interviewed experienced ongoing opposition from their child’s school to fully-address the bullying situation they were facing. Brown et al. (2013) further suggest that parents felt there was uncertainty over the school’s role and which procedures they should follow when reporting and intervening in cases of bullying. The current study reiterates these findings for cyberbullying contexts and recognises that the lack of clarity around responsibility is impacting unified and effective intervention and support for children, young people, and their families.

Limitations and directions for future research

One main limitation of this study is the relatively small sample size (n = 10). One possible reason for this limitation is that parents may not be aware that their child is experiencing cyberbullying. Juvenen and Gross (2008) found that 90 percent of youth surveyed reported that they did not tell an adult about cyberbullying. Two main reasons that participants provided as to why they did not tell an adult were that they believed they needed to learn to deal with it themselves (50 percent) and they did not want their internet access limited (31 percent). Furthermore, Mishna, Saini and Solomon (2009) reiterate this finding that the main reason for nondisclosure of cyberbullying was a fear of loss of technology privileges. Mishna et al. (2009) go on to explain that other reasons for not telling an adult included a desire to be independent and a fear of exacerbating the cyberbullying.

As all parents specified that their child’s cyberbullying occurred in New Zealand, future research could incorporate how people from different locations may experience cyberbullying situations. For example, the perspectives of parents from different cultures, religions, and locations could differ as school regulations, cultural customs, and government legislation vary. In addition, this could include diverse parenting dynamics such as single-parent, father-only, families. As the current study had only one participating father, and the remaining nine participants were the mother of the child they discussed, the father’s perspective in responding to cyberbullying remains relatively under-researched.
It is currently unclear if the experiences of fathers would differ regarding their emotional responses, action-taking, support-seeking, or views on responsibility of intervention.

Additionally, future research could examine what the ideal process for parents would be. That is, how they would like cyberbullying situations to be handled by schools and what type of prevention and intervention strategies their family would actually use. There remains confusion over the responsibility of schools to intervene in cyberbullying situations when they occur off school grounds. This confusion is not only from teacher’s perspectives, as illustrated in Green et al. (2013) but this study suggests that parents are also divided in their views. Future research should endeavour to clarify these issues of responsibility to generate a consistent understanding for schools and families in addressing cyberbullying, both on and off school grounds.

Enhancing the home-school partnership

This study illustrates the varied and unclear response parents may receive when they approach their child’s school about cyberbullying. To clarify these responses and enhance relationships in the future, a successful home-school partnership should be established. Home-school partnerships have been defined as being collaborative and mutually respectful, they respond to community needs, they are goal-oriented, and overall, they involve two-way communication between parents and schools (Bull, Brooking & Campbell, 2008). Specifically, an enhanced home-school partnership enables parents and educators to deal with bullying from an ecological perspective (Jordan & Austin, 2012). This collaborative partnership could enhance communication and collaboration for all forms of bullying, not only cyberbullying.

Some studies suggest that, not only are parents divided in the responsibility of schools to intervene in cyberbullying situations, but so too are teachers. Green et al. (2013) found that 92 percent of participating teachers and principals agreed that teachers should help students deal with cyberbullying within the school but only 61 percent agreed that the same should apply for cyberbullying outside of the school. This indicates disagreement among school personnel around the responsibility of dealing with cyberbullying. However, schools are required to abide by the National Administrative Guidelines (NAG). Specifically, NAG 5 requires that every school’s Board of Trustees provides a safe physical and emotional environment for students.

Furthermore, anti-bullying policies are reviewed by the Education Review Office through Board Assurance Statements completed by a school’s Board of Trustees before a review (Education Review Office, 2014), and during a school’s review (Education Review Office, 2011). In addition, within the Board Assurance Statement, the Board of Trustees is asked if there is an internet safety policy in place for students and staff.

Most recently, the Bullying Prevention Advisory Group (BPAG) (2014) have released a new document to inform schools on prevention and response to bullying. Section 17.1 of this document states:

“To be effective, all aspects of bullying prevention and response should be integrated within the context of school safety and cyberbullying should not be dealt with in isolation from other forms of bullying. Boards of Trustees have responsibility for cybersafety under NAG 5 and establishing and maintaining a ‘cybersafe’ learning environment” (BPAG, 2014, p. 34).

In addition, Section 19.4 explains:

“There are no hard and fast rules about the extent of schools’ responsibility for bullying that occurs off school premises. However, where bullying outside school is reported to school staff, it should be investigated and acted on. Schools that respond to bullying no matter where in their community the bullying occurs will respond to all bullying behaviour reported by students” (BPAG, 2014, p. 42).

This document also identifies that, in accordance with NAG 5, all schools should have a policy that defines bullying, indicates how it will be addressed, and that this policy will include cyberbullying. The inclusion of cyberbullying in this document, and particularly the recognition that bullying that occurs outside of school should be acted on, is a promising development for New Zealand. While this progression is encouraging, it is yet to be seen if there will be a significant impact on the prevention and intervention of cyberbullying experienced by young people and their families.

Another recent development in New Zealand is the Harmful Digital Communications Bill (2014). This bill, currently waiting its second reading, would mean that posting a harmful digital communication intending to cause harm to someone, or to incite someone to commit suicide, would become punishable offences.

Another area of partnership for schools could be with the New Zealand Police. Three of the ten participating parents specified having approached the police about their child’s cyberbullying experiences. These three parents’ overall responses suggest they were satisfied with the police response to the situation...
and that the police had been able to act where the school could not, or would not; however, very little detail was provided. One way the school-police relationship has worked well is through Kia Kaha, a whole-school approach to bullying prevention developed by the New Zealand Police (Raskauskas, 2007). Further clarification may be needed in the police-school relationship about if, when, and how cyberbullying is referred to the police so that all families are consistently given the support they need to stop cyberbullying.

The current study further demonstrates the need for a cohesive and consistent stance against all forms of bullying. Such a position could be enhanced through further training to specifically address all forms of bullying. One such example of a consistent stance against all forms of bullying, using a whole-school programme with a nation-wide uptake, is the KiVa programme in Finland. Recent Finnish law reforms included an innovative and powerful amendment requiring education providers to plan and implement a programme against violence, bullying, and harassment (Salmivalli, Kärnä & Poskiparta, 2011). Since this reform, the KiVa programme has been developed for schools providing comprehensive education to children that emphasises bystander behaviour, empathy, self-efficacy, and support to victims rather than bullies. Additionally, the KiVa programme includes guidelines for teachers to use if severe bullying cases do occur (Kärnä et al., 2013). The outcomes for KiVa schools include lower levels of self-reported bullying and victimisation, peer-reported victimisation, and positive effects on bystander behaviour (Kärnä et al., 2011). Additionally, some studies have also found significant reductions in cyberbullying for KiVa intervention schools (Salmivalli et al., 2011; Williford et al., 2013).

The current study shows that some victims of cyberbullying were re-victimised when their parent/s tried to take action or seek support, with multiple parents identifying that, as people found out, more bullying occurred. This illustrates the need for discretion and confidential support systems to be implemented where victims of cyber- and other types of bullying are able to seek help without the risk of being bullied further. This could also be improved through bystander support, such as in the KiVa programme which contains effective strategies that aim to utilise bystanders as ‘defenders’ (Salmivalli & Poskiparta, 2012).

Parents in this study identified accessing support, intervention, and advice through their child’s school, the bully and their family, and the police; however, there are a number of other sources of support that may be useful. One such source of information is the NetSafe (2009) website. NetSafe (2009) is a New Zealand-run website which provides information to parents, as well as young people and teachers, about bullying prevention, awareness, and support. For schools, NetSafe offers ‘The NetSafe Kit’ (NetSafe, n.d.) that schools may utilise to address student safety online, as well as to enhance overall digital citizenship. Included in this kit are templates to assist schools in developing digital citizenship policies, and staff and students responsible use agreements. Within a successful home-school partnership, as well as addressing cyberbullying, this could also be an appropriate channel to develop digital literacy for the whole family, whereby schools and families develop mutual expectations of use, safety and consequences for improper use of technology.

Another implication for parents is that it is important to recognise that victims of cyberbullying may not report that they are being bullied. One reason for this, as identified by Juvonen and Gross (2008) and Mishna et al. (2009), is because young people do not want their access to technology removed. As such, an open dialogue about online safety and an emphasis on tackling the issue, not punishing the victim, may enhance cyberbullying disclosure to adults. Furthermore, it is also important to recognise that being a cybervictim is not mutually-exclusive from being a cyberbully. Wang, Iannotti and Nansel (2009) surveyed 7,182 young people in Grades 6-10 and found that 13.6 percent were involved in cyberbullying. Interestingly, of this 13.6 percent who were involved, 27.4 percent were bullies, 40 percent were victims, and 32.6 percent were both bullies and victims of cyberbullying. Overall, parents of all young people could benefit from an open dialogue about online safety, bullying and promoting ‘cyber kindness’ (Cassidy et al., 2012).

**CONCLUSION**

This study has examined parents’ experiences of supporting their child through cyberbullying. This study contributes to a developing body of literature that analyses the experiences of many perspectives in both bullying and cyberbullying. Participants reported experiencing a wide range of emotional responses and using a wide range of strategies in response to their child being cyberbullied. Responses were varied over who had the responsibility to intervene in cyberbullying. The findings from this study intend to reflect on the experiences and perspectives of parents as a way to enhance a collaborative and ecological approach to cyberbullying prevention and intervention.
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Weaving educational threads. Weaving educational practice.
ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the issue of tertiary education for adults with intellectual disabilities. It argues there is a dearth of such opportunities, particularly within the mainstream tertiary education system and this limits employment opportunities and social inclusion for adults with intellectual disabilities. This is not consistent with the explicit and implicit commitments from government to tertiary education opportunities for this learner population in both disability and education policy. Therefore, specialist disability support providers and mainstream education providers must work in partnership with employers in order to create more appropriate, inclusive tertiary learning opportunities that will lead to more employment outcomes and ensure greater levels of social inclusion. Moreover, having a range of tertiary education opportunities would not only help to increase employment outcomes in a quantitative sense but would open up a wider range of employment areas.

Keywords: Employment, intellectual disabilities, opportunity, tertiary education

INTRODUCTION

This paper will argue that the lack of meaningful and inclusive tertiary education (higher education) opportunities for adults with intellectual disabilities is a significant issue with rather serious consequences, including a lack of employment opportunities and social isolation. To begin, there will be a brief glimpse into the limited tertiary education options available for adult learners with intellectual disabilities in Christchurch, New Zealand. It will include the experiences of SkillWise with respect to the teaching and learning curriculum offered, and includes examples of collaboration involving a tertiary education provider.

Education and disability policy will be examined in order to illustrate the apparent commitment from government to ensure inclusive tertiary education opportunities for this learner population. There will be a particular focus on the link between education and employment as expressed in key policy documents.

Finally, some thoughts on how to begin addressing this issue are offered, the essence of which relates to establishing partnerships between mainstream tertiary education providers, specialist disability support agencies and employers. The role each stakeholder plays will be discussed to illustrate the distinctive elements, and what could be achieved when these stakeholders work collaboratively.

Examples from the Current Tertiary Environment

It would appear there are very few meaningful opportunities within the mainstream tertiary education system in Christchurch for adults with intellectual disabilities. However, both Hagley Community College and Christchurch Polytechnic Institute of Technology (CPIT) have acknowledged this issue to some degree, and offer dedicated courses for adult learners with intellectual disabilities. However, it would appear there are very few learners with intellectual disabilities participating in the mainstream curriculum.

In the case of CPIT, the Certificate in Work Skills is offered. This course enables learners to develop skills in literacy and numeracy, and enhance work skills, work readiness, independence skills and enhance personal development (see http://www.cpit.ac.nz). The course modules include: Getting Along at Work; Introduction to Work Options; Money Skills; Planning for Work; Safety at Work; Time Management for Work; Work Presentation, and Work Communication Skills. The aim of CPIT Certificate in Work Skills is

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1 SkillWise is a non-governmental organisation providing training and support for adults with an intellectual disability in Christchurch. All information pertaining to SkillWise has been used with permission from the Board of Trustees.

2 For the purposes of this paper "tertiary education" is defined as the stage of learning following the completion of a secondary education and as such could include institutions such as polytechnics, industry training organisations, community colleges and universities. The term is synonymous with reference to "higher education" in international literature.
to ensure the learner is exposed to a wide range of generic work skills and knowledge, and thus provided with a learning opportunity that may lead into a wide range of paid work opportunities.

The CPIT Certificate in Work Skills is delivered in such a way as to recognise the achievement of people who require some support with their learning, either through additional resources, specialised equipment or adapted teaching programmes. The programme emphasises the development of potential and fulfillment of personal goals. People gain general skills that will assist in the workforce as well as some skills specific to individual work aspirations. There is a limited work experience component to the course. This course is exclusively for learners with an intellectual disability.

An example of what can be achieved when a tertiary education provider and a specialist disability provider work collaboratively is illustrated in the working relationship between SkillWise and Hagley Community College. From 2005-2008, SkillWise worked in partnership with, Hagley Community College in the provision of a literacy and numeracy course. This involved teaching basic literacy and numeracy skills through practical everyday exercises and helped to equip people with some of the skills necessary for meaningful social interaction. For the most part, Hagley provided the specialist teaching staff and SkillWise provided the specialist support staff. After 2008, the situation evolved whereby SkillWise supports learners more in the background due to the ability of Hagley to provide the specialist disability support component. However, as with CPIT, this course is segregated from the main curriculum.

**Government Policy**

For over ten years, government disability policy in New Zealand has demonstrated a commitment to inclusion and the empowerment of people with disabilities (Grant, 2008). *Pathways to Inclusion* (Ministry of Social Development, 2001), which builds on aspects of the *New Zealand Disability Strategy* (Minister for Disability Issues, 2001), sets out a framework for improving the quality of services that assist people to participate in their communities.

The *New Zealand Disability Strategy* (Minister for Disability Issues, 2001) represents a long-term strategy for changing New Zealand from a disabling to an inclusive society. The strategy has the vision of a society that highly values the lives and continually enhances full participation of disabled people. This document sets out some very clear objectives designed to facilitate increased participation in the wider community. Central to this is supporting lifestyle choices, education, recreation and culture for people with disabilities. The *New Zealand Disability Strategy* is also concerned with providing some direction in the creation of opportunities in employment and economic development for people with disabilities.

Recent tertiary education policy has indicated a commitment to providing targeted services which create an inclusive environment for diverse individuals, including students with disabilities (Office of the Minister for Tertiary Education, 2007). Furthermore, the strategy articulates the need to raise the skills and knowledge of the current and future workforce to meet both labour market demand and social needs. One of the most pressing social issues affecting adults with intellectual disabilities is that of social isolation. A more inclusive tertiary education system would provide opportunities to assist in overcoming these barriers, as well as providing a more streamlined pathway into employment.

It is important also to consider the obligations the New Zealand government has made with the ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2007). This is a significant international agreement that ensures the rights, dignity and respect of disabled people is acknowledged by government, support agencies and society in general. The purpose of the convention is to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities. In doing so, the convention interweaves political, civil, economic, social and cultural rights throughout the 50 articles.

Article 24 of the convention sets out a clear direction with respect to tertiary education. This is captured in the following statement:

> States Parties shall ensure that persons with disabilities are able to access general tertiary education, vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others. To this end, States Parties shall ensure that reasonable accommodation is provided to persons with disabilities.

Whilst there appears to be a commitment to training and education for adults with intellectual disabilities within current government policy, there is little evidence of targeted strategies to implement these policies.

However, one recent initiative, *Enabling Good Lives* (Minister for Disability Issues, 2011) is intended to go some way in the further implementation of the
core elements contained within the New Zealand Disability Strategy and The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. This pilot project is intended to effect significant change within both the government funding and contracting environment, together with the service provider sector. Enabling Good Lives is an initiative led by the Office for Disability Issues, and premised on the notion of “everyday life in everyday places” for disabled New Zealanders. This initiative is underpinned by a set of core principles, including self-determination, ordinary life outcomes, community building, whole of life, and mainstream as the default, and will guide the development of the implementation plan. Unfortunately, this pilot does not extend to systemic change within the tertiary education sector in order to create more tertiary learning opportunities for adults with an intellectual disability.

The Need for Tertiary Education and the Role of Experiential Based Learning

The need for meaningful tertiary education opportunities for adult learners with intellectual disabilities is fairly well-acknowledged in international literature. However, only a small number of studies report full inclusion at post-secondary level (Brown, 2010). This includes a range of options including colleges, technical institutes and universities. For example, Hart, Zimbrick and Parker (2005) comment that a national survey in the United States provided a description of 25 programmes for students with intellectual disabilities on university campuses across the US, however only eight were described as fully-inclusive. One inclusive example would appear to be the Province of Alberta in Canada, where 13 universities, colleges and technical institutes were offering learning opportunities for adults with intellectual disabilities in 2006 (Hughson & Uditsky, 2007).

There have also been small-scale initiatives in Australia which have focused on the inclusion of learners with an intellectual disability within a university environment (O’Rourke, 2011). Whilst there are positive outcomes associated with these inclusion programmes, it would appear one of the challenges inherent in this process is the inclusion of learners into a system that is not set up to readily accommodate the learner requirements and learning methods of this student population (O’Rourke, 2011).

Indeed, such programmes challenge the traditional function of universities which has been providing higher education for the intellectually-elite. For the education experience to be meaningful and have value for the learner, it is important these systemic issues are addressed. It does also raise the question of whether or not universities are the most appropriate place to include learners with an intellectual disability on a wide scale, given the focus of learning typically involves basic communication, social and employment-related skills.

Brown (2010) lists a number of reasons why tertiary education for people with intellectual and developmental disabilities is important:

- people now live and grow up in the community (not in institutions)
- people require further education to reach their potential
- tertiary education needs to take into account variable learning abilities and skills and provide opportunities for individual choices
- adult life requires people to learn different and additional skills to function effectively in the adult world (p. 2).

Experiential-based learning plays an important role in ensuring meaningful and effective teaching and learning opportunities for learners with an intellectual disability. Andresen, Boud and Cohen (2001) outline a number of defining characteristics associated with experiential-based learning, all of which apply to some degree or other to the learning process of adult learners with intellectual disabilities. This includes ensuring the involvement of the whole person - that is intellect, feelings and senses. Active use of the learners’ relevant life and learning experiences as a mechanism to maximise understanding is another key component. Continued reflection upon earlier experiences is important in terms of being able to add to and transform learning into deeper understanding, and apply learning in different ways within different contexts. The use of structured activities including simulations, games, role play and visualisations is another key characteristic of effective experiential learning, thus providing the means by which the first step in applying the learning from previous experience can take place.

Teaching and Learning Opportunities within SkillWise

Currently, ASDAN Towards Independence and Key Steps constitute the main components of the teaching and learning curriculum. ASDAN Towards Independence is an activity-based, no-fail learning scheme where learners can achieve at their individual level. It is a personal development programme that provides a framework of activities designed to develop personal, social and work-related skills, and promote independence and social inclusion. Towards Independence covers six key areas:

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1 For more information regarding ASDAN visit www.asdan.co.nz
1. Creative Studies - this includes modules such as Performing Arts, Pottery & Ceramics, and Photography & Multimedia.

2. Cultural - this includes modules such as Current Affairs, Popular Culture, The World Around Us and Environment.

3. Independent Living Skills - this includes modules such as Meal Preparation, Money, Using Transport, and Working Towards Self-Sufficiency.

4. Leisure/Recreation/Sport - this includes modules such as Sports Studies, Water Skills, Animal Care and Yogacise.

5. Personal Development/Citizenship - this includes modules such as Knowing About Myself, Coping with People, Relationships, Self Advocacy and Out in the Community.

6. Work Related - this includes modules such as Vocational Training/Experience, Horticulture, Moving on from School, World of Work, and Work Awareness.

There are six levels of support within Towards Independence. This ranges from “no help” - where a person can do things on their own, through to “experience recorded”: where a person is provided with an experience of an activity but is unable to take part. This ensures a wide range of participants and means of collecting learner experiences and achievements.

Key Steps provides a next-step in the learning process and is more indicative of a tertiary education opportunity. Key Steps is a comprehensive programme of activities in a range of topic areas covering Citizenship, Community, Values, Health, Environmental Education, Personal Finance, Identity, Enterprise, and Internationalism. They are presented in the form of personal challenges and encourage students to develop their personal skills and take responsibility for their own learning. Students must complete 30-35 hours of challenges to achieve each certificate. Evidence of all the personal challenges completed are collated in a portfolio of evidence, along with the award book and recording documents (Action Plans, Reviews and Summaries of Skills Achievements). Completion of the Key Steps Award can count as two of the six credits needed to achieve the Bronze Award or two of the 12 credits needed to achieve the Silver/Gold Award or the Certificate of Personal Effectiveness qualification.

DISCUSSION

Clearly, there is a correlation between tertiary training and education and employment outcomes. Put simply, this relates to increasing employability through tertiary education. This idea is firmly embedded in thinking associated with career development for non-disabled people, however, it appears to be somewhat absent in respect of career development for adults with an intellectual disability.

The challenge for SkillWise learners (and adults with intellectual disabilities generally) is to find meaningful tertiary education opportunities beyond the traditional vocational training service provision environment. This environment has historically operated in somewhat segregated fashion and has not sought to establish meaningful partnerships to any great degree. Invariably, tertiary education opportunities within this context are limited.

Government Policy

Changes in thinking - reinforced through government policy including the New Zealand Disability Strategy (Minister for Disability Issues, 2001), Pathways to Inclusion (Ministry of Social Development, 2001) and The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2007) - have given impetus to redefining the way in which disabled people are supported. Community Participation, an approach to disability support developed through Pathways to Inclusion, is indicative of the paradigm shift that has seen a move away from more traditional models of support based largely on a segregated approach, towards an integrated and inclusive approach (Grant, 2008).

Enabling Good Lives (Minister for Disability Issues, 2011) will undoubtedly shape future government policy, contracting arrangements and funding systems. Moving away from bulk funding services and instead providing funding to the individual is a core component of the systems transformation advocated for in the report. In terms of disability, provider transformation Enabling Good Lives will provide for far-reaching change in the sector. Indeed, the nature and scale of change intended with this initiative has not been seen in New Zealand since the deinstitutionalisation process of the 1990s through to the early 2000s. Providers will be expected to organise services to clearly align with the guiding principles. In essence, this will require a move away from the prevailing paradigm of a somewhat segregated centre-based approach to a community-inclusive approach based on facilitation-based support.

The Role of Disability Providers

An approach to support utilising brokerage or facilitation has been gaining greater recognition over the last five to ten years (Grant, 2007). Such an approach involves supporting people to access community-based activities and opportunities,
including mainstream leisure and recreation activities, together with employment and of course tertiary education opportunities where they exist (Grant, 2007). This requires disability-support organisations to reinvent themselves in ways that embrace partnerships with organisations outside the disability sector (Grant, 2008). Ultimately, this helps people in achieving higher levels of independence (from direct support) and self-determination through such things as gaining paid employment and forming new friendships, including non-disabled people (Grant, 2007). A facilitation-based approach to support requires a significant paradigm shift in terms of how support is conceived, organised and provided. It is based on the notion of “being of service” and has the person at the centre of planning and decision-making processes.

**The Role of Tertiary Education**

Generally-speaking, tertiary learning opportunities for adults with intellectual disabilities encompass three broad areas:

- Social and adaptive skills
- Leisure and recreation
- Employment.

Social and adaptive skills constitute the most basic of education required for many adults with intellectual and development disabilities (Brown, 2010). Much of the skill-development in this area is targeted towards equipping people with skills necessary to live a meaningful life in the community. This includes, but is not limited to, personal hygiene, cooking, basic money management and developing a range of relationships (Brown, 2010).

Leisure and recreation pursuits are generally viewed as important aspects of lifestyle for people with intellectual disabilities and indeed, non-disabled people (Brown, 2010). One of the valuable advantages of such activities is that they can take place in community facilities and be of an inclusive nature (Brown, 2010). There is evidence to suggest that not only are there health benefits from participation in leisure and recreation activities but also other outcomes such as improved memory, cognitive ability and motor skills (Brown, 2010). All such activities can, and often do, involve training and education which enhances abilities, health, and social communication, thus positively influencing a wide range of human activities (motivation, self-image, friendship, travel skills, and so on) (Brown, 2010). Therefore, not only are these activities enjoyable, but they also provide a learning experience whereby transferable skills and attributes can develop.

A focus on employment-outcomes must increase in respect of training and education for adults with intellectual disabilities and one should not underestimate the cumulative effect of education. The skills and knowledge gained in training and education relating to social, adaptive and recreation skills can transfer into the employment realm. Indeed, social skills are now recognised as a key component in the successful development of employment (Brown, 2010).

In terms of courses that currently exist, almost without exception they are overly generic in nature (focusing on getting ready for work, time management, getting along at work, health and safety and so on) and too long (generally two years). Whilst the aforementioned areas are important, the primary focus must be on equipping people with the specific skills required for a range of different job areas within the labour market. Moreover, under the right circumstances, the courses may in fact assist employers to rethink and reorganise some of the roles within their companies or organisations.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

First and foremost, a greater commitment to the career development of adults with an intellectual disability requires a collaborative approach. This would involve a tertiary education provider, a specialist disability support agency, and of course, an employer - each with a distinct role. The primary aim would be to provide targeted courses to equip people with the knowledge, skills and experience to gain work within a specific job area. This would be achieved through an approach based on experiential learning principles and a work-based training model. Ideally, such a course would fit within the structure of an existing course. One of the aims should be to increase the range of employment areas beyond those typically associated with adults with an intellectual disability, for example, collecting trolleys in a supermarket.

It is important to ensure the education responsibilities reside with a mainstream education provider in the first instance as this will guarantee a more inclusive approach as per key government policy documents. The role of the tertiary education provider in the first instance would be to create opportunities, where possible, within the existing curriculum. This would inevitably involve adapting courses to embrace an experiential-based learning approach, rather than a more traditional classroom-based model. With an approach based largely on experiential learning, it is more likely that the learning outcomes will be more productive and add more value for learners with intellectual impairment. The primary reason for this is due to the learning being grounded in actual
experience and not based on having to attempt to understand largely abstract concepts.

In terms of some of the specific functions which would be the responsibility of the tertiary provider, this would incorporate all the elements of any tertiary course, including such things as providing learning resources, maintaining learning standards, and various learner administration tasks. In terms of learner resources, this would include classroom space (which may only involve one part day per week), teaching staff, and learning resources (incorporating hard copy material and electronic material). As far as maintaining learner standards and administration, this would incorporate recording learner progress and providing support where required, as well as other sundry administration.

As far as learning resources are concerned, these need to embrace 21st century technology, in particular, the use of information technology incorporating both software and hardware. From a software perspective this could incorporate a number of different visual learning resources. For example, within the context of a gardening and horticulture course there could be a range of short videos demonstrating such tasks as planting, weeding, spraying and so on. Furthermore, these videos could incorporate footage of the learners themselves. This would provide a useful resource to refer back to when the person is involved in work experience or indeed a paid role. The ideal platform for this would be an ipad or tablet device, and would be a key resource both for the course itself and on-going learning beyond the course.

The disability support provider would play an important role in several different ways. Key focal areas could incorporate assistance with relationship development, skill development, problem solving, encouragement, and ongoing support for the person when in employment. Furthermore, the disability provider could liaise between the education provider and the employer on an as-required basis, to assist the learning process and resolve issues as, and when, required. Also, support providers could assist in the development of the skills and competencies required to use an ipad or tablet device.

Clearly, the employer plays a crucial role in providing work experience and ultimately on-going paid work. The work experience component of this approach to teaching and learning forms a critical element as it would form the basis of the learning experience. Moreover, there should be a clear expectation the work experience would translate into a paid job once the course is completed if the learner achieved the required standard.

Through a collaborative approach with the education provider and the disability support provider, the employer would be well-resourced to ensure the learning and support requirements of the individual are met in a relatively seamless fashion. This, in turn, would enable the employer to focus on the work experience and thus maximise the practical learning experience.

CONCLUSION

It is time to ensure far more value is placed on tertiary education for adults with intellectual disabilities. This will assist in increasing employment outcomes and social inclusion for adults with an intellectual disability. There is clear evidence within government disability and education policy of the intent for education opportunities for disabled people to be more available and inclusive. However, in spite of the state investing significant resource in the primary and secondary education systems, there continues to be very little investment in the tertiary education sector for meaningful learning opportunities for adults with intellectual disabilities.

This paper has argued the way forward should be based around a collaborative approach involving a disability provider, a tertiary education provider, and an employer. Each of these stakeholders would play a distinct role, based on the principle of social inclusion. Ultimately, this would enhance the tertiary education experience for adults with intellectual disabilities and provide a range of learning options that would lead to increased employment outcomes.

REFERENCES


**AUTHOR PROFILE**

**John Grant**

John Grant is the General Manager at SkillWise, a non-government organisation providing a range of support and training options for adults with an intellectual disability to assist in facilitating social inclusion in a variety of ways, including through employment. He has held other roles in the disability sector including Chair of Inclusive NZ (formerly the New Zealand Federation of Vocational and Support Services), an umbrella organisation of disability providers, since 2009. He also sits on several government advisory groups including the *Enabling Good Lives* Advisory Group in Christchurch. This a demonstration trialling new ways of supporting young disabled people post-secondary school, including individualised funding. He held a part-time lecturing position at the Christchurch Polytechnic Institute of Technology, teaching disability theory, policy and support practices from 2008 until 2012, and he continues to chair the Human Services Advisory Committee. John has authored several papers looking at disability theory, policy and support practices, with a particular focus on quality of life and collaboration. He graduated from the University of Canterbury in 2002 with a Master of Arts in Sociology, having completed a thesis looking at quality of life issues for adults with an intellectual disability who had been through a deinstitutionalisation process.

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The Use of Stand-downs in New Zealand Schools: What are the Issues?
Carolyn White and Alison Kearney

ABSTRACT
In 2013, schools in New Zealand stood-down nearly 12,000 students as a result of behavioural difficulties. Research indicates that rather than improving behaviour, stand-downs can reinforce inappropriate behaviour and potentially put students at-risk. This paper overviews the use of stand-downs in New Zealand schools, discussing the nature and extent of their use. Using examples from a small case study based around two secondary school students who had recently been stood-down, the potential adverse effects and impacts of school stand-down are discussed, and arguments put forward for finding alternatives to the practice.

Keywords: Behaviour, discipline, exclusion, stand-down

Research Paper

INTRODUCTION
As part of a disciplinary process, schools within New Zealand are able to stand students down for a period of up to five days, for a maximum of ten days per school year (Ministry of Education, 2009). Students can be stood-down for reasons of gross misconduct or continual disobedience if this behaviour is a harmful or dangerous example to other students or if, because of their behaviour, it is likely that the student or other students at the school will be seriously harmed if the student is not stood-down.

Based on two small case studies around students who had been stood-down from school, this paper argues for a reconsideration of the use of school stand-downs based on research showing the far-reaching detrimental effects that excluding students from school can bring, the lack of any empirical data to indicate its effectiveness, and on the basis that school stand-downs contravene children and young people’s human rights. This paper goes on to make suggestions for more positive and appropriate responses to inappropriate behaviour as well as advice for policy makers.

Stand-downs in New Zealand Schools
The decision to stand-down a student is at the discretion of the principal, and unlike a suspension or exclusion, does not require consultation with the Board of Trustees (Ministry of Education, 2009). The legal framework for the use of stand-downs in New Zealand schools is the 1989 Education Act (Sections 13-18) and the Education (Stand-down, Suspension, Exclusion and Expulsion) Rules (Education [Stand-Down, Suspension, Exclusion and Expulsion] Rules, 1999).

In 2013, there were 15,509 stand-down cases in New Zealand schools, received by 11,934 students. Of these, 69.1 percent took place in secondary schools with only 5.9 percent of secondary schools not using stand-downs. In comparison, 58.6 percent of primary schools did not use stand-downs. Since 2000, data has shown that schools are standing down Māori students more than any other ethnic group. In 2013, the stand-down rate for Māori was 39.1 stand-downs per 1000. This figure is 1.5 times higher than the stand-down rate of Pasifika students who were stood down at a rate of 26.7 per 1000; and 2.4 times as high as the stand-down rate for European/Pakeha which was 16.3 per 1000. The lowest stand-down rate by ethnic group were Asian students, at a rate of 6.5 per 1000 in 2011. Male students consistently experience more stand-downs than female students. The 2013 data show that males were stood down at a rate 2.7 times higher than the female rate. Students as young as six were stood down in 2013, though students aged 13 to 15 were most likely to be stood down, accounting for 59.2 percent of all stand-downs (Education Counts, 2014). In examining data since 2000, the stand-down rate in New Zealand peaked in 2006 at 30 stand-downs per 1000 students, and has followed a downward trend since, now at a rate of 21.6 stand-downs per 1000 students in 2013.

1 All of New Zealand’s state and state-integrated schools have a Board of Trustees, elected by the parent community and staff members, responsible for the governance and management of the school.
When examining the type of behaviour that leads to stand-downs, physical assault on other students was the main reason for stand-downs in 2013 comprising 26 percent of all stand-downs. Continual disobedience accounted for 22.8 percent of reasons for stand-downs, and verbal assault on staff had an occurrence of 12.9 percent in the stand-down data. These three behaviours accounted for close to two-thirds of all stand-downs.

Impact and Effect of Stand-Downs

Research has shown that time spent out of class as a result of behavioural issues may exacerbate academic difficulties (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009) and alienate at-risk students who most-likely need the supports a school can offer (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Collin, 2001; Dharan, Meyer & Mincher, 2012; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009), and rather than improve student behaviour, stand-downs appear to predict future rates of misbehaviour and lead to further school stand-downs (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008).

When managing difficult behaviour, schools face competing demands. There is a primary need to ensure a safe learning environment for all learners, however the needs and potential consequences of the stand-down on the individual student exhibiting behavioural difficulties also warrants consideration (Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009). Stand-downs are often used by schools to send a message to the school community about what is acceptable behaviour (Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009), however, internationally, researchers have been pushing to ensure that stand-downs are a last resort and that actions are taken within schools to ensure that stand-downs are not used as a form of discipline (e.g. British Columbia Ministry of Education, 1999; Chin, Dowdy, Jimerson & Rime, 2012; Collin, 2001; Fenning et al., 2012; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009; Losen & Gillespie, 2012; Michail, 2012; Smith, Bicard, Bicard & Casey, 2012).

It appears that those students who arguably most-need the support of teachers and peers are the ones most-likely to experience school stand-down (Blomberg, 2003; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009) with numerous studies showing that these are often students who are already exhibiting signs that they are not managing at school (e.g. American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Collin, 2001; Dharan, Meyer & Mincher, 2012; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009). In particular, those students experiencing academic difficulties are particularly at-risk of adverse effects of school stand-down. Removing students from the learning environment results in a reduction in instruction time and may increase the academic difficulties that these students already experience (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Chin et al., 2012; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009).

As well as negative effects on academic outcomes, research has also shown that students who have been stood-down are more likely to drop out of school (Fenning et al., 2012; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009; Losen & Gillespie, 2012), engage in criminal acts and substance abuse (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009), and are at a greater risk of incarceration (Losen & Gillespie, 2012) and engaging in dangerous and harmful activities (Becroft, 2009).

The use of school stand-down as a tool to reduce undesirable behaviour, or to promote positive behaviour, lacks credible support in the literature. For example, a study from British Columbia, Canada, reported that discipline processes which served as punishment without instructional components have not been shown to decrease inappropriate behaviours (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 1999). On the contrary, rather than reducing the likelihood of future behavioural incidences, school stand-downs appear to predict further incidences of misbehaviour and stand-downs (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009).

It has also been argued that using stand-downs as a response to challenging behaviours fits within a zero-tolerance approach to challenging behaviour (Advancement Project, 2010; American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; Browne-Dianis, 2011; Efrem-Lieber & Lieber, 2010; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009; Martinez, 2009). Zero-tolerance policies can be defined as “rules with no leeway, such that certain behavioural acts lead to the automatic use of discipline strategies” (Efrem-Lieber & Lieber, 2010, p. 105). This approach aims to reduce challenging behaviours through deterrence, by sending a message to the school community that certain behaviours will not be tolerated (Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009).

This zero-tolerance stance operates on the assumption that removing students who engage in inappropriate behaviours will allow others to continue learning in a safer environment (Advancement Project, 2010) and that the certain punishments of zero-tolerance would have a deterrent effect on students (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008), thus improving both student behaviour and school discipline. The concern researchers raise with the zero-tolerance approach is that it is a one-size-
fits-all approach to addressing discipline problems in school.

Interviews with both students who have been removed from school as a result of a disciplinary process and mainstream students who have not been involved in a stand-down consider the stand-down process ineffective or even counterproductive (Centre for Social Justice, 2011; McCluskey, 2008; Knipe, Reynolds & Milner, 2007; Michail, 2012). Students report that often the time spent away from school is seen as a holiday and often students enjoy the time they spend away from school. McCluskey (2008) interviewed mainstream students about exclusionary practices at school, and reported that students perceived that teachers may consider a stand-down to work towards changing students’ behaviour, but the students in the study reported feeling that stood-down students were being punished but not helped. The students interviewed felt that stand-downs were over-used, at times inappropriately used, and perceived a lack of consistency and effectiveness with the practice.

A report compiled by the Centre for Social Justice (2011) in the United Kingdom, reported student voices on stand-downs which included: “Most kids like it”; “I slept all day until my mates got home”; “I played X-Box”; “I got bored and angry”; “Everything kicked off at home because I was around too much” (p. 135), highlighting the importance of addressing student’s behaviour rather than simply punishing them. Michail (2012) collected similar student reports in Australia, including “I reckon it’s just a little holiday, you just get to have some fun at home. They reckon you’re going to think about what happened at school but it just doesn’t happen” (p. 8).

The importance of early identification of at-risk students, provision of individual support, a focus on developing positive attitudes and social skills as well as working in partnership with parents and family have been highlighted as fundamental areas to consider when attempting to reduce students’ time outside of the class as result of behavioural difficulties (HM Inspectorate of Education, 2001). Through School-Wide Positive Behaviour (SW-PB4L), the Ministry of Education has recognised that punitive and exclusionary approaches to discipline do not bring about long-term and sustainable changes in behaviour (Ministry of Education, 2013b) and promote the philosophy of teaching rather than punishing when faced with disciplinary and behavioural difficulties.

School-wide initiatives have shown to have a positive influence on stand-down rates (Horner et al., 2004; Ministry of Education, 2013a & b). Schools working within positive behaviour support frameworks such as School-Wide Positive Behaviour for Learning (SWPB4L) in New Zealand report that when a shift from punitive to positive responses to student behaviour is made and the social climate of a school is shifted, stand-downs and suspensions are reduced (Bradshaw, Mitchell & Leaf, 2010; Skiba & Sprague, 2008). More specifically, Bradshaw et al., (2010) conducted a longitudinal study in Maryland, USA, of 37 schools over five years and reported that schools trained in school-wide positive behaviour showed a significant reduction in school stand-downs while schools that did not adopt the positive discipline philosophy showed no change in their stand-down rates over time.

Within New Zealand, the Ministry of Education’s PB4L School-Wide Indicator Report (Ministry of Education, 2013c) reports that both achievement rates in PB4L: School-Wide schools have “improved significantly” (p. 25) as have retention rates of students remaining at school until 17 years and over, and there has been a “significant decrease in stand-down rates” (p. 25) over the first two years of implementation compared to schools not implementing the framework. Research tracking the progress of PB4L: School-Wide schools between 2009 and 2011 observed an average decrease in stand-downs of 17 percent (Ministry of Education, 2013c).

A New Zealand Case Study

The next section of this paper describes a small case study of two secondary school students who had been stood-down as a result of behavioural issues (White, 2013). Both students attended a Decile 5 co-educational secondary school in a provincial city with a student population of approximately 800. The participants included two 15 Year-old year 11 students, one male (Tyson2) and one female (Destiny), who had recently been stood-down. The students involved in the study had been exhibiting on-going behavioural challenges and were selected by the principal and Year 11 dean. School behavioural data collected for each of the students was also provided by the school.

A successful application to a university Human Ethics Committee was made which ensured that all ethical principles were considered and appropriately addressed. In order to access participants for this research, the deputy principal of the school made initial contact with the students, and briefly explained

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2 Both names are pseudonyms
the research project to them. Both students consented to meeting with the researcher. When the researcher met with the students, a full explanation of the study was provided, and a consent form that had been approved by the university ethics committee was signed. The parents of both students were also contacted, and permission was sought and gained for their child’s participation in the study.

Interviews with students, family members and school staff were conducted to gather the personal voice of those involved in a stand-down process and enabled the study to gather different perspectives on the stand-down event and examine whether the risk factors cited in previous research were evident, as well as the perceived successfulness of the stand-down in changing difficult behaviour.

School interviews were conducted with both the principal and Year 11 dean of the study school. These interviews provided information on other supports that were put in place for the research students, both before and after the stand-down. The principal was also the homeroom teacher for one of the participants in the study, so his interview involved gathering perspectives of his role as leader of the school, and also as a support teacher for the student participant. In discussing his role as homeroom teacher, the principal was able to provide specific information on the participant’s behaviour in his homeroom group through the school year including attendance, engagement and behaviour. The Year 11 dean was interviewed as he had been particularly involved with the female subject’s disciplinary path throughout the school year.

In addition to interview data, the school provided the researcher with behavioural data from the school database. This included all recorded behavioural incidents for the 2013 school year. This allowed the researcher to examine school records of behaviour of concern, and show what led up to the decision by the school to stand these students down.

The study sought to address the question: In relation to two specific cases, what are the perspectives of the students, the students’ parent(s) or caregiver(s) and school personnel regarding the present stand-down process and its effects?

Data Analysis

Interview data was collated and examined to highlight common themes, and also to provide a voice to all who were involved. The participant’s interviews were transcribed and analysed for common themes. As all participants were interviewed using the same questions, the transcripts all had the same general construct, though levels of detail and additional information varied. A template was constructed to allow the information to be collated by interview subject so responses to each interview question could be compared to others reporting on the same event (see Table 1 for framework of interview questions).

Table 1

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<th>Interview Framework</th>
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<td>Questions to Students, Family and School Staff included:</td>
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<td>Participant background information</td>
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<td>Strengths of student</td>
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<tr>
<td>Things student struggles with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous trouble at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of behaviours exhibited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of interventions prior to stand-down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Details of event leading to stand-down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of stand-down on interviewee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of stand-down on student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did stand-down change student’s behaviour?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions on how to encourage student to change?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further details?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the interviews also included examining if the circumstances surrounding these case study stand-downs reflected research which indicated that when stood-down, students are more-likely to engage in dangerous or anti-social behaviours. A list was made of behaviours described in the literature review, and cross-checked with the interviews. This was particularly relevant in the student interview transcripts, when perhaps school and family were unaware of what the students were doing during the stand-down.

RESULTS

Different Perspectives of the Stand-Downs

Destiny was referred by school senior staff as a suitable candidate for the study following a number of behavioural incidents. School behavioural records indicated that she had 13 recorded behavioural incidents in the 2013 school year to date. The descriptions of behaviour included absentee concerns (2 recorded incidences), continual disobedience.
(2), unacceptable behaviour (2), failure to follow instructions (1), truancy (1), deliberate defiance (1) and abuse of staff (1). Recorded school responses to these behaviours included phone calls and letters home, meetings with parents, a restorative chat, referral to the school counsellor and a two-day stand-down. The stand-down was a response to her truancy and classified as ‘continual disobedience’.

Destiny and her mother, who was at home with her during the stand-down, reported that she slept all day while at home from school. School felt that her stand-down was an opportunity for all parties to “take a breath” (Year 11 dean); while Destiny’s mother felt that the stand-down was “bizarre” as Destiny was required to stay away from school following an incident of truancy. The dean acknowledged that he was not confident in the likelihood of a stand-down changing her behaviour, but felt that the school needed a way to show the student that the school was serious about wanting her behaviour to change.

Following her stand-down, the school removed Destiny from the classes in which she had the most behavioural difficulties, and she worked independently on high-interest subjects such as horticulture and geography in the office area. She established a good relationship with one of the teachers that used the office, and completed her independent work to fulfil the requirements to pass NCEA Level One, which the school reported exceeded expectations.

Tyson had 16 recorded behavioural incidents in the 2013 school year to the date of the research project. These incidents included uniform violations (8), unacceptable behaviour (1), absentee concern (1) and a stand-down for using synthetic marijuana. The consequences for his uniform violations were confiscation of the non-uniform clothing he was wearing, until, on his eighth violation, it was recorded that he was “defiant and arrogant”, and his family was contacted.

While stood-down, Tyson reported that he spent time with his cousin who had also been stood-down for the marijuana incident and continued doing what he describes as “dumb stuff”. They continued to smoke synthetic marijuana together, and once went to school to hang out in an area at the back of the school with their peers where students congregate to smoke. Upon their return to school following the stand-down, the boys were required to attend a meeting with the Board of Trustees, and Tyson reported that this began his journey to recovery. A number of the members of the Board of Trustees knew his family, and he said that the confrontation of his drug use “blew him away”. He acknowledged the disappointment of his family, and told the Board that he was going to quit.

Tyson had been stood-down internally previously in 2013 for a behavioural incident in class. Three students in total were internally stood-down over this incident, and these students spent a day in separate interview rooms close to the office writing an apology letter to the teacher involved and completing work given to them by the learning-support teacher. Tyson reported that he did not feel that the internal stand-down changed his behaviour, but acknowledged that he was at school working for that day rather than having the freedom such as when he had time off school.

Both the school and Tyson’s family member who was interviewed felt that his stand-down was effective in changing his behaviour. Tyson’s family member reported that he stayed home and did chores whilst stood-down, but was left unsupervised when his caregiver was at work. In contrast, when he was asked if his stand-down changed his behaviour, Tyson replied “I’m not going to lie to you ... no. Honestly, the days that I got stood-down, we just went round to our mates and just kept going (smoking synthetic marijuana). Until that meeting we had – that gave me a shock”.

Both case study students engaged in a number of perceived negative activities while stood-down. Tyson, reported to be unsupervised whilst stood-down, continued to use the drug that he was stood-down for, and went to school during his stand-down to spend time with his peers. Destiny reported that she primarily slept for the duration of her stand-down, but as her mother pointed out, she was stood-down for not attending school, which fulfilled the function of the behaviour. Previous research which highlighted factors that can be considered negative impacts of standing students down were compared to the study student’s experiences, and summarised in Table 2.
Table 2  
*Risk Analysis of Subjects’ Stand-Downs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Outcomes</th>
<th>Tyson</th>
<th>Destiny</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students unsupervised at home (Meyer &amp; Evans, 2012)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in home stress (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Meyer &amp; Evans, 2012)</td>
<td>Yes – family disappointed and worried</td>
<td>Yes – family meetings difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased academic difficulties (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Hemphill &amp; Hargreaves, 2009)</td>
<td>Unable to ascertain within study</td>
<td>Unable to ascertain within study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-social behaviour rewarded (Hemphill &amp; Hargreaves, 2009)</td>
<td>Yes – time off school with peers, engagement in recreational drug use during school time</td>
<td>Yes – school-sanctioned time off, did not have to truant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage in substance abuse while stood-down (e.g. American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Becroft, 2009; Hemphill &amp; Hargreaves, 2009)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage in crime while stood-down (e.g. American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Becroft, 2009; Hemphill &amp; Hargreaves, 2009)</td>
<td>Yes - drug use</td>
<td>None reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further incidences of behavioural difficulties following stand-down (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008)</td>
<td>Yes - Continued lateness</td>
<td>Yes - Continued attendance difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage peers to truant with them (Meyer &amp; Evans, 2012)</td>
<td>Yes – went to school during stand-down to try to get peers to join him</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage in harmful activities while stood-down (e.g. American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Becroft, 2009; Hemphill &amp; Hargreaves, 2009)</td>
<td>Yes – drug use</td>
<td>Not reported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISCUSSION**

In relation to two specific cases, what are the perspectives of the students, the students’ parent or caregiver, and school personnel regarding the present stand-down process?

Stand-downs are often used by schools to provide temporary relief following a behavioural incident (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 1999; Chin et al., 2012; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009; Ministry of Education, 2009). However, research suggests that by sending students away from the routines and supervision that school provides they are providing students, who have shown to have difficulty managing their behaviour, time-off from academic instruction and too much freedom to engage in potentially dangerous acts (e.g. American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Becroft, 2009; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009). In fact, some researchers argue that, rather than improving student behaviour, stand-downs actually function as a reward (Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009).

Both previous research and present findings do not indicate subsequent behavioural changes as a result of keeping students away from school due to behavioural difficulties. However, research does provide evidence that students engage in at-risk behaviour during stand-down periods. This present study supports research which suggests that keeping students away from school can function as a reward rather than punishment or catalyst for behavioural change. Previous studies have suggested that students are likely to engage in substance abuse, crime and other harmful activities whilst away from school (e.g. American Academy of Pediatrics, 2003; Becroft, 2009; Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009). In the present study, Tyson was stood down for using synthetic cannabis during school hours. While away from school, he continued this drug use, and spent time with the other students who were stood down for the
same offence. Supporting research that students often encourage others to be truant with them (Meyer & Evans, 2012), Tyson and his friends went to school during their stand-down, which would likely be perceived by students as flaunting that they were away from school and recreating as a result of a behavioural transgression.

Studies on student’s perspectives show that students view stand-downs to be ineffective and counter-productive (Centre for Social Justice, 2011; McCluskey, 2008; Knipe, Reynolds & Milner, 2007; Michail, 2012). The present study supports these views with comments made by both the students in the study: Destiny reported that her stand-down was just days off school, something she had sought through her truancy, while Tyson confirmed that while he was off school he was unsupervised and continued his drug use. In both cases the students clearly stated that the days off were not a punishment or a catalyst for change. In fact, their stand-downs did not reflect any negative feelings, and were likely reinforcing the negative behaviours that led to their time off school (Hemphill & Hargreaves, 2009).

From the school’s perspective, the homeroom teacher/principal reported that Tyson’s stand-down was effective in changing behaviour. However, Tyson reported that it was not the stand-down that was a catalyst for behavioural change, but the re-integration meeting upon his return to school following his stand-down that did impact on his behaviour. In the case of Destiny, an alternative to mainstream classroom learning was preferable to both her and the school staff. The successful intervention developed by the school involved her working independently on work units outside the classroom environment. Having her out of the classroom reduced pressure on her teachers, her classmates and herself, and without the distractions that the classroom environment provided, she was able to achieve academic success.

As well as social and academic arguments against the use of stand-downs there are also human rights arguments. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations General Assembly, 1989) which is legally binding to all members states (of which New Zealand is one such state) guarantees children’s specific human rights; in particular, their right to education (Article 28) and their right to have their best interests as the primary consideration in all actions and decisions concerning them (Article 3). Excluding children from schools denies them their right to access education, and research clearly shows that excluding children from school is not in their best interests.

The body of research on stand-downs indicates that there are detrimental and far-reaching negative consequences when children are excluded from school. Therefore, it appears timely for those involved in education to consider alternative and more appropriate methods of responding to inappropriate behaviour. One of these alternatives is the fostering of environments that lead to behavioural change and responses that teach students alternate and more appropriate behaviour.

Adopting a school-wide framework such as SW-PB4L to support behaviour at school has provided evidence as one way schools can implement a shift from a more punitive approach to school disciplinary issues to a more positive school climate that accepts that individuals make mistakes and teaches behaviours that schools would like to see. School-Wide PB4L looks at student behaviour in a tiered approach that emphasises prevention (Sugai & Horner, 2009). At each tier, schools put systems and practices in place that match the needs of their students. Tier 1 focuses on universal behavioural support systems across the whole school, while Tier 2 looks at more intensive interventions for students who are not responsive to primary tier interventions and require additional behavioural support. This generally includes 0-15 percent of the student population. Tier 3 looks at supporting the 0-5 percent of students who exhibit chronic, challenging and severe behaviour with individualised and intensive behavioural supports (MOE, 2012b; Sugai & Horner, 2009). This tiered system can be summarised by considering Tier 1 is for all students, Tier 2 is for some students, and Tier 3 is for a few students (MOE, 2013c).

The Ministry of Education expects it to take three to five years for a school to put the framework into place, but with the development of consistent expectations and models, research has indicated that schools report improved social climate and improved academic performance when following the school-wide programme (Horner et al., 2004; Skiba & Sprague, 2008). Researchers have also shown that schools with school-wide behaviour plans are perceived as safer environments, suggesting that systematic implementation at the whole-school level is a useful practice (Spaulding et al., 2010). In New Zealand, research shows that behaviour has improved for schools who have introduced school-wide behaviour plans which have included a school-wide ‘buy-in’ with the following characteristics: creation of clear expectations through discussions about what is appropriate behaviour, establishment

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3 Children are defined as those under the age of 18
of consistent, immediate and fair consequences for both appropriate and inappropriate behaviour, and providing support for students to develop (Ministry of Education, 2013c). When looking at the success of SW-PB4L in reducing school stand-downs, it is important to highlight that it is not simply the process of adopting this framework that leads to the reduction of stand-downs, but the shift in school climate. Schools that are working from a positive discipline perspective respond differently to discipline issues, and consider options to teach from a student’s mistake rather than send the student home.

The use of restorative practices have also been shown to be a positive alternative to standing down students. When a school is dealing with behavioural issues, restorative practices are an option to manage the situation in a positive light that encompasses the principles of positive discipline. Following a disciplinary infraction at a school, the use of restorative practices would involve a discussion involving all affected by the action. This would typically involve a conversation with the wrong-doer(s), and those who were affected by the action. Restorative practices in school challenges the concept that punishment is the best form of deterrence and instead looks at misconduct as a violation of people and interpersonal relationships that need to be healed and restored following an incident (Thorsborne & Vinegard, 2002). By using restorative practices, wrong-doers have an opportunity to right their wrong and make amends to the people who were affected by their actions (Corrigan, 2012; Drewery & Kecskemeti, 2010; Myer & Evans, 2012; Thorsborne & Vinegard, 2002). By taking responsibility for their actions, wrong-doers are able to learn from their mistakes.

The research and philosophies promoted within this project support a proactive approach to behavioural difficulties in schools. Positive Behaviour 4 Learning, and Restorative Practices, are two such approaches. However, there are other targeted programmes shown to bring about positive outcomes for students who experience difficulties with behaviour, and in particular, strategies focusing on the individual and unique needs of each student. In the present study, it was not until the school provided individualised interventions based on the specific needs of each individual that the student’s behaviour improved. The key for schools to examine is how reactions to inappropriate behaviour can be developed without keeping students away from school and potentially putting students at risk.

REFERENCES


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The Feuerstein approach in New Zealand: Building on the past, for the future

Dorothy Howie

ABSTRACT

The Feuerstein approach to the teaching of thinking is highly regarded internationally as an effective programme for vulnerable learners and learners with special educational needs. This paper describes this approach.

The need for this approach in New Zealand is discussed, including children’s rights to it, and the New Zealand National Curriculum requirements. This is followed by an analysis of how the approach meets international criteria for an effective programme for the teaching of thinking.

The author’s early New Zealand research on the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme, to build a strong evidence-base for future use of the approach, is described in some detail, and her current New Zealand research project on best-practice with the inclusive and more whole-school integrated use of the Instrumental Enrichment programme is touched upon.

Finally, some guidelines are outlined for the effective use of the Feuerstein approach in New Zealand now and in the future.

Position Paper

Key words: Feuerstein

The need for the approach in New Zealand

Under the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), our country is required to not only ensure an inclusive education system at all levels, but ensure that each child with a disability has a right to the development of their “personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities to their fullest extent” (United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006, Article 24). The use of the Feuerstein approach can play an important part in achieving this right for every child as it is unique among the leading international interventions for the teaching of thinking in addressing the needs of children with challenges in their learning.

New Zealand is one of the world leaders in having within The New Zealand Curriculum (2007) a requirement for each school to have a generic teaching of thinking as the first key competency, with the key competencies in general seen as a vision for ‘creating a vibrant, refocused local curriculum that met their [the schools’] students’ learning needs (Hipkins, Bolstad, Boyd and McDowell, 2014, p.6). In his recent paper which discusses the Feuerstein approach, one of the world leaders on metacognition and the teaching of thinking, Professor Robert Sternberg, states that the Feuerstein approach is unique in having associated with it both an assessment tool (The Learning Potential/Propensity Assessment Device) and a cognitive training tool (The Instrumental Enrichment programme) making it particularly ready for, and appropriate to, being used in educational practice. He states that, in his view, Feuerstein, Piaget and Vygotsky, along with perhaps Luria, stand alone in the scope and power of their contributions to the teaching of learning and thinking.

New Zealand is also a world leader in its inclusive legislation and educational policy for children with special educational needs (Howie, 2010). We have a strong commitment to provide interventions, and this includes programmes for the teaching of thinking, in ways which are inclusive and which meet the Treaty of Waitangi partnership commitments. We also encourage an evidence-based approach to new developments, and so it is important to look at the early research work with the Feuerstein approach in New Zealand, including that carried out with Maori teachers and students at Nga Tapuwae College (Howie, Richards and Pirihi, 1993).

Recent work on the brain through brain imaging and other techniques has revealed that brain functioning is more modifiable than has been previously thought, and this has enhanced interest in the approaches to the teaching of thinking which have as their aims the modification of brain functioning. As early as the 1970s, Reuven Feuerstein, without then the brain research to back up his vision, put forward the idea of
‘structural cognitive modifiability’, with a focus on how an active-modificational approach can modify the way individuals can learn and think, rather than a passive-acceptant approach, particularly where this saw intelligence as a fixed and unchanging ability or trait. Both of the key tools developed for assessment and enhancement of thinking by Feuerstein and his team build on the central importance of Mediated Learning Experience whereby the mediator (parent, teacher, peer, etc.) comes alongside the learner and makes the stimuli for learning accessible and meaningful to the learner. It involves the kind of interaction and partnership with the learner which a Vygotskian approach also supports, and addresses the learning and thinking process, with both its cognitive and motivational aspects. It is an approach which does not focus just on what is in an individual’s brain, trying to ‘fix’ that, but on the whole complex interactional process involved in the teaching and learning of thinking.

Since a visit in 2014 to New Zealand by Rabbi Rafi Feuerstein (the son of Professor Reuven Feuerstein, who died earlier in 2014), funded by the Gaze Foundation, there has been an upsurge of interest in the use of the Feuerstein approach here. Many teachers, and especially Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour, are now training in both of Feuerstein’s key tools - the Instrumental Enrichment programme for the teaching of thinking, and the Learning Potential/Propensity Assessment Device. It is important that their training and knowledge is informed by the New Zealand research evidence on the use of the Feuerstein approach here. Even before this visit, there were developments in New Zealand pointing the way to the whole school and inclusive teaching of thinking using the Feuerstein approach.

I published a commissioned book in 2011 called Teaching Students Thinking Skills and Strategies: A Framework for Cognitive Education in Inclusive Settings. In that book I put forward a three-tiered model for the teaching of thinking, with tier one high-quality teaching of thinking for all, tier two further small group work for those with shared learning strengths or needs, and at the tier three level more individualised support for those with more complex learning needs. The book examples research-backed practices with a large number of approaches to the teaching of thinking - as appropriate at each tier level - and covers the use of the Feuerstein approach at each tier level. The book paid careful attention to cultural issues.

I subsequently obtained a grant from the New Zealand Commission for UNESCO to set up a pilot study in two Auckland schools with unique populations of more vulnerable learners, to look at a plan for implementation and evaluation of such a whole school approach, including the Feuerstein approach as part of their whole school teaching of thinking. The idea was not that all teachers used the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme, but rather that the school identified the ways in which the Feuerstein approach could be best used to meet the needs of all of its learners. I am currently developing a New Zealand-wide research project which will look at best-practice in the inclusive and more whole school integrated use of the Feuerstein approach.

Peter Coleman, in his 2011 Kairaranga article ‘Special Education 2000 Policy: Our Leaky Home’, comments that “We are aware that there is a chasm between the research evidence for what should work and the efficacy of this in practice. Often it is not the intervention itself which is the problem, rather it is the fidelity of its implementation and the quality and quantity of support that is provided” (p.21).

What is the Feuerstein approach?

The Feuerstein approach is an approach to the teaching of thinking developed with a particular concern for more vulnerable learners, whatever the cause. International attention was drawn to the approach as early as 1977, when Professor Peter Mittler, who continues to be an international leader in inclusive education, edited volumes of the Washington Congress of the International Association for the Scientific Study of Mental Deficiency, including two papers given by Professor Reuven Feuerstein and his colleagues. This was followed by a landmark paper by Kaniel and Feuerstein (1989) in the Oxford Review of Education, which detailed the value of Feuerstein’s Instrumental Enrichment programme for cognitive enhancement for children with learning difficulties.

Feuerstein, a Romanian Jew, had been given the responsibility of addressing the needs of children having difficulty in adjustment to schools in Israel, following the Holocaust, and suffering from trauma, dislocation, and deprivation. These children were also from widely-differing cultural contexts. He first developed his internationally-used Learning Potential Assessment Device (Feuerstein, Rand and Hoffman, 1979) for the more dynamic assessment of cognitive abilities and needs. In this first book on this assessment tool (it has been replaced by a 2002 edition by Feuerstein, Feuerstein, Falik & Rand) he makes a still extremely valid criticism of traditional intelligence testing, particularly in relation to the negative effects of the labelling and prediction associated with such testing and the concept of a static I.Q.

He developed and presented an alternative, more dynamic, assessment approach, involving first testing,
then careful mediation by the assessor to explore learning strengths and needs, and how these could best be met by a very participatory social interaction focusing on teaching cognitive strategies and skills in the learning process, followed by retesting. His approach still stands out from other forms of dynamic assessment for its focus on mediation which is unfettered by narrow rules, but flows in a mediation interaction which is characterised by partnership, reciprocity, and empowerment of the learner (Greenberg and Williams, 2002). Even in relation to this assessment tool, Feuerstein was against any quantification of so-called ‘potential’, rather wanting to identify mediation processes which would support the unique learner strengths and needs. This is reflected in a recent change of title of this tool, now called the Learning Propensity Assessment Device, and called this in the updated (2002) book on the tool.

This Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD) is generally used internationally for the individual assessment of very complex learning needs, and is not a requirement for use of the Instrumental Enrichment cognitive enhancement programme. There is a group of learning needs which were being identified in the classroom context.

Feuerstein then developed his cognitive enhancement programme, Instrumental Enrichment, to address the kinds of learning needs which were being identified in the use of the LPAD. This programme is based on his theory of Mediated Learning Experience, providing, in a systematic way through differing modalities, the mediation needed for efficient, independent, cognitive functioning. This theory of Mediated Learning Experience parallels closely Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory, which is widely followed in New Zealand schools. There are similar emphases by these two leaders in cognitive enhancement on the crucial role of the social and cultural embeddedness of thinking, of the human mediator in enhancing such thinking, be it parent, teacher or peer, and on the importance of scaffolding learning in each individual’s learning processes. Both theorists were optimistic about the possibility for change in an individual’s learning, and Feuerstein places a belief in such modifiability as central to his approach. Both saw the social and cultural environment as of key importance, with Vygotsky wanting culturally-unique characteristics and strengths to be recognised in cognitive assessment and enhancement (Sutton, 1988), and Feuerstein defining ‘cultural deprivation’ as the situation where a child is deprived of mediation of their own unique cultural values and meanings.

Feuerstein’s Instrumental Enrichment (FIE) programme is made up of 14 ‘instruments’ or tools, carefully constructed to correct difficulties in the thinking process, and all requiring trained mediation. All of the instruments aim at developing the cognitive and metacognitive processes needed to solve problems. For example, the first instrument, the ‘Organisation of Dots’, uses a novel non-verbal series of pages of dots embedding figures needing to be found according to a set of rules as an instrument to explore the metacognitive self-management (executive) learning and thinking skills which help the learner to organise their thinking. The early ‘Comparisons’ instrument and the later ‘Categorisation’ instrument build key abstract verbal comparative thinking which underpins all learning and thinking. As the Instrumental Enrichment programme is unique in its aim of producing ‘structural cognitive modifiability’, it is designed to be given intensively over at least two years, allowing for the new thinking processes to be embedded and generalised to new learning. Another unique feature of this programme for the teaching of thinking is its strong focus on the motivational and emotional needs of the learner, which are integral to autonomous learning. The first 1980 book, Instrumental Enrichment; An Intervention Program for Cognitive Modifiability (Feuerstein, Rand, Hoffman & Miller) has been updated in 2006 (Feuerstein, Feuerstein, Falik & Rand), and the new book describes the programme and research with it.

In 1983 an eminent cognitive psychologist, Professor Sternberg, (who has taken a leading role in research into metacognitive processes/components), published an important paper called ‘Criteria for Intellectual Skills Training’. These criteria include the following, and comment is made about how each is met by the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme:

1. The programme should be theoretically based – FIE is based on the theory of Mediated Learning Experience.

2. The theory should be an information-processing one – my 2003 book draws parallels between Sternberg’s information-processing metacomponents and Feuerstein’s input-elaboration-output phases (Howie, 2003a, p.36).

3. The underlying theory of intellectual performance should be socio-culturally relevant to the individuals who are exposed to the training programme based on the theory and I discuss such socio-cultural relevance in my New Zealand research with the programme with Maori adolescents and their Maori teachers (Howie, 2003a).

4. The programme should provide explicit training in both executive and non-executive information
processing – the FIE instruments are carefully structured to address both cognitive and metacognitive processes.

5. The programme should be responsive to the motivational as well as to the intellectual needs of the students it trains – Sternberg (2015) comments on the importance of Feuerstein’s attention to these needs, as the FIE programme is often used with learners who have experienced years of academic failure.

6. The programme should be sensitive to individual differences – all of the FIE evaluations carried out by my research partners and myself in New Zealand have used both a group control design, and single subject research design, in order to explore how each individual responds uniquely to each component (instrument) of the programme.

7. The training should furnish links between the training it provides and real-world behaviour – all the early New Zealand training for the use of FIE work was done by New Zealand authorized trainers able to make these links, so vital to an ecologically-embedded intervention.

8. The programme should receive careful empirical evaluation that assesses both durability and transferability of training, and the evaluation should assess facets of the programme as well as the training programme as a whole – the research evaluations of FIE in Auckland by my colleagues and myself addressed all of these requirements, and are unique in the systematic way they assessed the impact of the facets of the programme.

9. The claims made for the training programme should be modest, at least at this point of time. Even this much later, with many international, and our own New Zealand research projects attesting to the value of the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme, the demands of embedding such a programme with its expert mediation and bridging requirements over several years suggest that claims made need to be considered and informed by both the fullest possible understanding of the aims of the programme, and careful study of the research evidence.

The early New Zealand evidence base in the use of Feuerstein’s Instrumental Enrichment programme

The Feuerstein approach was first ‘fostered’ in New Zealand by myself, and professional colleagues, from the late 1970s. I had completed my doctoral study on the imitative learning of children with severe learning disabilities, supervised by Dame Marie Clay. This was followed by several years as National Advisor with the New Zealand Society for Persons with Intellectual Handicap before I joined the Department of Education at the University of Auckland, and gained a Churchill Scholarship for study of the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme, with Professor Reuven Feuerstein and his training team in Jerusalem. Professor Feuerstein gave his blessing to me to carry out a series of rigorous research evaluations of Instrumental Enrichment in New Zealand. These studies, form the key New Zealand research evidence base for the use of Instrumental Enrichment in New Zealand.

The first study was carried out with learners attending a special class for children with mild to moderate learning disabilities at Kowhai Intermediate School (Howie, Thickpenny, Leaf & Absolum, 1985). Over a two-year period, five instruments of the Instrumental Enrichment programme were taught intensively, in a whole-class way, with supplementation and extra support to individual students as needed. This support was provided without ‘withdrawal’ of children from the whole-class setting. The research report detailed first the shifts on the baseline ‘instrument’ measures devised to assess changes in problem-solving on each instrument, because this was considered a more important measure than that of the Wechsler traditional measure of intelligence (also, the use of the Wechsler Scale can be considered inconsistent with Feuerstein’s critique of such traditional measures of intelligence, but at that time there were few alternative measure of cognitive functioning standardised for use in New Zealand, and this measure was an important one used by educational psychologists in New Zealand to determine special class placement). There were clear links between each individual’s pre-intervention Wechsler measures and gains made on the ‘Instruments’. For example, ‘Student D was a 12-year-old Pacific Islands boy, who, before the programme, had a verbal WISC intelligence quotient of 64 (which may well have been influenced by his language background) and performance WISC intelligence quotient of 81 … he had a Burt reading age of 5.7 years and a California Test of Personality score of 10 percentiles - well below the average … this student was functioning at a very low level on the Organisation of Dots skills prior to beginning this instrument, which is the first in the programme. However, he made an interesting gain in these metacognitive skills in association with the training on the Organisation of Dots instrument … he managed to overcome his early difficulties in Orientation in Space, and by the end of the programme was achieving complete success on this instrument … Student D’s more verbal conceptual skills on the Comparisons task, even before being taught on that instrument, were higher than one would have expected from his verbal WISC intelligence quotient of 64. Some rather patchy verbal performance on the Comparisons instrument during training was rectified by the end of the full
programme, when he had been exposed to the more advanced instrument of Categorisation ... After the programme was completed, student D showed gains of 9 verbal IQ points and 19 performance IQ points, which were maintained on follow-up study. These gains placed him outside the range of general cognitive ability considered appropriate at that time for special class placement (Howie, 2003a, pps.99-101).

The eight experimental subjects completing the two-year intervention significantly increased in intellectual functioning as indicated by the Wechsler-R Full intelligence quotient changes from pre – to post-intervention, with the mean increase of 9.3 points. There was further increase of IQ at the follow-up study. This contrasted strongly to the pattern prior to intervention, where the mean decline for all subjects from the years of their first measurement with this Wechsler Test to the pre-intervention Wechsler measure was 7.4 full scale IQ points.

Another pertinent finding was the reading gains made by experimental subjects when some of them moved to a secondary school ‘Experience Class’ immediately after intervention, and received a well-constructed reading programme in that class. There was a pattern of gains by those who had received Instrumental Enrichment, while control subjects matched with them (and who had come from another special class which did not receive Instrumental Enrichment) did not. For example, student D, discussed above, made a reading gain from below 6 years to 6 years 4 months over this 6 months follow-up period, while his control-matched subject made a loss from 8 years 10 months to 8 years 6 months.

These findings give support to the Feuerstein claim of cognitive modifiability as an outcome of the Instrumental Enrichment programme, and suggest that the programme is helpful in building the underpinning cognitive and metacognitive skills necessary for more enhanced reading achievement.

The second study was carried out as a thesis research project by Thickpenny, which I supervised (Thickpenny & Howie, 1990). It was carried out with children with profound hearing disabilities entering their first year of high school at Kelston School for the Deaf. They were of mixed ethnic background, with five of New Zealand/European ethnicity and five of Maori and Pasifika ethnicity. As with the first study, it used both a group control and a single subject research design. The latter proved particularly useful in addressing the ethical concern of parents at the school that all children receive the programme. For the first year, one class received the programme (Group one) and continued with it through their second year, while the second class was phased in as the control group, not receiving the programme in the first year, so as to act as the control group, then receiving the programme for one year only, in the second year of the project. The study gives some interesting insights into the role of length of the programme intervention for near and far generalisation.

The significance of shifts on a wide range of measures of ability was looked at, so that there was not reliance on a traditional measure of intelligence. ‘Group One’ (the experimental group receiving two years of Instrumental Enrichment) made a significant gain on both the Picture Arrangement and Picture Completion subtests of the Wechsler-R scale, while Group Two (the control group) did not. Results for the Matching Familiar Figures Test indicate that Group One (experimental) subjects displayed a significant decrease in error scores while Group Two (control) subjects did not’ (1990, p.201).

The probes in the single subject assessment of the more verbal instrument implemented the Comparisons instrument, show a remarkable gain in this verbal conceptual instrument. All subjects were initially performing at a very low level on this instrument’s baseline assessment tasks at pre-intervention, then shifted with intervention on the instrument to the higher levels of scoring, and maintained that higher level in post-intervention follow up. This applied to both Group One and Group Two subjects, so was irrespective of the length of the intervention. (This assessment was of ‘near’ generalisation.)

The Gates Reading Test assessments show that up until 1979 (the date the intervention started) all but one subject were making minimal or no increases in reading age with each successive year. Three (of the ten) subjects made significant gains in reading age in association with Instrumental Enrichment intervention. This gain was spread across individuals in both Group One and Group Two, so was irrespective of length of intervention.

The third study was carried out with Maori students and their Maori teachers at Nga Tapuwae College (Howie, Richards & Pirihi, 1993). Because Maori and Pasifika students had responded particularly well to the programme in the previous studies with Instrumental Enrichment, it was offered to South Auckland schools with large Maori populations. NgaTapuwae College took up the challenge, saying that they were failing with their lowest-performing Maori students. I worked in partnership with the Maori teachers who were teaching these students, and did two full two-year interventions with Instrumental Enrichment with two third form classes i.e. the project lasted four years.
The students were taught Instrumental Enrichment as the whole lowest ‘stream’ class, with support offered individually within that whole-class approach.

We looked at significance of shifts on the raw scores of the Wechsler-R test of Intelligence, not wanting to use inappropriate normed procedures, as in the traditional use of this measure. The raw scores did provide a comparative pre- and post-measure across a wide variety of types of cognitive tasks. As an example of one of the Wechsler results, “Four of the eight experimental subjects made a significant positive change on the Similarities subtest as defined by Wechsler (1974) … For the four experimental subjects available at follow-up, three had increased their Similarities raw score over the post-intervention score. In contrast, none of the seven control subjects made a significant positive change” (Howie, Richards & Pirihi, 1993, p.82).

In terms of the single subject research design outcomes, all of the experimental subjects moved with intervention on the Organisation of Dots instrument to perform at the highest levels by the end of this instrument intervention. By the end of the Comparisons Instrument intervention, most of the subjects were performing at the higher levels of the tasks. The Orientation in Space task proved to be difficult for three of the subjects, but one of these made a rapid gain with intervention, one had already started to gain in association with earlier instruments, and one was still struggling at the end of the Orientation in Space instrument. This gives us valuable information about the need for greater work on this instrument for two of the students who, prior to intervention, had shown specific difficulties with orientation in the Wechsler Block Design pre-test measure used.

This study found generalisation to error correction in reading running records by almost all of the experimental subjects. It also explored the meanings of the use of this instrumental enrichment method for the Maori teachers, using an informal ‘grounded theory’ approach. Of particular interest were the many comments the Maori teachers made about the contribution they thought the programme was making to their students’ language needs, including during the Organisation of Dots instrument work. The teachers often commented on peaks of performance in their instrumental enrichment students’ work, with comments suggesting a change in teacher attitude towards a student’s ability as being important in relation to changes made by the students. The teachers appeared to enjoy using the programme and generalising from it, in terms not only of their own Maori culture, but into their other ordinary lessons with these students.

The final major study was carried out with adolescents and young adults attending workshops run by the Auckland Sheltered Workshop organization (Howie, 2003b). The learners had both cognitive and social/emotional needs, and the complex and large project sought to develop and enhance real-life problem-solving and decision-making, in the form of self-advocacy. The work involved both a ‘mild’ mediation, with assessment using a dynamic assessment approach with both the more-cognitive Ravens measure, and a self-advocacy measure developed to look at self-advocacy issues of importance to these learners. The ‘full’ intervention used some of the principles arising from the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment approach. The results were very encouraging but complex, as the mild intervention appeared to be interacting with the full intervention. A matched-pair design was used. ‘The young people who received the dynamic assessment/minimal training in self-advocacy problem-solving achieved significantly higher gains in outcome scores (self-advocacy scores) than those who did not receive this training … The two groups who received full mediation, which incorporated more extensive training in planning strategy for real-life problem-solving, showed the biggest gains in planning strategy compared with the two groups who did not receive the full intervention. The gains showed up even for individuals who were under stress at the time of the final intervention, suggesting that such learning can be maintained over time and in the face of emotional difficulties’ (Howie, 2003a, p.129). These studies are all described, along with a careful introduction to the Feuerstein approach, in Thinking about the Teaching of Thinking published by the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (Howie, 2003a).

Following further study at Feuerstein’s Institute in Jerusalem and supported by a travel award from the New Zealand Royal Society of Scientists, my research colleague John Thickpenny and I founded the Australasian Institute for Learning Enhancement in Auckland in 1996. It was an Authorized Training Centre (ATC) for training in the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme, with the aim of both training and developing the use of the programme in culturally- and contextually-appropriate ways in New Zealand, Australia and the South Pacific. Feuerstein spoke at the launch of the Australasian Institute for Learning Enhancement while giving presentations at an international conference in Auckland, hosted by the Brownlow publishing company.

It was hoped that the new New Zealand Curriculum, brought in by the Labour Government towards the end of its last term in 2007, with its teaching of thinking as a key competency, might encourage the whole-school teaching of thinking, including the
use of Feuerstein’s approach as part of that whole-school and inclusive requirement. However, under the National Government, there needs to be more acknowledgement by the Minister of Education of the key role that the teaching of thinking could contribute to her ministerial priorities of raising the achievements of our most vulnerable learners, and enhancing quality teaching/learning processes. The Feuerstein criteria for Mediated Learning Experience match closely the characteristics of effective pedagogical practices as outlined in the New Zealand Curriculum.

Building the future

I would like to see systematically developed in New Zealand, and rigorously evaluated, modes of delivery of the Feuerstein approach which are characterised by the following:

1. Fidelity to the original aims, tools and programmes of the Feuerstein approach. This includes the rigorous use of the full Instrumental Enrichment programme for the length of time required to realise its full modification effects.

2. Contextualisation of the tools and programmes for our unique New Zealand educational and cultural context. New Zealand leads the world in its socio-ecological approach to providing support to our more vulnerable learners, and this matches well with the emphasis which both Feuerstein and his son have placed on the importance of the wider modifying learning environment (Howie, 2003a, 2011).

3. Implementation of the Instrumental Enrichment programmes (FIE-Standard and FIE-Basic) in as inclusive a way as possible. This means minimising labelling of children and withdrawal of children from ordinary classrooms in order to receive the programme. Rather, in line with our inclusive education approach, the programme should be taught on a whole-class basis, with further individualised support as needed provided in that whole-class context by the already available inclusive support services, whenever possible. The research evidence on the Feuerstein Instrumental Enrichment programme affirms the value of the programme being taught by the learners’ ordinary classroom teachers for maximum transfer and generalisation opportunities.

4. Implementation of the Instrumental Enrichment programmes in ways which address the New Zealand Curriculum’s requirement for the key competencies, including the teaching of thinking, to be taught as an integral part of the whole-school community, and meeting the needs of that unique learning community.

5. Ensuring that all those working with the tools and programmes, no matter what the leadership, teaching, parent, peer or learner role, work in partnership, and demonstrate essential qualities of that partnership which are fundamental to the Feuerstein programme, such as mutuality and reciprocity, and empowerment.

6. Ensuring that the tools and programmes are available first to those who most need them, irrespective of family wealth. This has always been the wish and intention of Feuerstein. Since his visit to New Zealand in 1996 when he met Maori leaders associated with the New Zealand work on their marae, he also took a keen interest in the use of the Feuerstein programme for Maori learners.

CONCLUSION

This paper has outlined the ways in which the Feuerstein approach to the teaching of thinking has been used in the past in New Zealand, and suggested ways in which it could be used in the future, to build on that evidence base. The early work which was done in New Zealand was carried out with the blessing of the developer and then leader of the approach, Professor Reuven Feuerstein, in the spirit and vision which he had for its availability to the most needy learners in our society, with the rigour in implementation which success with the programme requires, and with both innovative and rigorous research evaluation. It is to be hoped that future use of the Feuerstein approach continues its use in ways which Feuerstein and we, as New Zealanders, can be proud of.

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AUTHOR PROFILE

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Dr Dorothy Howie is Research Fellow in the School of Psychology at the University of Auckland. She has taught and researched in both inclusion and the teaching of thinking at both the University of Auckland (in the then Department of Education), and more recently at the University of Hull, where she directed the postgraduate programme on inclusion. She is an international expert on the Feuerstein approach to the teaching of thinking, having carried out, with colleagues, the early rigorous series of research studies into that approach in New Zealand.

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Promoting Social and Emotional Competencies in Early Childhood: Strategies for Teachers
Vicki Morkel and Tara McLaughlin

ABSTRACT
This article discusses social and emotional competence and its importance in young children's development. Foundations for children's social and emotional competence are developed during the early years and are linked with school success and later-in-life well-being. We discuss three factors affecting children's social and emotional interactions and explore various strategies that teachers can use to promote the development of social and emotional competence. Strategies encourage teachers' active facilitation of supporting children's development and are grounded in strong positive relationships and supportive environments.

Keywords: Children, early years, emotional competence, social competence

Practice paper

INTRODUCTION
The early childhood environment is the milieu in which young children interact and form relationships with their peers and adults through play and learning activities. Social and emotional competence is needed to successfully navigate this environment and later-in-life environments. Social competence includes a combination of skills that support effective social interaction between a person and his or her environment (Lillvist, Sandberg, Bjorck-Akesson & Granlund, 2009). Emotional competence involves understanding emotions in oneself and others as well as being able to control and express emotions appropriate to a situation in a way that is socially acceptable (Eisenberg, Cumberland & Spinrad, 1998). Teachers and families support children to develop social and emotional competence through supportive and nurturing interactions, stimulating environments and learning opportunities, and promoting interactions with peers and siblings.

Ensuring early success in this area is critical. Research has shown that children's social and emotional competence in the early years of learning will influence school achievement and later-in-life well-being (National Council on the Developing Child, 2004; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Of note, the Dunedin Study, conducted in New Zealand, has shown that self-control – a key aspect of social and emotional competence in the early years – is associated with future achievements related to financial independence, physical health and positive emotional well-being and strong relationships with others (Moffitt, Poulton & Caspi, 2013).

Moreover, international and national research has shown that children's experiences in early learning settings can have lasting effects on children's competencies later-in-life (Mitchell, Wylie & Carr, 2008; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). In short, what teachers do to support children's social and emotional competence matters. Given the importance of social and emotional competence and the need for teachers to actively support positive social and emotional development in young children, the Ministry of Education has promoted the Incredible Years Parent and Teacher Programmes created by Webster-Stratton and colleagues (Wetherall, 2014). Early research on the Incredible Years has shown that teachers have valued this training and the information they gain about how to support children's social and emotional competence (Fergusson, Horwood & Stanley, 2013; Wooler, 2015).

The purpose of this article is to describe key aspects of children's developing social and emotional competence and provide ideas for early childhood educators to support children's social and emotional competence. In this article, social competence and emotional competence are described separately; yet, the inter-connectedness between these constructs in daily social environments should not be underestimated. We briefly discuss three factors that influence children's encounters with the social world (culture, temperament and level of social interaction), before we introduce several strategies to support teachers' active facilitation of children's developing social and emotional competence.
**Social Competence**

Social competence is made up of many different components. According to Lim, Rodger and Brown (2013), four key social skills dimensions are involved: learning related skills; compliance; interpersonal social skills, and group social-interaction. Learning related skills refers to skills which are necessary to support social interaction. These might include learning to pay attention, work in a group, follow directions, stay focused, persist with a task, and organise one’s self. Compliance refers to how children adhere to rules, follow directions and exercise self-control. Interpersonal skills are used in interacting and making relationships with other children; these might include respecting others, sharing, responding with appropriate emotions, and showing empathy. Finally, group social-interaction refers to working with others in a group within the context of group norms and dynamics.

As children get older they are expected to engage in increasingly complex social interactions and settings. An important reminder for educators is that a child’s social development takes place over time and requires on-going support. Although each child will have their own unique ways, there are key strategies that teachers and parents can use to support children in their social development and navigation of the social environment (Evans & Harvey, 2012).

**Emotional Competence**

Emotional competence plays a vital role in children’s social competence and vice-versa, yet it is characterised by different constructs. Emotional competence includes emotional expressiveness, emotion knowledge and emotional regulation (Denham et al., 2003). Related to emotional expressiveness, emotions are expressed in different ways with varying intensity. Children need to be able to suitably display their feelings in social interactions with peers and adults (Ashiabi, 2000). Emotion knowledge refers to understanding different emotions such that children are able to name, describe, and recognise emotions in one’s self and others (Denham et al., 2003). When children are able to recognise emotions in those around them and understand or empathise with what others are feeling, they can respond in a fitting manner which can enhance their relationships (Ashiabi, 2000). Emotion regulation involves an awareness and modification of emotions according to the prevailing circumstances so that emotions are expressed appropriately (Denham, Basset & Zinsser, 2012). This involves active cognitive processes as multiple skills are involved. Children need to be aware of the social context as well as their own emotions and subsequent self-control.

Related to all areas of emotional competence, current research recommends that children should be permitted to feel and express their emotions. This includes encouraging positive emotion whilst also helping children to express and deal with negative emotions in a manner that is contextually acceptable. Again, these skills will develop over time and each child will have their own unique way, yet there are key strategies which teachers and parents can use to support children in their emotional development (Evans & Harvey, 2012).

**Influences on Children’s Social World**

Three key factors - culture, temperament and level of social interaction - influence children’s encounters with the social world and their development of social and emotional competence. A brief review of considerations for teachers is provided.

**Culture**

Teachers should take cognisance of children’s culture. Different cultures can emphasise different behaviours and styles of interaction. Teachers assessing social and emotional competence from their own cultural view might not understand children’s capabilities for displaying appropriate behaviours (Barblett & Maloney, 2010). The ways in which social and emotional competence is enacted in different cultures should be considered. For example, eastern cultures emphasise high levels of compliance and more cohesion, while western cultures have traditionally placed more emphasis on individualism (Lim, Rodger & Brown, 2013). Through collaboration with families and communities, teachers can learn about the styles of interaction and the social and emotional skills that are valued and promoted. This can help teachers to better-support children in reaching their potential whilst maintaining their cultural identity.

**Temperament**

A child’s temperament influences the way in which he or she interacts with the world (Mathieson & Banerjee, 2010). Temperament refers to the way in which children tackle a task or approach a situation, and will have an impact on the types of experiences children seek to engage in (Keogh, 2003). This, together with life experiences, develops a personality which will affect self-concept, views about other people, personal values, attitudes, social interactions, and ways in which situations are dealt with (Rothbart, 2007). Rothbart (2007) has described three areas of temperament as Effortful Control, Negative Effect and Surgency/Extraversion. Children with more effortful control (attention span and self-control)
play more interactively and positively with others. Those considered to have higher levels of surgency/ extraversion were more likely to join in with others and spend less time waiting to join in (Mathieson & Banerjee, 2010). Children with negative effect tended to be less adaptable and expressed more negative mood (Walker, Berthelsen & Irving, 2001). Temperament may influence both the amount and quality of social encounters with peers.

**Level of social interaction**

Children may have different levels of social interaction for different reasons (Coplan, Prakash, O'Neil & Armer, 2004). Some factors might be within the child, such as conflicted shyness in which children want to participate but are too afraid to do so, or social disinterest in which children are not really motivated to play with others (Coplan & Armer, 2005). Other factors might be external to the child, such as active isolation in which children play alone because others do not want to interact with them, or peer access in which children do not have regular access to peers or siblings for play. Helping children experience satisfying and successful interactions is likely to lead to children seeking out more social interactions.

**Implications for teachers**

Each child is unique and each child will need different types of experiences and supports to maximise their social and emotional competence. By knowing the children in their care, pre-school teachers can plan suitable learning experiences, build on children’s strengths, provide support, and create situations conducive to ensuring all children have quality social interactions with others and engage in emotional experiences in ways that are responsive to their unique identities, including the child’s culture, temperament, and prior level of social interaction. When teachers know children well, they can often anticipate potential problem situations and intervene with positive guidance to help to maintain a positive environment (Keogh, 2003).

**Strategies for Promoting Children’s Social and Emotional Competence**

The development of social and emotional competence in young children has been linked to be both academic and social school-readiness in children (Raver & Knitzer, 2002). Those competent in these areas seem to perform better at school and have enthusiasm, perseverance and positive approaches towards learning (Ziv, 2013). Teachers can support children in their endeavours to become socially and emotionally competent by providing a high-quality environment, and teaching essential social and emotion skills to support children’s interaction and social behaviours (Joseph & Strain, 2003). To support teachers on this journey, we describe strategies for teachers to promote a positive social environment, and specific skills and strategies that support children’s confidence and competence.

At the core of our recommendations is teacher-child relationships. High-quality relationships between teachers and children provide a secure foundation from which children can express their emotions and explore relationships with their fellow peers (Howes & Ritchie, 2002). To build strong relationships with children, teachers might get to know children’s interests and preferences, get to know children’s families and home life routines, use children’s and parents’ names when interacting, ask children questions and really listen to their answers, share information about themselves, and have clear, fair, and consistent expectations and boundaries that are communicated to children. Children learn best in the context of warm, positive, respectful and responsive relationships (Evans & Harvey, 2012). Teachers need to actively develop their relationships with young children and their families (Bary, 2010).

**Creating a Positive Climate**

Setting a positive climate helps children feel safe and secure in their environment. Climate refers to the prevailing mood, attitudes and tone that teachers, families and children feel when they are in the early childhood setting. When there is a positive climate and children feel good, they are more likely to interact with others (Denham et al., 2003). Teachers can take active steps to create a positive climate. Han and Kemple (2006), for example, suggest that the physical environment might include various places of interest where children are able to interact in small groups as well as other more private places where they can go to regulate themselves and/or have time on their own.

Salminen, Hannikainen, Poikonen and Rasku-Puttonen (2014) suggest ways for grouping children, such as working together in pairs or small groups, can influence the social climate. Small group activities can help children to develop the skills for interacting with others in large groups. Group cohesion can be promoted when teachers remind children of the shared group expectations or rules, what would be fair, how the group works, and refer back to established group expectations. Positive group dynamics are enhanced when children are allowed to take on a leadership or active role where they listen and learn from each other. Careful considerations of groupings and active facilitation of group
cohesiveness can support children in their sense of belonging.

Promoting social values and an awareness of other cultures can also support a positive climate (Han & Kemple, 2006). Social values (or virtues) might include kindness, honesty, respect, social justice or fairness, responsibility, empathy and caring for others. These can vary within different cultures. Teachers, in collaboration with families and community, might consider selecting different social values and teaching them explicitly. Social reinforcement of identified values can be used when children display socially-desired behaviours to encourage the chance of them being repeated (Han & Kemple, 2006). Teachers might, for example, take a few weeks to focus on respect, plan different activities to promote and reinforce this value in the context of meaningful activities for children, before spending a few weeks introducing and focusing on a new value.

To support an awareness of other cultures, similarities and differences should be acknowledged, respected and celebrated to foster a climate of tolerance and respect. When teachers are seen to show appreciation of diversity in others, it serves as a role-model for children to interact with others who they consider to be different from them in some way or other (Vuckovic, 2008). This is particularly important in the Aotearoa/New Zealand context as schools serve children and families from many different cultures, languages and ethnicities. It is also important for teachers to “know themselves” and be aware of how their personal background, culture, temperament and characteristics will affect their relationships with others (Keogh, 2003). Related to supporting children’s positive behaviours, it might be helpful for teachers to reflect on the behaviours they personally have little tolerance for or test their patience. Identifying these behaviours can help teachers and teams to have a plan for responding appropriately and consistently in everyday situations.

Finally, establishing positive relationships with other adults in the setting is key. This includes relationships with teaching teams and with families. Teachers’ relationships with team members will affect centre climate such that teachers act as role models for children. As noted by Farquhar (2003), teachers’ behaviours and attitudes towards their colleagues will affect the children’s relationships and behaviours with their own peers. Moreover, teachers’ relationships with families – ensuring families feel welcome, learning about the family and showing genuine concern for their child – can contribute to a positive climate. In addition, parent-teacher communication can support consistency across environments for children. Teachers might share what they are working on at school while parents might share key issues from home so each can continue to work on these skills and concepts in supportive ways for the child. Strong teacher-parent relationships assist greatly if there is a need to discuss challenging situations or events with parents regarding their child. Sharing resources and ideas is a great way to support families to support their own child’s social and emotional competence.

**Skills and Strategies**

There are several key skills that teachers can help children develop to become socially and emotionally competent. For example, teachers can help children build confidence and develop a positive self-identity. It is important to note that confidence and positive self-identity are learnt skills which develop over time (Willis & Schiller, 2011). Strategies to build confidence include providing positive experiences for children and ensuring children receive positive responses from others. When children are encouraged to try new things and their successes are recognised, self-confidence develops (Willis & Schiller, 2011).

Related to confidence, teachers can help children to develop a positive self-identity. Teachers foster a sense of self-worth by the way they show respect for children and build them up in a positive and authentic way. This might include letting children know about the things that you think makes them interesting and unique, asking children to talk about what they like about themselves, and modelling a positive self-identity by talking about what you like about yourself.

Self-control is another important skill for children to develop. Self-control assists children to make good choices and respond in suitable ways to situations (Willis & Schiller, 2011). To support children with self-control, teachers might model keeping calm, describing what to do to remain in control, and sharing how they handle their emotions in various situations (Willis & Schiller, 2011). Teachers also might involve children in setting some achievable expectations or rules that teachers and children can follow and then acknowledge children when they follow rules in situations that children might be likely to “break” the rules.

In addition to the more dynamic skills such as confidence and self-control, children can be taught essential social skills from an early age. Teaching children how to wait for their turn, ask a peer to play, share toys, or tell peers in a kind way if they do not want to play or share at the moment can contribute to a positive climate. In addition, parent-teacher communication can support consistency across environments for
or model different ways to get along with friends, support children in interactions to use different social skills, and comment when they see children using skills in ongoing activities and routines.

Related to emotional competence, teachers are “important socializers of emotion” (Denham et al., 2012, p.140). The ways teachers manage their own emotions will affect how children handle and socialise their own emotions (Denham et al., 2012). Emotional scaffolding can be used in assisting children to learn about emotions. Teachers might, for example, teach children how to identify feelings in themselves and others, solve problems, express their anger in appropriate ways or calm down (Fox & Lentini, 2006). These skills might be demonstrated using modelling, drama and puppets before children are given the opportunity to try them out in everyday interactions. The Incredible Years Programme suggests using puppets or action dolls to explore ways to solve ‘make believe’ problems or likely social situations such as greeting a child, showing interest in someone else or requesting assistance to help children practise skills with support (Webster-Stratton, 1999). As children try out new skills they might need verbal coaching, reassuring gestures, or prompting questions or reminders about what to do until they become fluent with their skills. As children increase in confidence and competence, direct support can be faded and teachers might use other strategies to continue to acknowledge children’s positive social and emotional interactions.

Communication is a related and often under-emphasised skill for social and emotional competence. Yet a child’s ability to receive information (receptive communication) and express their wants, needs and feelings (expressive communication) is critical in social interactions. Willis and Schiller (2011) suggest teachers assist children by developing their listening skills and an awareness of body language and voice tone. Teachers can promote proficiency by modelling active-listening and helping children recognise what different social cues might mean. For expressing themselves, children need a rich vocabulary that includes key words for playing with others, making friends, and sharing emotions. Reading books that help children learn about different social situations, making friends, and different emotions can be a great way to introduce new vocabulary. Teachers might also make sure to use friendship words, emotion words, and other related words in everyday interactions with children.

Strategies and ideas described in this article can support teachers to help all children develop the skills they need for social and emotional competence. None-the-less, for some children, more intervention might be required. When children have persistent difficulty with social interactions or challenging behaviour then individualised interventions might need to be put into place (Fox & Lentini, 2006). Early childhood teachers should seek additional support (e.g. local administrative support, Group Special Education services) when children need additional assistance.

CONCLUSION

The development of social and emotional competence is instrumental in children experiencing success within their social interactions in early childhood and being ready for school (Ziv, 2010). Understanding the complex skills that children need to display social and emotional competence can aid teachers to support children in this area. Teachers should review the social environment regularly to ensure that strategies are in place to cater for and accommodate the diverse personalities of children attending. It is important for teachers to know their children well and use strategies that build on children’s strengths to support the development of new skills. The creation of a positive social environment, where there is mutual trust and respect, forms the backdrop where children can be supported as they practise and develop social and emotional competence.

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AUTHOR PROFILES

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ABSTRACT

Te Kotahitanga is a Kaupapa Māori research and development programme that aims at improving Māori student achievement. Through interviews with students, teachers and whānau, the characteristics of teachers who made a difference were identified. These characteristics were drawn together to form the Effective Teaching Profile (ETP). This literature review provides a brief background on the Te Kotahitanga programme with an emphasis on the ETP and its impact on Māori students’ achievement in secondary schools. The educational disparities that exist and perpetuate for indigenous (Māori) learners in Aotearoa/New Zealand are discussed as a rationale for implementing Te Kotahitanga in schools. This literature review explores the principles of the ETP and how these impact on Māori achievement. The ETP is also considered from a Resource Teacher: Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) viewpoint.

Keywords: Māori, student achievement, Te Kotahitanga

INTRODUCTION

The Te Kotahitanga project needs no introduction to secondary school teachers around Aotearoa/New Zealand. The project was developed and implemented from 2001 by the Māori Research Institute at the School of Education at the University of Waikato, and was funded by the Ministry of Education from that time until 2013. The success and sustainability of the programme has been discussed in detail over the years. There is a great deal of literature available on the topic of educational achievement of indigenous students in schools all over the world. Since Te Kotahitanga is an Aotearoa/New Zealand programme, mainly Aotearoa/New Zealand studies have been used because of their particular relevance to Māori students in this country.

Educational disparity in Aotearoa? New Zealand Schools

One of the major challenges in the Aotearoa/New Zealand education system is the social and economic disparity between the indigenous Māori and the dominant non-Māori (Pākehā) people. According to Bishop, Berryman, Wearmouth and Peter (2012), Māori have higher levels of unemployment and incarceration and are at higher risk of physical illness, poverty and educational underachievement. These disparities are reflected in all levels across the education sector. Many policies, projects and programmes have been developed and implemented for reducing the educational disparities between Māori and Pākehā over the years, but the disparities continue.

Although the Treaty of Waitangi promised power sharing and self-determination for both Māori and Pākehā, the relationships between these two groups were politically, socially and economically dominated by Pākehā which led to the marginalisation of Māori people (Bishop & Glynn, 1999). According to Bishop and Glynn, indigenous languages, values, beliefs and practices have not been represented in Aotearoa/New Zealand classrooms. This has led to the state playing a major role in destroying Māori language and culture, replacing them with the culture of the colonisers.

Earlier studies by Ladson–Billings (1995) and Sheurich and Young (1997) indicated that where schools practise ‘majority’ pedagogical methods that are at odds with the cultural pedagogical methods of the minority culture, institutional racism ensues. Berryman and Glynn (2004) found that such practices were very commonplace in Aotearoa/New Zealand and a generation of Māori people neither learned to speak the Māori language nor have an insight into their traditions and cultural practices. These findings reiterate what Vygotsky (1978) and McNaughton (1995) pointed out; that the socio-cultural perspectives on human learning emphasise the importance of the responsive social and cultural context in which learning takes place as major factors to successful learning.

Programmes aimed at Māori education prior to Te Kotahitanga

The development of the Taha Māori programme
was one of the earliest attempts to bring cultural integrity into schools. The programme was initiated in the 1980s in response to the growing need among Māori and non-Māori educators to recognise and acknowledge Māori as the tangata whenua (first people) of Aotearoa/New Zealand (Bishop & Glynn, 2004). Te Kōhanga Reo (preschool Māori language nests), Kura Kaupapa Māori (Māori medium primary schools), Wharekura (Māori-medium secondary schools) through to Whare Wānanga (Māori medium tertiary institutions) are all initiatives based on Kaupapa Māori as the underlying philosophy (Smith, 1995). According to Smith (1992), Kaupapa Māori is “the philosophy and practice of being and acting Māori” (p.63). Kaupapa Māori adopts a more culturally-appropriate approach and it underpins the philosophy and motivation within a range of Māori-driven schooling and education initiatives.

In the Kaupapa Māori settings, Māori values and practices are used to facilitate teaching and learning. Core values such as manaakitanga (caring; supporting), aroha (compassion; respect) and whakaiti (humility) are at the core of all interactions. Tuakana (an elder/more capable learner) support the learning of teina (a younger/less capable learner), and this learning pedagogy is incorporated into a wider pedagogical framework that deems learning to be a reciprocal process; learners care for and facilitate the learning of their peers (Smith, 1995).

Just as Kaupapa Māori settings provide guidelines for what constitutes excellence in Māori education and connects with Māori aspirations, mainstream schools needed a philosophical framework or approach which would enable Māori learners to reach their potential in a bicultural context. That is seen as essential for the development of education relations and interactions which will increase educational achievement and reduce disparities (Bishop et al., 2006). Bishop (2005) suggests that locating solutions within Māori cultural ways of knowing actually offers workable solutions to educational achievement and disparities. This reality has seen a push to create new metaphoric spaces in which Māori feel safe to bring their own prior knowledge and experiences to mainstream educational contexts in order to support their learning (Bishop & Berryman, 2012). Ultimately, Te Kotahitanga offers a Kaupapa Māori response to the dominant Pākehā discourse which in bygone years has marginalised Māori potential and cultural aspirations (Bishop, 1996).

Te Kotahitanga commenced in 2001 by gathering a number of narratives of experiences of secondary school students in five mainstream secondary schools (Bishop, 1996). These narratives were complimented by the shared stories of parents, principals and teachers. The rest of the project is developed based on these stories. The students in their stories identified the main influences on their educational achievement as in-class relationships and interactions between Māori students and teachers (Bishop, Berryman, Tiakiwai & Richardson, 2003).

In contrast, the majority of teachers suggested that the major influences on educational achievement of Māori are the children themselves, whānau circumstances or structural issues. Bishop, Berryman, Tiakiwai and Richardson (2003) point out that this deficit theorising by teachers is the major reason behind Māori underachievement. The study also showed that when teachers were provided with professional development which places them in non-confrontational situations, they could critically reflect on their theorising and how it impacts on Māori student achievement. Agentic (being an active agent), non-deficit theorising is evidenced in teachers developing caring classroom relationships and interactions. Many international studies which focus on improving indigenous student achievement support the relevance of transforming teaching practices and the school culture that recognise indigenous students cultural values and experiences (Sarra, 2011). According to Bishop (2008), in Aotearoa/New Zealand, Te Kotahitanga seeks to promote an educational system where power is shared between self-determining individuals within non-dominating relations of interdependence, where learning is interactive, culture is valued, and participants are connected and committed to one another.

Based on the observations and the narratives of the students, Bishop, et al. (2003) developed an effective teaching profile (ETP) that rejects deficit theorising about Māori student achievements. The students raised concern about the majority of teaching practices in relation to themselves as Māori students. They provided possible solutions to improve teaching practices that would help them to engage more effectively with learning in the classroom (Bishop et al., 2003). These solutions were categorised into different characteristics of the ETP. The student suggestions were then aligned with current literature on effective teaching. The findings of two previous studies, viz Te Toi Huarewa (Bishop, Berryman & Richardson, 2001) and AIMHI (Hawk & Hill, 2000) were used in creating the ETP. The ETP promoted agentic discursive positioning and the implementation of caring and learning relationships in the classroom (Bishop & Berryman, 2012). ETP forms the basis of the Te Kotahitanga professional development programme that has covered 49 schools across the country in four phases (Bishop, Berryman, Wearmouth, Peter & Clapham, 2011).
Part 1 and 2 of the Effective Teaching Profile

The ETP is made up of two parts. The first part identifies two major understandings that effective teachers of Māori have and the second part identifies six ways that effective teachers relate and interact with Māori students on a daily basis (Bishop & Berryman, 2009). The first of the two understandings is that students have and the second part identifies six ways that effective teachers relate and interact with Māori students on a daily basis (Bishop & Berryman, 2009). The first of the two understandings is that students have and the second part identifies six ways that effective teachers relate and interact with Māori students on a daily basis (Bishop & Berryman, 2009). The first of the two understandings is that students have and the second part identifies six ways that effective teachers relate and interact with Māori students on a daily basis (Bishop & Berryman, 2009).

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Part Two discusses how effective teachers’ actions bring about changes in Māori students educational achievement. The six ways in which teachers relate and interact with Māori students are described as manaakitanga (caring for the person), mana motuhake (caring for performance), ngā turanga takitahi ne ngā mana whakahaere (creating a well-managed learning setting), wānanga (effective teacher interaction), ako (strategies) and kotahitanga (outcomes) (Bishop et al., 2003). In practice this means that teachers care and acknowledge the mana of the students as culturally-located individuals. Teachers will have high expectations of students and will be able to manage their classroom to promote learning. This creates whānau-type relations and interactions within the classroom and between teachers, students and their homes. All these, together with the discursive teaching interactions and strategies, and a focus on a formative assessment process, forms the second part of ETP (Bishop & Berryman, 2009).

Bishop et al. (2012) observed that fundamental to the ETP is teachers’ understanding of the need to reject deficit theorising and taking an agentic position in their theorising about their practice. In order to change the teaching practices, a professional development programme was introduced. It provided teachers with professional learning opportunities where they could critically evaluate where they discursively positioned themselves when forming their own images, principles and practices with regards to Māori and other minority groups in class (Bishop et al., 2003). Teachers were given ongoing opportunities to consider the implications of their discursive positioning on their own agencies and for Māori students’ learning (Bishop et al., 2012). Bishop and Berryman (2009) point out that teachers collaboratively promote, monitor, and reflect upon students’ learning outcomes so as to modify their instructional practices in ways that will lead to improvements in Māori student achievement.

However, there were teachers who questioned the implications of the Te Kotahitanga model of teacher positioning. Gutschlag (2007) argues that there is actually a large gap between deficit theorising and agency which is already populated by a number of alternatives to these two discursive positions. Gutschlag observes that deficit theorising has been used to create a scenario in which agentic positioning is the only reasonable position available for teachers to take and thus the teachers are left without a choice. It is strongly recommended that alternative positions should be opened up for debate before Te Kotahitanga’s critical potential can be realised (Gutschlag, 2007).

In contrast to this, Lawrence (2011) agrees that as a non-Māori teacher she had applied Te Kotahitanga principles and she has done this by facilitating a process of critical self-reflection on her discursive positioning as a teacher and the way in which it helped to build up interactions and relationships with Māori students. Lawrence (2011) understands that there is no list of strategies which one should stick to and that a teacher should be a learner working from a relational base to develop a culturally-responsive pedagogy of relations.

Implications of ETP on Māori achievement

The analysis of implementing the ETP proves that schools which implemented it effectively saw Māori student schooling experiences improve significantly. In addition, participation, engagement, retention and achievement all showed positive gains in relation to the comparison group of schools (Bishop et al., 2012; Meyer et al., 2010). Evidence from the Te Kotahitanga project (Bishop et al., 2007) and from a three year evaluation of the project (Meyer et al., 2010) showed that facilitators have helped most of the (75 percent) teachers to incorporate ETP in such a way that they are now able to engage students in teaching for understanding. The evidence demonstrated that the implementation of pedagogical intervention was successful. Māori students in these intervention schools made greater gains than Māori students in non-intervention schools. However, Bishop et al. (2012) raise concerns whether these gains can be sustained in the intervention schools and whether they can be scalable in both existing and new schools.
It is clear from the analysis of the data from Phase 3 that Māori student achievement patterns continued to improve in association with the maintenance of changes in teacher’s practices (Bishop et al., 2011; Meyer et al., 2010). The data analysis of Phase 3 categorises schools (12 of them) into four categories: high implementers and high maintainers of the project (four schools); previously high implementers but currently low maintainers (three schools), previously partial implementers but currently poised to implement fully (four schools), and low implementers and low maintainers (one school).

Schools which are high implementers and high maintainers managed to embed the project into their systems, policies and processes. Such schools kept their facilitators in permanent positions although the funding had ceased for them (Bishop et al., 2012). There is strong evidence that these school leaders have taken the theories and principles of Te Kotahitanga as their own, especially the understanding about strong relationships between the quality of teachers theorising and practice with Māori student outcomes. In the second category are schools that implemented the Te Kotahitanga project at the initial stages but allowed the professional development cycle to be eroded in the latter stages due to problems of providing ongoing support for facilitators and funding problems. The current staff are committed to implement ETP into their classrooms but there are limited opportunities for the induction of new staff into the programme (Meyer et al., 2010).

Schools in the third category are schools which experienced implementation and maintenance problems such as changes in leadership, strong resistance from middle managers, problems with funding, competition between bilingual units and mainstream classes, and competition for resources from other projects. These problems affected the proper implementation of the Effective Teaching Profile through the professional development cycle (Bishop et al., 2012). However, there were individuals who showed excellence and subject departments which fully-implemented the principles of this project. There were leaders in these schools who were willing to spend their own funding for the maintenance of the project (Bishop et al., 2012). The only school in the fourth category faced problems in implementing and maintaining it. This school has opted for alternative approaches to Māori student achievement.

Bishop et al. (2011) found that the sample size of the groups is small and suggests that further research is needed with a greater range of student outcome measures. Because of this, it may be difficult to draw solid conclusions; however there is evidence that Māori students in the seven schools in the first two categories are making better progress than those in the latter two categories (Bishop et al., 2011). The teachers from the first two categories are effective implementers of the ETP in their classrooms and they have reported steady gains in Māori student attendance, retention, engagement and achievement (Bishop & Berryman, 2009).

While comparing the NCEA results in these first two categories, it was found that in 2006, 2008 and 2009 the mean percentage of Māori students’ who gained NCEA Level 1 was significantly higher in the high implementers, high maintainers category than previously high implementers, currently low maintainers schools. Overall, the pedagogic intervention has been effective in reducing the educational disparities and improving the retention and schooling experiences of Māori students in the first large group of schools (Bishop et al., 2012).

Using a theory or principle-based model designed for the purpose of evaluation, the 12 schools in the third phase were examined in their sixth and seventh years since the beginning of the programme. The findings of this research showed that schools varied in their degree of project implementation and maintenance and this range was associated with a range of student outcomes. Those who had been the most effective implementers of the intervention have seen the greatest gains made by the Māori students in NCEA Level 1. In his sabbatical research report, Taffs (2012) mentions that in his school the NCEA Level 1 achievement was 43 percent in 2005 and this had gone up to 76 percent in 2010 among Māori boys.

**Effective teaching profile in the RTLB context**

The RTLB Toolkit lists seven guiding principles for RTLB practice. One of these is ‘culturally-responsive practices’ which means recognising, valuing and responding to the needs of Māori. It incorporates the competencies within Tātaiako: Cultural Competencies for Teachers of Māori Learners (Ministry of Education, 2011), such as wānanga (participating with learners and communities), whanaungatanga (actively engaging in respectful working relations with Māori learners and their families), manaakitanga (showing integrity, sincerity and respect to Māori beliefs, culture and language), tangata whenuataunga (affirming Māori learners as Māori) and ako (taking responsibility for their own learning and that of Māori learners). This aligns with the core principles of ETP. A culturally-responsive approach ensures that RTLB develop relationships with Māori whānau and community members so that they can actively participate in the decision-making process to improve Māori achievement (RTLB Toolkit). Bishop and Berryman (2009) reiterate that fundamental to the ETP is the creation of culturally-responsive contexts for...
learning for Māori students which clearly agrees with the principles of the RTLB Toolkit.

In her keynote address at the Te Kotahitanga conference in 2010, Berryman described how Te Kotahitanga professional development included RTLBs in the ETP training in certain schools as a part of team-building. Although there is no direct mention of how Te Kotahitanga is used in RTLB practices, it is clear that the ideas, principles and values of both practices overlap (Berryman, 2010).

**CONCLUSION**

The evidence suggests that the changes in teacher understandings and behaviours contribute to changes in their relationships and interactions with Māori students. The teachers who implemented ETP showed greater caring, improved classroom management and changed their classroom interactions from traditional to discursive, and spent more time on actual learning (Bishop et al., 2012). They also found that Māori students became more academically-engaged, completed more work in class, attended class regularly, and saw their summative assessment results improved (Bishop et al., 2006).

Even though there is strong evidence that highlights constructive ways to improve Māori achievement through the implementation of ETP, the question is how to sustain these gains. Full implementation of the ETP in mainstream schools and its sustainability is reliant on the commitment and advocacy of school management and leadership. While the government supported the programme during the initial stages, the funding stopped from 2013 and schools were left with the choice of using their own money to fund the continued professional development associated with this programme. In 2013, the Ministry of Education initiated a new programme “Building on Success”, which combines the best of Te Kotahitanga, Starpath, He Kākano and Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi in response to raising Māori student achievement. Hopefully this programme will deliver a more integrated “package in schools of culturally-responsive leadership, teaching and learning practices, than has been done before” (Parata, 2013).

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IT JUST DOESN’T ADD UP. EXPLAINING DYSCALCULIA AND OVERCOMING NUMBER PROBLEMS FOR CHILDREN AND ADULTS.

PAUL MOORCRAFT

Reviewed by: Carol Watts

Dyscalculia – usually perceived as a specific learning difficulty for maths, or more importantly, arithmetic – is a relatively misunderstood or lesser-known difficulty, compared, for instance, to dyslexia. For those diagnosed with the condition, dyscalculia is all-pervading, as the author can attest.

For the first time, a book has been written for dyscalculics by a high-achieving and high-functioning dyscalculic: an academic who has amassed and attained many awards and written numerous books throughout his extraordinary career - variously as a war correspondent, the director for the Centre for Foreign Policy Analysis in the UK, author, journalist, university lecturer (to name a few) - yet kept his disability a secret until he recently decided to tell his story to help others similarly afflicted. Moorcraft’s “coming out” is a rite of passage for others attempting to navigate the murky waters of numbers, formulae, timetables and the like.

The book is a practical guide with the over-riding intention to describe what dyscalculia is, what it does, and how to manage the difficulty. It is designed to inform, unravel and give qualified suggestions to both those afflicted with, and those working with, persons with dyscalculia. Topics covered include a well-written introduction and description of dyscalculia, and the potential causes of same. There are references to dyslexia throughout the book but these are in context and do not detract from the essence of the book, and Moorcraft cleverly transposes relevant yet thought-provoking case studies intermittently throughout which highlight key aspects of the disability and alert the reader to potential signs to look for when working with dyscalculics. As well as being endorsed by Professor Brian Butterworth – the UK authority on dyscalculia and for whom the author was a candidate on high-functioning dyscalculics for research purposes - the book also has appendices detailing useful websites, teaching tips, and symptoms of dyscalculia, as well as a helpful glossary of terms and an extensive guide for further reading. It gives a very concise and descriptive overview of dyscalculia interspersed with humourous one-liners and sketches depicting typical thoughts when confronted with what, for many, are simple, everyday mathematical situations.

He describes key symptoms of dyscalculia with a short but interesting synopsis of a gifted young girl who was able to put things into proportion once she was diagnosed: this summary features the thoughts and feelings of someone who, like Moorcraft, hid her weakness yet overcame the learning difficulty to ultimately consider it an “unusual gift”.

Co-morbidity with other conditions may be as high as seventy percent and the author clearly details related or similar disabilities in this section. Professional assessment is key for successful remedial intervention to occur, and the author proffers several resources for this purpose, including a very useful checklist of issues raised by dyscalculic children especially for parents and teachers to consider. However, it is Chapter 5 – “Teaching Dyscalculics” - that brings the book together skilfully and cohesively for the reader: each subsection is carefully crafted to give insight to a world of mathematical mayhem from a child’s perspective whilst giving practical suggestions and reminders for even the most experienced of teachers. A practical and user-friendly section is devoted to parents of dyscalculic children with a plethora of easily-implemented suggestions and advice to use on a regular basis, and normalises what, for many, could be overwhelming territory. Because the condition almost always continues into adulthood, Moorcraft similarly explores the difficulties of dyscalculia from an adult perspective, from time-management to shopping to helping their children with homework. However, in his typical optimistic style, Moorcraft is quick to point out to anyone afflicted with dyscalculia to never give up, and he has penned a short but
upbeat chapter specifically with this message at the forefront, followed by insightful quotes and extracts from social media forums. Even though the condition does not go away, Moorcraft encourages others to develop strategies and mechanisms to cope: there is no quick-fix, yet this is best-described by the author himself when he states that “just because [you] can’t count, it doesn’t mean [you] don’t count”.

Did the book “add up”? Definitely!

REVIEWER PROFILE

Carol Watts is a registered educational psychologist, and works as a Resource Teacher: Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) in the Ngaruawahia area. Prior to this she taught at both primary and secondary schools, and successfully ran Te Puawaitanga, an alternative learning centre for recidivist students. She is a founding member of Kairaranga and continues to play a pivotal role on the editorial board along with colleagues Cath Steeghs, Graeme Nobilo and Paul Mitchell.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL DATA

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