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**Inclusion and behavioural difficulties in secondary
schools: Representations and practices**

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Abstract

Despite a political commitment towards inclusive education, research evidence suggests that barriers to inclusion in New Zealand remain. Notably, disciplinary practices exclude students from secondary schools. There is also little evidence as to how teachers define and practice inclusion, in spite of the fact that the translation of inclusion into practice necessitates the development of an articulated and shared vision of what inclusion entails for practice. Thus, this study aims to explore social representations of inclusion among secondary school teachers. It also aims to explore how these representations function in the classroom by examining their relationships with the practices used by teachers to prevent and manage difficult behaviour.

The study was designed as an iterative two-phase research process. Phase One involved an online questionnaire intended for teachers, teacher aides, Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour and Ministry of Education: Special education staff to explore their representations of inclusion and behavioural difficulties. Building on this preliminary investigation, Phase Two involved case studies conducted with teachers in three schools where multiple sources of information and data collection methods allowed investigation of teachers' representations and practices in context.

Findings indicate that inclusion is multi-dimensional in teachers' representations with elements pertaining to practices, values, social justice, and resourcing. This reveals that teachers are knowledgeable about inclusion as a professional group. Each school context and teachers' representations of their school community influenced their representations of inclusion. However, results also show that teachers' representations are anchored in the model of integration as participants name conditions to inclusion, among which is the condition that students' behavioural needs are not too severe for their presence in regular classrooms. Barriers to inclusion are also identified within teachers' representations. Teachers' practices in preventing and dealing with difficult behaviour show a progression with preventative strategies used first and targeted practices used as behaviour seriousness increased. The variety of explanations used by participants to justify their practices point to the importance of understanding the complex relationships between representations and practices to evaluate the inclusiveness of teachers' actions. Recommendations are made to help individual teachers and school communities building on their existing knowledge for greater inclusion.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Two decades ago, a non-equivocal statement for a shift towards inclusive education was lodged by way of the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994). Grounded in social justice and equity, this international agreement prompted governments to adopt the principles of inclusive education through legislation and educational policies. With the right to education for all as its premise, the Salamanca Statement was a commitment to “recognizing the necessity and urgency of providing education for children, youth and adults with special educational needs within the regular education system” (UNESCO, 1994, p. viii). Many countries and states now work to create educational systems, schools and classrooms for all, indicating that a worldwide movement for inclusive education is underway (A. C. Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2010; UNESCO, 2005). New Zealand is part of this movement (Ballard & MacDonald, 1998; Kearney & Kane, 2006) where the goal has been set to achieve a “target of 100% of schools demonstrating inclusive practices by 2014” (Ministry of Education, n.d.-f).¹

Notwithstanding political support at the system-level to implement inclusive education policies and legislations, barriers to inclusion remain, particularly with regard to behaviour difficulties at school. Conciliation of the principles of inclusion with dealing with serious behaviours is not an easy task for schools and education practitioners. Challenging and serious behaviours can affect the classroom and school climates and can impact negatively on learning (Kauffman, 2005; Walker, Ramsey, & Gresham, 2004). However, low level continual disobedience can also affect the classroom climate and learning (Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011) and research evidence shows that many teachers do not feel prepared or face difficulties to prevent such behaviours and manage their classroom adequately (Anthony & Kane, 2008; Clunies - Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008; Ford, 2007; Johansen, Little, & Akin-Little, 2011). They often use reactive or punitive disciplinary practices that can exacerbate disruptive behaviours and increase students’ resistance (Barton-Arwood, Murrow, Lane, & Jolivette, 2005; R. Lewis, Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2005). As a result, students perceived or identified as experiencing low level continual disobedience to serious behaviours are often withdrawn from regular classrooms, enrolled in separate schools or units, or excluded from school (Church, 2003; Dharan, Meyer, & Mincher, 2012; Ministry of Education, 2011b; Ramel & Longchampt, 2009; Walker et al., 2004), thus

¹ All citations from the Ministry of Education refer to the New Zealand Ministry of Education.

impacting negatively on their learning and participation. Moreover, students experiencing behavioural difficulties are considered the most difficult to include in regular classrooms (Cartledge & Johnson, 1996) and teachers' attitudes regarding their presence in regular classrooms are reported as negative (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000a; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Chazan, 1994; Danforth & Morris, 2006; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Swinson, Woof, & Melling, 2003). Therefore, an investigation of the nature of inclusion from the perspectives of teachers is believed to help understand how inclusion is practiced in the context of preventing and dealing with the spectrum of behavioural difficulties at school.

1.1 Research Aims of the Study

This study explores New Zealand secondary education teachers' knowledge of inclusion. Precisely, it aims to describe the representations they socially construct of inclusion (Phase One and Phase Two). The study also explores how these representations function in three schools by looking at their relationships with the practices teachers use to prevent and deal with behavioural difficulties (Phase Two). Secondary education was selected because of the particular challenges faced in implementing inclusive practices at this level (Pearce & Forlin, 2005) and because disciplinary measures still exclude adolescents from New Zealand secondary schools (Dharan et al., 2012; Ministry of Education, 2011b). This study relies on a context dependent continuum of behaviour as reflected in New Zealand school practices and educational policies (Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011).

1.2 Rationale for the Study

The rationale for this study is threefold. First, it is pertinent to explore teachers' perspectives and practices in relation to inclusion given the central role of these professionals in inclusive education. Indeed, it is argued that teachers need to buy into and have positive attitudes towards inclusive education policies for their translation into practice (Anderson, Klassen, & Georgiou, 2007; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). As Kearney and Kane (2006) explain, "if inclusion is to be a reality in New Zealand schools, every teacher must accept the major responsibility for meeting the needs of all students" (p. 209). However, the implementation of inclusive policies has proven to be problematic partly because inclusion is a complex and elusive concept without a clear definition or a consensus about what it entails (Ainscow, 1999; Cooper, 2004; Slee, 2001b; Wearmouth & Glynn, 2004). This complexity is reflected in inclusive educational policies which are often based on conflicting theoretical underpinnings (Slee, 2007), thus

creating confusion among practitioners with regard to the nature and practice of inclusion. It is therefore critical to explore teachers' knowledge about inclusion by examining their representations of this concept. So far, no study has been identified that investigated New Zealand teachers' representations of inclusion.

Second, this study builds upon the theory of social representations, an established theoretical framework yet a new platform for examining inclusion. Sustained by a social constructivist epistemology, this theory contributes to investigation of teachers' knowledge of inclusion and the extent to which these professionals believe in, value and practise inclusion, thus allowing investigation beyond attitudinal inclusive education research. Adopting a social constructivist posture also has the potential to inform practice as identifying the constructed meanings is a departure point to changing or reconstructing those meanings and their associated practices (Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012; Jodelet, 2011a). This is emphasised by Lincoln and Guba (2000): "The meaning-making activities themselves are of central interest to social constructionists/constructivists, simply because it is the meaning-making/sense-making/attributional activities that shape action (or inaction)" (p. 167). Studying social representations is therefore useful to unveil relationships between thought and action, between representations of inclusion and practices used to prevent and deal with behavioural difficulties.

Finally, this study is timely in two ways. First, it follows the *New Zealand Review of Special Education 2010* which sought to "understand whether different parts of the sector have different views about the issues discussed" (Ministry of Education, 2010a, p. 5). Many of these issues were related to inclusion (i.e., schools welcoming and meeting the needs of all students, collaboration between specialists and regular schools, funding allocation, access to quality resources, accountability, good practice). The study thus adds to the information gathered in the review by focusing on the perspectives of teachers who are central agents to inclusion. Second, this study was conducted at a defining point for behaviour management practice. Set in a policy mandated inclusive educational system seeking to foster positive behaviour for learning, this study helps understand the interplay between the precepts of inclusion as viewed by teachers and their practices to prevent and deal with what they view as behavioural difficulties.

1.3 Context of the Study

Inclusive education policies developed over the last 20 years in New Zealand in the form of the *Special Education 2000* framework. Implemented in 1996, this framework provides a support system at the national level to meet the needs of students experiencing special educational needs

(SEN) in inclusive schools (Greaves, 2003; Kearney & Kane, 2006; Ministry of Education, 2010a). The very name of this framework and its focus on meeting the needs of SEN students shows that it encompasses ideas pertaining to the field of special education (Higgins, MacArthur, & Morton, 2008; Kearney & Kane, 2006). Among the many initiatives embedded in this framework, support is offered to teachers who may need help to manage their classroom and work with students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Figure 1.1 is an illustration of the New Zealand model contributing to prevent and respond to students' behavioural needs. This model involves a multi-tiered prevention system combining: (a) classroom and whole-school preventative interventions for all students, (b) targeted and preventative interventions for students experiencing moderate needs, and (c) individual intensive interventions for students experiencing high needs.

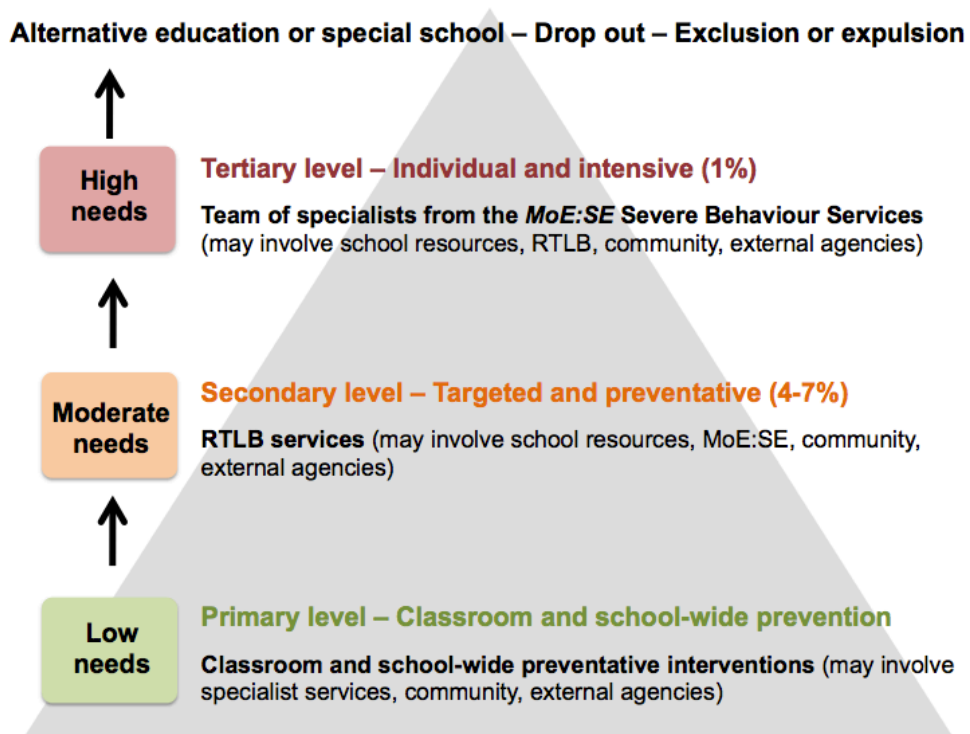


Figure 1.1. The New Zealand model for support (figure adapted from: Greaves, 2003; Kearney & Kane, 2006; Ministry of Education, 1996, 1998; Wills, 2006).

At the primary level, preventative actions are put in place by teachers and school staff to deal with low needs (e.g., code of conduct and clear expectations, pastoral care, good classroom management, effective teaching, bullying prevention, etc.). Schools also allocate funding for

teacher aide² time to support students and teachers in class. The person in charge of learning support in each school, often a Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCO) or Head of Learning Support, overviews service provision (Education Review Office, 2012a). Although school resources are central at this level, collaboration with specialist services, community and external agencies can occur to increase the school capability to meet the needs of all students.

At the secondary level, targeted and preventative interventions for moderate needs involve Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour (RTLB) (Ministry of Education, n.d.-b). RTLB are experienced teachers whose role is to work with individuals or small groups of students and to support teachers to reflect on, and change their practice. They work on a case-by-case referral basis. RTLB can also introduce class or school-wide programmes as part of their case load. The RTLB service was created in 1996 as part of *Special Education 2000*. To better align resources, the service was transformed at the beginning of 2012 in order to increase consistency, to have greater governance, support systems and professional leadership nation-wide, and to better respond to Māori and Pasifika³ students (Ministry of Education, n.d.-d).

At the tertiary level, intensive interventions support students presenting high behavioural needs. These interventions include crisis and intensive wraparound support provided by Ministry of Education: Special Education (MoE:SE) staff working within the Severe Behaviour Service⁴ (Ministry of Education, n.d.-e), including educational psychologists, special education advisors and behaviour support workers.⁵ They also include Māori cultural advisors who provide culturally appropriate support to the indigenous people of New Zealand. RTLB and MoE:SE services are available for students enrolled in year 10 and below, with extra funding available to support older students if needed. Specialised external agencies complement these services.

Following the *Taumata Whanonga* summit held in 2009 which brought together educational stakeholders, professionals and members of the community to find ways to tackle disruptive behaviour at school, the *Positive Behaviour for Learning* plan (PB4L) was progressively implemented in schools from 2010 onwards to prevent and manage disruptive behaviour (Ministry of Education, n.d.-a). Adapted from the *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports* approach developed in the United States (Sailor et al., 2004), PB4L maintains the multi-tiered support system described above. Each level incorporates a series of initiatives

² Teacher aides are paraprofessionals also known as school aides or teacher assistants in other countries.

³ Māori refers to the indigenous people of New Zealand. Pasifika refers to the people coming from Pacific Islands and living in New Zealand.

⁴ This service was formerly called the Severe Behaviour Initiative. Teams working within that service were formerly known as Behaviour Support Teams.

⁵ Behaviour support workers are paraprofessionals specialised in behavioural difficulties.

involving school staff, students and their whānau,⁶ the wider community, specialist services or external agencies. The plan provides support for the wide array of behaviours encountered in schools ranging from mild to serious behaviours, with prevalence decreasing as seriousness increases (Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011). For instance, secondary schools working with PB4L are encouraged to set clear expectations for learning and behaviours (primary level), to implement restorative practices (primary and secondary levels), and to seek specialist support if needed to keep students at school and meet their needs (tertiary level). PB4L keeps with the commitment to develop school capability as “the learner with behaviour disorders would always remain the responsibility of the teacher and school staff” (Prochnow, 2006, p. 332). PB4L is intended to harmonise the support offered to schools and students nation-wide.⁷

Alongside the New Zealand model and the recent implementation of PB4L, schools are entitled to use disciplinary measures excluding students on the basis of their disruptive behaviour. These disciplinary practices are enshrined in sections 13-19 of the *Education Act 1989* (see 2.3.2). Therefore, the response to difficult behaviours in New Zealand combines proactive school-wide approaches and preventative strategies, direct support to students and teachers, expert interventions, and disciplinary withdrawals. Some of these strategies can be perceived as non-inclusive. For instance, expert support through special education can be associated with the medical model viewing students with special needs as disabled individuals bearers of a deficit (Grenier, 2010; Kearney & Kane, 2006; MacArthur, 2009). Another example, disciplinary withdrawals exclude students from being at school while presence is a necessary condition to their participation and learning (Booth, 1996b; Burton, Bartlett, & de Cuevas, 2009; Dharan et al., 2012). This information is conducive to studying representations of inclusion and their relationships with practices used to prevent and deal with difficult behaviours in the current New Zealand context.

1.4 The Place of the Researcher

Embarking on a study of inclusion generated a thorough reflection on my past experiences. Like any research endeavour, these experiences influenced the research process. Therefore, I feel obligated to the readers to present my background.

⁶ Whānau is the Māori word for family, a concept encompassing the extended family.

⁷ The schools involved in the second phase of this study were not at the stage of implementing PB4L at the time of data collection. However, the multi-tiered support system in place prior to PB4L was already contributing to organising support. The three schools had implemented initiatives included in PB4L (see Chapter Six).

After graduating with a Bachelor of Special Education,⁸ I taught in a special school for adolescents experiencing high behavioural needs in Québec, Canada. I quickly became concerned about my students' experience of school, wondering about their inclusion into our society. I engaged in a Master's degree and interviewed young people enrolled in segregated classes or education facilities. Listening to the imbalance between their aspirations and hopelessness for the future increased my interest in social justice and inclusive education. This was the starting point to conducting this study in New Zealand.

This study adopts a social constructivist stance to understand inclusion from the subjective experiences of people working or studying in New Zealand secondary schools. Albeit being very much concerned about the exclusion of students identified or perceived as experiencing behavioural difficulties, I look at inclusion as a broader issue given the aim of inclusive education to provide quality education for all. Behaviour-related issues are also incorporated to this thesis to examine how teachers prevent and respond to difficult behaviours in relation to their representations of inclusion. In doing so, it is important to acknowledge the difficulties inherent to the task of dealing with a wide array of behavioural difficulties in an inclusive way.

1.5 Thesis Overview

This thesis comprises nine chapters. The present chapter has introduced the study, its aims and rationale as well as the context in which it took place. Chapter Two reviews the literature on inclusive education and behavioural difficulties. It situates and supports the study. Chapter Three presents the theory of social representations, the framework used to interpret the findings. Chapter Four exposes the epistemological underpinnings and the methodological and ethical considerations that guided this two-phase research process. Chapter Five presents the results of the preliminary examination aimed at identifying the object of representations and informing the second phase of the research. Chapter Six introduces each case study separately while Chapter Seven details the combined results from the three cases. This is followed by a discussion of the findings in Chapter Eight. Finally, Chapter Nine provides a summary of the findings and concludes the thesis with recommendations and suggestions for research and practice.

⁸ French appellation of the degree: Baccalauréat en enseignement en adaptation scolaire et sociale.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

The reform of social institutions is not only a technical task; it depends, above all, upon the conviction, commitment and good will of the individuals who constitute society. (Salamanca Statement, UNESCO, 1994, p. 11)

This chapter reviews the literature on inclusive education with an emphasis on inclusion in relation to behavioural difficulties. Sources reviewed include books, book sections, journal articles, and theses. Policy documents and professional educational publications from New Zealand were also included to anchor the research literature in the context of the study.

The first two sections of this chapter expose the origins and evolution of inclusion and illustrate its conceptual diversity within the field of inclusive education. The third section discusses behavioural difficulties and the fourth section barriers to the inclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Section five provides an overview of inclusive educational practices used to prevent and manage difficult behaviour. Finally, the questions guiding this study are introduced in section six.

2.1 Origins of Inclusion and Evolution of Inclusive Education

This section reports on the evolution of inclusive education over the last decades. Proceeding from an historical perspective is important as the development of inclusive education and the current discourses on inclusion are likely to influence policy as well as professionals' representations and practices.

2.1.1 Etymology.

Inclusion comes from the Latin *inclusionem*, name of the action *includere*, to include. Literally, it means “to shut or close in; to enclose within material limits” (Include, 2013, para. 1.a). Figuratively, it is associated to non-material boundaries: “to contain as a member of an

aggregate, or a constituent part of a whole; to embrace as a sub-division or section; to comprise; to comprehend” (Include, 2013, para. 2.a.). Exclusion is the antonym of inclusion. It comes from the verb *excludere*, to exclude, meaning “to shut out (persons, living things), hinder from entering (a place, enclosure, society, etc.)” (Exclude, 2013, para. 1.a.).

The etymology of inclusion reflects some of its common denotations in education, namely the presence of all children and young people within the material boundaries of a single physical location (i.e., a regular classroom), and their membership into figurative entities (e.g., group of peers, class, school community, etc.). This etymological information also illustrates the antithetical association inclusion-exclusion (Booth, 1996b; Kearney, 2009). Moreover, it echoes the development of inclusive education in New Zealand where it progressed “from little or no education provisions (...), to segregated systems, to systems of integration in regular schools, and more recently, towards systems of inclusive education” (Kearney, 2009, p. 3). Despite a similar evolution being reported elsewhere (Duchesne, 2002; Kavale & Forness, 2000; Vienneau, 2006) and despite the universal inclusive principles outlined in international documents and agreed upon by many nations (UNESCO, 1994, 2005), the social and historical specificities of each context need to be considered in studying inclusive education (Barton & Armstrong, 2007a). The next sub-sections emphasise the evolution of inclusive education in New Zealand. However, the global development of this movement is also acknowledged because inclusive education emerged in reaction to overseas models of special education and integration (Gargiuolo, 2012; D. Mitchell, 1987; UNESCO, 2005).

2.1.2 Special education.

Special education developed in the late 1700s, early 1800s to provide instruction for exceptional children⁹ historically excluded from education (Gargiuolo, 2012; Kauffman & Hallahan, 2005). Special education transformed over time and the following characteristics illustrate contemporary special education as defined by authors from this field (Gargiuolo, 2012; Heward, 2013; Kauffman & Hallahan, 2005). Drawing on the concept of normality, special education is targeted to students deemed exceptional because their characteristics differ significantly from the norm, whether below or above average.¹⁰ These characteristics are grouped into categories of exceptionalities used for different purposes (e.g., legal definitions, research, attribution of resources, service delivery, etc.). Special education rests on research identifying the attributes and causes of specific disorders and their potential outcomes. It aims to identify students’

⁹ The expression ‘exceptional children’ is commonly found in early and contemporary special education literature.

¹⁰ Gifted and talented students also figure as exceptional children and youth.

difficulties and proposes preventative, remedial or compensatory interventions to help students adapt to the academic and social demands of the curriculum and classroom. This may require professional or expert services and specialised strategies, material and equipment. Although traditionally associated with separate schools or classrooms, special education is now viewed as a service provided in both separate and general education settings.

D. Mitchell (1987) mentions that the first New Zealand special schools prepared neglected, poverty-stricken, and criminal children for working in the colony of the 1860s, reporting that special education at that time was “a blend of benevolent humanitarianism ... and of the imposition of hegemony over those who had the potential to disrupt the prevailing social order” (p. 27). The variety of special schools increased over the 1900s, influenced by overseas legislation and visiting experts (D. Mitchell, 1987) and a system of special schools and classrooms was fully established by the 1970s (Kearney, 2009).

The legitimacy of special education as a system parallel to regular education started to be questioned in the 1960s (Heward, 2013; Kavale & Forness, 2000). Criticisms based on human rights and effectiveness were put forward (Sebba & Ainscow, 1996; UNESCO, 2005). For instance, Dunn (1968) questioned the confinement of pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds or ethnic minorities into segregated settings and their labelling as ‘mentally retarded’. He viewed separate education as “a method of transferring these ‘misfits’ out of the regular grades” (p. 5) and reported research showing better student outcomes in regular settings. Later on, legislative changes embedded in the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act 1975* in the United States and in the *Education Act 1981* in the United Kingdom recognised the rights of exceptional children to receive an appropriate state education and services meeting their needs in regular school settings, as far as feasible (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). In the late 1980s, Sleek and Howie (1987) called for the same legal recognition of the rights to educational provision for exceptional children within the New Zealand public educational system “to the maximum extent possible, in an ordinary educational environment” (p. 62).

Special education is still challenged today from the viewpoint of inclusive education. Arguments of human rights and effectiveness still stand, along with ideological and political rationales (Kearney, 2009; Slee & Weiner, 2001; UNESCO, 2005). The ideological argument pertains to the knowledge-base of special education. Given its principles of normality and remediation, it is argued that special education draws on a medical model assuming that the problem is within the student (Ainscow, 1999; Grenier, 2010; Kearney & Kane, 2006; MacArthur, 2009; Thomas & Loxley, 2007). The political argument points to the incapacity of general education to meet the needs of all students, hence the perpetuation of a separate system

used as a “safety valve” (Slee, 1993, p. 5) “to contain the failure of public education to educate its youth for full political, economic, and cultural participation in democracy” (Skrtic, 1991, p. 24). Special educators themselves recognise the controversies of their field. A group of American special educators expose their conflicting views on special education reform, particularly with regard to the notion of disability, the purpose and expected outcomes of special education, the state of special education knowledge, its effectiveness and its ethical viability (Andrews et al., 2000). Kauffman and Hallahan (2005) also expose the following dilemmas of special education: (a) identification or non-identification of exceptionalities, (b) provision in regular settings or adapted instruction in special settings, (c) teacher selection to best serve the students’ interests, (d) under or overestimation of students’ abilities, and (e) curriculum selection to prepare exceptional students for life.

2.1.3 Integration.

Integration or mainstreaming¹¹ came as a response to separate special education (Vienneau, 2006). It developed from advocacy for human rights, social justice and equity (Chapman, 1988; Sleek & Howie, 1987). In essence, integration refers to a situation where SEN students¹² attend their regular neighbourhood school (Foreman, 2008). Specifically, integration developed in the following ways (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987):

... firstly, some exceptional children who were formerly placed in segregated special schools, or who were denied access to education, have been placed in special classes or units located in regular schools; secondly, some exceptional children enrolled in special classes have been included in regular classes for all or part of the school day. (p. 107)

Three types of integration are reported (Chapman, 1988; Garner, 2009). Locational integration refers to SEN students being educated in a separate classroom or unit in a regular school. Social integration consists in organised social interactions between SEN students and their peers during daily routines or school-wide activities. Functional integration involves the education of

¹¹ For some authors, integration and mainstreaming carry different meanings (Chapman, 1988; Foreman, 2008) while others believe they are synonyms (Garner, 2009; J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). Preferences for one or the other term rely on legislative terminology. Initially, mainstreaming was the preferred term in New Zealand because integration was associated with the incorporation of private schools into public education (Chapman, 1988; J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). However, integration is the preferred term in this thesis and will be used throughout the text unless reporting another author’s work. This choice rests on the extensive use of integration in international literature. This thesis differentiates between integration and inclusion because of their dissimilar underpinnings (Garner, 2009; Loreman, Deppeler, & Harvey, 2011; Vienneau, 2006).

¹² The expressions SEN students or students with or experiencing SEN are commonly used in the literature on integration and are still present in recent New Zealand documents (Ministry of Education, 2010a, 2010b, 2013a).

all students in the same classroom, full or part time. Integration relates to the principles of the least restrictive environment and normalisation (Chapman, 1988; Vienneau, 2006), meaning to provide education in an environment the closest to the student's natural environment so he or she can experience normal conditions of life (Wolfensberger, 1972).

There is evidence that students with SEN have long been integrated at their local school in New Zealand (Chapman, 1988; J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). The Department of Education¹³ supported integration as early as 1960 and a commitment to this idea was reiterated in the early 1980s (Greaves, 2003), although integration was not embedded in legislation yet (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987) and students experiencing behaviour disorders were rarely integrated at the time (Chapman, 1988; Sleek & Howie, 1987). In the early 1980s, teachers' organisations such as the New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI) and the Post Primary Teachers Association (PPTA)¹⁴ showed interest in integration, along with reservations on its effects on so-called normal children and on the necessity of appropriate and sufficient resources (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). Chapman (1988) reports the embodiment of integration in special education policy in a draft from 1987. This author deplored that integration was not debated but imposed as policy and he advised against the dangers of "maindumping" which consists in the "placement of students with special needs into regular classrooms without changing the regular education system, and without providing professional support services" (p. 123). Shortly after, the right of students with SEN to enrol at a state school without discrimination was legally recognised in section 8 of the *Education Act 1989*.

Integration raised criticisms based on human rights and effectiveness, similarly to the arguments against special education. Advocates of the early inclusive education movement condemned separate classes and units and the limitation of access to regular classes for mildly disabled students, pointing out that the conditionality of integration stated in the expression 'in the regular classroom wherever possible' would still exclude students (D. Mitchell, 2010; J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). Integration would not secure the rights of SEN students to receive education provision meeting their needs in regular schools because their rights were perceived as competing with the rights of their peers to quality education (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987). For instance, when functional integration was achieved and students with SEN attended a regular classroom, their educational and social needs were not necessarily addressed (Chapman, 1988; Vienneau, 2006). In other words, teaching, learning, and school-wide activities were not

¹³ Former appellation of the Ministry of Education.

¹⁴ The NZEI is the union representing teachers, principals and support and advisory staff working in early childhood, primary, area, secondary and special education schools. The PPTA is the union representing teachers in secondary, area and intermediates schools, technicraft centres and community education as well as principals in secondary and area schools.

designed for the full participation of these students who became in danger of being educationally and socially excluded. Integration was also criticised because it often consisted of transferring special education practices without “changes in the organisation of the ordinary school, its curriculum and teaching and learning strategies” (UNESCO, 2005, p. 9). Finally, normalisation conflicted with the idea of valuing diversity fostered in inclusive education (AuCoin & Vienneau, 2010; Florian, 2005; Loreman et al., 2011). As a result, “the term ‘integration’ has fallen out of favour because of the implication that somebody who is different is being ‘fitted in’ to a regular setting in a tokenistic way” (Foreman, 2008, p. 13), or in an assimilationist way (Ballard, 1997).

2.1.4 Towards inclusive education.

Inclusive education developed as an independent field in the late 1980s, early 1990s (Booth, 1996b; Thomas & Loxley, 2007). It arose from a number of “clusters of influence”¹⁵ (Slee, 2011, p. 62). One of the first ideas put forward was to merge special and general education into a unified system. This proposal rested on two tenets: “The first is that the instructional needs of students do not warrant the operation of a dual system. The second is the inefficiency of operating a dual system” (W. Stainback & S. Stainback, 1984, p. 102). It also challenged the assumption of normality and the distinction between exceptional and normal students. All students, not exclusively exceptional or SEN students, were to be considered as different and entitled to instruction meeting their needs. Thus, the capability of regular schools and classrooms to cater for all students in a single educational system needed to increase (Vienneau, 2006). An appeal for a new model was made in light of the flaws of integration (Garner, 2009; UNESCO, 2005; Vienneau, 2006). Thomas and Loxley (2007) illustrate the transition from integration towards inclusive education:

The 1990s saw thinking about inclusion billow out from a one-dimensional plane, along which one viewed the integration and the valuing of children with disabilities and difficulties, to a three-dimensional terrain that now incorporates a more extensive spectrum of concerns and discourses – about the benefits that come from valuing diversity. (p. 1)

The creation of a universal educational system has been and is still being debated (Andrews et al., 2000; Danforth & Morris, 2006; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994; Kauffman & Landrum, 2009).

¹⁵ Slee (2011) identifies the following: special education and the medical/psychological model; critical theory; disability studies; post-structuralism, cultural studies and feminist theory; post-colonial studies, development studies and critical race theory; political theory; policy sociology; research into curriculum, pedagogy and assessment; teacher education; social geography; and research methodologies.

Many recognise the distinct theoretical foundations of integration and inclusion (Foreman, 2008; Garner, 2009; Loreman et al., 2011; Slee, 2011; UNESCO, 2005; Vienneau, 2006). However, they are often confounded, resulting in inclusion being commonly and sometimes solely associated to integrating disabled students or students experiencing school difficulties in regular classrooms (Sapon-Shevin, 2007). Foreman (2008) explains their difference stating that integration demands “*Can we provide for the needs of this student?*” whereas inclusion asks “*How will we provide for the needs of this student?*” (p. 14). However, it must be emphasised that inclusion is concerned with all who experience exclusion and thus moves away from categories of exceptionalities or SEN (Norwich, 2008; Vienneau, 2006). It involves organising schools and classrooms to welcome and cater for all so that they can achieve their full potential (Rousseau & Prud'homme, 2010). Inclusion abandons normalisation. The vision is that of schools where difference becomes the new norm (AuCoin & Vienneau, 2010).

Two essential conditions for successful inclusive education are frequently reported. First, moving towards inclusive education necessitates a paradigm shift (Annan & Mentis, 2013; Carrington, 1999; Kearney & Kane, 2006; MacArthur, 2009; Mittler, 2000; Skrtic, 1991; Thomas & Loxley, 2007). The dichotomy between the special education and inclusive education paradigms is prominent in the inclusive education literature (Ainscow, 1999; Grenier, 2010). This duality is particularly noticeable in New Zealand work (e.g., Alton-Lee et al., 2000; Ballard, 1995, 2011; Ballard & MacDonald, 1998; Bishop, Berryman, Cavanagh, & Teddy, 2009; Kearney & Kane, 2006; MacArthur, 2009; Wearmouth, Glynn, & Berryman, 2005). For inclusive education proponents, special education is based on a medical model attributing students’ difficulties to intrinsic deficits (see 2.1.2).¹⁶ Inclusive education, drawing on a socio-cultural or ecological perspective, fosters the idea that disabilities (and school difficulties) are socially constructed. Disabilities result from the environment not adapting to the needs of all children and youth, labelling them as abnormal and creating barriers to their inclusion.

The second condition for successful inclusive education consists in the restructuring of educational systems. One starting point is to identify obstacles to inclusion, as shown in research accounts of exclusion and barriers to inclusion (A. C. Armstrong et al., 2010; Barton & Armstrong, 2007b; Blyth & Milner, 1996; Curcic, 2009; Kearney, 2009; Searle, 2001;

¹⁶ While special education undoubtedly developed from a medical model, the vocabulary, ideas and theoretical underpinnings used by special educators tended to shift over the recent years. For instance, more and more special educators acknowledge individual diversity beyond categories of exceptionalities or SEN, they work from an ecological perspective or argue in favour of the presence in regular classrooms of an increasing number of SEN students (e.g., Gargiuolo, 2012; Heward, 2013). Slee (2001b) mentions, however, that despite these changes, special education remains grounded in a conception of SEN as produced by a deficit afforded to the individual. The author also argues that special education still fosters a vision of inclusive education as linked to SEN and remaining disconnected from broader educational issues (e.g., how and why educational systems keep reproducing inequalities).

Underwood, 2011). Some authors have engaged in rethinking education and schooling to eliminate obstacles to inclusion and increase inclusive practice. Among them, Skrtic (1991) contrasts the imperatives of professional bureaucracy of traditional special education with a model he calls *adhocracy* which seeks a creative effort to meet the needs of all students. Carrington (1999) and her colleagues (Carrington, Bourke, & Dharan, 2012; Carrington & Elkins, 2002a, 2002b; Carrington & Robinson, 2004, 2006) take a social constructivist stance and propose that schools (and providers of teacher education as in Carrington & Saggars, 2008) challenge the assumptions that keep them from developing a truly inclusive culture. Inclusive education would thus involve the *reculturing* of learning communities questioning their assumptions about disability and difference to move towards an inclusive culture (Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012). The *Index for Inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, 2011) provides a set of comprehensive indicators as a self-review and reflective tool to help school communities increase participation and reduce exclusion. Finally, Slee (2008, 2011) reconceptualises schooling as an ethical and political project, arguing against the persistent division between special and regular education as it would perpetuate exclusion. Slee argues that we should aim for schools where no one is left aside or excluded on the basis of difference, whatever it may be, and where democracy is embedded in all aspects of school life. This project aligns with the idea that inclusive schools “are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all” (UNESCO, 1994, p. ix).

Inclusion is one of the most debated issues in education today. The most salient criticisms are made against what is referred to as ‘full inclusion’¹⁷ (Bricker, 1995; Danforth & Morris, 2006; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994, 2000; Gargiuolo, 2012; Garner, 2009; Winter & O’Raw, 2010). Often, insufficient resources or conflicting rights are used as arguments against full inclusion (Loreman et al., 2011). These issues are a concern among New Zealand education stakeholders (NZEI, 2007a, 2007b; PPTA, 2009). In many countries, the presence of disabled students or students experiencing school difficulties in regular classrooms is now relatively accepted, but special schools, units and classrooms remain (Winter & O’Raw, 2010). Authors identifying in the field of special education ask for preserving separate settings as full inclusion would not be realisable nor desirable for all students (Heward, 2013; Kauffman & Hallahan, 2005; Visser, Daniels, & Cole, 2012a). Moreover, there is a distrust in the ability of regular education to

¹⁷ Full inclusion refers to the idea that all children and youth experiencing SEN should be taught exclusively in age-appropriate regular classes at their local school where they could become socially included through the development of social skills, offering an opportunity for the stereotypes about disability to shift positively among “normally developing children” (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2000, p. 80). The expression full inclusion is closely related to notions of SEN and disability as found in the models of special education and integration, a vision of inclusion that is disconnected from broader education issues (see footnote 16). Moreover, for many authors in inclusive education, there is no such thing as ‘full inclusion’ as inclusion is a continuous process (see 2.2.2).

warrant the rights of exceptional students to receive appropriate specialised instruction meeting their needs (Kauffman, 1999).¹⁸ Thus, the conditionality of full inclusion resting on its feasibility prevails, as in the integration model. It is also argued that inclusion is ideologically based instead of being supported by empirical evidence (Feiler & Gibson, 1999). Ideologies clash between special educators' "orthodoxy" found in the positivist paradigm and the "heresy" of inclusive educators who challenge the knowledge-base of special education (Danforth & Morris, 2006, p. 136).¹⁹ Supporters of inclusion are considered as idealists for not addressing the practical aspects of inclusion (Cigman, 2007). Supporters of inclusion would also attribute a higher moral value to their position, resulting in a highly polarised dialogue (Garner, 2009). Finally, the fact that inclusion does not have a consensual definition is an important criticism (Cooper, 2004; Gargiuolo, 2012). Feiler and Gibson (1999) view this as a key threat to the inclusion movement. The next section discusses some of the multiple and sometimes conflicting meanings of inclusion.

2.2 Conceptual Diversity of Inclusion

Inclusion is an abstract, complex and polymorphic concept that is socially constructed and context dependent (Ainscow, Howes, Farrell, & Frankham, 2003; Annan & Mentis, 2013; D. Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2011; Barton & Armstrong, 2007a; Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Florian, 2005; Loreman et al., 2011; Slee, 2001a). The diverse meanings found in inclusive education support the idea that the concept of inclusion "requires elasticity rather than precision of definition" (Slee, 2011, p. 64). There is not always a national nor a local consensus on what inclusion is or should be because educational systems are not monocultures (Ballard, 1999; Booth & Ainscow, 1998). Factors such as national policies, legislations, cultural practices, colonial or post-colonial situations, school cultures, local communities, professional roles or variables pertaining to individual teachers impact on how inclusion is conceptualised and how educators understand this concept.

Furthermore, there is a wide range of academic perspectives within the field of inclusive education as revealed by Allan and Slee (2008). Different levels of agreement and somewhat antagonistic views on some aspects of inclusion compete. An example is Cigman's (2007) illustration of two distinct positions: a) the universalist approach fostering the "principle that mainstream schools should welcome and adapt themselves to all children without exception,

¹⁸ Supporters of inclusive education also question the ability of regular education to provide for all students in its actual form, hence the appeal to rethink education.

¹⁹ Danforth and Morris build their comparison on the American experience and mention that special educators who embark the orthodoxy/heresy debate mostly work in the sub-field of behavioural disorders.

irrespective of the nature or severity of their difficulties or disabilities” (p. 776); and b) the moderate approach promoting the view that “such schools should welcome and adapt themselves to all children as far as possible” (p. 776). In other words, universalists do not impose conditions to inclusion whereas moderates do. This posits the moderate approach closer to integration. Another illustration of the diversity within the field of inclusive education is the promotion of practices that can be classified on a continuum, including specialist support outside the regular classroom (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994) as found in special education. These examples highlight the fact that inclusion is historically linked to integration and special education and that this historical thread represents a potential source of conflicting ideas with regard to the nature of inclusive education.

It is beyond the scope of this thesis to provide a complete portrait of the theoretical complexity of inclusive education. Notwithstanding, common descriptors of inclusion and inclusive education are discussed. The main themes found in the literature are reported and specific attention is given to New Zealand definitions.

2.2.1 Universal character of inclusion.

Although the inclusive education movement emerged with regard to the rights of disabled students and students experiencing difficulties to access their local school, it has moved on to considering the rights of all children and youth to access and complete compulsory public education (MacArthur, 2013).²⁰ This universal dimension echoes the *Education For All* agenda (UNESCO, 2005):

Education For All means that all children have access to basic education of good quality. This implies creating an environment in schools and in basic education programmes in which children are both able and enabled to learn. Such an environment must be inclusive of children, effective with children, friendly and welcoming to children, healthy and protective for children and gender sensitive. The development of such child-friendly learning environments is an essential part of the overall efforts by countries around the world to increase access to, and improve the quality of, their schools (p. 10).

²⁰ The universal character of inclusion is agreed upon in the inclusive education literature. However, a class of definitions of inclusion still refer to groups of students, particularly disabled students or students experiencing SEN (Ainscow et al., 2006; D. Armstrong et al., 2011). This is based on the fact that disabled students and students experiencing school difficulties are still highly excluded from education worldwide (UNESCO, 2005).

Access to education and educational facilities is vital in *Education For All*. While access is far from a given in many developing countries, it is generally embedded as a right in international conventions and in national legislations in developed countries (MacArthur, 2013). In these countries, inclusive education proponents strongly agree that regular schools and classrooms are the best place to provide quality education for all, whatever their difficulties (Winter & O'Raw, 2010). Permanent placements in special schools, classrooms or units should be proscribed (Winter & O'Raw, 2010) or exceptional (UNESCO, 1994), in agreement with the universalist position presented above. For the supporters of a nuanced or moderate position, occasional provision of extra support outside the regular classroom is not necessarily proscribed. Some would argue, however, that it should be available to all (Rousseau & Prud'homme, 2010; Vienneau, 2006). Although access is a prerequisite for inclusive education to happen, inclusion has to be conceptualised beyond locational issues (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; MacArthur, 2013; Sapon-Shevin, 2007; Slee, 2001a).

As highlighted in the above *Education For All* quote, the quality of the educational experience in a regular education setting is crucial for enabling all children and youth to learn. Inclusive education thus implies the creation of child-friendly schools where everyone learns, belongs and feels welcomed and safe. Valuing diversity and seeing all people as equal members of the school community are core ideas of inclusive education. In this sense, inclusive education “seeks a fair, equitable and egalitarian education for all. It seeks to break down discrimination and prejudice based on difference or minority status” (Kearney, 2009, p. 10). One way to value all people is to listen to their voices, and particularly the voices of those who are excluded and discriminated against (Ainscow, Booth, & Dyson, 1999; Byrnes & Rickards, 2011; Grenot-Scheyer, Fisher, & Staub, 2001; Slee, 2000; Winter & O'Raw, 2010).

2.2.2 Inclusion as a process.

Many authors, researchers and organisations understand inclusion as a process (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Carrington & Robinson, 2004; Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education, 2008-2013; Kearney, 2009; Loreman et al., 2011; UNESCO, 2005). Booth (1996b) gives this definition of the processes of inclusion:

I now think of integration or inclusion in education as involving two processes; the process of increasing the participation of pupils within the cultures and curricula of mainstream schools and the process of decreasing exclusionary pressures (p. 34).

The first component of this definition is participation. It refers to the action to take part in an activity and feel involved in it (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). For Florian (2005), the “opportunity to participate implies active involvement and choice as opposed to the passive receipt of a pattern or condition that has been made available” (p. 32). In that sense, participation involves engagement rather than something done to someone. Participation encompasses pedagogical and social dimensions (Vienneau, 2006). Rousseau and Prud’homme (2010) use the expression “pedagogy of inclusion”²¹ (p. 3) to refer to a situation where students fully participate in learning activities that incorporate a maximum number of elements from the regular curriculum. One way to increase academic participation is to differentiate instruction according to the needs of individual students (Tomlinson, 2003; Wormeli, 2007). Social inclusion relates to belonging as a valued member of a group. A literature review on social inclusion in secondary education revealed the following themes: interactions, relationships, acceptance by peers, and SEN students’ self-perception of their social situation at school (Bossaert, Colpin, Pijl, & Petry, 2011). Rousseau and Prud’homme (2010) point out that inclusion offers the opportunity to learn to live together rather than looking at what differentiates people.

The second component of Booth’s (1996b) definition refers to reducing exclusionary pressures. Exclusion is commonly associated with students being refused attendance in a particular school or with their permanent removal based on disciplinary motives (Booth, 1996b). While this meaning is relevant to the present study (see 2.3.2), other forms and processes of exclusion are identified (Booth, 1996b). Recent research by Kearney (2009, 2011) shows how and why disabled students and students experiencing difficulties with learning and behaviour experience exclusion from, and within New Zealand schools. Exclusionary pressures are multiple and found at many levels.²² The multiplicity and complexity of exclusionary pressures foster the idea that inclusion and exclusion are not bounded by a simple opposition. Instead, “their interplay constantly creates new inclusive/exclusive conditions and possibilities (D. Armstrong et al., 2011, p. 36).

2.2.3 Inclusive school culture, values and practices.

According to Peterson and Deal (1998), school culture refers to “the underground stream of norms, values, beliefs, traditions, and rituals that has built up over time as people work together, solve problems, and confront challenges” (p. 28). The culture of a school, its values and practices are fundamental in defining what inclusion means for school communities (Booth &

²¹ Original text: “pédagogie de l’inclusion”.

²² Barriers to inclusion specifically related to behavioural difficulties are discussed in 2.4.

Ainscow, 2011). A number of authors list some characteristics of inclusive school cultures (Brown & Bauer, 2001; Carrington & Elkins, 2002a; Carrington & Robinson, 2004, 2006; Corbett, 1999; Giangreco, 1997; MacArthur, 2009; O. Moliner & Traver, 2013; Rouse, 2006; Topping & Maloney, 2005; Vienneau, 2006) as schools that:

- ensure that the school's commitment to inclusion and its inclusive values are explicit and shared among the school community;
- provide a safe learning environment for all;
- make everyone feel welcome, listen to everyone's voice, and engage all in democratic processes;
- recognise and value diversity instead of differentiating between categories of students and types of service provision;
- celebrate progress and all forms of achievements;
- have a positive leader carrying the school's vision and yet sharing leadership;
- foster collaboration and collegiality among the broad school community;
- use resources flexibly and work with external agencies;
- provide meaningful learning opportunities meeting the needs of all students through student-focused teaching and learning;
- find creative solutions to issues using problem-solving;
- continually review their practices seeking improvement;
- offer professional development for all adults and opportunities to participate in action research; and
- share characteristics with effective schools (e.g., shared and explicit vision, collaboration and cooperation, practice appraisal, family and community participation, learning opportunities, high academic expectations, assessment and significant learning).²³

Many authors highlight elements to consider in creating inclusive schools. For instance, Mittler (2000) proposes reflecting on: the curriculum on offer, the assessment procedures, the recording and reporting of achievement, the grouping of students, the quality of teaching and classroom practices, and the sporting, leisure or recreational opportunities offered. Rousseau and Prud'homme (2010) suggest that engaging in inclusive practice demands rethinking the school

²³ Research on school culture is closely linked to the development of research on school effectiveness in the 1970s when researchers focused on schools as holistic entities rather than on partial aspects of schooling (Prosser, 1999). However, effectiveness-related research in inclusive education is questioned when effectiveness is confused with efficiency, suggesting a reductionist and overly uniform view of effectiveness as related to achievement outcomes in a managerial perspective (Slee & Weiner, 2001).

environment, investigating the creation of relationships and how they are lived within the school community, and providing exemplars of how differentiation takes place. For Brown and Bauer (2001), an inclusive school community engages in professional dialogue, shares professional practice, ideas, knowledge and techniques, and collaborates to deal with issues arising in single classrooms.

2.2.4 New Zealand definitions.

The New Zealand educational system is engaged in becoming inclusive by way of its policy. The Ministry of Education (2009e) defines inclusion as follows:

Inclusion in education is about valuing all students and staff. It involves supporting all children and young people to participate in the cultures, curricula and communities of their local school. Barriers to learning and participation for all children, irrespective of their ethnicity, culture, disability or any other factor, are actively reduced, so that children feel a sense of belonging and community in their educational context (p. 5).

This definition seems appropriate to Higgins, MacArthur and Rietveld (2006) for it is grounded in the inclusive education literature.²⁴ However, confusion remains in ministerial documentation (MacArthur, 2013). For example, the Ministry of Education’s website still has an entire section dedicated to special education at the end of 2014 while the objective to “create a world class inclusive education system” (Ministry of Education, 1996, p. 1) was formulated almost two decades ago. This situation reflects the narrowing of inclusive education to a special education framework (Slee, 2001b).

Guidelines for enacting inclusion have been provided in the recent years.²⁵ The Education Review Office (ERO, 2011)²⁶ proposes a set of indicators grouped into dimensions of good practice: effective teaching, school leadership and management, school governance, safe and inclusive school culture, and engagement of parents, whānau and communities. These five dimensions are linked to a central one placing learners’ engagement, progress and achievement as a focal point. In these guidelines, the creation of an inclusive school is directly associated with providing a safe physical and emotional learning environment for all. Another set of

²⁴ This definition was also reported in ministerial documents prior to the publication of the article by Higgins et al.

²⁵ The tools presented draw on the *Index for inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2011), although they focus on SEN whereas the *Index for inclusion* takes a much broader view conceptualising inclusion as related to all members of a school community.

²⁶ The ERO is a government agency in charge of evaluating and reporting on care and education of children and youth in New Zealand schools and early childhood education centres.

guidelines is offered by the Ministry of Education (2013a) to help school governors build inclusive schools in which inclusive education means “giving all the students at your school the same opportunity to participate and achieve, regardless of their individual needs or differences” and “embracing difference and diversity as part of a richer learning environment and preparation for life” (p. 6). While these guidelines call for a shift towards a broad definition of SEN based on the curriculum level students work at rather than on a medical diagnosis, they also directly link inclusion and SEN. Recently, the New Zealand Council for Educational Research was contracted by the Ministry of Education to provide an online tool (*Inclusive Practices Tool*) to help schools to assess the inclusiveness of their practices through data collection and self-review (NZCER, n.d.). This tool is based on indicators developed by the ERO (2010) specifically addressing questions related to the inclusion of students experiencing high needs.

Considering the recent publication of these guidelines and their grounding in special education and SEN, it is useful to refer to definitions provided by New Zealand academics involved in researching inclusion. Ballard (1997) defines inclusion as follows:

Inclusive education means education that is non-discriminatory in terms of disability, culture, gender or other aspects of students or staff that are assigned significance by a society. It involves all students in a community, with no exceptions and irrespective of their intellectual, physical, sensory or other differences, having equal rights to access the culturally valued curriculum of their society as full-time valued members of age-appropriate mainstream classrooms. Inclusion emphasizes diversity over assimilation, striving to avoid the colonization of minority experiences by dominant modes of thought and action (pp. 244-245).

Another leading New Zealand author, MacArthur (2009) emphasises that “it is neither possible nor desirable to try to come up with a fixed definition, because inclusion means different things to different groups in different contexts” (p. 14). The themes associated with inclusion in her work are: (a) presence, participation and achievement; (b) commitment to shared values; (c) identification of barriers to learning and participation; and (d) involvement of the community. She also defines what inclusion is not: special education with a new name, simply attending a regular school, or ideology. MacArthur points out that Māori worldviews and values are important aspects in discussing inclusion in New Zealand.

A number of Māori authors contribute to understanding inclusion. Among them, Bevan-Brown’s (2003, 2011) research provides a cultural self-review tool for educators and a model

based on Māori principles for the evaluation of services for Māori learners with and without SEN. A group of authors developed *Te Kotahitanga*, a research and professional development programme to increase Māori students' learning and achievement in secondary schools (Bishop et al., 2009). Based on evidence gathered from Māori students, it aims to reduce the achievement gap between Māori students and their peers through effective teaching. Another key author, Macfarlane (2005) guides educators to understand and work from Māori worldviews. Macfarlane is also concerned with the inclusion of Māori students experiencing behavioural difficulties (Macfarlane, 2004, 2007; Macfarlane & Margrain, 2011) and his work intends to bridge the traditions of psychological assessment with cultural knowledge (Macfarlane, Blampied, & Macfarlane, 2011). Finally, Wearmouth et al. (2005), also interested in the inclusion of students perceived as experiencing behavioural difficulties, suggest anchoring the perceptions of these students and their inclusion in the context of each school:

One factor that is often missing from much of the debate on inclusion is the situated nature of difficulties in learning and behaviour in schools.... Within an institution, educators and students are defined by that institution's social practices. The understanding of the individual whose behaviour is seen as challenging is part of that social practice (p. 3).

2.2.5 Teachers and inclusion.

The multiplicity of the perspectives on inclusion reveals a dispersion of the meanings. This section has highlighted the historical thread linking special education and integration to inclusive education, resulting in conceptual diversity as reflected in inclusive education research as well as in New Zealand policies and guidelines. The literature reviewed also pointed out the relevance of taking into account the specificities of school contexts in defining inclusion as school communities develop inclusive cultures expressed by the values and practices their members agree upon. It is thus very likely that teachers construct, as members of school communities, their views of inclusion and inclusive policy demands. As Bourke, Kearney and Bevan-Brown (2004) explain, teachers' "understanding of policy, and the meaning they attribute to that policy, usually evolves through discussion with other teachers, and through attempts to interpret and implement it within their classrooms" (p. 150). Clough (1999) adds that "in the end, it is teachers who mediate policy through their activities in and out of the classroom" (p. 67). Therefore, teachers are important bearers of policy and investigating their understandings and interpretations can provide information on the implementation of inclusive education. This study explores how New Zealand secondary education teachers construct

inclusion through communication and interactions and how these constructions are related to their practices, with particular emphasis on behavioural difficulties at school.

2.3 Inclusion and Behavioural Difficulties at School

The principles of inclusion and the legal imperatives of inclusive policies apply to all students. However, the difficulties inherent to challenging behaviours at school render inclusion a contentious topic (Cooper, 2004; Cooper & Jacobs, 2011). This section looks at definitions and understandings of behavioural difficulties, at the phenomenon of exclusion and at its negative outcomes for students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties.

2.3.1 Definitions and manifestations.

Various approaches to understanding behavioural difficulties exist. Based on different theoretical underpinnings, they carry different assumptions on the causes of problem behaviour, leading to multiple classifications, definitions, and interventions. Table 2.1 presents the main theoretical models found in the literature. Educational research and practice are influenced by many theoretical models as professionals generally draw on many approaches (Kauffman, 2005). Different definitions of, and appellations for behavioural difficulties have different purposes (Cullinan, 2004) and the choice of a definition influences the number of students identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. For instance, educational definitions often serve an administrative purpose (i.e., identification to provide appropriate educational resources and services).

Table 2.1

Theoretical models and approaches to behavioural difficulties

Model	Description	Reported by:
Behavioural	Behaviour is a response to external stimuli. Negative behaviours can be extinct and desirable behaviours can be learnt through contingency management strategies.	Cooper & Jacobs (2011); Kaufman (2005); Macfarlane & Prochnow (2011); Webber & Plotts (2008)
Biophysical or biogenic	Behaviour originates in the organic functions of the body and depends on neurophysiological mechanisms. A medical diagnosis is generally involved.	Kaufman (2005); Langlely (2009); Macfarlane & Prochnow (2011); Webber & Plotts (2008)
Bio-psycho-social	Behaviour results in the combination of intrapsychic, interpersonal and social factors with biological or genetically inherited factors. Approach necessitating holistic interventions.	Cooper & Jacobs (2011)
Cognitive behavioural or social cognitive	Behaviour is shaped by the reciprocal interactions between external stimuli, internal thought processes and the behaviour itself. Interventions usually foster self-awareness and self-control.	Cooper & Jacobs (2011); Kaufman (2005)
Ecological or ecosystemic	Behaviour is influenced by many factors found in the multiple systems forming the environment of every person. Behavioural difficulties originate from the environment. Interventions aim at modifying environmental factors.	Cooper & Jacobs (2011); Kaufman (2005); Langlely (2009); Macfarlane & Prochnow (2011); Webber & Plotts (2008)
Humanistic	Behaviour is influenced by one's self-concept and sense of agency. Approach necessitating empathy, unconditional positive regard (separating the behaviour and the person) and honesty or congruence.	Cooper & Jacobs (2011); Kaufman (2005)
Psychodynamic	Behaviour results from imbalances in one's personality, from internal psychic tensions. Psychodynamic therapies aim at reducing these emotional conflicts.	Cooper & Jacobs (2011); Kaufman (2005); Langlely (2009); Macfarlane & Prochnow (2011); Webber & Plotts (2008)
Psychoeducational	Behaviour results from unconscious motivations and conflicts. Interventions aim at encouraging self-control through reflection and planning in order to recognise the problem behaviour and plan for alternative responses.	Kaufman (2005); Langlely (2009)
Restorative	Behaviour is perceived as causing harm and breakdown in relationships. Interventions use principles of restorative justice to heal and put things right between those involved.	Macfarlane & Prochnow (2011)

Prevalence rates reported in the literature vary depending on the types and definitions of behavioural difficulties used. A conservative estimate of the number of students identified with emotional and behavioural difficulties would be between 3% and 6% (Kauffman, 2005). In New Zealand, Church (2003) estimates the prevalence of antisocial behaviour at 4.5% to 5%, and the prevalence of severe antisocial behaviour involving violence and necessitating constant supervision at 1.71% and 1.36%, respectively. The Ministry of Social Development (2007) estimates that 5% of primary and intermediate children have conduct disorder/severe antisocial behaviour, with this figure increasing during adolescence. The Ministry of Education (2008) reports that most students will experience behaviour disrupting their learning and the learning of their peers at some point of their schooling, that 20% will experience more serious behaviours, and that 5% or about 37,500 children present with the most severe disruptive and challenging behaviours. Under-identification or the lack of systematic identification has long been considered a problem for special educators (Cheney & Bullis, 2004; Kauffman, 2005; Kauffman & Landrum, 2009; Landrum, Tankersley, & Kauffman, 2003; Langley, 2009; Walker et al., 2004),²⁷ but there is also a recognition that some groups are disproportionately represented (Kauffman & Landrum, 2009). This is a major criticism with regard to identifying students within categories of SEN. In New Zealand, the over-represented groups are Māori students (Bishop et al., 2009; Ministry of Education, 2008), boys, and students coming from families with the lowest socio-economical status (SES) (Church, 2003).

The information presented above shows that identification of students experiencing behavioural difficulties is not only influenced by multiple theoretical models, but also by context-related factors contributing to constructing context specific cultural norms of behaviour in schools. Therefore, there can be disparities in perceiving who is identified as having behavioural difficulties or not. It is thus important to critically look at official definitions in order to understand how they contribute to understanding behaviour difficulties. For instance, the Ministry of Education (2009e) defines severe behavioural difficulties as follows: “Students whose behaviour jeopardises their own physical safety or that of others and severely limits the student’s access to the school curriculum” (p. 8). Church (2003) signals the flaws of such a definition:²⁸ (a) it does not distinguish between occasional disruptive behaviours and antisocial behaviour developing from early childhood, (b) it assumes that students’ behavioural needs limit access to the curriculum without considering teachers’ skills and support available, and (c) it does not provide clear cut-off points between moderate and severe behaviours.

²⁷ The number of diagnoses tended to increase in recent years, particularly diagnoses of attention deficit disorders with hyperactivity (ADHA) in certain countries, including Denmark (Langager, 2014) and Canada (Brault, 2012).

²⁸ Church commented on an earlier definition published by the Ministry of Education which was similar to the 2009 definition reported here. Therefore, the flaws the author has highlighted apply to the 2009 definition as well.

These are important considerations with regard to the current policy giving a primary role to schools in preventing behavioural difficulties through good practice and managing special education resources. In relation to the distinction between occasional disruptive behaviour and more severe forms of behaviours, Gaudreau (2011) mentions that behaviour disorders and behavioural difficulties should be distinguished in educational contexts. Behaviour disorders are generally diagnosed medically as specific disorders meeting criteria of frequency, intensity, duration and consistency across settings. Two classes of behaviour disorders involving medical diagnoses are widely reported in the literature: externalised behaviour disorders directed towards others (e.g., attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder) (Furlong, Morrison, & Jimerson, 2004), and self-directed internalised behaviour disorders (e.g., depression, anxiety, suicidal behaviour) (Gresham & Kern, 2004). Externalised behaviours are generally given more attention in school settings (Gresham & Kern, 2004; Kauffman, 2005; Walker et al., 2004). As for behavioural difficulties, they are the most encountered form of disruptive behaviours in schools and consist in reactionary manifestations to environmental factors (Massé, Desbiens, & Lanaris, 2006).

Considerations of the environment in the development of behavioural difficulties at school relate to the ecological approach embraced in the field of inclusive education, as explained by Wearmouth et al. (2005):

Inherent in the argument for inclusion is a social, ecological or environmental model for understanding and responding to behavioural difficulties which emphasises the factors in the environment, for example, the home, the school and the community, including other people's stereotypes and preconceptions; that is, factors outside the student (p. 5).

Among environmental factors influencing behaviour, expectations play an important role. Explicit and implicit behavioural norms exist in every society, culture, community, family, school and classroom. For Furlong et al. (2004), behavioural difficulties exceed the limits of acceptable behaviour according to these norms. Likewise, Tremblay (1998) writes that behavioural difficulties arise when the gap between a student's behaviour and expectations becomes unbearable. To avoid over-identifying groups, it is argued that a New Zealand definition of behavioural difficulties must include a sociocultural perspective (Glynn & Berryman, 2005) and "take into account both the age and the cultural background of the child" (Church, 2003, p. 40). This is supported by evidence from a New Zealand study showing discordance between the behaviour ratings of Pasifika children by parents and teachers (Gao, Paterson, Carter, Iusitini, & Sundborn, 2011).

The classification of problem behaviour proposed by Macfarlane and Prochnow (2011) is useful to examine behavioural difficulties in an educational context. These New Zealand authors cluster problem behaviours at school within the three-level continuum presented in Table 2.2. This continuum fits the New Zealand model of service, focuses on the manifestations of behavioural difficulties in education as perceived or understood within their specific context of occurrence, and pertains to an ecological perspective.

Table 2.2
Macfarlane and Prochnow's continuum of problem behaviour

Level 1 Mild to moderate	Level 2 Moderate to severe	Level 3 Severe to serious
Displays rather innocuous behaviours; seen as more to do with adjustment difficulties because of slowness to respond to the usual range of management strategies.	Displays more salient behaviours; consequently judged by more than one authoritative adult to be excessive, deficient or inappropriate within given social situations.	Displays more damaging behaviours; often seen as defiant or uncouth, which consequently interfere seriously with either their own or other people's wellbeing, learning and teaching. Often continues at an unacceptable level after the intervention, even when this has been implemented thoroughly and with fidelity.
Irritating, frustrating and distracting behaviours.	Disruptive and challenging behaviours.	Defiant, aggressive and intense behaviours.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affects quality instructional time in the classroom. • Low-end need; inexpensive resourcing required per student or programme. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affects the quality management time of school leaders. • Moderate need; medium resourcing required per student or programme. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affects the quality time of teachers, school leaders, whānau, caregivers, as well as professional and voluntary services. • High-end need; costly resourcing required per student or programme.

(Source: Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011, p. 33)

2.3.2 Behavioural difficulties and exclusion.

Whether continual low level disruption, defiant behaviours or violent acts, behavioural difficulties disrupt the classroom climate and school order (Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011). As Pomeroy (2000) puts it, “exclusion is intimately linked to disruptive behaviour.... Exclusion occurs when the young people’s behaviour is deemed to be seriously inappropriate by the school” (p. 1).

Under sections 13-19 of the *Education Act 1989*, New Zealand principals and boards of trustees can stand-down, suspend, exclude or expel²⁹ students on the basis of their behaviour. These practices are mostly used in secondary schools as illustrated by the following data gathered from state and state-integrated schools (Ministry of Education, 2011b). In 2011, the most predominant age bracket for receiving stand-downs and suspensions was 13-15. Only 7.4% of secondary schools did not stand-down and 13.9% did not suspend students that year. Māori and Pasifika students were removed from school more than their Pākehā³⁰ and Asian classmates. Students from schools of the five lowest deciles³¹ were 4.4 times more likely to be stood-down, 5 times more likely to be suspended or excluded and 2.5 times more likely to be expelled than students enrolled in higher decile schools. Boys were also at greater odds to face school removal. The two main reasons reported for standing students down were physical assault on students (25.5%) and continual disobedience (21.9%). Continual disobedience is the main reason for suspending (25.7%) and excluding (33.3%) students. It is followed by drugs and substance abuse (22.6% of all suspensions and 14.3% of all exclusions) and physical assault on students (18.9% of all suspensions and 17.4% of all exclusions). The same three reasons were invoked for expelling students, although with slightly different proportions.

Despite a global decrease in these exclusionary disciplinary practices over the last decade in New Zealand schools, their use raises concern for a number of reasons. First, they are revealing

²⁹ For the Ministry of Education (2009a, 2011b), stand-downs, suspensions, exclusions and expulsions all involve the formal removal of a student from school. Their length and outcomes differentiate them. **Stand-downs** last for a maximum of five days during a school term and no more than 10 days during the school year. Students automatically return to school after being stood-down. **Suspensions** necessitate a board of trustees meeting within seven days of the removal. The board decides on the student’s return to school. Possible outcomes are lifting the suspension without or with condition, extending the suspension for a reasonable period, or excluding or expelling the student. **Exclusions** and **expulsions** are permanent. Exclusions apply to students aged under 16 and require the students’ enrolment in another school. Expulsions apply to students aged 16 and over and do not necessitate re-enrolment.

³⁰ Pākehā is the Māori word for people of European descent.

³¹ Schools in New Zealand are divided into 10 groups of equal size called deciles based on Census data considering five socio-economic factors: household incomes, occupation, household crowding, educational qualifications and income support. Deciles are defined as follows: “Decile 1 schools are the 10% of schools with the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities, whereas decile 10 schools are the 10% of schools with the lowest proportion of these students” and it should be noted that “a school’s decile does not indicate the overall socio-economic mix of the school” (Ministry of Education, 2009b).

of the tensions faced by the inclusive education project. It is argued that while these practices diminish opportunities for disruptive students to attend, engage and achieve in regular classrooms, they contribute to reducing tensions, allowing time for reflection and helping to create a safer and less disruptive learning environment (Ministry of Education, 2011b). As a result, attendance as a legal obligation and a necessary condition for participation and achievement is temporarily or permanently lifted (Burton et al., 2009). Thus, disciplinary exclusions lead to asking “whose rights should be paramount: the individual’s right to education or a student community’s right to schooling without disruption by individuals” (Wearmouth et al., 2005, p. 10).

Second, the over-representation of certain groups of students in those statistics is alarming. Although a number of initiatives were put forward over the last ten years to increase the engagement of Māori and Pasifika students particularly in low decile areas, “these initiatives have not resulted in the expected level of decrease in the unequal ethnic distribution of students in the disciplinary data” (Dharan et al., 2012, p. 124).

Third, the fact that exclusions are “school driven” (Blyth & Milner, 1996, p. 3) calls for scrutiny. The identification of continual disobedience as one of the main reasons to suspend and exclude students needs to be carefully looked at in terms of secondary schools’ and teachers’ response to behavioural difficulties, particularly in light of evidence showing that punitive and retributive approaches to school discipline create negative outcomes for students (Fortin, Marcotte, Potvin, Royer, & Joly, 2006; Meyer & Evans, 2012a; Skiba & Sprague, 2008). Many school-related and teacher-related factors impact on the type of response provided and ultimately on the inclusion or exclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. As Cooper and Jacobs (2011) explain, while social, emotional and behavioural difficulties “may sometimes, or even often, have their origins in social and other problems that occur outside of classrooms and schools, they can be (and often are) exacerbated and magnified by what takes place within classrooms and schools” (p. 6). For instance, ‘zero tolerance’ policies would increase disciplinary exclusions by relying heavily on punishment (Casella, 2003; Dharan et al., 2012; Gregory, Cornell, & Fan, 2011). Moreover, punishment does not result in increased school safety (George, Kincaid, & Pollard-Sage, 2009) and evidence from a recent Australian research involving suspended and excluded students showed that suspension does not teach anything to students (Michail, 2012). Instead, successful approaches to difficult behaviour must fulfil the educational mission of schools: “Because schools are educational institutions, the school’s response to children’s behaviour should be consistent with education’s goals of supporting teaching and learning – not punishment, retribution, and exclusion” (Meyer & Evans, 2012a, p. 5).

It needs adding that official data on exclusion are only the tip of the iceberg. Blyth and Milner (1996) report informal and unofficial exclusions. According to Booth (1996b), schools use numerous ways to exclude students “beyond the mainstream” (p. 24). While the New Zealand data on stand-downs, suspensions, exclusions and expulsions informs on disciplinary exclusion *from* school, students are also excluded *within* school through a wide range of processes and practices, including limited attendance, denied or limited access to the curriculum, lack of responsibility by school staff, lack of teacher knowledge and understanding, and student-to-student and teacher-to-student bullying (Kearney, 2009). These forms of exclusion alienate students and increase their marginalisation. For instance, punitive practices and frequent suspensions are associated with a higher risk of school dropout (Fortin, Royer, Potvin, Marcotte, & Yergeau, 2004). Cooper and Jacobs (2011) argue that exclusion “is always an admission of a school’s failure to meet the needs of the excluded” (p. 6). These authors go further stressing that attendance without participation or engagement is a sign of this failure: “Ironically, the promotion of the delusion that being present in a school equates with being socially and educationally included, is one of the most dishonest and insidious forms of exclusion” (p. 6). This could be the case, for instance, of students excluded from the regular classroom but assigned to the learner support centre at their school.

2.3.3 Negative outcomes.

Negative long-term outcomes for students who are perceived or identified as experiencing high behavioural needs are depicted in the literature (Cheney & Bullis, 2004):

Research findings paint a dismal picture for many adolescents with emotional and behavioural disorders (EBD) upon leaving public school, a process that is unsuccessful for most. Once in the community as adults, a large portion will experience grave challenges in becoming employed, securing assistance from community-based social service agencies, enrolling in any type of postsecondary education, and establishing enduring supportive relationships (p. 369).

These young adults are more likely to experience criminality, financial difficulties, and health problems (Cheney & Bullis, 2004; Jolivet, Sticher, Nelson, Scott, & Liaupsin, 2000; Ministry of Education, 2008). Their exclusion from schools can exacerbate these difficulties. A Canadian study by Gatti, Tremblay and Vitaro (2009) demonstrates that placement in segregated juvenile facilities for adolescents presenting with antisocial behaviour with other young offenders has an iatrogenic effect. A New Zealand study investigating long-term outcomes for former students of a residential school for children with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Hornby & Witte,

2008a) shows low educational qualification, low employment, low adjustment to the community, and high proportions of involvement in the criminal justice system more than a decade after they left their residential school. It is important to signal however that students excluded from regular schools comment positively on their experience in special education settings or residential schools (Hornby & Witte, 2008b; Jahnukainen, 2001). Likewise, a recent New Zealand study involving students frequenting an alternative education centre after long-term truancy or after being expelled from school (Brooking, Gardiner, & Calvert, 2009) shows that among the 41 students initially disengaged from learning in regular education, 95% enjoyed learning again at their alternative education centre. Notwithstanding, their appreciation of the support received in alternative education points to the failure of regular schools to meet their needs in the first place and once in alternative education, there were “limited processes and structures for them to return to mainstream secondary schools” (Brooking et al., 2009, p. viii).

Students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties reportedly have less school success than any other group with or without SEN (Landrum et al., 2003). According to Lane, Wehby, Little and Cooley (2005), their “academic deficits” (p. 350) would contribute to why they are confined to special classrooms or schools, particularly in secondary education when the achievement gap with their peers increases. Two Canadian studies associated behavioural difficulties with an increased risk of dropping out from school. The longitudinal study by Fortin et al. (2006) established a typology of four groups of students at risk of school drop out. All four groups presented some types of internalised or externalised behavioural disorders. In an earlier study, Janosz (2000) also identified four groups of school dropouts. One group was found to present many behaviour problems combined with low academic achievement and engagement levels, and a negative overall experience of school.

In light of these negative outcomes and of the academic difficulties faced by many students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties, it seems crucial to identify barriers to their inclusion to work towards a greater presence, participation and achievement for these students excluded from, and within school.

2.4 Barriers to Inclusion and Behavioural Difficulties

Several factors create barriers to the inclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Systemic and teacher-related factors are reported.

2.4.1 Systemic factors.

2.4.1.1 *Politico-economic influences.*

Access to education is enshrined in the New Zealand *Education Act 1989* where it states that all children and youth must enrol at, and attend school until they turn 16. Nevertheless, politico-economic exclusionary pressures counteract efforts towards inclusion for students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. The climate of marketisation cultivated under the neo-liberal umbrella is a frequently reported systemic barrier to inclusive education (Barton & Slee, 1999; Burton et al., 2009; Kearney, 2009; Loxley & Thomas, 2001; Searle, 2001; Slee, 2011; Wearmouth et al., 2005). In market-led educational systems, ideas of equity underpinning inclusive education are wiped away by neo-liberal ideals. Standardised testing and league tables are linked with competitive market-led educational systems where students perceived as deviant or at-risk of academic failure are in danger of facing exclusion (Slee, 2011). Building on an analysis of the examination system in the United Kingdom (Searle, 2001), Kearney (2009) explains that the New Zealand National Certificate in Educational Achievement (NCEA)³² creates such conditions. Competition pressurises schools to assure parents “that standards will be maintained and that difficult students will not come between their children and high academic attainment” (Slee, 2001a, p. 392). For Burton et al. (2009), such a climate leads to students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties to be deprived of their rights to education and to have their needs met, putting them in danger of remaining at the margins of society. For these authors, where market forces and accountability encourage competition between schools for high achieving students, the exclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties reveals tensions inherent to inclusive policies promoting inclusive practices and yet giving schools the authority to decide who is up to the standard and who is out.

³² NCEA is the New Zealand national qualification scheme for secondary education recognised by tertiary institutions and employers.

2.4.1.2 Educational policies.

Inclusive policies can act as barriers to inclusion (A. C. Armstrong et al., 2010; Lloyd, 2000; Loxley & Thomas, 2001). New Zealand researchers undertook analyses of policy and their main area of criticism is the co-existence of special education and inclusive education discourses in policy documents, resulting in confusion due to their different theoretical underpinnings (Higgins et al., 2008; Higgins et al., 2006; Kearney & Kane, 2006; Rutherford, 2012; Tearle & Spandagou, 2012; Wills, 2006). Slee (2007) observes that using competing discourses results in “contradictory sets of policy initiatives” (p. 182).³³ Kearney and Kane (2006) provide an example of these competing discourses specific to behavioural issues. Their analysis illustrates that the Severe Behaviour Initiative, still embedded in PB4L as Severe Behaviour Service, labels students and relies on experts to ‘fix’ their problems, hence diminishing the impact of social and cultural factors and justifying teachers giving up responsibility for their students. Expert support as described in this scheme is therefore often associated with the medical model viewing students experiencing SEN as disabled individuals.

2.4.1.3 Resources.

Resources have long been identified as a key issue in creating inclusive schools. The lack of resources to deal with behavioural difficulties in regular classrooms remains a major problem for teachers (Ford, 2007; Goodman & Burton, 2010; NZEI, 2007b). These resources include specialist and teacher aide support as well as funding.

In relation to specialist support, a New Zealand study by Prochnow (2006) on barriers to including students experiencing behavioural difficulties shows that teachers perceive the interventions to deal with challenging behaviour proposed by specialists (i.e., RTLB and MoE:SE staff) as impractical and time consuming. The study also shows that specialists perceive teachers’ resistance to inclusion and resistance to changing their practices as a hindering factor to including students with behaviour difficulties.

In addition to specialist support, New Zealand schools employ teacher aides. This common practice is questioned as there is no obligation for compulsory teacher aide training in New Zealand (Rutherford, 2008, 2012; Ward, 2011). Research evidence shows that teachers’ responsibility for disabled students or students experiencing school difficulties is often passed

³³ For Norwhich, whose ideas are reported by Cigman (2007), it is the paradigmatic polarisation of the special education debate that “creates a policy impasse” (p. 790) (see 2.2).

on to untrained paraprofessionals (Ainscow, 1999; Giangreco & Broer, 2005; Kearney, 2009). Moreover, teacher aides are often attached to particular students (Sebba & Ainscow, 1996) leading to the conclusion that “the additional resources and services provided by extra funding can sometimes work against inclusion by singling some students out in a classroom” (Loreman et al., 2011, p. 11).

Although funding is often presented as facilitating inclusion, extra funds alone are not sufficient for successful inclusion. Changes at the structural level must occur, otherwise “inclusion is narrowed to enrolment and resources policy” (Slee, 2001a, p. 388) and special education services only become assimilated to regular education (Loreman et al., 2011; Sebba & Ainscow, 1996). Loreman et al. (2011) advise to look beyond resourcing and to consider factors such as “staff attitudes, the quality of school organisation and the capacity to think creatively” (p. 11).

2.4.1.4 Structure and culture of the secondary school.

The literature also points to the structure and culture of the secondary school as working against inclusion. The main challenges secondary schools face in implementing inclusion are (Pearce & Forlin, 2005): school structure constraining students to comply rather than responding to individual needs; content- and teacher-focused teaching as opposed to student-focused practices; curriculum and teaching not fit for diversity and equity but for external pressures; teachers trained to teach content instead of playing the multifaceted role necessary to meet the needs of a diverse student population; and adolescence-related problems. Additionally, secondary school teachers often work in isolation rather than collaboratively (Pounder, 1998). Identifying the school principal as a key person in building an inclusive secondary school community, Brown and Bauer (2001) concur:

Building an inclusive school community can be difficult, especially for principals in high schools in which traditional structures are deeply embedded in the secondary school culture. How does a principal lead a high school with a tradition of teachers working in isolation according to their particular disciplines toward an inclusive learning community in which diversity and collaboration are valued? (p. 13).

An Australian study by Carrington and Elkins (2002b) compares the culture of a traditional secondary school to that of an inclusive secondary school. These different cultures were associated with contrasting forms of service delivery to support students and teachers, and with divergent beliefs and attitudes towards welcoming and catering for all students. The traditional

school created barriers to inclusion as it “perpetuated the conceptualization of difference and maintained the status quo in teaching methods and school structure” (p. 14). Thus, the culture of this school acted as a barrier to becoming inclusive. In relation to behaviour and as highlighted by Wearmouth et al. (2005), the institutional social practices entrenched in the school culture are important for understanding behaviour and students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Discipline systems make up some of these social practices and some schools make the choice to frequently use disciplinary practices while some choose alternative solutions.

2.4.2 Teacher-related factors.

2.4.2.1 Beliefs and attitudes.

Studies on teachers’ beliefs and attitudes abound in inclusive education research. There is a general agreement that teachers’ positive beliefs and attitudes towards inclusion are central to creating inclusive schools and classrooms (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Bélanger, 2010; Carrington, 1999; Loreman et al., 2011). Conversely, negative attitudes could create barriers to inclusion. Many studies point to an acceptance of the principles of inclusion by teachers, but concomitantly indicate reticence which jeopardises the practical application of these principles (Anderson et al., 2007; Avissar, 2000; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Duchesne, 2002; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Subban & Sharma, 2005). Teachers themselves cite “teachers attitudes: prejudices or preconceived ideas” (Forlin, 2004, p. 192) as a barrier to inclusion. The following factors have been associated with teachers having a positive attitude towards inclusion:

- previous experiences with students having SEN (Avissar, 2000; Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000b; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Bélanger, 2010; Duchesne, 2002);
- adequate teacher preparation or in-service training (Avissar, 2000; Avramidis et al., 2000b; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Bélanger, 2010; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996);
- knowledge about human rights (Duchesne, 2002);
- provision or availability of support and resources (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Bélanger, 2010); and
- school sustaining an inclusive culture or ethos (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Carrington, 1999; Clough, 1999).

The severity and nature of the students' difficulties has also been associated with teachers' attitudes towards inclusion (Avramidis et al., 2000b; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). The more severe the difficulties, the less positive the attitudes. In terms of the nature of the difficulties, students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties are considered among the most difficult to include in regular classrooms, and attitudes regarding their inclusion are reported as negative (Avramidis et al., 2000b; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Čagran & Schmidt, 2010; Cartledge & Johnson, 1996; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Swinson et al., 2003). These negative attitudes act as barriers to their inclusion: "there is evidence that general education teachers perceive students with EBD more pejoratively than special education teachers, and their attitudes and accompanying behaviors play a role in the classroom adjustment of these students" (Cartledge & Johnson, 1996, p. 52). Students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties are often rejected by their peers and by adults (Church, 2003; Walker et al., 2004). In addition, low behaviour and academic expectations negatively affect efforts to include these students (Glynn & Berryman, 2005). Macfarlane (2004) illustrates how these negative attitudes can be perpetuated:

Too often teachers react to the narratives associated with a student. Students with behaviour difficulties are "labelled" as bad, uncooperative, uncouth, deviant, arrogant, aggressive, or a combination of these so-called characteristics. The labels develop into "stories" about the student which, in the main, precede the student's arrival at a new form level or learning environment. Such a perspective is unfair and unacceptable as it represents a continuity of student disadvantage where the individual is forced to operate under handicap conditions socially, psychologically, and educationally (p. 88).

Clough, Garner, Pardeck and Yuen (2005), present a similar observation in stating that students identified as having behavioural difficulties are often assumed to be "manipulative, capable of controlling their actions and unwilling to comply with the work orientation of school" (p. 11). Such commentaries are supported by research findings showing causal attributions for difficult behaviour to the students themselves (Johansen et al., 2011; Koutrouba, 2011; Prochnow, 2006), thus ignoring environmental causes like school- and teacher-related factors.

2.4.2.2 Knowledge and skills.

As presented in 2.4.2.1, adequate teacher training is a factor associated with positive attitudes towards inclusion. Knowledgeable and highly skilled teachers are better prepared to teach a diverse students population and to manage difficult behaviours, whereas the lack of training and knowledge acts as a barrier to inclusion and maintains misconceptions and fears (Titone, 2005).

There is a general consensus that most teachers are ill-prepared to meet the needs of all students (Forlin, Loreman, Sharma, & Earle, 2009; Garner, 2000; MacBeath, Galton, Steward, MacBeath, & Page, 2006; Titone, 2005). Some authors believe that there is a persisting gap between research-based knowledge on effective interventions and less effective practices teachers use to prevent and manage problem behaviour (Royer, 2005; Tankersley, Landrum, & Cook, 2004; Weisz, Sandler, Durlak, & Anton, 2005). Cooper and Jacobs (2011) strongly state the necessity to narrow this research-to-practice gap as schools fail to engage these students. Evidence that teachers themselves do not feel trained enough to deal with challenging behaviours also exists. This was shown in an Australian study (Ford, 2007). A Canadian study (Fontaine, Kane, Duquette, & Savoie-Zajc, 2012) found that beginning secondary education teachers who felt ill-prepared for classroom management were more likely to think about leaving the profession, even if their confidence improved during a second year teaching. In New Zealand, beginning and experienced teachers alike did not feel their qualification prepared them well enough to deal with difficult behaviour (Anthony & Kane, 2008; Johansen et al., 2011). The primary school teachers in the study by Johansen et al. (2011) perceived the training opportunities for classroom or behaviour management as insufficient and questioned their utility.

Initial teacher education (ITE) and professional development (PD) are prime vehicles to develop teachers' knowledge and skills for inclusion (Loreman et al., 2011; UNESCO, 1994). However, the reported ill-preparedness of teachers for inclusion and behaviour management leads to questions about the content and form of actual teacher education. One debated question is: "How specialized is teaching pupils with disabilities and difficulties?" (A. Lewis & Norwich, 2005, p. 1). Inclusive education and special education propose divergent solutions for ITE. Reviewing the inclusive education literature on this issue, Loreman (2010) identifies seven domains to incorporate in ITE: "understanding of inclusion and respect for diversity; collaboration with stakeholders...; fostering a positive social climate; instructing in ways conducive to inclusion; engaging in inclusive instructional planning; engaging in meaningful assessment; and engaging in lifelong learning" (p. 128). While inclusive education focuses on teaching for diversity to meet the needs of all students, a special education stance argues that teaching SEN students requires knowledge about their characteristics and about specialised interventions, hence the denunciation of the research-to-practice gap. It is believed that removing specialised programmes could lead "to the loss of professional expertise and skills in very distinct areas of needs" (Garner, 2009, p. 152). This debate is particularly salient in the area of teaching students perceived or identified as experiencing high behavioural needs because special education has contributed to a large extent to the knowledge-base in this area (Tankersley et al., 2004). The evidence gathered through special education research on

behavioural difficulties over the past decades can benefit students and schools and should not be rejected. However, in inclusive education mandated settings, the paradigmatic assumptions sustaining practice must be made explicit to avoid solely blaming students for disruptive behaviour.³⁴ This was accomplished in a New Zealand study in which a RTLB helped a teacher to apply adequately a contingency plan to reduce the frequency of a students' disruptive behaviour (Prochnow & Johansen, 2012). This is an example of an area where special education research can inform inclusive education practice as teachers often face problems despite long standing evidence that praise is a powerful social reinforcer of positive behaviour when used frequently and adequately (Tankersley et al., 2004).

The reported lack of preparedness following ITE points to PD as a way to bring about change and support teachers in shifting their practices (UNESCO, 2005). For Ainscow (2003), "teacher development has to be at the heart of initiatives for developing inclusive practices in schools [and effective approaches] have to be school-based, set within organisational arrangements that will provide appropriate support for teacher reflection and experimentation" (p. 15). Providing PD in schools would allow teachers to reach out to each other to improve their practices thus helping in creating a professional learning community (Loreman et al., 2011). School-based PD of this form contrasts with short term or one-off PD which does not bring about sustainable change. PD sustainability is defined as "continued or improved student outcomes once the support provided during the earlier phases of professional development has been largely or totally withdrawn" (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007, p. xxxiv). According to these authors, PD sustainability is supported when teachers are provided with strong theoretical understandings, are encouraged to develop inquiry skills and work under organisational conditions supporting long-term change.

Although the literature mostly discusses ITE and PD as means of preparing teachers for successful inclusion and promotion of positive behaviour, Booth, Nes and Strømstad (2003) stress that teacher education also occurs informally:

Most teacher education is informal and unplanned, as teachers learn through experience with and from colleagues, students and others, in settings that may be both literally and metaphorically far removed from lecture rooms or classrooms. Most formal teacher education too is outside of the control of those paid to think of themselves as teacher educators, organised by teachers themselves as they inform each other about areas of practice that are of direct relevance within their particular communities. (p. 3)

³⁴ A similar idea is expressed by Michail (2011) who proposes to look at the social constructions of children underlying the decisions schools make in responding to challenging behaviour.

Little is known about the origins of teachers' knowledge on inclusive education, outside of ITE and PD. No New Zealand study investigating informal sources of knowledge has been identified in the process of conducting this literature review and it is believed this has to be addressed for knowledge and skills impact on practice.

2.5 Prevention and Management of Difficult Behaviour for Increased Inclusion

As mentioned above and according to many authors, there would be a persisting gap between research-based practices and what teachers do to prevent and manage problem behaviour (Royer, 2005; Tankersley et al., 2004; Weisz et al., 2005) (see 2.4.2.2). As an example, exclusionary disciplinary practices such as suspension persist in New Zealand as a way to deal with behavioural difficulties (Ministry of Education, 2011b), even if such punitive approaches have proven to increase frustration in students and do not lead to positive behaviour changes (Michail, 2012). As a result of this reported gap, there is an increasing demand for teachers and schools to resort to evidence-based practices for improved student outcomes (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011).

However, the concept of evidence-based practices has many interpretations with the dominant idea being that they are essentially practices demonstrating positive effects through research inquiries, particularly from a positivist perspective fostering quantitative approaches (Macfarlane & Margrain, 2011). This view is adopted in Cooper and Jacobs' (2011) review of evidence-based practices for engaging students with social, emotional and behavioural disorders in schooling. In their review, randomised trials with control groups are considered the most trustworthy form of evidence. Macfarlane and Margrain (2011) affirm that although "such approaches can readily measure specific instances of behaviour [they] are less successful at understanding individuals, or at acknowledging contexts or the depth of relationships" (p. 15), hence proposing to refer to an alternative model developed by Bourke, Holden and Curzon (2005, in Bourke & Loveridge, 2013). To the evidence provided by research-based investigations (research lenses), this model incorporates evidence from the professional experience of practitioners (practitioners' lenses) and inputs from students, their family-whānau and the community (individual/family/community lenses). The combination of these three types of knowledge would inform evidence-based practices in an ecological perspective.

Bearing in mind the socio-cultural model sustaining inclusive education practice and the multiple forms of knowledge that should inform practice to avoid deficit thinking (research, practitioners and individual/family/community lenses), this section looks at best practice.

Research accounts from the fields of inclusive education, emotional and behavioural difficulties, classroom management and school discipline provide a vast array of practices to prevent and respond to difficult behaviour for increased inclusion. A number of books, handbooks and reviews describe best practices to prevent and deal with behavioural difficulties (Browne, 2013; Cooper & Jacobs, 2011; Gaudreau, 2011; Parsonson, 2012; Visser, Daniels, & Cole, 2012b; Walker et al., 2004; Wearmouth, Glynn, Richmond, & Berryman, 2004; Wearmouth, Richmond, & Glynn, 2004). Attempting to catalogue these practices is beyond the scope of this thesis. Instead, this section provides an overview of general inclusive principles for teachers and schools. Emphasis is put on preventative and positive practices (Cooper, Drummond, Hart, Lovey, & McLaughlin, 2000; Dharan et al., 2012; Gaudreau, 2011). This is based on the fact that teachers mostly encounter behaviours found at the lower end of the behaviour continuum proposed by Macfarlane and Prochnow (2011) (see 2.3.1). These authors mention that although violent acts receive high media coverage, it is mostly low level continual disruption and moderate problem behaviour that frustrate teachers and interfere with learning and with the good order of the school. Moreover, continual disobedience is one of the main reasons leading to using exclusionary disciplinary measures in secondary schools (Dharan et al., 2012; Ministry of Education, 2011b) (see 2.3.2), hence the need to propose alternatives.

2.5.1 Ecological perspective.

Behavioural difficulties are intrinsically linked to the environment in which they occur. However, environmental factors can often be ignored with adults tending to attribute poor behaviour to internal deficits they see in students identified or perceived as experiencing behavioural difficulties (Macfarlane, 2004). In an ecological perspective, classroom management and teaching practices must first be examined to verify if and how they contribute to disruptive behaviours. After a thorough examination of what, in the environment, affects student behaviours, best practice drawn from research, practitioners, and individual/family/community should be looked at to inform practice (Macfarlane & Margrain, 2011). Wearmouth, Richmond and Connors (2004) explain how environmental factors should be considered in teachers' and schools' responses:

Effective interventions to address student behaviour need to be based on an understanding of these factors. Thus, multi-level responses to behavioural issues in schools are far more realistic than responses that view these issues as the problems of isolated individuals operating in a vacuum (p.13).

Looking at, and acting on environmental factors is thus a starting point.

For many special education authors, specific student-focused interventions must also occur for moderate to high behaviour needs (Church, 2003; Cooper & Jacobs, 2011; Royer, 2005). For Royer (2005), “individualized intervention is necessary to make education happen for EBD [emotionally and behaviourally disordered] students” (p. 378). The author suggests designing multimodal and multi-environment interventions meeting the needs of the student based on data gained through functional analysis. Such an approach has the potential to benefit other students given emphasis is put on improving teaching practices. A New Zealand exemplar uses functional behaviour assessment of a disruptive student’s behaviour by a RTLB in a regular classroom to help the teacher implement a contingency plan (Prochnow & Johansen, 2012). Results show a decrease in disruptive behaviour and an increase in the teacher’s capacity to use praise adequately. Along the same lines, Moreno and Bullock (2011) suggest using functional behaviour assessment for students at risk of being identified as having behavioural difficulties. Such strategies could be embedded in an Individual Education Plan (IEP), “a plan that shows how the school programme will be adapted to fit the student” (Ministry of Education, 2011a, no page). Here, the process of putting an IEP in place and assessing its outcomes would benefit from collaborative work.

An important aspect of inclusive practices in line with the ecological perspective it sustains is collaboration among the school community including students, teachers, teacher aides and other staff members, parents and the broader community (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). Collaboration is important for everyone to feel connected to the school and to develop a sense of belonging. Without this, schools are simply led by a group of professionals instead of involving all to bring about change. It is in this context that inputs from the individual/family/community need to be taken into account and would lead to a more holistic vision of the situation (Bourke & Loveridge, 2013). Collaborative work fosters consistency at the school-wide level and at home (see 2.5.3). This principle is very much put forward in the context of PB4L where schools communities, RTLB, external agencies and behaviour specialists have to come together with students, their family-whānau and resources from the community to promote positive behaviour, to meet the needs of all students in their local school and to meet the needs of staff.

2.5.2 Focus on learning.

Many authors agree that teaching that engages students in learning is more effective than teaching focusing on discipline, control and punishment (Alton-Lee, 2003; Cooper & Jacobs, 2011; Royer, 2005; Wearmouth, Richmond, & Connors, 2004). Differentiation, a commonly reported strategy for inclusion, is valuable for addressing the learning and behavioural needs of

students presenting with difficult behaviours (Borders, Bock, & Michalak, 2012). Pedagogical differentiation involves adaptations to the teaching and learning processes (Wormeli, 2007): “When we differentiate, we do whatever it takes to help students learn by providing individual accommodations and making adjustments to our general lesson plans” (p. 3). Differentiation thus necessitates “active planning for student differences in classrooms” (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 1). The opposite of the one-size-fits-all mindset, differentiation engages all students in the same activity and demands modifications to the learning content, process, product and environment (Tomlinson, 2003; Wormeli, 2007). Proceeding in a social constructivist way, a differentiated lesson usually starts by exploring the diversity of prior knowledge, then provides diversified ways of doing, tasks and groupings, and finishes with a validation of new knowledge among students who share their understanding about their learning (Rousseau & Prud'homme, 2010). Differentiation contributes to student engagement and involves teachers making a point of knowing their students individually (Wormeli, 2007). In order to differentiate adequately, teachers thus need to know where each student is academically. A New Zealand study (Hutton, 2008) showed limited use of assessment data by teachers to inform teaching for individual students, a practice that was enhanced through this research-action study involving support by a small community of practice.

Learning also involves the development of pro-social behaviour (Greenhalgh, 2001). Research on cognitive behavioural interventions for increasing self-control and self-regulation for learning would be beneficial for students experiencing behavioural difficulties (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011). Landrum et al. (2003) suggest that effective direct academic instruction aimed at increasing achievement must be accompanied by interventions that foster the development of learning strategies. They cite peer tutoring, self-monitoring, and continuous assessment of student performance. In addition, the contribution of peers can be used to improve student participation and engagement in learning as it shows positive effects on students' behaviour (Gaudreau, 2011). Alton-Lee (2003) reports that research on cooperative group learning contributes to positive social outcomes and to the long-term maintenance of interpersonal skills.

2.5.3 Promotion of positive behaviours for a safe environment.

The creation of a safe environment represents an important area of tension with regard to behavioural difficulties. In inclusive education settings, the objective is to provide a safe environment for all students, including students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Therefore, emphasis should be put on preventing behavioural incidents from occurring in the first place and provide an environment in which all students can learn to

act in a prosocial way. There is a strong consensus in the literature on the effectiveness of implementing practices promoting positive behaviours instead of resorting to punitive approaches (George et al., 2009; Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010; T. J. Lewis, Jones, Horner, & Sugai, 2010; Macfarlane, 2007; Meyer & Evans, 2012a, 2012b; Sprague & Walker, 2005).

At the classroom level, proactive strategies (actions taken by teachers such as establishing clear rules and positive reinforcement to prevent disruptive behaviour) should be preferred over reactive strategies (actions following disruptive behaviour) because the latter tend to generate negative reactions to disruptive behaviour from teachers (Clunies - Ross et al., 2008). A study of preservice elementary education teachers found that proactive strategies were used for day-to-day classroom management while reactive strategies were preferred in relation to problem behaviour, thus not using preventative classroom management strategies to prevent behavioural difficulties (Shook, 2012). Another study showed that low level disruptive behaviour such as talking out of turn were a concern for primary school teachers and that these teachers also mostly used reactive strategies which were linked with higher stress in teachers and contributed to decrease student on-task behaviour (Clunies - Ross et al., 2008). At the school-wide level, a New Zealand school implemented a positive behaviour support system resulting in the retention of all students at-risk of academic failure or suspension and in improved academic results for all students (Hill & Brown, 2011).

The *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports* approach that inspired the development of PB4L in New Zealand provides the following guidelines to implement positive and preventative practices in relation to behaviour (Sailor et al., 2004): (a) implementation led by a committed team; (b) identification of problems, decision making process and monitoring based on data; (c) development of a consequence and intervention system to discourage breaking school expectations; (d) statement of positive expectations and rules; (e) development of a reward system to encourage positive behaviours; (f) explicit teaching of rules and expectations; and (g) implementation and effectiveness monitoring. Clearly defined rules and expectations contribute to providing a safe environment for all, along with positive behaviour reinforcement (George et al., 2009). These principles are almost unfailingly found in work on classroom management, following Canter and Canter (1992). Indeed, clear rules are reported to have a positive effect on student behaviour given there is coherence and consistency in their application (Gaudreau, 2011; McKeivitt & Braaksma, 2008). Accordingly, there should be a clear policy on behaviour at the school level which needs to be understood by the whole school community and consistently implemented (Royer, 2005). In New Zealand, Macfarlane (2004) suggests that teachers present rules and expectations to students experiencing behavioural

difficulties in a hui³⁵ including a whānau member or significant adult prior to arrival in the classroom. This should be done assertively and sincerely.

2.5.4 Creation of positive relationships.

Paying attention to how relationships are experienced within the school community is part of developing an inclusive school (Rousseau & Prud'homme, 2010). The development and maintenance of positive relationships is a key principle in the promotion of positive behaviours. This is even more important for students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties who often encounter relational difficulties and can be rejected by their peers and by adults (Walker et al., 2004). Therefore, preventing and managing difficult behaviour through positive relationships can be viewed as the counterpart to ineffective and confrontational punitive approaches.

The role of the teacher is central in developing positive relationships. Cooper and Jacobs (2011) report studies showing a positive effect between teachers being supportive, warm and respectful, and student academic outcomes and engagement. Conversely, a negative student-teacher relationship would lead to less classroom participation, lower academic results and a higher risk of dropping out of school (Doumen et al., 2008; Ladd & Troop-Gordon, 2003). Results from a Flemish study show that low teacher expectations towards students' learning are associated with students perceiving less support from their teachers which in turn is linked to higher self-reports of school misconduct (Demanet & Van Houtte, 2012). Hamill (2005) contrasts two types of teachers as described by students who have been excluded:

These young people spoke very highly of teachers who listen to them, treat them fairly, see everyone as equal and are strict but have a sense of humour. On the other hand, some teachers do not appear to have these qualities. They are seen as believing they are always right, authoritarian and subject- as opposed to child-centred (p. 365).

While the second type of teacher adopts a controlling position towards students which can lead to the escalation of behaviour difficulties, the former type corresponds to descriptions of inclusive teachers. In addition to showing these qualities, Macfarlane (2004) suggests that teachers must be proactive in creating meaningful relationships with students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties rather than being reactive. This involves

³⁵ Māori word for meeting.

meeting students prior to their arrival and trying to know them before assuming they will be a ‘problem’.

2.5.5 Cultural responsiveness.

The principle of cultural responsiveness is relevant in many countries due to the increasing ethnic diversity in public schools. Being culturally responsive requires teachers to “develop a personal cultural awareness and understanding of their own biases so that they can develop the awareness and understanding of their learners in order to promote positive classroom relationships” (Macfarlane & Margrain, 2011, p. 15). This also requires a move away from stereotypes attributed to groups of students based on their ethnicity. Cultural responsiveness is particularly prominent in New Zealand literature given the bicultural heritage of the country and a commitment to *The Treaty of Waitangi*.³⁶ This has implications for teachers: “The bicultural part of the equation refers to the acquisition of the norms, attitudes, and behaviour patterns of their own and another, or perhaps several other, ethnic groups” (Macfarlane, 2004, p. 91).³⁷ The *Te Kotahitanga* programme referred to above (see 2.2.4) was developed following the principles of cultural responsiveness.

2.5.6 Restorative practices.

The restorative theoretical model is one way to conceptualise and respond to problem behaviour (Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011) (see 2.3.1). Drawing on the principles of restorative justice, an approach to justice focusing on dialogue in order to repair the harm done, this model incorporates specific processes and approaches, skills and a distinctive ethos and philosophy (Hopkins, 2004). For Meyer and Evans (2012a), a restorative school has a “culture that permeates all aspects of school organization and relationships within the school as well as relationships between school and its community” (p. 5). It is also a school where everyone feels empowered to resolve conflicts (Matla & Jansen, 2011). Thus, it involves moving from retributive justice and putting the blame on someone towards restorative justice which seeks to repair harm caused to all involved (Thorsborne & Vinegrad, 2006 in Macfarlane & Prochnow, 2011). This approach shifts responsibility from the individual to the whole community to

³⁶ The Treaty of Waitangi was signed in 1840. It consists in “an agreement in which Māori gave the [British] Crown rights to govern and to develop a British settlement, while the Crown guaranteed Māori full protection of their interests and status, and full citizenship rights” (Waitangi Tribunal, n.d., no page).

³⁷ Although cultural responsiveness mostly refers to Pākehā (New Zealanders of European descent) being responsive to Māori, the reference to acquiring the culture of several ethnic groups found in this citation reflects the increasingly diverse fabric of the New Zealand society.

resolve the problem (Wearmouth, Richmond, & Connors, 2004). So the emphasis is not on the person anymore; it is on the incident and the behaviour and how these affect relationships which are central to restorative practices.

Restorative practices for schools involve levels of interventions based on the severity of the behaviour (Jansen & Matla, 2011): (a) positive relationships and pre-emptive and preventative (or proactive) strategies, (b) restorative conversations, (c) mediation of restorative conversations, (d) mini-conferences and class conference run by a neutral facilitator, (e) full community conferences run by a neutral facilitator and involving all affected (e.g., parents and whānau of the victim and offender). The restorative conversations are guided by questions asking “What happened?”, “Who do you think has been affected? In what way?”, “What do you need to do to put things right?” and “How can we make sure this does not happen again?” (Jansen & Matla, 2011, p. 92). It must be noted here that restorative practices are part of the initiatives implemented through PB4L. Exemplars of New Zealand schools successfully using restorative practices are reported (ERO, 2014; Wearmouth, McKinney, & Glynn, 2007).

2.5.7 Teachers’ practices.

Section 2.5 looked at important principles reported in the literature to inform inclusive education practice in the context of preventing and dealing with behavioural difficulties at school. For this study, it was deemed appropriate to investigate everyday practice in real school settings instead of looking at good practice which is well documented. As Meyer (2001) explains: “At the end of the day, the real history must be about what happens to typical people in ordinary circumstances, not what is possible with extraordinary resources and exceptional advocates, however important these may be” (p. xv). It is thus in real school settings that the processes of inclusion take place, that conflict emerges and resistance takes form (Booth, 1995; Duchesne, 2002). This study explores secondary education teachers’ knowledge and practices of inclusion as lived at their schools.

2.6 Chapter Summary and Research Questions

This chapter presented the complexity of inclusion found in its status as a socially constructed concept as well as in the origins and evolution of the inclusive education movement that currently embodies multiple perspectives. It also presented different approaches to behavioural difficulties, the phenomenon of exclusion and barriers to the inclusion of students perceived or

identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary education, and inclusive practices to prevent and deal with these behaviours. Teachers play a key role in enacting inclusive education principles, in implementing inclusive policies, and in preventing and dealing with difficult behaviour in secondary classrooms and schools. Through their interactions and experiences, they construct their understanding of inclusion and inclusive practices. Therefore, this study adopts a social constructivist stance to examine their knowledge of inclusion as well as their attitudes, beliefs and practices. The proposed research addresses the three following questions:

- RQ1. What are the social representations of inclusion among secondary education teachers?
- RQ2. What practices do secondary education teachers use to manage students' behaviour?
- RQ3. How are the social representations of inclusion among secondary school teachers and the practices they use to manage student behaviour related?

The framework used to answer these questions is the theory of social representations described in Chapter Three. Research on social representations is relevant to grasp how people interacting together construct the meanings they attribute to objects in their environment (Jodelet, 2003b; Wagner et al., 1999). Accordingly, the first question aims to understand constructions of inclusion by exploring teachers' shared views on the concept. The second question seeks to describe educational practices used by these teachers to manage students' behaviour. Both questions are descriptive in nature. The third question investigates the representations-practices relationships.

Chapter Three

The Theory of Social Representations

Many philosophers have said that behind all knowledge lies representation. (Pickering, 2000a)

The theory of social representations is the framework employed in this study to understand how inclusion is constructed in the context of dealing with difficult behaviours in secondary education. This chapter first introduces the theory of social representations, providing clarifications on the notion of representation and explanations on the origins of the theory as well as on its ontological and epistemological underpinnings. This information sets the scene for the second section defining and characterising social representations and for the third section linking social representations to practices. The fourth section discusses implications related to studying social representations in professional contexts in education. Finally, the theoretical criteria for selecting inclusion as the main object of social representations are considered.

3.1 Introduction to the Theory of Social Representations

The theory of social representations originated in French social psychology, specifically in the foundational work of Moscovici (1961, 2008) uncovering processes leading to the transformation of psychoanalysis into common sense knowledge.³⁸ A succinct, yet comprehensive description of his work is provided by Gervais (1997) :

In this seminal work, Moscovici investigates how psychoanalysis diffused in France in the 1950s and was differently appropriated by lay people as a function of their social conditions, and by the Catholic and Marxist press as a function of their ideological commitments and their readership. (p. 42)

³⁸ The concept of social representation has a “‘latin’ flavour” (Bauer, 1995, p. 208). Specifically, the theory of social representations has strong ties with French. Moscovici’s book *La psychanalyse, son image et son public* (1961) was translated in English only recently (2008). Although significant work published in English was already reported over 15 years ago (Gervais, 1997), the translation of Moscovici’s original undertaking clarifies the theory’s foundations for speakers of English. This chapter incorporates several references in French, the first language of the author.

According to de Rosa (2013a), Moscovici's project was two-fold: (a) to understand how "expert knowledge" (p. 6) transformed into "everyday knowledge" (p. 6) and "common sense" (p. 6) as individuals and groups make sense of their world and (b) to understand how these forms of knowledge operated and functioned "in the broader symbolic system of social relations and ideological positions mediated by communication systems" (p. 6). Since then, the theory of social representations has gained considerable attention worldwide (de Rosa, 2013b). Social psychologists and researchers from diverse disciplines now use this transversal and complex theory (Boyer, 2003; Doise, 1986; Garnier & Doise, 2002; Jodelet, 2011b; Mannoni, 2001; P. Moliner, Rateau, & Cohen-Scali, 2002). Its empirical applications are trans-disciplinary (de Rosa, 2013b), leading to the investigation of multiple objects of social representations such as theories, concepts, intellectual productions, social roles, practices, natural phenomena, and physical objects (Fortier, 2008; Gervais, 1997; Herzlich, 1972; P. Moliner et al., 2002). The theory of social representations has seen theoretical and methodological advances over the years (de Rosa, 2013b). All these attributes posit social representations as a dynamic framework.

This section introduces the notion of representation, explains the origins of the theory of social representations as a project to bridge the individual and social aspects of human life, and situates social representations within the social constructivist perspective.

3.1.1 The notion of representation.

The notion of representation is commonly referred to in philosophy and the social sciences (Flament, 2003; Pickering, 2000a).³⁹ Representations are essentially images the human mind generates of its experience in the world (Jonnaert, 2002). This "complex mental activity" (Pickering, 2000b, p. 4) brings objects of our environment before our mind allowing us to know our world. Jodelet (2011b) employs two metaphors to delineate the notion of representation. First, the author refers to theatrical representations and to the words and actions of performers enacting feelings or states of being on stage to illustrate how a representation symbolises something absent. Second, she draws a parallel with the idea of political representation where elected representatives speak for and become the voice of their electors to explain how a representation acts in lieu of the object it represents. Expressly, representations autonomously symbolise objects in someone's mind and belong to cognitive activity.

³⁹ Following Pickering (2000b), the word representation is used as a translation of the French *représentation* in this thesis.

Notwithstanding, the notion of representation as understood within the theory of social representations also incorporates a social component, pointing to the social constructivist nature of the theory. This is discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.1.2 Bridging individual and social: the origins of the theory of social representations.

The theory of social representations is found at a crossroad between psychology and sociology (Doise, 2002a).⁴⁰ This situates the theory as an alternative perspective to the psychology-focused tradition of American social psychology (Farr, 1987; Herzlich, 1972; Jahoda, 1988) and denotes “a U-turn in the investigation of the social foundations of knowledge” (de Rosa, 1992, p. 120).

The psycho-social nature of the social representations theory can be traced back to its origins. The theory was inspired by the concept of ‘collective representation’ formulated by French sociologist Durkheim at the end of the 19th Century (Boyer, 2003; Farr, 2011; Herzlich, 1972; Moscovici, 1998; Wagner & Hayes, 2005).⁴¹ The concept of collective representation apprehends collective thoughts as independent entities rather than the sum of individual thoughts (Herzlich, 1972; Moscovici, 1988; Pickering, 2000b). Thus, Durkheim drew a clear division between collective and individual representations, hence establishing collective representations as an autonomous field of sociological inquiry. Contrary to Durkheim, Moscovici intended to bridge this divide by focusing on the interactions between individuals and the society in constructing a dynamic and meaningful world, thus introducing a cognitive component into his theory. Therefore, one of the main characteristics of social representations is to incorporate cognitive and social components (Fortier, 2008). This fundamental difference between collective and social representations needs to be acknowledged for the foundations of the theory of social representations to be understood (Duveen, 2000).

Consistent with the notion of representation introduced in 3.1.1, the cognitive component refers to the mental activity of individuals proceeding to an “appropriation and re-structuring of

⁴⁰ The theory of social representations also draws upon philosophy, anthropology, history, and cognitive psychology (Farr, 1987; Flick, 1998; Gervais, 1997; Mannoni, 2001; Moscovici, 1988). Although there are proximities between the theory of social representations and that of social cognition, these frameworks conceptualise the role of the social world differently. While social cognition considers the social world as “an object of cognitive operations and categorization” (de Rosa, 2013b, p. 90), leading to investigating “the formal functioning of information processing” (Flick, 1998, p. 5), the theory of social representations treats the social world as “an element that generates knowledge (genesis), orients its goal and functions, influences its diffusion and transformation” (de Rosa, 2013b, p. 90).

⁴¹ Durkheim’s work is perhaps Moscovici’s most commonly reported influence. However, the theory also integrates work from other thinkers among whom are Lévy-Brühl, Marx, Weber, Mead, Bartlett, Freud, Piaget, and Vygotsky (Gervais, 1997; Moscovici, 1998).

reality” (Abric, 1996, p. 77). This implies the construction of something by someone, meaning that an object of social representations exists for people and in relation to them (Abric, 1994a; Jodelet, 2003b). In this way, the theory abolishes the subject-object division (Jodelet, 2011b) and recognises the subject’s social position when investigating subject-object relationships (Moscovici, 1986 in Abric, 1994a; Jodelet, 2011b).⁴²

Such an idea brings about the social component of social representations closely linked to interactions within social groups and to communication. Groups are formed when individuals interact, when they become interdependent and influence each other in order to reach a common goal (Guimond, 2006). Members of a social group are in the same position towards an object (P. Moliner et al., 2002).⁴³ According to Moscovici (1988), it is communication that “enables individual thoughts and feelings to converge and allows something individual to become something social” (p. 219). It is therefore through the socially elaborated code of language facilitating communication that social representations are formed and shared (Farr, 2003; Wagner et al., 1999), thus permitting individuals and groups to interpret their environment and interact (Jodelet, 2011b; Wagner et al., 1999). As a consequence, it appears legitimate to impart to “language, and more generally, representations a specifically symbolic efficacy in the construction of reality” (Bourdieu, 1982/1991, p. 105).⁴⁴

In sum, the theory of social representations aims for a new social psychology by abolishing the subject-object division and by highlighting the central role of language in the dynamics and social utility of representations. These characteristics link the theory to the social constructivist posture.

3.1.3 Social constructivism and social representations.

Representations can be investigated from different ontological and epistemological perspectives upholding rather different views (Fortier, 2008). The positivist posture separates subjects and objects, assuming that the latter are apprehensible outside the individual mind, out there in the ‘real world’ (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). The alternative constructivist perspective (Marková, 2010) suggests that people construct their representations through their experience in

⁴² The term *subject* is commonly used in social psychology and in the literature on social representations. It is used in this chapter. However, the designation *participant* is preferred for the remainder of the thesis, unless referring to theoretical aspects of social representations.

⁴³ Professional groups fit this description and further information is provided in 3.4.1.

⁴⁴ If language and the representations it vehiculates play a crucial role in constructing reality, practices or actions must also be given credit as they are intrinsically part of people’s interactions and are dialectically related to representations. This is discussed in section 3.3.

the world (Crotty, 1998; Jonnaert, 2002; Lincoln et al., 2011). Constructivists, along with critical theorists and participatory inquirers, “take their primary field of interest to be precisely that subjective and intersubjective, critical social knowledge and the active construction and co-creation of such knowledge by human agents, which is produced by human consciousness” (Lincoln et al., 2011, p. 119). If human consciousness plays a central role in knowing objects of the world to the point where subject and object are inseparable (Crotty, 1998), the human experience is also interactional and social. Thus, knowledge is “constructed by and within social processes” (Wagner, 1996, p. 106). So are social representations.

The theory of social representations is social constructivist in nature (Garnier & Doise, 2002; Gervais, 1997; Moscovici, 1988; Quesnel, 2008; Wagner, 1996). Moscovici himself (1988) highlights the links between Berger and Luckman’s (1966) seminal treatise on social construction and the theory of social representations.⁴⁵ Gervais (1997) also discusses the proximities between Berger and Luckmann’s and Moscovici’s works on social knowledge. In terms of their similarities, Gervais mentions: (a) the dual nature of social knowledge/representations as product and process for apprehending and constructing reality, (b) the refusal to consider social knowledge/representations as a secondary phenomenon, and (c) the dialectical relationship between the subject constructor of social knowledge/representations and the social knowledge/representations forming the world he or she lives in. However, Gervais distinguishes the two approaches stressing that social representation inquiries can enrich the social constructivist project by: (a) identifying the motivations and functions for producing social representations; (b) considering the transformation of knowledge into particular social representations through investigating their content; and (c) explicitly linking “psychic functioning, social communication, and social reality” (p. 45) in the construction and sharing of social representations.

This study considers social representations as a form of knowledge. It aims at understanding how inclusion is constructed in secondary education. Gervais (1997) also provides insights on epistemological and ontological considerations in relation to social representations. Epistemologically, social representations refer to socially constructed knowledge by historically and contextually situated people. However, this is a truism to Gervais and she points to the ontological importance of social representations as they “*create reality*” (p. 47) by naming and objectifying the world towards action. This argument is supported by Wagner (1996) who argues that social representations objectively become reality for the groups constructing them:

⁴⁵ Moscovici (1988) argues that French social psychologists focused on similar ideas to those found in Berger and Luckmann’s treatise prior to its publication. It is assumed that Moscovici refers to his own work (1961) among others’ when making that point.

“In ontological terms the representation *is* the object whose name it bears” (p. 108). As a result, social representations are a unique mode of comprehension of our world; they are constitutive of this world. Grounded in multiple realities and contexts (Wagner, 1996), not all social representations are equivalent however. It is the representations constructed by a specific group that convert into reality and seem valid for its members (Mannoni, 2001). For instance, teachers and parents could have different representations of students’ behaviour and discipline. These different representations would come into play when resolving a conflict, a situation that could lead to parents and teachers viewing the conflict in opposite ways. The next section aims to define and characterise social representations.

3.2 Defining Features of Social Representations

The concept of social representations is at the junction of numerous definitions (Doise, 1986). In the next sub-sections, the concept is defined and additional information is provided on certain aspects of social representations, including their content, processes, and functions.

3.2.1 Social representations: a definition.

Given the many definitions of social representations, this thesis draws upon one definition proposed by Jodelet (2003c): “It is *a form of knowledge, socially elaborated and shared, practice-orientated, and contributing to the construction of the reality common to a social group*”⁴⁶ (p. 53). Analogous definitions are also reported by a number of authors working with different theoretical models of social representations (Abric, 2003; Farr, 2011; Flament & Rouquette, 2003; Jodelet, 2011b; P. Moliner et al., 2002).

To add to her definition, Jodelet (2003c) emphasises that social representations are a kind of “common sense knowledge”⁴⁷ (p. 53) constructed from information circulating about objects found in people’s environment through communication. Common sense knowledge is differentiated from scientific and expert knowledge, or, as relevant for this study, academic or theoretical knowledge.⁴⁸ This study supports the knowledge-based programme of social

⁴⁶ Italicised in the original text: “C’est *une forme de connaissance, socialement élaborée et partagée, ayant une visée pratique et concourant à la construction d’une réalité commune à un ensemble social*”.

⁴⁷ Original text: “savoir de sens commun”.

⁴⁸ Moscovici, in a conversation with Marková (Moscovici & Marková, 1998), builds on the example of the marxist doctrines establishing the duality between science and ideology to affirm common sense as a third position towards the transformation and diffusion of knowledge in societies. In the conversation, Marková sums up this

representations research which aims to: (a) uncover the products of common sense knowledge on specific objects (or the content of social representations), and (b) understand the processes by which knowledge is socially constructed and functions (Flick, 1994, 1998). Indeed, authors generally agree with the idea that social representations simultaneously refer to product and processes (Abric, 1994a; Doise, 1986; Herzlich, 1972; Jodelet, 2011b; Mannoni, 2001). This dual character is discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.2.2 Social representations as product.

Lahlou and Abric (2011) observe that “subjects, when asked to describe their representation of an object, spontaneously tend to answer in terms of content” (p. 20.5). In other words, they describe what the object is for them. It is not surprising then that questions related to social representations as a product drive numerous research inquiries, including the present study. The nature and organisation of the content of social representations are discussed below.

3.2.2.1 Content of social representations.

A number of concepts are associated with social representations. They are either constitutive of or integrating social representations. These concepts include attitudes, values, opinions, beliefs, images, norms, prejudices, stereotypes, ideologies, and culture, among others (Bergman, 1998; Boyer, 2003; Jodelet, 2011b; Mannoni, 2001; Marková, 2008; P. Moliner et al., 2002; Wagner & Hayes, 2005). They all belong to a system of social thought where they are hierarchically classified (Bergman, 1998; Boyer, 2003; Echebarria-Echabe, 2013; Flament & Rouquette, 2003; Piasser & Ratinaud, 2010). Typically, elements of higher complexity such as ideologies and culture would incorporate social representations whereas elements like attitudes and opinions would be constituents of social representations.

From this perspective, the content of social representations is often described as a set of cognitive (Flament, 1994b; Lahlou & Abric, 2011; P. Moliner et al., 2002) or sociocognitive (Abric, 1994a) elements found at a lower hierarchical level than social representations. Due to their variety, the specific nature of these elements does not make consensus in the literature. As examples, social representations refer to “an organised set of opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and

position: “It [common sense] must not be treated as something irrational but as an important third factor between scientific knowledge and ideology” (p. 379).

information referring to an object or a situation”⁴⁹ (Abric, 1989, p. 188 in Beauregard, 2006b, p. 549) or “a system of values, ideas and practices”⁵⁰ (Moscovici, 1988, no page in Márquez, 2005, p. 1.2). P. Moliner et al. (2002) maintain that identifying the specific nature of singular components is needless because individuals and groups do not necessarily distinguish between information, opinions and beliefs when they relate to objects in their environment. Along the same lines, Flament and Rouquette (2003) mention the “complexity”⁵¹ (p. 13) inherent to enumerating the elements forming a social representation with Flament (1994b) believing that the theory is characterised by its focus on cognitions as part of systems of representations. Therefore, what is important is not so much the nature of this content, but its organisation (Herzlich, 1972). Put simply, “structure carries significance” (Wagner et al., 1999, p. 107).

Understanding social representations as an organised set of cognitions points to three of their particularities. First, “a social representation is *not completely* shared, it is only *partially* distributed” (Moscovici, 1994, p. 168). Indeed, the most important elements of a social representation are shared among group members, but all elements do not make consensus (Doise, 2002a; P. Moliner et al., 2002) nor are they unanimously adopted by all group members (Flament & Rouquette, 2003). Differences appear at the individual-social interface. Second, social representations are dynamic. In that sense, their content is constructed and reconstructed through social interactions (Jodelet, 2011b). Third, social representations are interlinked. As a result, “the study of social representations can never be exhaustive because social representations imbricate one another infinitely”⁵² (Doise, 2002b, p. 104). In other words, representing an object usually sends people back to something else as objects are not isolated and subjects belong to multiple social groups.

The idea of the interconnection between objects requires asking how representations of connected objects are related. Two theoretical explanations contribute to explore the connections between inclusion and other objects of social representations in this study. The first explanation opposes non-autonomous and autonomous representations (Flament, 2003). For instance, non-autonomous representations are found in Beauregard (2006b) who demonstrates how parents’ and teachers’ representations of their roles in integrating dysphasic children in regular classrooms originate within their representations of dysphasic children and school integration. An autonomous representation is described in Jodelet’s classical study of a small

⁴⁹ Original text: “un ensemble organisé d’opinions, d’attitudes, de croyances et d’informations se référant à un objet ou une situation”.

⁵⁰ Original text: “un système de valeurs, d’idées et de pratiques”.

⁵¹ Original text: “complexité”.

⁵² Original text: “L’étude des représentations sociales ne pourra jamais être exhaustive, car les RS s’imbriquent les unes dans les autres pratiquement à l’infini”.

French community (1985 in Flament, 2003) which identifies a single yet dichotomous representation of mental illness as both a brain and a nerve illness, thus explaining different practices towards the “brain sick”⁵³ (p. 225) deemed inoffensive and integrated in the community and the “nerve sick”⁵⁴ (p. 225) considered dangerous and segregated. The second explanation builds on the first one. Also presented by Flament in collaboration with Rouquette (2003), it maintains that social representations of two connected objects can be coordinated as opposites. For instance, it could be the case of inclusion/exclusion or normal/abnormal. However, the authors highlight that “these objects are not symmetrical according to an inversion rule. In other words, it is not possible to get the representation of one object simply by negating (inverting) elements representing the other object”⁵⁵ (p. 49).

A final element to consider in studying the content of social representations is the existence of a “mute zone” (Abric, 2003 in Moisan, 2010, p. 37). This zone comprises counter-normative elements to the values accepted within the social group or wider society. A resembling idea is reported as ‘absences’ (Gervais, Morant, & Penn, 1999). For Gervais (1997), “attention must be paid to infrequent mentions, to single instances and even to the complete absence [in people’s discourse] of items which are thought to be of theoretical significance” (p. 122). Mute or absent elements can indicate an avoidance to voice negative standpoints towards inclusion or tensions between the moral incentives to adhere to the principles and values of inclusion and their translation into practice when dealing with difficult behaviour. Additionally, the identification of mute or absent elements can reveal implicit representations and institutionalised practices considered as a given for the school community. The strategy employed to unveil mute or absent elements is presented in 4.5.3.2.

3.2.2.2 Organisational and structural models of social representations.

Theoretical developments over the last fifty years led to the emergence of different models explaining the internal organisation or structure of social representations. In his original work, Moscovici (1961 reported in Herzlich, 1972) suggests analysing social representations under three dimensions: (a) the subjects’ information or knowledge about the object, (b) the subjects’ positive or negative attitude towards the object, and (c) the representational field. This last dimension refers to the internal organisation of a representation. Elements found within the

⁵³ Original text: “malades du cerveau”.

⁵⁴ Original text: “malades des nerfs”.

⁵⁵ Original text: “Ainsi, ces objets ne sont pas symétriques selon une règle d’inversion. Autrement dit, il n’est pas possible d’obtenir la représentation de l’un par simple négation (inversion) des éléments de la représentation de l’autre”.

representational field vary from one individual to another and from one group to another, as do the level of information about the object and attitudes towards it. However, at the core of the representational field is the figurative schema consisting in a combination of the most salient and important elements of the representation. A salient element is frequently reported in the subjects' discourse whereas an important element is qualitatively emphasised (but not frequently reported). The figurative schema plays an essential role in the genesis of a socially significant and meaningful symbolic representation (Herzlich, 1972).

Following Moscovici, other models have been proposed. While de Rosa (2013b) reports five general models for approaching the theory of social representations,⁵⁶ others (Moisan, 2010; Negura & Maranda, 2004) focus on describing mainly two structural models: the Central Nucleus Theory and the Organising Principles model.

The Central Nucleus Theory emerged from *École d'Aix-en-Provence* (Abric, 1993, 2002). It provides a model to describe the content and structure of a social representation, attributing a central or peripheral status to its elements (Moisan, 2010). The few elements of the central nucleus warrant the representation's stability. Determined by socio-historical conditions and ideologies, central elements are unlikely to be affected by individual and contextual differences. They make consensus among group members and are frequently used in their discourse (Negura & Maranda, 2004), but they have to be qualitatively important to be part of the central nucleus (Wagner, Valencia, & Elejabarrieta, 1996). In other words, they are "non-negotiable" (Flament, 1994a, p. 7). They have a descriptive, normative and functional character (Flament, 1994b; Salès-Wuillemin, Galand, Cabello, & Folcher, 2011). The concept of the central nucleus is akin to Moscovici's figurative schema (Moisan, 2010). As for peripheral elements, they reflect inter-individual diversity and relate to Moscovici's representational field. Although shared by some members of the group, they do not necessarily make consensus; they can sustain conflicting ideas and play a role in justifying unconventional practices (Negura & Maranda, 2004). Peripheral elements are negotiable (P. Moliner, 1995); their removal from the representation would not threaten the nucleus, although they are an essential, yet flexible feature allowing the representation to function in specific contexts and the group to adapt to change, particularly when change is perceived as reversible (Flament, 1994b).

Derivative models from the Central Nucleus Theory were proposed. The Basic Cognitive Schemas proposed by Guimelli (1993a, 1993b) emphasises the structural dimension of social

⁵⁶ These models are: (a) the structuralist approach based on the work of the *École d'Aix-en-Provence*, (b) the socio-dynamic approach from the Geneva School, (c) the anthropological approach inspired by Jodelet, (d) the narrative approach which integrates dialogical and discursive fields among others, and (e) the modelling approach fostering integration with other theoretical constructs and paradigms.

representations by investigating the organisation of cognitive elements according to three kinds of meta-schemas: descriptive, functional (related to action or praxis), and evaluative (Salès-Wuillemin et al., 2011). P. Moliner (1995) presents the Two-dimensional model (Moisan, 2010; Negura & Maranda, 2004). Its first dimension is structural, echoing the Central Nucleus Theory. However, P. Moliner questions the unidimensionality of the central-peripheral model. The author thus incorporates an attitudinal dimension consisting in the subject's evaluation of the content of the representation and its structure. Both these models combine an interest in the organisation of the content of social representations and the reintroduction of an attitudinal dimension, as suggested by Moscovici (1961 reported in Herzlich, 1972).

Finally, the Organising Principles Model arose from the Geneva School (Doise, 1986). Addressing the issue of individual differences towards objects of social representations, this model aims to bridge different levels of psychological and social analyses (Doise, 2002a). In elaborating this model, Doise drew on the notion of "position-taking generating principle"⁵⁷ articulated by Bourdieu (1977 in Doise, 1986, p. 82). Essential to this model is the idea that individual position-taking towards objects of social representations depends on communication processes and on individuals' and groups' social relationships and roles. Components of social representations found at the individual level (e.g., attitudes, opinions, etc.) are then organised by overarching principles common to members of a group (Moisan, 2010). Socially constructed representations then act as points of reference for taking positions (Negura & Maranda, 2004). In other words, the diverse positions taken by individuals and groups can be explained by their social integration and by processes of communication, but these positions and the social construction of the object remain organised by common principles among members of social groups.

The theoretical models presented above provide useful frameworks to describe the content and structure of social representations, to conceptualise the subject-object relationship, and to understand how the dynamics between individual peculiarities and social interactions and communication come into play. Some researchers conduct hybrid studies combining elements from different models (e.g., Moisan, 2010; Negura & Maranda, 2004). Combined research approaches are endorsed by key authors. For instance, Flament (1994a) who works with the Central Nucleus Theory, mentions that "the existence of necessary elements in a representation does not necessitate the adoption of our theory" (p. 8). Another example is found with P. Moliner (1995) who suggests how his two-dimensional model mostly based on quantitative research could guide qualitative descriptive inquiries.

⁵⁷ Original text: "principe générateur de prises de position".

This study mainly draws on the model initially proposed by Moscovici (1961, 2008) incorporating information and knowledge, representational field, and attitudes. It appears relevant to study the origins and nature of teachers' information or knowledge, given their reported lack of knowledge about inclusion and the difficulties signalled in bridging theory and practice in relation to preventing and dealing with difficult behaviour. This interest in teachers' information and knowledge also follows a recent appeal from Jodelet (2011a) to return to Moscovici's original focus on the transformation of knowledge into common sense. Moreover, the model of the representational field provides a pertinent frame to understand the organisation of teachers' representations through the identification of salient and important elements. Although the structural notions of central and peripheral elements (Abric, 1993, 2002) could have contributed to understand the organisation of teachers' representations, Moscovici's model was privileged for this study for consistency in the approach. Also, the organising principles introduced by Doise (1986, 2002a) offer an appropriate construct to discuss social representations as found in the social dynamics of contextualised interactions (Negura & Maranda, 2004) within schools where policies, practices, and professional obligations and relationships meet with personal and shared values, beliefs, attitudes, and educational practices. Finally, the evaluative dimension of social representations (Guimelli, 1993a, 1993b; P. Moliner, 1995; Salès-Wuillemin et al., 2011) is also part of this study for its links with attitudinal research on inclusive education. The incorporation of this last element gives this study the potential to look beyond attitudes and echoes Moscovici's original questioning about the prominent psychosociological concept of attitude asking "what, conceptually, holds attitudes and opinions together" (Moscovici & Marková, 1998, p. 381). In other words, Moscovici believed that research on attitudes did not address what it is that the items measuring attitudes referred to. Following his reasoning on common sense knowledge, his intuition was that people represent objects and that we need to describe these social constructs in order to understand the subjects' attitudes towards these objects or, in other words, to understand their relationship to the object. The evaluative dimension of social representations is embedded into this study according to this standpoint.

3.2.3 Social representations as processes.

In addition to looking at the content of social representations, research in this field aims to understand the processes by which content is socially constructed. Abric (1996) divides processes of social representations into three categories: elaboration, functioning and transformation.

Elaboration processes pertain to the genesis of a representation. Within this category are objectification and anchoring, the two main elaboration processes defined by Moscovici (1961, 2008). These processes are described and referred to by numerous authors (e.g., Abric, 1996; Doise, 2002b, 2003; Flick, 1998; Höijer, 2011; Jodelet, 2011b; Moisan, 2010; Selge & Fischer, 2011; Staerklé, 2009). Objectification involves the selection of new informative elements about the object, their de-contextualisation, their reorganisation into a figurative schema, and the attribution of a concrete form as the objectified representation exists for the subjects in their everyday life (Jodelet, 2011b). For this study, objectification refers to teachers selecting information available to them about inclusion and constructing a useful or functional representation of this object. It is through objectification that expert knowledge becomes common sense knowledge. Considerations of the objectification process reinforce the importance of investigating teachers' knowledge about inclusion, including the origins of this knowledge. Anchoring is the process allowing the unfamiliar to become familiar (Farr, 2003), meaning that new information about an object is integrated in pre-existing cognitive categories, classification systems, or typologies of people and situations (Doise, 2002b). For Abric (1996), "anchoring is what makes possible the absorption of novelty into an old setting" (p. 78). Implications for this study lie in the hypothesis that inclusion is anchored into other models such as special education and integration due to their historical ties. Although usually presented separately, objectification and anchoring work dialectically (Jodelet, 2011b; Moisan, 2010).

The second and third categories of social representations processes are functioning and transformation processes (Abric, 1996). The functioning processes are discussed below. Transformation processes are relevant for longitudinal studies or studies following up on previously investigated objects of social representations among a specific group. For this reason, they are not investigated here.

3.2.4 Functions of social representations.

The general functions imparted to social representations are: (a) to allow individuals to orient themselves and master their environment, and (b) to facilitate communication between group members by naming and classifying objects (Moscovici, 1988). Jodelet (2011b) presents three main functions to social representations: "cognitive function of novelty integration, function of reality interpretation, function of behaviour and social relations orientation"⁵⁸ (p. 378).

⁵⁸ Original text: "fonction cognitive d'intégration de la nouveauté, fonction d'interprétation de la réalité, fonction d'orientation des conduites et des rapports sociaux".

Going into further details, Abric (1994a). explains four functions. First, social representations act as a system of knowledge contributing to individuals' and groups' understanding of the world. This knowledge function is aligned with the descriptive aspect of social representations put to the fore in the present study. Second, social representations allow individuals to identify as members of social groups. Precisely, it is the group's relationship with the object that defines group identification and strengthens group identity, particularly when the object is at stake and relevant for the group. This is believed to apply to inclusion as the implementation of inclusive education introduces a new professional vocabulary and modifies professional roles and interactions. It should be emphasised, however, that group identity revolves around the most important elements of a social representation. Members of a group generally share the most salient or central elements of the representation, but people's belonging to various groups and their singular experiences explain the extent of the representational field. Third and fourth are the orientation and justification functions. Social representations act as guidelines for thought and action, and they are referred to when individuals and groups justify what they think and do. In that sense, social representations are bounded to actions or practices.

3.3 Social Representations and Practices

Studying representations goes hand in hand with studying practices for anyone interested in people's understanding of, and interactions with their environment (Abric, 1994b). In the 1970s, Herzlich (1972) was foreseeing that “the emphasis on the notion of representations aims *to reintroduce the study of knowledge and symbolic processes in relation with conduct*”⁵⁹ (p. 305). This is particularly important in education where researchers are called upon to find out ways to modify representations and practices (Garnier & Doise, 2002). Such an incentive is consistent with this study considering the argument that moving towards inclusive education necessitates a paradigm shift (and a shift in the representations each paradigm sustains) and an increase in inclusive practices through rethinking education (see 2.1.4).

Some definitions of social representations incorporate practices as one of their components (Beauregard, 2006b; Gervais, 1997; Moscovici, 1988 in Márquez, 2005). In this study, practices and social representations are deemed different although closely related. Very briefly, “practices are a set or a system of behaviours socially acknowledged that can differ from one group to another”⁶⁰ (Beauregard, 2006b, p. 550). These “systems of action [are] structured socially and

⁵⁹ Italicised in original text: “l’accent mis sur la notion de représentation vise à réintroduire l’étude des modes de connaissance et des processus symboliques dans leur relation avec les conduites”.

⁶⁰ Original text: “les pratiques sont un ensemble ou un système de comportements reconnus socialement et qui peuvent différer d’un groupe à l’autre”.

established in relation to roles”⁶¹ (Abric, 1994b, p. 217). Flament and Rouquette (2003) and Rouquette (2000), delineate four aspects to practices:

1. they necessitate doing something, taking action;
2. they represent recurrent or frequent actions;
3. they reflect a way of doing; and
4. they involve an action-related strategy or calculation.

For this study, the first and second aspects defining practices are considered because investigating practices entails looking at occurring and recurring actions. This study also draws on the third aspect by considering practices as a way of doing. This is relevant in an educational context where teachers’ practices are guided by specific professional actions to resolve issues belonging to their work (Piasser & Ratinaud, 2010). The fourth aspect of practices refers to situational in-action coping when the subject proceeds to an analysis of the “causes, constraints and consequences of the *action*”⁶² (Flament & Rouquette, 2003, p. 36) as it occurs. In the case of classroom practice, this refers to the teachers’ immediate thoughts about, and response to disruptive behaviour. These in-action calculations are hardly accessible to the observer in a classroom because teachers cannot verbalise their immediate thoughts while interacting with students. This aspect is thus not specifically examined in the present study. However, an observer can access the “speculative or secondary discourse on this practice”⁶³ (Rouquette, 2000, p. 139) which pertains to the representational sphere. This study proposes to examine the links between representations and practices.

Relationships between social representations and practices are complex. One important question is whether social representations influence practices or practices influence social representations. To this day, experimental research and empirical inquiries show confirmatory examples on both sides of the argument (Abric, 1994b; Rouquette, 2000; Wagner, 1995), thus dismissing the hypothesis of a one-way causal relationship between social representations and practices. Instead, social representations and practices would be part of a complex system of thought and action dependent on the situation and context (Abric, 1994b), particularly when studied in people’s everyday lives or in professional situations as in this study.

⁶¹ Original text: “des systèmes d’action socialement structurés et institués en relation avec des rôles”.

⁶² Original text: “causes, des contraintes et des conséquences de l’action”.

⁶³ Original text: “discours spéculatif ou secondaire sur cette pratique”.

Some researchers have set the goal to demystify this complex system. Among them are Flament (1994b) and Rouquette (2000). Flament believes that social representations have a descriptive and a prescriptive character. While description relates to the knowledge function of social representations, prescription connects with their orientation and justification functions (see 3.2.4), thus linking representations and practices. Albeit the recognition by Flament that some prescriptions are absolute and orientate practice,⁶⁴ an inadequacy between what people say and do could lead the observer to premature conclusion of a disconnect between prescriptive representations and practices. Likewise, differences in what members of a group evolving in different contextual conditions say or do could lead to identification of two different social representations. Before jumping to such conclusions, Flament advises considering the idea that discursive prescriptions found in representations can also be conditional. While people almost systematically refer to general cases in their discourse, they also consider specific situations. Therefore, a single social representation can prescribe different practices for different situations whether they relate to general or specific cases. For instance, the prescription ‘students must be educated at their local school’ applies to most students whereas the inclusion of a student whose behaviour is considered disruptive by school staff would call for a different practice such as provision in an alternative location, in which case the prescription would include a condition with regard to the student’s behaviour judged against the school’s norms and rules. Rouquette agrees with Flament’s idea and maintains that social representations create “conditions of variable constraint” (p. 136) for action. Representations thus would not determine practices per se but would contribute to define what is possible, leaving the individual and the group with a certain degree of choice for action. In other words, representations produce expectations for practice (Abrieu, 1994a).

If social representations have the potential to condition practices, then what happens when emerging or newly implemented practices appear to contradict existing representations? This question is particularly relevant for the present study because of the introduction of behaviour management strategies and teaching practices mobilising teachers and schools. Here, contextual elements such as institutional obligations or even social pressure have the potential to influence practices (Rouquette, 2000). These new practices then have the potential to modify representations, particularly when the novel situation is perceived as “irreversible”⁶⁵ (Flament, 1994b, p. 55) by the subjects as if they could not return to anterior practices. In such a case, the perceived autonomy of the subject would be low, narrowing his or her degree of choice. Whether new practices make their way in to the classroom and school could thus depend on the

⁶⁴ Based on the structural models of social representations, absolute prescriptions organise the figurative schema, they are found in the central nucleus, or they act as organising principles (see 3.2.2.2).

⁶⁵ Original text: “irréversible”.

degree of reversibility of the situation as perceived by the subjects and on the autonomy of these subjects within that situation. On that account, context appears to be an essential factor for an accurate definition of the social representations-practices relationships (Abric, 1994b). In educational research on social representations, the particularities of the teaching profession in situated school environments need consideration.

3.4 Social Representations in the Professional Field of Education

An increasing number of researchers mobilise the theory of social representations to analyse educational phenomena (de Rosa, 2013b). Here are some examples of studies of objects and subjects related to integration or inclusion: representations of integration and inclusion among teachers working in an inclusive education orientated primary-secondary school (Ramel & Longchamp, 2009); social representations among parents of dysphasic students and primary school teachers of their roles in integrating dysphasic children (Beauregard, 2006a, 2006b); impacts of handicap visibility and impacts of experiences of integration on social representations of handicap among college students (Harma, Gombert, Roussey, & Arciszewski, 2011); social representations of inclusion as a school ideology and stratification of students based on perceptions of intellectual potential in two primary school (Tuval & Orr, 2009); and social representations of ADHD and psychostimulant medication among primary school teachers (Quesnel, 2008).⁶⁶

Recently reaffirmed by Jodelet (2011a), the appropriateness of resorting to the theory of social representations to understand educational phenomena supports the rationale of this study to investigate the complex phenomenon of inclusion in relation to behavioural difficulties. Moreover, recent innovations in educational research on social representations facilitate the study of representations in a professional context (Piaser & Bataille, 2011; Piaser & Ratinaud, 2010). This section first explains the particularities of professional representations and simultaneously discusses the notion of professional group. This is a necessary detour in order to grasp how social representations are articulated within professional contexts.

3.4.1 Social and professional representations.

Utilising the theory of social representations in research within professional contexts raises questions on the nature of these representations. Are the representations professionals construct

⁶⁶ Other studies have been published in languages not accessible to the author of this thesis.

social representations or are they of another kind? The most probing answer to this interrogation comes from an effort towards defining professional representations (Piasser & Bataille, 2011; Piasser & Ratinaud, 2010; Quesnel, 2008).

For Piasser and Bataille (2011) professional representations “are a subset of social representations with the following two characteristics: the groups of representation carriers and the objects being represented belong to the same professional sphere” (p. 44). This definition contains three important elements.

The first important element is the idea that professional representations are a class of social representations. The distinction is not one of nature but one of degree; social representations gradually become professional as the “actor’s professionalism” and the “object’s technicality” increase (Piasser & Bataille, 2011, p. 48). Accordingly, professional representations “are a constant reference element, helping individuals to operate in a professional situation” (Piasser, 1999, p. 92 in Piasser & Bataille, 2011, p. 44). Representations constructed within professional groups would offer a “genuine ‘pool of answers’, useful in situations of doubt or professional questioning, [and they] could help protagonists to better operate under most professional circumstances and in carrying out most of their professional activities” (Piasser & Bataille, 2011, p. 45). However, professionals also refer to less technical representations (or social representations) in certain circumstances (Piasser & Ratinaud, 2010). As a result, social and professional representations are situated on a continuum and share the same functions (Piasser & Ratinaud, 2010) (see 3.2.4). The description of professional representations as a ‘pool of answers’ suggests that these representations, along with social representations, do not strictly determine practices but provide plural frameworks for individuals and groups to define possible actions (see 3.3).

The second important element relates to the nature of the group. Social groups are formed according to certain characteristics, including being in a similar position towards an object. Professional groups meet this criterion as their knowledge-base and their practices belong to a specific profession. However, research on group interactions and group representations shows intragroup heterogeneity (Lorenzi-Cioldi & Clémence, 2003). Indeed, identification with a group is not exclusive as individuals belong to multiple groups and sub-groups. For instance, a classroom teacher can be part of a department, a member of the school’s middle management team, a parent, a post-graduate student, a union member, a religious group member, or some or all of the above. Elements pertaining to both social and professional representations can then be engendered within heterogeneous professional groups where individuals “use a plurality of reference frames” (Piasser & Bataille, 2011, p. 47). Moreover, the contextual specificity inherent

to a school's culture leads to consider variations with regard to sub-groups of teachers (differences between and within schools). Far from contradicting the precepts of the theory of social representations, this information on group heterogeneity and diversity in representations and practices is coherent with the view that professional representations provide a 'pool of answers' helping adapt to a variety of professional situations and with the idea that only a few salient and important elements of a representation make consensus within groups (see 3.2.2.1).

The third element of importance in the definition of professional representations presented above refers to the object of representation itself and its relevance in the professional context of the group. While the concept of inclusion has been extensively discussed in Chapter Two, it is considered against theoretical criteria defining objects of social representations in the next section.

3.5 Social Representations and Inclusion: Theoretical Criteria

The selection of an object of social representation at the beginning of an investigation is always hypothetical (P. Moliner et al., 2002). Nonetheless, theoretical criteria can guide this choice. For this study, the concept of inclusion was initially assessed against the five attributes defining objects of social representations listed by P. Moliner et al. (2002) and used in other studies (Fortier, 2008; Quesnel, 2008). Consideration is given to each of the attributes below, showing that inclusion was a good fit for a social representations investigation.

First, objects of social representations are polymorphic and complex concepts of social importance. This attribute corresponds to inclusion as described in the literature. The evolution of inclusive education over the last two decades shows that it is charged with the history of special education and integration, leading to conceptual diversity and to plural forms of inclusion (see 2.1). Also, the universal character of inclusion (see 2.2.1) suggests that representations of inclusion are likely to encompass values and beliefs beyond the professional sphere (as opposed to being constrained to that sphere), thus adding to the complexity of the concept. The specific situation investigated in this study, inclusion in relation to preventing and dealing with difficult behaviour, is likely to add to this complexity. Thus, the concept of behavioural difficulties was investigated as a connected object (nature and causes).

Second, objects of social representations are shared among individuals through effective interactions. Given the recent prominence of inclusion in New Zealand education, it is believed

that education practitioners working within this inclusive education mandated system are likely to communicate with each other about inclusion.

Third, objects of social representations foster group identity or cohesion. This aspect applies to the present study because inclusion involves the modification of existing professional roles, particularly that of the teacher who becomes a central agent for inclusion. Such a change can impact how teachers understand inclusion and position themselves towards it. It can also impact how teachers position themselves towards other professionals and students. Notwithstanding, intragroup differences in relation to inclusion have to be acknowledged as they could result in some teachers distancing themselves from colleagues.

Fourth, objects of social representations are present in the social dynamics where diverse social groups interact. This attribute reflects the professional interactions occurring between teachers, specialists and support staff in order to foster inclusion and deal with difficult behaviour. It also reflects teacher-student interactions as well as interactions with other actors like parents and policy-makers for instance.

Finally, objects of social representations are generated and shared in the absence of orthodoxy. In other words, the object should not be dictated by regulatory bodies. The absence of orthodoxy is supported by the multiple definitions of inclusion (Allan & Slee, 2008; Slee, 2011) and the relative teacher independence in the implementation of 'top down' reforms as they interpret and mediate policy in their classrooms (Bourke et al., 2004; Clough, 1999).

3.6 Chapter Summary

The theory of social representations introduced in this chapter is used in this study to explore inclusion as a social construct among teachers working in secondary education. Not only does this framework allow description of the content of this construct, but it permits understanding how it is organised and how it functions in school contexts and in relation to practices. Given the particularities related to studying social representations in the field of education, these representations pertain to common sense and professional knowledge. The following chapter describes the methodological apparatus put in place to realise this project, including the main methodological approaches to the theory of social representations and the selection of one approach to explore inclusion in relation to dealing with difficult behaviour in secondary education.

Chapter Four

Methodology

Virtually all disciplines within the whole spectrum of the humanities and the social sciences, including those that seek to improve the political and social conditions of life, are concerned with the functions and effects of symbols, meanings and messages (Krippendorff, 2004, p. xvii).

This study uses the theory of social representations introduced in Chapter Three to explore the concept of inclusion in secondary education in relation to preventing and dealing with difficult behaviour. The study also aims to understand the representations-practices interplay in actual school contexts where knowledge and ways of doing are shared among teachers and within school communities. The complexity of this phenomenon called for a preliminary examination of the object inclusion from the viewpoints of different professional groups. It then called for an in-depth investigation of teachers' representations and practices in situated school environments. Accordingly, a two-phase research process involving an online questionnaire followed by case studies was designed.

This chapter first discusses methodological approaches to social representations research. Qualitative research, the selected approach for this study, is introduced in the second section which presents the interpretive process and the quality criteria adopted. An overview of the research process is provided in the third section. The fourth and fifth sections present the methodologies and methods specific to Phase One (exploratory online questionnaire) and Phase Two (case studies), respectively. The last section explains the ethical principles guiding this study along with their practical applications.

4.1 Methodological Approaches to Social Representations

The different theoretical models of social representations developed following Moscovici are traditionally tied to specific methodologies. Descriptions of theoretico-methodological typologies in social representations research are provided by a number of authors. For instance, Garnier and Doise (2002) list the structural approach using experimental or quasi-experimental

research, the qualitative approach belonging to discursive analysis, and the approach studying the transformation processes of social representations also using experimental or quasi-experimental research.⁶⁷ Boyer (2003) also makes reference to the structural approach and the qualitative approach, both emphasising investigations of the content of social representations. A recent typology proposed by de Rosa (2013b) distinguishes between the Aix-en-Provence and the Geneva schools working respectively with the structural and the socio-dynamic or organising principles approaches (see 3.2.2.2), the anthropological approach based on Jodelet's work, the narrative and discursive approaches inspired by discourse and conversational analysis, and the modelling approach fostering multiple methods and focusing on relationships between social representations and other social psychology constructs. These examples show how the perspective adopted and the aspects of social representations under study expressed through the research objectives or questions (e.g., description of the content, structure, social anchoring, sharing through language, links with practices, etc.) determine methodological tools.

With the increasing complexity inherent in carrying out social representations research, more and more hybrid studies of representational phenomena in real social environments are designed (see 3.2.2.2), often necessitating multiple methods. A recent meta-analysis of empirical social representations studies shows that 265 out of 769 studies reportedly used combined methods (de Rosa, 2013b). Such a tendency follows a general agreement among theorists towards the need to employ multiple methods to investigate social representations (de Rosa, 2013b; Doise, 1993, 2002b; Duveen, 2000; Sotirakopoulou & Breakwell, 1992).

The selection of the methodological apparatus for this study followed the above-mentioned recommendations. First, the descriptive nature of the research questions called for selecting qualitative research as an overarching approach. Qualitative inquiry is well suited to answer questions seeking to describe the content of social representations and the practices of professional groups. Second, the complexity of studying social representations in situated school contexts and in relation to practices led to design a study in which a plurality of methods would contribute to enriching the qualitative approach. The main features of qualitative research are explained below.

⁶⁷ Garnier and Doise (2002) highlight the necessity to develop innovative and plural methods that would reduce bias related to the artificiality and reductionism of experimental and quasi-experimental settings and conditions.

4.2 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is used across social science disciplines to investigate a wide range of phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Jodelet, 2003a). This transdisciplinary history resulted in diverse definitions and practices of qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2007). Nonetheless, a number of generic characteristics can be identified which are associated with the nature and objectives of qualitative inquiry as well as with its methods and processes.

Qualitative research aims to provide rich or in-depth descriptions of complex social phenomena expressed in their natural context (Berg, 2009; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Jodelet, 2003a; McMillan, 2012; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009) where people interact and communicate (Flick, 2007; Savoie-Zajc, 2011). Accordingly, qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning individuals and groups attribute to their experiences to make sense of, or construct their world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2007; McMillan, 2012). In that way, it is associated with non-positivist paradigmatic approaches (Lincoln et al., 2011). Individuals' perspectives are sought as qualitative researchers recognise the multiplicity of realities (McMillan, 2012; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Qualitative research thus focuses on understanding and meaning (Jodelet, 2003a; Savoie-Zajc, 2011; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009) as well as on the processes by which meaning is produced (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; McMillan, 2012).

The complexity of social phenomena is best understood through holistic and global inquiries (Jodelet, 2003a; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Qualitative researchers resort to multiple methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2007; Jodelet, 2003a; McMillan, 2012) selected for their appropriateness in approaching the phenomenon they study. The qualitative research process is iterative and flexible, with the problem and questions taking shape as the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon forms (McMillan, 2012; Savoie-Zajc, 2011; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). The process is often described as inductive because meaning and understanding emerge from the data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Flick, 2007; McMillan, 2012; Savoie-Zajc, 2011; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). However, data analysis often combines inductive and deductive processes when researchers mobilise theoretical constructs to make sense of the data (Paillé & Muchielli, 2003).

Qualitative research is appropriate as regards the descriptive orientation of this investigation. Its main goal is to provide a thorough description of a complex social phenomenon to understand what it means for the people experiencing it. McMillan (2012), believes that "this goal is best achieved if the researcher focuses on what occurs and how it occurs, rather than why" (p. 55).

Through an holistic approach within natural school environments, this study can provide an insightful understanding “of the complex and interrelated processes of personal experiences, attitudes and practices” (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002, p. 144), hence shedding new light on quantitative measures of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusion (see 2.4.2.1). This qualitative study can also enrich the existing body of knowledge on behavioural difficulties with findings grounded in practice and drawing on individual and collective perspectives, beliefs and actions (Sabornie, 2004; S. Stainback & W. Stainback, 1984).

Inclusion is the central concept of this two-phase qualitative study specifically designed to understand what this concept means from the perspectives of the participants, thus adopting a socioconstructivist standpoint following an interpretive research process. Given that multiple barriers remain to creating inclusive environments, particularly when behavioral difficulties arise in secondary schools and classrooms (see 2.4), representations and practices were investigated in relation to preventing and dealing with behavioural difficulties. Referring to behavioural difficulties could be viewed as bearing a deficit view pertaining to the medical model. However, this study looked at behavioural difficulties from the perspectives of participants, focusing on what they perceived as behavioural difficulties thus embracing a social constructivist epistemology. The use of the expression *students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties* throughout this thesis is an illustration of this precaution. Moreover, strategies were put forward in this study to lower the risk of facing such a potential disconnect. In Phase One, participants were invited to identify the causes they attributed to behavioural difficulties (see 5.5.3), leading to formulate hypotheses with regard to their standpoint (deficit based or influence of the environment). These were also investigated in the case studies (see 7.2.3). In Phase Two, behavioural difficulties were reported for each case study as a way of getting a better understanding of what teachers perceived as difficult behaviour in the particular context of their school (see 6.1.3, 6.2.3 and 6.3.3) and led to specific behaviour prevention and management practices (see 6.1.4, 6.2.4 and 6.3.4).

4.2.1 The interpretive process.

The researcher’s interpretive role is central throughout the qualitative research process (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Jodelet, 2003a; Savoie-Zajc, 2011). This role consists in interpreting qualitative data anchored in specific contexts to understand the meaning people give to their experience. Accordingly, Savoie-Zajc (2011) uses the expression “qualitative/interpretive

research”⁶⁸ (p. 123) to designate qualitative research to assert the predominantly qualitative nature of the data and to acknowledge the interpretive essence of the research act. This is done as the researcher engages with, and makes sense of the object, as explained by Crotty (1998):

Research in constructivist vein ... requires that we not remain straitjacketed by the conventional meanings we have been taught to associate with the object. Instead, such research invites us to approach the object in a radical spirit of openness to its potential for new or richer meaning. It is an invitation to reinterpretation. (p. 51)

From the perspective of social representations research, knowledge is constructed through people’s interactions and experiences, and it is through interpreting their contextualised discourse and practices about an object that qualitative researchers can access their language-mediated social representations enacted in their everyday lives (Gervais, 1997). Notwithstanding, it is important to be reminded that descriptions of social representations reported in research accounts do not bear an ontological status; these second hand descriptions are not the phenomenon or the object itself, but the researcher’s interpretation or reconstruction (Lahlou & Abric, 2011). Therefore, the researcher’s posture must be made explicit, especially since qualitative research “has no theory or paradigm that is distinctly its own” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 8).

Given the connections between social constructivism and the theory of social representations (see 3.1.3), this study adheres to the social constructivist relativist ontology and subjectivist epistemology. Ontological relativism resides in the belief that multiple context-dependent, dynamic and potentially conflicting realities are constructed by individuals and groups, while epistemological subjectivity refers to the construction of knowledge through interactions between the researcher and the phenomenon under study (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The recent diversification of qualitative research contributes to shifting the frontiers between inquiry paradigms towards paradigmatic confluence, as pointed out by Lincoln et al. (2011). These authors mention that this phenomenon is particularly true for constructivism. While constructivists traditionally adopted a neutral stance limiting their action to reconstructing objects from participants’ voices, they now tend to use their findings to support transformative actions. This has implications for social representations research adopting the social constructivist epistemology. For instance, Castro and Batel (2008) suggest that social representations investigations should examine and address ideas such as the role of experts,

⁶⁸ Original text: “recherche qualitative/interprétative”.

resistance to change, and representations-practices relationships, as they did in their empirical study on urban planning, in order to facilitate the integration of new norms into existing representational systems and their transfer into practice. Likewise, it is advised that representational research in education undertakes inquiries leading to understand the knowledge base of educators and its transmission to ultimately facilitate its transformation (Jodelet, 2011a). For example, recent studies of Swiss teachers' representations of integration (Ramel & Longchamp, 2009) or reintegration in regular classrooms (Doudin, Borboën, & Moreau, 2006) were conducted in order to inform teachers' training and reflection based on their representations and practices. Understanding how teachers construct inclusion and deal with what they perceive as behavioural difficulties in a specific school context through the interpretive act of the researcher, as proposed in this study, can be a starting point to work with these professionals to modify their constructions towards positive changes for them and their students (Lincoln, 1998).

4.2.2 Quality criteria.

Qualitative research operates under different assumptions to the positivist orientation (Lincoln et al., 2011). Thus, it is evaluated under specific quality criteria (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Flick, 2007; Jodelet, 2003a; McMillan, 2012; Savoie-Zajc, 2011). The criteria that guided this study are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. They are found under the umbrella of trustworthiness (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Often referred to, they offer operational guidelines for qualitative researchers (Savoie-Zajc, 2011).

Credibility is defined as the confidence one has in the “truth value”⁶⁹ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296) or plausibility of the interpretation and ensuing findings (McMillan, 2012; Savoie-Zajc, 2011). It involves for Lincoln and Guba (1985):

...first, to carry out the inquiry in such a way that the probability that the findings will be found to be credible is enhanced and, second, to demonstrate the credibility of the findings by having them approved by the constructors of the multiple realities being studied. (p. 296)

A number of strategies can increase research credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; McMillan, 2012; Savoie-Zajc, 2011). First, prolonged engagement allows enough time for the researcher to

⁶⁹ Lincoln & Guba (1985) use quotation marks with the expression “truth value”. The authors explain that truth is not independent from human experience when considered under the constructivist paradigm. They further highlight the constructivist character of the researcher's interpretive act and his or her credibility in reconstructing the realities initially constructed by the subjects.

get to know the object and context studied. In this study, the researcher gathered information early in the research process about inclusion, special education, and difficult behaviour in New Zealand through reading policy documents and professional publications. Then, she conducted an exploratory questionnaire before proceeding to case studies. She also learnt about each school prior to data collection (i.e., ERO report, website, discussion with the liaison person). Second is triangulation. Widely used to increase credibility in qualitative research (Flick, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Savoie-Zajc, 2011), this strategy consists in superimposing and combining different perspectives leading to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon (Savoie-Zajc, 2011). This study involved multiple modes of data collection (triangulation of methods) employed with various actors and documents (triangulation of sources or data) (Flick, 2007). Triangulation of sources was also applied through the case study design being replicated in three locations. Third is negative case analysis. This involves ensuring that the emerging interpretive structure fits “some reasonable number of cases” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 312) and, conversely, that no case contradicts this structure. In a multiple case study investigation, Hartnett (2010) proceeded to “the re-examination of findings from each case once the initial analysis phase was complete, to see whether emergent themes could be confirmed during cross-case analysis” (p. 45). The same strategy was employed in the present study.

Other strategies can increase credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985): persistent observation to identify salient elements to the phenomenon under study, debriefing with a researcher external to the study, referential adequacy involving the reexamination of the raw data by an independent tier, and member check where participants confirm the researcher’s analysis. These strategies were not practical for this study and were not used due to resourcing, timeframe, and confidentiality issues. Nonetheless, the following compensatory measures were applied: audio recording of the interviews, clarification of participants’ ideas through reformulation, conduct of interviews after classroom observation, summary of the main ideas when closing each interview, and provision of the interview transcripts to participants for review.

Transferability refers to applying the findings to other settings and contexts (McMillan, 2012). It is the counterpoint to generalisation and involves for readers or users of the research playing an active role in evaluating “contextual similarity” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 298) between the research context and their own. Transferability is made possible when the researcher supplies sufficient information about the research context for the users to establish contextual similarity. In this study, a “thick description” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316) of the research contexts

allows the reader to learn about the specificities of each school, particularly with regard to the case studies (see Chapter Six).⁷⁰

Dependability deals with the stability of the findings in relation to the evolution of the research process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Trochim, 2000). It refers to the coherence between the research process and the results (Savoie-Zajc, 2011). As for *confirmability*, it pertains to objectivity and implies that the findings and conclusions are linked to the data rather than attributed to characteristics of the researcher. Both criteria can be met by resorting to an audit trail which consists in having an external auditor authenticating the research procedure and product (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This study adopted a similar strategy, that of maintaining a chain of evidence as used in case study research (Yin, 2009). It was done by documenting the researcher's actions, decisions, reflections and interrogations throughout the research process using memos (Savoie-Zajc, 2011) and by listing the sources where the information forming the interpretive structure came from.

4.3 Overview of the Study

This study followed the guidelines provided by P. Moliner et al. (2002) suggesting that descriptive social representations studies should begin with a “preliminary investigation”⁷¹ (p. 29) of the object and groups involved, of their history and of communication within and between groups about the object. Two strategies proposed by the authors were initially adopted. First, reading New Zealand policy documents and professional publications in education permitted the gathering of information on the history, recent developments and current issues related to inclusion, special education, and behavioural difficulties. This information is presented in Chapter One and Chapter Two of this thesis. Second, the concept of inclusion was examined against the theoretical criteria defining objects of social representations (see 3.5).

Phase One was complementary to those strategies. Relying on first-hand information, it explored inclusion from the perspectives of four professional groups: secondary education teachers, teacher aides, RTLB and MoE:SE staff from Severe Behaviour Service. Results from Phase One strengthened the selection of inclusion as an object of social representations. These results presented in Chapter Five also informed the nature and design of Phase Two which investigated teachers' representations and practices in diverse situated contexts by way of case

⁷⁰ The descriptions were written with consideration given to the ethical principles of respect for persons, minimisation of harm and respect for privacy and confidentiality (see 4.6).

⁷¹ Original text: “diagnostic préalable”.

studies in three schools. The case studies are introduced in Chapter Six and the results are presented in Chapter Seven. Findings from the overall study are discussed in Chapter Eight. Before presenting the specificities of each phase in the two following sections, an overview of the study is provided in Table 4.1.

Table 4. 1

Research overview

	Phase ONE	Phase TWO
Rationale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explore representations of inclusion and experience of behavioural difficulties • Gain initial information for RQ1 and RQ2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide information for RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3 • Gain information relevant to the context of different schools
Methodology	Online questionnaire for preliminary investigation	Case study research. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Phenomenon</i>: teachers' social representations of inclusion and relationships with their professional practices • <i>Case</i>: groups of teachers working in specific school contexts • <i>Primary units of analysis</i>: teachers • <i>Secondary units of analysis</i>: other staff, students and school information
Research context	Questionnaire (online from Sep. to Dec. 2010)	School A: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Roll < 500 • Rural area • South Island • Visited June 2011 School B: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Roll \approx 1,500 • Urban area • North Island • Visited Aug. 2011 School C: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 500 \leq Roll < 1,500 • Urban area • North Island • Visited Sep. & Nov. 2011
Participants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers (n = 57) • Teacher aides (n = 9) • RTLB (n = 33) • MoE:SE staff (n = 11) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers (n = 8) • Teachers (n = 10) • Other staff (n = 5) • Students (n = 6)
Data collection methods	Online questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gathering of school data and documents • Semi-structured interviews (teachers, other staff, students) • Classroom observations or self-reported practices • Field notes
Data analysis methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive statistics (quantitative data) • Thematic content analysis (qualitative data) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thematic content analysis • Cross-case analysis

4.4 Phase One: Exploratory Online Questionnaire

A number of reasons led to selecting the online questionnaire for conducting Phase One. First, questionnaires of all formats are used to gather information about “people’s beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and behavior” (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006, p. 400). Information of this nature is sought in research on social representations (P. Moliner et al., 2002) and questionnaires have recently been used to investigate representations and practices in relation to inclusive education (Doudin et al., 2006; Ramel & Longchamp, 2009). Second, the online questionnaire can be conducted inexpensively and be rapidly distributed (Ary et al., 2006; Denscombe, 2010; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009; McMillan, 2012; Stopher, 2012). Third, downloading and importing data directly into an analysis software reduces time involvement and manual data entry errors (Denscombe, 2010). Fourth, the online questionnaire was selected over other preliminary analysis methods suggested by P. Moliner et al. (2002) such as interviews or focus groups because it gave access to a greater number of education professionals throughout New Zealand without generating travel expenses. Fifth, the online setting allowed participants to respond when and where they chose to (Ary et al., 2006; Stopher, 2012). Finally, the online questionnaire maintains participants’ anonymity (Ary et al., 2006; McMillan, 2012). This was a leading factor for this preliminary approach to the phenomenon as this procedure is less invasive. Overall, the online questionnaire was appropriate to explore participants’ representations of inclusion and their experience of behavioural difficulties due to its suitability, feasibility, flexibility, and anonymity.

Limitations of online questionnaires were considered. The online medium narrows participation to people with access to and skills in navigating the Internet (Ary et al., 2006; Dillman et al., 2009; Stopher, 2012). However, this was not an issue for this study because the use of technology and emails is widespread in New Zealand educational organisations. Another limitation lies in the low response rate obtained from online questionnaires compared to other methods, including postal questionnaires (Ary et al., 2006; Stopher, 2012). The sampling and data collection procedures included strategies to increase the number of responses (see 4.4.2). Finally, anonymity implies that the researcher cannot be entirely sure if the respondents were the intended participants (Ary et al., 2006). In this study, potential participants were approached through their organisation (see 4.4.2) and were asked to provide demographic information and state their role and title to confirm the professional group of each individual.

4.4.1 Data collection instrument: online questionnaire.

The online questionnaire is provided in Appendix A. Two versions were created: version A for teachers and version B for teacher aides, RTLB, and MoE:SE personnel. There were only slight variations in some questions to ensure adequate and personalised formulation. Both versions comprised eight sections tailored to gather information relevant to social representations theory:

5. free word association task;
6. definition of inclusion and characteristics of an inclusive school;
7. attitudes towards inclusion and opinion on important issues for inclusion;
8. knowledge of inclusion (perceived level of knowledge, sources of information, channels of communication);
9. personal and professional experience of inclusion (perceptions of actual school inclusiveness, level of confidence to include groups of students);
10. roles, support received and preferred support;
11. experience of behavioural difficulties; and
12. demographic information.

The questions and specific items were drawn from the literature. Particular attention was paid to the structure of the questionnaire and formulation of the questions. The questionnaire was assessed by five Massey University academics with practical experience in New Zealand secondary education, and by four professionals working with secondary school students. All provided feedback on the structure, clarity of the questions, and accuracy of the terms employed for the New Zealand context.

*SurveyMonkey*⁷² was used to produce the online output of the questionnaire, distribute it, and gather responses. Three *SurveyMonkey* features were utilised. First, online skip logic directed participants to appropriate follow-up questions based on their responses to generic ones. Second, the collector identification function generated four web links to the survey (one per group of participants) later included in the email invitation to give potential participants direct access to the appropriate questionnaire and facilitate participation (Denscombe, 2010). Each link was associated with a collector identification number to trace the professional group of individual respondents. Third, the respondent identification function provided a respondent

⁷² *SurveyMonkey* website: <http://www.surveymonkey.com>

identification number per individual participant. Each participant's response set was accompanied by its collector and respondent identification numbers.

4.4.2 Sampling and data collection procedures.

Phase One involved an exploratory sample. This type of sample is generally smaller than samples used to draw generalisation to the population as it intends "to provide the researcher with a means for generating insights and information" (Denscombe, 2010, p. 24). This sample met the objectives of Phase One which were to explore the object inclusion from the perspectives of different groups and to orientate further investigation in schools.

The selection and approach of potential participants differed depending on the professional organisation they belonged to. The sampling and data collection procedures for each group are detailed below.

4.4.2.1 Teachers and teacher aides.

Teachers and teacher aides were approached through the school they worked in. The sampling and data collection procedures for potential participants from these groups are presented below.

1. Determination of the population of schools. All schools presenting the following characteristics were part of the population of schools: (a) state or state integrated, (b) co-educational, and (c) secondary or composite. The *Schools Directory* (Ministry of Education, 2010c) database permitted the identification of 282 schools meeting these criteria.⁷³ Because this study is about public and mainstream education, schools with a special vocation or character were not considered (i.e., private, special, Kura Kaupapa Māori and boys- or girls-only schools).

2. Selection of the initial sample of schools. A sample of schools was selected among the population targeted for this study. This procedure permitted use of publicly available demographic school information to estimate the representativeness of the sample of schools compared to the population in order to consider transferability of the questionnaire results.⁷⁴ The

⁷³ The version used was published on 02/03/2010, accessed on 09/03/2010, and retrieved from the following website: http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/statistics/tertiary_education/27436.

⁷⁴ The researcher did not have access to information about the four groups of participants. Consequently, the representativeness of the sample of respondents could not be compared to characteristics pertaining to the wider teacher, teacher aide, RTLB, and MoE:SE staff populations. School data was the only information available to estimate representativeness of the sample.

sampling procedure was a combination of proportional stratified random sampling and cluster sampling with schools acting as clusters (Ary et al., 2006; Denscombe, 2010; McMillan, 2012; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). To ensure participation throughout New Zealand, stratification was based on the geographical areas used by the Ministry of Education for the provision of special education services: north, central north, central south, and south.

An initial sample of 56 schools, representing 20% of the population of 282 schools, was randomly selected. This initial sample size was deemed sufficient to achieve the exploratory goals of Phase One considering the resources available, time involvement, and capacity of the online questionnaire to provide a higher number of teacher and teacher aide participants than other preliminary analysis methods such as interviews and focus groups. Table 4.2 describes the sampling procedure and demonstrates how this was done for the Central North area.

Table 4.2

Sampling procedure for the selection of the initial sample of schools

Procedure	Example for the Central North area (CNA)
1. Identification of schools meeting the population selection criteria in each geographical area using the School Directory. ^a	<p>Filter the following characteristics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • school type: <i>secondary (Year7-15 & 9-15), composite</i>; • authority: <i>state, state integrated</i>; • gender of students: <i>co-educational</i>; • MoE local offices: <i>Hamilton, Napier, Rotorua</i>. <p><i>Outcome: 65 schools found in the CNA.</i></p>
2. Determination of the number of schools to be randomly selected for the area using proportional allocation. ^b	<p>Calculation:</p> $\frac{65 \text{ CNA schools}}{282 \text{ pop. schools}} = \frac{x \text{ CNA sample schools}}{56 \text{ sample schools}} \text{ where } x = 12.9$ <p><i>Outcome: 13 schools to be randomly selected out of 65.</i></p>
3. Random selection of the sample schools in each area using randomisation and ranking functions. ^c	<p>Steps followed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sort schools according to geographical areas; • copy the 65 CNA schools' rows and paste in a new spreadsheet (cells A1:A65); • enter formula =<i>RAND()</i> in cells B1:B65; • enter formula =<i>RANK(B1,\$B\$1:\$B\$65)<14</i> in cell C1 and copy formula in cells C2:C65. <p><i>Outcome: rows with TRUE value were the 13 selected schools.</i></p>

^a Ministry of Education School Directory (Ministry of Education, 2010c).

^b Proportional allocation: "Each stratum contributes to the sample a number that is proportional to its size in the population" (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009, p. 333).

^c Microsoft Excel was used following the procedure found at www.mrexcel.com/td0034.html.

On examining the sample produced, it became apparent that the sample was sufficiently representative of the population of schools in terms of geographical area, type of school, authority, and school roll. A minor adjustment was made for the sample to better represent school deciles; two schools in the north and one in the south areas were replaced by randomly selected ones of a specific under-represented decile. As the request letters were ready to be sent, the September 2010 earthquake in Canterbury imposed a review of the sample. The Christchurch, Selwyn and Waimakariri districts were highly affected by the event and the two schools from those districts found in the initial sample were replaced by randomly selected ones presenting the same characteristics: type of school, authority, school roll, exact decile, and geographical area excluding the three affected districts. Table 4.3 compares the characteristics of the schools in the population and the schools in the initial sample after modifications.

3. Identification of replacement schools. There was a possibility that school principals may decline to support the research. For each school from the initial sample, all schools with the same characteristics were identified prior to sending the request letters. Not all schools from the initial sample could be replaced by the same number of schools, and some could not be replaced at all. The condition that replacing schools shared the same characteristics as those in the initial sample was restrictive, but it contributed to maintain the sample's profile established by the randomisation procedure which found the initial sample to be sufficiently representative of the population of schools. Sixty replacement schools were pre-identified.

4. Request to schools. Request letters were sent via email to the 56 principals of the initial sample schools at the beginning of term three, 2010 (Appendix B). Sixteen principals agreed to send out the information to their staff, 29 declined and 11 did not reply. The latter were recontacted up to five times. Five of the 29 schools declining the invitation could not be replaced,⁷⁵ leaving 24 schools to replace. Replacement schools were contacted as soon as a principal declined. Among the replacing schools, five principals agreed, twelve declined and seven did not reply. Again, each time a replacing school refused and could be replaced, another principal was contacted. To justify their refusal, some principals cited involvement in other research projects, staff heavy workload, and the climate created, at the time of data collection, by the industrial actions including sporadic strikes in secondary schools.

⁷⁵ No other schools were found with the same characteristics in the school population.

Table 4.3

Schools characteristics: comparison between population, initial sample and final sample

Schools' characteristics	Population of schools (n = 282)		Initial sample of schools (n = 56)		Final sample of schools (n = 21)		
	Number of schools	%	Number of schools	%	Number of schools	%	
Geographical area	North	83	29.4	17	30.4	2	9.5
	Central North	65	23.1	13	23.2	6	28.6
	Central South	51	18.1	10	17.9	6	28.6
	South	83	29.4	16	28.6	7	33.3
Type of school	Composite	64	22.7	12	21.4	3	14.3
	Secondary	218	77.3	44	78.6	18	85.7
Authority	Sate	238	84.4	46	82.1	18	85.7
	State integrated	44	15.6	10	17.9	3	14.3
Decile	1-2-3-4	123	43.6	24	42.9	10	47.65
	5-6-7	97	34.4	20	35.7	7	33.3
	8-9-10	62	22.0	12	21.4	4	19.05
Student roll (R)	R ≤ 500	129	45.7	26	46.4	9	42.85
	500 < R ≤ 1,000	80	28.4	16	28.6	9	42.85
	1,000 < R ≤ 1,500	41	14.5	7	12.5	2	9.5
	1,500 < R ≤ 2,000	24	8.5	6	10.7	1	4.8
R > 2,000	8	2.8	1	1.8	0	0.0	

Overall, 80 principals were contacted. The final sample included 21 participating schools, 16 from the initial sample and five replacing schools. This low number of positive responses from principals had an impact on the number of participants as well as on the schools' representativeness, as shown in Table 4.3. The final sample comprised more secondary than composite schools, more schools with a roll between 501 and 1,000 students, and fewer schools with a roll of 1,500 and over compared to the population. There was also an over-representation of the central south area and an under-representation of the northern area. However, Table 4.3 shows representativeness of the final sample in terms of authority and deciles.

5. Invitation to potential participants and data collection. The principal (or a nominee) of each school forwarded the information to staff via email. Potential teacher and teacher aide participants received the information sheet explaining the project along with a link to the online questionnaire (Appendix C). Principals were asked to send a reminder after two weeks.

4.4.2.2 Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour.

The RTLB National Coordinator was contacted via email (Appendix B) and agreed to send the invitation to all members of the New Zealand RTLB Association. At the time of data collection, there were approximately 750 RTLB working throughout the country, with fewer involved in the secondary sector than primary. The association could not provide a precise number of RTLB working in secondary schools, but the invitation mentioned that secondary education was targeted for this study. Potential participants received an information sheet explaining the project and a link to the online questionnaire (Appendix C). The RTLB Association sent two reminders at three week intervals.

4.4.2.3 Ministry of Education: Special Education personnel.

MoE:SE staff from Severe Behaviour Service were contacted through their special education regional districts. A request was initially sent to the MoE:SE National Office. The organisation's procedure asked that the request was assessed by the Ministry of Education's Ethics and Advisory Team. Once consent was obtained, individual email requests (Appendix B) were made to the 16 regional district managers to forward the invitation and the information sheet to their staff. Five managers declined the invitation, three did not reply, while one consulted with staff and another passed on the request to someone else without following through. Six special education regional districts participated. Staff involved in the Severe Behaviour Service received the information sheet and link to the online questionnaire via email

(Appendix C). A reminder email was sent after one to two weeks. Staff from one district did not receive a reminder as time was running late at the end of the school year.

4.4.2.4 Final sample.

The number of questionnaires analysed per professional group was 57 for teachers, 9 for teacher aides, 33 for RTLB, and 11 for MoE:SE staff. The sampling and approach procedures in this study did not permit calculation of the response rate because the number of potential participants who received an invitation could not be confirmed by all sending schools and organisations (Ary et al., 2006). The number of responses obtained can nonetheless be considered low, especially for the teacher aide and MoE:SE staff groups. As mentioned in 4.4, online questionnaires can generate low response rates. Possible general reasons include the role of school principals as gatekeepers, the ongoing industrial action, the workload of potential participants, their lack of interest in inclusive education, and the length of the questionnaire. In addition, each school only hires a few teacher aides and few MoE:SE staff work within Severe Behaviour Service in each district. Nevertheless, 110 people completed the questionnaire, providing valuable and extensive information. This seemed appropriate in the context of a preliminary analysis. The invitation and data collection procedures were convenient, fast, and non-invasive. Furthermore, the procedures enabled reaching a higher number of geographically spread people than could have been reached using other investigation methods.

4.4.3 Data analysis.

The data were retrieved using *SurveyMonkey*. The collector identification information was cross-checked with the title each participant provided to confirm his or her professional group. Questionnaires in which 75% or more of the main questions were completed (follow-up questions excluded) were kept for analysis. Quantitative data (e.g., responses to multiple choice questions and scales) were transferred on the statistical analysis software package *SPSS*,⁷⁶ and qualitative data were transferred onto the qualitative analysis software package *NVivo*.⁷⁷

⁷⁶ SPSS website: <http://www-01.ibm.com/software/analytics/spss/products/statistics/>

⁷⁷ NVivo website: <http://www.qsrinternational.com>

4.4.3.1 Quantitative data analysis.

Quantitative data were imported into a single *SPSS* document where individuals' responses were coupled with their collector and respondent identification numbers. Responses to most questions were analysed using *SPSS* descriptive statistics and non-parametric tests. Basic frequencies and measures of central tendency were used to analyse results to most questions (Vogt, 2007). These analyses offered useful tools to summarise participants' responses and explore issues needing further in-context investigation. In addition, non-parametric tests were calculated to determine the statistical significance of relationships between variables. The choice to run non-parametric tests rests on the sample size and on a first exploration of the data showing that they were not normally distributed. The following tests were selected and calculated when appropriate, following the explanations and procedures proposed by Field (2009): Spearman rho correlation, Kruskal-Wallis test, and Mann-Whitney test.

Specific procedures were needed for the free word association task and for scales. Results to question 1 of the free word association task were analysed by regrouping the 806 associative responses produced by participants. Responses carrying a similar meaning were grouped under a generic theme. Two hundred and ten themes were created and then reapplied to code participants' associative responses, leading to producing 975 coding frequencies.⁷⁸ In question 2, participants were invited to select the three responses that best represented inclusion among their responses to question 1. Responses to question 2 were coded with the 210 themes created from analysing question 1. Then, the themes were ranked according to three variables: (a) *frequency* defined as the number of times they were coded in question 1, (b) *number of respondents* who identified each theme in question 2, and (c) *importance* calculated in terms of the number of points they scored for their representativeness of inclusion in question 2.⁷⁹ While frequency and importance constitute the salience of the themes (Vergès, Tyszka, & Vergès, 1994), the number of participants listing each theme in question 2 was also considered because some participants referred many times to the same theme. Under each variable, the themes were ranked following the rank average function procedure in *Excel 2010*. Three lists of ranked themes were produced.

Scales results were analysed starting with reversing the negatively formulated items. Cronbach's alpha measures were run on the scales to examine reliability and thus the relevance

⁷⁸ The number of frequencies produced is higher than 806 because some responses involved more than a single code. For instance, one participant wrote "respected as part of the group" in a single box. This expression involved three different codes: *respect*, *part of*, and *group*.

⁷⁹ The scoring scale used was as follows: three points for the most representative themes, two points for the second most representative themes, and one point for the third most representative themes.

of calculating a score. The Cronbach's alpha provides a coefficient (α) ranging between 0 and 1. The cut-off point for reliability was set for $\alpha \geq .7$ (Field, 2009; Vogt, 2007). The items' connectedness within each scale was also considered through the item-total correlation (r) (Field, 2009). A correlation coefficient inferior to $r = .3$ indicated the need to remove the item from the scale and treat it independently. Chapter Five presents the findings.

4.4.3.2 Qualitative data analysis.

Qualitative data were combined into a single *NVivo* project. Responses to each question were imported as a different data source. Each participant's respondent identification number was included next to his or her responses prior to importation. Thematic analysis was used. The themes were drawn from the literature and some themes emerged from the data. Two thematic analysis procedures were used according to the nature of the questions analysed. The first procedure (type one) regrouped responses carrying the same meaning into classes for descriptive purposes. The second procedure (type two) aimed to identify and name the main ideas found in participants' responses to open-ended questions. Tables 4.4 and 4.5 present these procedures and list the questions analysed under each procedure and the form of results.

Finally, findings from quantitative and qualitative analyses were collated for each section of the questionnaire. The main findings are presented in Chapter Five which also discusses how these results informed Phase Two.

Table 4.4

Type one thematic analysis procedure

Thematic analysis – type one	
Aim:	Forming classes regrouping all responses carrying the same meaning.
Procedure:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Read all responses and write memos. 2. Regroup all similar responses. 3. Attribute a descriptive theme to each group of similar responses. 4. Create a node and a description for each theme. 5. Classify the themes under categories to facilitate the coding process by creating parent nodes (optional step used when the themes are too numerous). 6. Review all responses and code under the themes produced. 7. Display the results using visualisation tools.
Questions:	
Question 1	<p><i>What words come to your mind when you think about inclusion?</i> Production of a list of themes regrouping words and short expressions associated with inclusion. Themes were then applied to participants' responses to Question 2 and ranked using <i>Excel</i>.</p>
Question 7	<p><i>Please indicate any other issue you believe is important regarding the inclusion of students having special educational needs in regular classrooms.</i> Production of a list of themes representing issues reported by participants.</p>
Question 25	<p><i>Describe the role you believe you play [as a teacher] to facilitate the inclusion of students with special educational needs.</i> Production of a list of themes regrouping roles reported by participants.</p>
Question 29	<p><i>In your opinion, what is the main cause of students' behavioural difficulties?</i> Production of a list of themes representing causes of behavioural difficulties reported by participants.</p>
Questions 34-35-36-37	<p><i>What do you do to prevent disruptive behaviour from happening?; What do you do to assess your students' behaviour?; What types of intervention do you use when a student's behaviour disrupts a lesson?; What do you do to follow up after a student displayed disruptive behaviours?</i> Production of a list of themes representing practices reported by participants.</p>

Table 4.5

Type two thematic analysis procedure

Thematic analysis – type two	
Aim:	Identifying and naming the main ideas found in open-ended responses.
Procedure:	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Read all responses and write memos.2. Identify the main idea(s) found in each response.3. Attribute a connoted theme to each new idea.4. Create a node for each theme.5. Classify the themes under categories to facilitate the coding process by creating parent nodes (optional step used when the themes are too numerous).6. Review all responses and code them under the themes produced.7. Display the results using visualisation tools.
Questions:	
Question 3	<i>How do you define inclusion in your own words?</i> Production of a hierarchy of categories and themes incorporating the main ideas found in participants' definitions.
Questions 17 to 21 (incl.)	<i>What in your opinion makes your school not / slightly / moderately / quite / fully inclusive?</i> Production of a hierarchy of categories and themes incorporating the main reasons given by participants to justify the rating of their school's inclusiveness.
Question 51	<i>Are there any other issues or considerations you would like to highlight regarding inclusion and/or behavioural difficulties?</i> Production of a hierarchy of categories and themes incorporating the main issues reported by participants.

4.5 Phase Two: Case Studies

Case studies are used in diverse disciplines, including education (Berg, 2009; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Hamel, Dufour, & Fortin, 1993; Yin, 2009). This methodology gives access to the meanings people attribute to objects of their everyday life through language (Hamel et al., 1993). Different definitions of the case study approach are found in the literature (Berg, 2009; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2009). These definitions address two central dimensions: defining the case and defining the inquiry.

The expression case study refers to what is being studied, or the case *per se*. As Flyvbjerg (2011) puts it, “if you choose to do a case study, you are therefore not so much making a methodological choice as a choice of what is to be studied” (p. 301). Many authors use the expression ‘bounded system’ to define a case (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2000). This bounded system is found in its natural setting (Cousin, 2005) as case studies refer to contemporary real-life phenomena (Cohen et al., 2007; Yin, 2009). A case is therefore a single entity characterised by boundaries of time and place (Cousin, 2005; McMillan, 2012).

The case study approach also refers to the research inquiry or study of the case. “A **case study** is an in-depth analysis of one or more events, settings, programs, social groups, communities, individuals, or other ‘bounded systems’ in their natural context” (McMillan, 2012, p. 279). Case study investigators rely on multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2009) and often use multiple methods (Cousin, 2005). It is through triangulation of data and methods and through in-depth descriptions that convergent findings permit an understanding of the case. The case study methodology is therefore consistent with the “methodological polytheism” (Moscovici in Duveen, 2000, p. 15) advocated for in social representations research.

Stake (2000) identifies three types of case studies. This typology is based on the purpose of the cases. The intrinsic case study is of particular interest to the investigator. Its inherent characteristics are sufficient to engage its investigation. The instrumental case study is selected to enhance the understanding of a wider phenomenon. Finally, the collective case study consists of a collection of similar or different instrumental cases to understand a phenomenon and the selection of multiple cases is believed to advance understanding and theorising.

4.5.1 Case study design.

This study involved a collective case study design (Stake, 2000). Cases were instrumental to gain a better understanding of teachers' social representations of inclusion and their relationships with educational practices used to deal with difficult behaviour in real school environments. For this study, selecting a case meant defining its boundaries within a complex school and national educational system. Figure 4.1 illustrates the case study design.

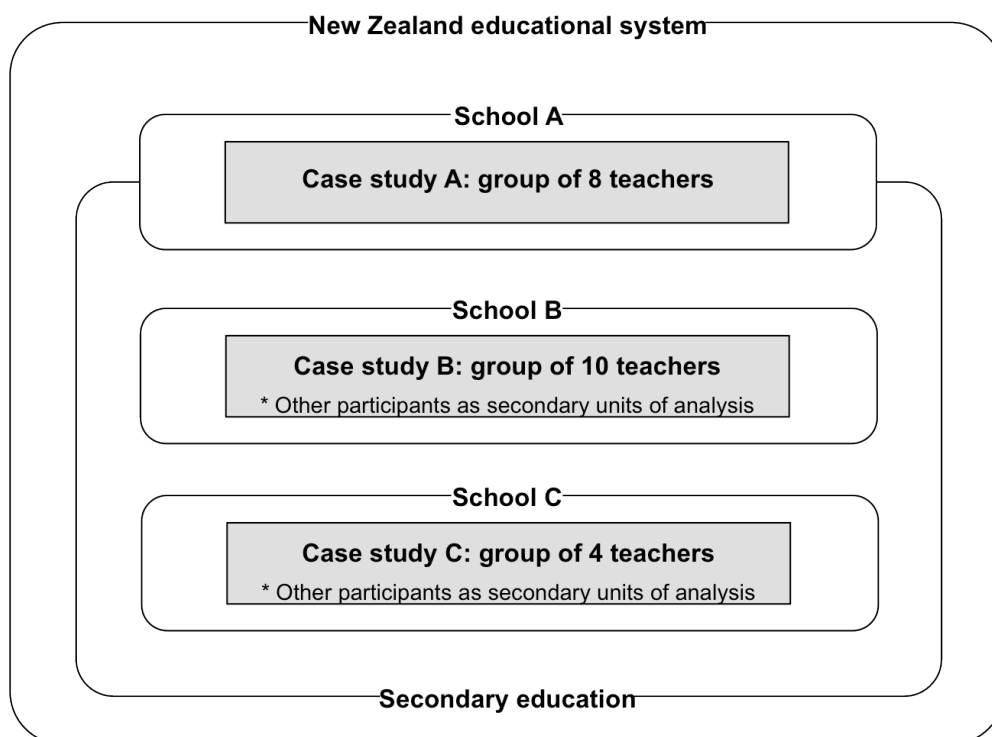


Figure 4.1. Case study design.

Each case was conducted in a different New Zealand school providing secondary education. The cases were defined as groups of teachers and incorporated embedded units of analysis (Yin, 2009). The units of analysis comprised teachers as primary sources of information, in coherence with the research questions investigating representations and practices among this particular professional group.

Teachers do not work in a vacuum. Their representations and educational practices are shared within their work environment. This is why secondary units of analysis were also included to

help bind each case to its context. These secondary units differed from school to school for two reasons: (1) every school in New Zealand has a certain degree of freedom in defining its practices and policies; and (2) research participation was voluntary. The secondary units comprised direct sources of information (i.e., other school staff involved in behaviour management, RTLB, and students experiencing behavioural difficulties)⁸⁰ and indirect sources of information (i.e., reports, school documents, notes taken by the researcher). The secondary sources of information were useful in cross-examining participants' outputs, mapping the organisational structure of the school, identifying participants' roles in behaviour management, and delimiting the institutional framework to which teachers should adhere (e.g., school culture, values, school-wide programmes). The information gathered from indirect secondary sources of information was produced prior to this study (except for field notes). Their context of production was taken into account during analysis. For instance, some reports were published in a different school year, beyond the timeframe of the case study. The researcher was aware that some members of staff had changed since the publication of these reports and this was acknowledged in the analysis.

4.5.2 Selection of participants.

The first step in selecting participants was to identify case study schools using a purposive sampling strategy. The researcher chose cases based on how informative they were believed to be (McMillan, 2012; Patton, 2002). This procedure was rooted in Phase One. After submitting their responses to the online questionnaire, participants to Phase One were redirected onto a second independent questionnaire where they could request a summary of the finding and more information about the case studies, given they provided their contact details. Fifty participants requested more information. They received a letter via email (Appendix D) explaining briefly the nature of the case studies. They were invited to restate their interest and evaluate if the school(s) they worked in met the criteria for this study (a co-educational, state or state integrated, secondary or composite school). Four participants replied, three of whom were working in schools involved in Phase One. The fourth participant was a RTLB who did not mention where she worked.

The three schools involved in Phase One were selected as they met the defining characteristics of the school population and each principal had already demonstrated interest in the study through collaboration in Phase One. The schools were involved in school-wide behaviour

⁸⁰ Special education specialists from external agencies such as MoE:SE staff were also considered as potential participants, but no opportunity occurred to include any because they were not directly involved in a specific school for a long period.

management programmes and had students perceived or identified as presenting moderate to high behavioural difficulties on their roll. They also represented diverse school environments, as shown in Table 4.6. On examining the characteristics of the schools, it appeared that cases conducted in these environments would contribute to examining diverse school contexts and would provide cases relevant to the phenomenon under study (Stake, 2006), precisely teachers' representations of inclusion in relation to preventing and dealing with behavioural difficulties in secondary schools.

Table 4.6
Demographic characteristics of the case study schools

Schools	Geographical area	Urban/rural	Roll (R)	Type	Decile
A.	South	Rural	$R \leq 500$	Composite	Upper
B.	North	Urban	$R > 1,500$	Secondary	Mid
C.	Central South	Urban	$500 < R \leq 1,500$	Secondary	Upper

A letter was sent to the principals and board of trustees as an invitation to take part in a case study (Appendix E). Once the written consent of each principal and chair of the board of trustees was obtained, contact was made with a nominated liaison person to approach potential participants. This person signed a confidentiality agreement (Appendix F). In school A, the principal acted as the liaison person whereas learning support specialists played that role in schools B and C. With help from and in agreement with the liaison persons, all teaching staff and all other staff involved in behaviour management received an initial invitation to participate (Appendix G). Interested staff later received an information sheet and a consent form (Appendix H) and were asked to send their consent form directly to the researcher.

Each New Zealand school must produce a list of students experiencing special educational needs for resourcing purposes. The liaison persons had access to these lists and knew the students identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties enrolled at their school. This is why they were key people to identify and approach potential student participants. The *Procedure to Identify and Approach Potential Student Participants* was specifically designed to guide the liaison persons in this task (Appendix I). Eligibility criteria for student participation was: (a) the

student was identified as experiencing special educational needs in terms of behaviour, (b) the student had the ability to give informed and voluntary consent, and (c) the student's parents/caregivers were already aware of their child's difficulties as the research must not inform them of existing needs. Students identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties were identified in School A, but no student from that school participated because the criteria for student participation were not met based on an evaluation by the liaison person. Six students from School B were interviewed and two students from School C participated, one of whom was frequenting an external unit while still enrolled at School C. This unit consisted of provisional placement for students who were suspended from their school on disciplinary grounds. The unit was managed by another school from the same area and permission to interview the student was sought from the principal and the Chair of the Board of Trustees from the managing school as well as from the director of the unit (Appendix J). The liaison persons collected students' consent forms signed after they received the information sheets and passed them to the researcher (Appendix K).

4.5.3 Data collection instruments.

Data sources associated to case study research are multiple (Yin, 2009). This study relied on documents, interviews, direct observations or self-report forms of behaviour incidents, and field notes. A questionnaire was also distributed to school staff. Results from this *Questionnaire on social representations* are not presented in this thesis. The return rate was 28% and the results did not bring different elements for analysis nor did they lead to contradictory conclusions.

4.5.3.1 Documents.

Documents are valuable sources of information as they are gathered unobtrusively and independently from the action of the researcher (P. Moliner et al., 2002; Yin, 2009). They do not involve time investment from participants. However, documents can be difficult to retrieve and participants or organisations may withhold some information (Yin, 2009). An important factor to consider when collecting documents for social representations investigations is whether the documents are public or private. This indicates if the components of a representation found in the documents pertain to the public or private sphere (P. Moliner et al., 2002).

For this study, institutional documents were collected (P. Moliner et al., 2002) to help understand and describe the context and culture in which participants from each school worked or studied. Used as secondary sources of information, these documents were used to triangulate data provided by the participants. They were either collected online (public sphere) or provided by the liaison person or participants (public and private spheres). Prior to the beginning of data collection in each school, the latest ERO report was read and annotated and the school's website was explored to gain an initial understanding of the school context and culture. Then, the documents were collected during school visits in no specific order. These documents included demographic information, reporting on specific issues or practices, statement of the mandate set for staff and the school community (e.g., mission, aims, school values, objectives), school policies, code of conduct, and educational practices or programmes in place.

4.5.3.2 Individual semi-structured interviews.

Interviewing is a common practice in both case study research (Yin, 2009) and social representations investigations (Jodelet, 2003a; P. Moliner et al., 2002). The interview is a versatile method allowing the integration of questions about specific components of an organisation and questions exploring broad issues from the perspectives of participants (King, 2004). This is why interviews acted as primary sources of information. The semi-structured interview model was adopted for this study (Burns, 2000). It "is focused on particular themes; it is neither strictly structured with standard questions, nor entirely 'non-directive'" (Kvale, 2007, p. 12).

All interviews conducted for this study had common features. First, an interview schedule was developed listing the questions to be discussed. The schedules provided guidelines for the researcher. Essential components introduced and concluded the interviews (i.e., review participants' rights, restate the aims of the study, offer the opportunity to add information or ask questions, sum up the main ideas, explain what is next). Second, the themes included in the schedules were developed based on the literature on inclusion and on results from Phase One. Third, participants were encouraged to voice their concerns and needs all along the process. Fourth, all interviews were conducted face-to-face and audio-recorded, except for one student interview that was not recorded. Recording helped the researcher to focus on what participants said and increased the credibility of the data. Finally, all interviews were conducted at school, in a place and time that suited both the interviewee and the researcher. Interviews interfered as little as possible with the schools' planned activities.

The first interview with staff participants (Appendix L) aimed to explore their representations of inclusion, enquire about their perceptions of an agreement or disagreement between staff regarding inclusion, understand their roles in relation to inclusion and behavioural difficulties, and learn about their perceptions of the behaviours encountered in their practice. After providing demographic information, participants were invited to create a mind map to identify the main ideas associated with inclusion. This technique is called the associative network task (P. Moliner et al., 2002). Then, asking participants *Do you feel there is agreement in your school regarding what inclusion is?* was meant to potentially reveal mute elements in their representations (Abric, 2003, in Moisan, 2010). Decentralising the expression of an opinion towards a general agreement or disagreement from the perspectives of other group members could lead to participants revealing counter-normative elements or elements considered as a given for the group. Abric advises however that opinions expressed following this technique should not be considered automatically as the subject's opinion. Probes asking the subject to comment on this general opinion can clarify whether the subject adheres to this opinion or not. The other themes were discussed in a flexible manner. The interview schedule acted as a guide.

The second staff interview (Appendix L) aimed to discuss the data from the observation sessions or the self-report forms (see 4.5.3.3). For each participant, the observed or reported practices were reviewed prior to the second meeting and frequent practices or particular actions were included under the appropriate section in the interview schedule. Participants had the choice to combine the two interviews if they believed meeting twice was too demanding. In such a case, practices were observed or self-report forms were to be completed beforehand.

Student interviews (Appendix M) were intended to gain insights into teenagers' experience of the regular classroom and school in general. Students were encouraged to reflect on their behaviour and discuss their actions from their own perspective. This interview was also intended to cross-check information regarding the behavioural management practices in place at school and in classrooms from the students' point of view. The location for each interview was decided with the liaison persons. The student interview schedule concluded on a positive note and the researcher provided the student with the contact details of school and external resources if they felt they needed to talk to someone (see 4.6.4).

All interviews from School A were transcribed by the researcher in order to reflect upon any interviewing skills needing improvement (Kvale, 2007). A transcriber helped with transcribing 13 out of 15 adult interviews from School B and signed a confidentiality agreement (Appendix N). All interviews from School C were transcribed by the researcher as well as all student interviews, except for one. A student (School B) preferred that the interview was not audio

recorded. Participants were invited to review and edit their interview transcript and were asked to sign a transcript release form (Appendix O).

4.5.3.3 Classroom observation and self-report of behavioural incidents.

Classroom observation focused on the practices of adult participants. Each session was conducted according to the schedule negotiated with each participant. Students were introduced to the researcher and were informed of the general aims of the observation sessions: to observe the adults' educational practices in the classroom context. The researcher adopted a non-participant position as she sat in the classroom to observe the participant without interfering in the class activities. She used an observation sheet (Appendix P). The classroom was viewed in an ecological perspective and the specific actions or speech of single students were not reported.

It was not always possible to conduct classroom observations for two reasons (1) participants' roles did not always involve presence in a classroom and (2) some participants might have preferred not to be observed. An alternative data collection method was proposed. Inspired by the critical incidents technique (Flanagan, 1954), a self-report form of behavioural incidents (Appendix Q) was designed for adult participants to report behavioural events encountered in their practice. A behavioural event is a specific incident where the behaviour displayed by one or many students disturbed classroom activities. Further discussion of the event with the participant during an interview allowed an investigation into the causes of this event from the perspective of the participant to "describe some of the deeper structures that produce that kind of incident" (Tripp, 1993, p. 9). Self-report forms allowed collecting, discussing, and reporting on practice-related information from the participant's perspective. However, direct classroom observation was preferred over self-reporting because it shows practices in a real class situation instead of relying on recalling an incident.⁸¹ Table 4.7 shows the strengths and limitations of each of these methods as employed in this study.

⁸¹ Classroom observation was also preferred by participants as only one teacher, two teacher aides, and one specialist chose to use the self-report forms.

Table 4.7

Strengths and limitations of classroom observation and self-report forms

	Classroom Observation	Self-report forms
Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be followed up in an interview. • Overt (participants know they are observed and that a discussion will follow). • Gathering of real life practices as teachers manage unpredicted events and behaviours. • Knowledge of the context of occurrence (exact time, activity, environmental stimuli). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be followed up in an interview. • Overt (participants know their reported practices will be analysed and discussed). • Participants generally recall events accurately. • Anonymity of the students allows the collection and reporting of information on behaviour.
Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants can act differently than they usually do. • Students can act differently than they usually do. • Only the adults' behaviours can be reported (students are not direct participants). • Difficulty to record observations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only a retrospective of what happened. • Participants are susceptible to report only events with successful outcomes (researcher bias). • Knowledge of the context of occurrence depends on participants' perspective.

Information gathered from (Chell, 2004).

4.5.3.4 Field notes.

Field notes, also called “case study notes” (Yin, 2009, p. 120), consist of information produced by the researcher to gather his or her thoughts, interrogations and feelings as well as important occurring events (Savoie-Zajc, 2011). Used as a secondary source of data, field notes helped the researcher to recall the context of the research. For each case, field notes were written on a password protected electronic document during data collection and a pre-set sheet (Appendix R) was used to guide the collection of school demographic data (i.e., roll, decile, stand-downs, suspensions, exclusions/expulsions, data on SEN students, resourcing and funding).

Table 4.8 presents an overview of the types of data involved in Phase Two.

Table 4.8

Phase Two: overview of the types of data

Type of data	Level of data	Description	Rationale	Source identification
Staff interview transcripts	Mostly primary. Some secondary.	Semi-structured interviews with participating staff.	Investigate participants' representations of inclusion, the types of behaviours they encounter and discuss their practices.	x.PY.Interview
Mind maps	Primary.	Map produced by participating staff.	Identify the main ideas participating staff associate with inclusion.	x.PY.MindMap
Observation sessions	Primary.	Observation of classroom practices completed by the researcher.	Collect information on the observed practices of participating staff to discuss and reflect on their practices.	x.PY.Observation
Self-report forms	Primary. Secondary for one informant (case C).	Report of behavioural incidents and practices.	Collect information on behavioural events experienced by participating staff to discuss and reflect on their practices.	x.PY.SelfReport
Student interview transcripts	Secondary.	Semi-structured interviews with participating students.	Explore students' perspectives of their experience at the case study school.	x.SY.Interview
ERO reports	Secondary.	Latest ERO report published prior to data collection about the school or the centre.	Collect information from an external agency on demography, areas of good performance, progress and improvement to gain an initial understanding of the school culture.	x.Schl.ERO x.Schl.ERO-Centre

Legend: x identifies the case study (a, b or c); Schl is for school; P is for adult participant; S is for student participant; Y identifies the number attributed to an individual participant; -z identifies the specific theme of the PD-related document.

Table 4.8

Phase Two: overview of the types of data (continued)

Type of data	Level of data	Description	Rationale	Source identification
Other reports	Secondary.	Reports written for the school by school staff or external providers.	Collect information about the functioning of the school.	x.Schl.Report
School charter/plan	Secondary.	Charter setting school objectives.	Collect information on the school culture.	x.Schl.Charter x.Schl.StrategicPlan
School procedures	Secondary.	Guidelines for teachers	Collect information on the school rules and procedures to inform the analysis of practices.	x.Schl.Procedures
Information from school's website	Secondary.	Information collected on the school's website.	Collect information to describe the school context and inform analysis.	x.Schl.Website
PD resources	Secondary.	Documents used for PD purposes. Provided by participants or by the liaison person.	Collect information about the professional development available to staff to identify the programmes/areas of development the school privileges.	x.Schl.PD-z
Field notes	Secondary.	Notes taken by the researcher.	Document the process to inform analysis and increase trustworthiness.	x.Fieldnotes
School data	Secondary.	Notes taken by the researcher.	Confirm demographic information and collect school data.	x.Schl.Data

Legend: x identifies the case study (a, b or c); Schl is for school; P is for adult participant; S is for student participant; Y identifies the number attributed to an individual participant; -z identifies the specific theme of the PD-related document.

4.5.4 Data analysis.

4.5.4.1 Organisation of the data.

The qualitative analysis software package *NVivo* provided a convenient tool to import all data within a single location, thus facilitating the management, analysis, and triangulation of the data. A password protected *NVivo* project was created for each case. Before proceeding to data importation in the appropriate project, all data sources were reviewed in their original format to remove any identifying information. The source identification codes used in *Nvivo* are presented in Table 4.8.

After this initial step, demographic and context-related information was organised in each project so it could be easily found and referred to. The “coding” function of *NVivo* was used to create the “parent node” *general information* under which all demographic and context-related information could be coded. This node was subdivided into “child nodes” or categories called *data collection information* (e.g., time and place of interview or observation), *particularities of the school* (e.g., school-wide demographic information, professional development initiatives, school structure), and *participant information*. This last node comprised an individual profile for each participant listing their attributes (i.e., age range, years of experience, country where they trained, and subject taught).

4.5.4.2 Analysis procedure.

Consistent with the case study methodology reasoning where each case is a single entity (Cousin, 2005), Case Study A was analysed first. The analysis began with reading all data sources of the Case Study A *NVivo* project to immerse the researcher in the data. Documents were read first, followed by data from adult participants, and student interview transcripts. The only coding occurring during the first reading was under the *general information* node. However, the ‘annotations’ function of *NVivo* was utilised to write memos on specific sections of the data. Coding started from the second reading.

Thematic analysis was the principal data analysis method. The analysis process relied on both inductive and deductive logic. As a result, themes emerged from the empirical material, but theoretical constructs also provided guidelines to explore the data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Paillé & Muchielli, 2003). Consistent with the thematic analysis procedure used in Phase One and presented in Table 4.5, a code was created in *NVivo* when a theme was first identified. This

new theme was then used to code the material. All themes created were placed under a wider structure differentiating four main parent nodes: *general information*, *inclusion*, *practices*, and *positioning towards inclusion and behavioural difficulties*. Themes found within each parent node were further regrouped under specific categories. The themes and categories reflected patterns from the data (McMillan, 2012) and were either drawn from Phase One results or created from the case study data. The coding and categorisation of the themes were done iteratively, involving multiple readings of the data and a refining process for the coding structure of parent nodes, categories and themes.

Data were triangulated to better reflect the complexity of the case and understand participants' social representations and practices. As such, the analysis dealt with both primary and secondary sources of information. The latter were used "to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources" (Yin, 2009, p. 103) rather than to draw inferences of teachers' representations or practices.

Once the analysis of Case study A was completed, Case study B was analysed. The coding structure created following the analysis of the first case was imported into the Case study B *NVivo* project. Data were coded within this structure. Given the differences found between contexts, some codes were developed or modified when necessary, although the main structure remained the same. The same procedure was applied to analyse the data from Case study C. After data analysis was completed for each case, a cross-case analysis was conducted (Yin, 2009). All themes were reviewed to ensure consistency in coding across cases, but also to highlight the differences between cases. Reporting of the results thus involved maintaining a chain of evidence (Yin, 2009) where the findings can be traced back to the cases and specific data sources where they come from.

4.6 Research Ethics

Conducting research with human participants necessitates thorough reflection in relation to ethics, particularly in social sciences where researchers "delve into the social lives of other human beings" (Berg, 2009, p. 60). In this study, the guidelines provided in the *Massey University Code of Ethical Conduct for Research, Teaching and Evaluations Involving Human Participants* (Massey University, 2009) were adhered to. Two Human Ethics Application forms were submitted to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) and approved as Application 10/13 (Phase One) and Application 11/01 (Phase Two). The sub-sections below present ethical principles considered in this study along with the precautions put into place.

4.6.1 Respect for persons.

The overarching principle of respect for persons deserves particular attention. Embedded in the researcher's practice throughout the process, respect for persons refers to asking "how should we treat others" (Wilkinson, 2001, p. 13). This principle is closely related to distributive justice which involves the avoidance of imposing "an unfair burden of participation in research" (Massey University, 2009, p. 12) and discriminating against individuals and groups through inclusion or exclusion in the research. In this study, respect for persons was exercised through recognising the validity of diverse individual beliefs and viewpoints, in agreement with the social constructivist nature of this study.⁸² The terms of participation were negotiated with each individual through consent forms, thus avoiding exclusions on the basis that a participant did not want the interview to be audio recorded or for classroom observations to be conducted for instance. Finally, respect for persons was performed through promoting people's sovereignty in making the informed decision to participate or not as well as in minimising harm and respecting participants' rights for privacy and confidentiality, full information, withdrawal from the study up until the end of data collection, and obtaining a summary of the findings.

4.6.2 Informed and voluntary consent.

Informed and voluntary consent is the first step towards respecting the autonomy of potential participants. This principle encompasses information, comprehension, competency and voluntarism (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996; Massey University, 2009; Wilkinson, 2001). Information and comprehension imply that researchers provide full information so potential participants can make an informed decision to participate or not, based on their comprehension of what the study is about and what participation involves. Competency refers to people's capacity to make that decision and to comprehend what is involved whereas voluntarism pertains to the autonomy of each individual to make a decision without coercion or pressure.

This research did not involve unnecessary deception. The request letters and information sheets provided full information about the purpose of the research, the intended participants, their potential involvement, and the protections for participants. The request letters and information sheets clearly stated that individuals should not feel pressured to participate and could withdraw

⁸² This research focuses on teachers' representations and practices, but also drew on secondary sources of information involving documents as well as direct information provided by other staff members and students. It is important to note that further publications are planned to give a voice to students and other participating adults.

without penalties of any kind. They also provided contact details for the potential participants to request more information or ask questions to the researcher and her main supervisor.

The strategies to obtain informed and voluntary consent from adult participants were different for each phase. For Phase One, responding to the questionnaire implied informed consent (Berg, 2009) as stated in the information sheet and introduction to the questionnaire. For Phase Two, written informed consent was first sought from the principal and the chair of the board of trustees to gain permission to conduct a case study in their school. Each individual adult participant gave his or her written informed consent. Research involvement and participants' rights were discussed with each individual.

Three elements required specific attention regarding students' involvement in Phase Two. First, written informed consent needed to be sought from parents/caregivers where student participants were younger than 16 years old (Massey University, 2009). Parental consent was not necessary for students 16 and older, although they were encouraged to discuss the invitation with their parents/caregivers. In all cases the teenagers' written consent was sought to fortify their commitment to the project and show respect towards young participants. Second, the competency of students to make the decision to participate and comprehend what is involved needed to be established. Students' ability to give informed consent was among the criteria given to the liaison person to identify potential student participants. To increase comprehension, the information sheet was written in lay language and the liaison person was asked to read the information with each student. Research involvement and rights were discussed with participants prior to the interview. Finally, the presence of the researcher in the classroom to observe adults' practices was explained to students present during observation sessions, albeit they were not research participants.

4.6.3 Respect for privacy, anonymity and confidentiality.

Another fundamental principle of research ethics lies in respect for people's privacy, anonymity and confidentiality. In this study, privacy relates to the right to control personal information and therefore avoid intrusion in people's lives (Canadian Institutes of Health Research Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada & Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, 2010). Anonymity refers to the impossibility, even for the researcher, to associate the data to a participant (Sapsford & Abbott, 2004). As Berg (2009) defines it, "*anonymity* means that the subjects remain nameless" (p. 90). It is not always possible to offer anonymity to participants. When the researcher knows the identity of the

participants, measures such as removing identifying elements of information and safe keeping of the data need to be put in place to protect *confidentiality* (Berg, 2009).

Respect for the privacy of all potential participants, whether they chose to participate or not, was considered in the approach procedures. Schools, professional associations and government agencies are all public organisations holding information about their students, staff, and members. How they use this information is regulated by the *New Zealand Privacy Act 1993*. Hence, the approach procedures were designed to avoid information about potential participants to be handed to the researcher without people's knowledge and consent. For instance, the list of students experiencing SEN that schools must produce was not provided to the researcher but was used by the liaison persons to identify students experiencing behavioural difficulties who met the eligibility criteria and could potentially volunteer to participate.

The identity of participants in Phase One was not known by the researcher. They remained anonymous, but their right to receive a summary of the findings had to be conciliated with their anonymity. As advised by MUHEC, participants had the opportunity to leave their name and contact details to receive more information and/or a summary of the findings in a second independent questionnaire. In no way their responses could be linked to their identity.

For Phase Two, maintaining the identity of the case study schools confidential was a key factor in protecting participants' identity and protecting organisations and individual participants from potential harm. In New Zealand, schools are easily recognisable (Tolich, 2001). To avoid identification, the schools' and participants' names were replaced by pseudonyms. All identifying information was removed from the data. The codes for the pseudonyms were securely stored, separately from the data. When reporting the results, only the necessary characteristics of each school and each research participant were presented. No direct quotes from documents available online are cited in reporting the results. Such information is reformulated. Finally, the transcriber signed the *Transcriber's Confidentiality Agreement* (Appendix M). Access to the data was restricted to the researcher and her supervisors.

4.6.4 Minimising the risk of harm.

Participating in research can entail risks. It is therefore imperative for researchers to reflect on the risks of harm their research could induce and to identify ways to minimise these risks. Risks can be physical and psychological (Berg, 2009). Risks can also be increased with the presence of conflict of interests. This was not the case for this study. In addition, the potential risks of

harm have to be outweighed by the benefits brought by the research (Wilkinson, 2001). Participation in this study would contribute to the formulation of recommendations in order to anchor ITE and PD in participants' representations, practices and concerns. These recommendations aim to foster inclusion and help education stakeholders to prevent and respond to difficult behaviours in an inclusive way while recognising their needs and demands for support. Notwithstanding, potential sources of harm to schools, participants and the researcher were considered, along with strategies contributing to reduce the risks.

Potential psychological risks of harm to participants were identified. First, adults and students alike were invited to share their experience of inclusion and behavioural difficulties. This sensitive topic had the potential to cause discomfort, especially when this experience was negative. Second, some adult participants may have perceived the questionnaire, the interviews, the observation sessions or the analysis of their self-report forms as a judgemental evaluation of their views and practices. In Phase One, this potential discomfort was mitigated by participants remaining anonymous and by their right not to answer any particular question. In Phase Two, participants' rights to refuse to answer any particular question and the right to withdraw from the study without any penalty were included in the information sheet and were re-stated verbally. The information sheets also explained that the research was not to be judgemental of participants' views and practices. Difficulties in dealing with difficult behaviours were acknowledged and participants were given the opportunity to discuss their practices, issues they faced and areas of success and improvement. They were also offered the opportunity to edit the interview transcript in order to increase their control over the information released for analysis. For student participants, reading the interview transcript may have been daunting because of associated behavioural and learning difficulties. As an alternative strategy, the student and researcher listened to the audio-recording. Emendations made by the student were noted by the researcher and then included in the transcript. Finally, the last question on the student interview schedule enquired about something positive in their school experience. The researcher also offered students a card with details of school resources and national free phone helplines targeted in collaboration with the liaison persons.

There was also a risk that students and their parents/caregivers were not informed that the school had identified the student as experiencing SEN. To avoid a situation in which the research would inform students and their parents/caregivers of their presence on a list of students experiencing SEN, the liaison person needed to make sure that students and their parents/caregivers were already aware of the student's difficulties and provision of extra support before presenting the invitation. There was also a possibility that student participants revealed information or behaved in such a way that may have suggested the student could be at risk of

harm. The researcher discussed the school's policies and procedures on reporting sensitive information with the liaison person in each school before data collection began. If a student revealed sensitive information, the researcher had to consult her supervisors and then, if necessary, follow the procedure. The information sheet informed potential student participants and their parents/ caregivers about this and it was verbally explained to each student.

Conducting interviews with students identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties posed a risk of physical harm to the researcher. Some of the behaviours found on the spectrum of challenging school behaviours are potential threats to safety. Responses to the online questionnaire confirmed the presence of such behaviours in New Zealand (see 5.4.1). The researcher's professional background in working and conducting research with teenagers identified as experiencing high behavioural needs prepared her well to recognise the signs of anxiety, discomfort and anger in students. To minimise the risk of harm, each school's liaison person helped identifying safe locations to conduct face-to-face interviews with students. The selected rooms allowed the researcher to leave easily if she needed to get help quickly. As a general precaution, the researcher only provided her mobile phone number and workplace contact details.

4.6.5 Social and cultural sensitivity.

Being socially and culturally sensitive minimises the risk of harm and demonstrates respect for persons. Researchers must pay attention to the specificities of the communities in which they conduct their research (Massey University, 2009). The student population in New Zealand schools is increasingly diverse (Bevan-Brown, 2003; Ministry of Education, 2007). Students come from a variety of social and cultural backgrounds. European/Pākehā, Māori, Pasifika and Asian students form almost all of the roll of New Zealand state and state integrated schools' population (Ministry of Education, 2010c).

Even if this study did not make distinctions regarding ethnicity, there was a potential for culturally sensitive issues to arise. The researcher's supervisors were familiar with the New Zealand society and its educational system. Aware of the previous steps taken by the researcher to become familiar with the New Zealand research context, they provided insights on the procedure and data collection instruments. In addition, special arrangements were made a priori to consult three experts to advise the researcher on the Māori, Pasifika and Asian cultures. The first two experts were respectively from Māori and Pasifika cultures and were both

experienced educational researchers. The third advisor was a European/Pākehā academic with extensive experience in working with Asian students.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the methodological apparatus used in this two-phase study. Situated within the qualitative approach to social representations research, the methodological process presented in this chapter involved an interpretative and iterative process necessitating multiple methods. The characteristics of the qualitative approach were examined, followed by a description of the methods and procedures specific to each one of the two phases of this study, including measures applied to conduct this research with respect to relevant ethical principles.

Chapter Five presents findings from Phase One while case study results are divided into two chapters. Chapter Six introduces the three case studies and Chapter Seven describes teacher participants' representations and practices.

Chapter Five

Phase One

Chapter Five presents key results from Phase One which explored the perspectives of secondary education teachers, teacher aides, RTLB and MoE:SE staff working within the inclusion mandated New Zealand educational system. This first-hand information was gathered to validate the theoretical choices expressed previously (i.e., inclusion as an object of teachers' social representations) and to deepen the researcher's understanding of the New Zealand context prior to conducting case studies in schools. A thorough examination of the data made it clear that some results would inform the study as a whole or inform Phase Two while others were not so informative.⁸³ This chapter reports on key results referring to the nature of inclusion, knowledge about inclusion, experience of inclusion and behavioural difficulties, and standpoints and issues reported as important for participants in regard to inclusion and behavioural difficulties. A description of participant information precedes these sections.

5.1 Participant Information

5.1.1 General demographic information.

Demographic information about the 57 teachers, 9 teacher aides, 33 RTLB, and 11 MoE:SE staff participants is presented in Table 5.1.

⁸³ Only the most informative results are presented in this chapter. Additional results are included in the appendices where relevant.

Table 5.1

Frequencies of responses to participant demographic information per professional group

Demographic information		Teachers	Teacher aides	RTLB	MoE:SE	Total
*Gender	Male	21	1	2	3	27
	Female	35	8	31	8	82
	<i>Total</i>	56	9	33	11	109
*Age	25 or younger	1	1	0	0	2
	26 to 30	5	1	0	1	7
	31 to 35	4	0	0	1	5
	36 to 40	3	0	1	2	6
	41 to 45	8	2	5	1	16
	46 to 50	9	2	7	2	20
	51 to 55	13	1	8	1	23
	56 or older	13	2	12	3	30
	<i>Total</i>	56	9	33	11	109
Years of experience in actual position	5 or less	10	2	15	4	31
	6 to 10	5	2	5	2	14
	11 to 15	5	3	12	2	22
	16 to 20	6	1	0	1	8
	21 to 25	7	0	1	1	9
	26 to 30	13	0	0	0	13
	31 or more	11	1	0	1	13
	<i>Total</i>	57	9	33	11	110
Geographic area	North	6	1	12	4	23
	Central north	20	3	5	3	31
	Central south	16	4	7	1	28
	South	15	1	9	3	28
	<i>Total</i>	57	9	33	11	110
*School decile	1	5	2	10	8	25
	2	2	2	8	4	16
	3	4	1	17	7	29
	4	1	2	12	4	19
	5	7	1	9	5	22
	6	16	1	12	4	33
	7	4	1	8	6	19
	8	8	0	8	6	22
	9	8	0	7	5	20
	10	1	0	9	7	17
<i>Total</i>	56	10	100	56	222	

* One missing response in the teacher group.

Table 5.1 indicates that women formed 75% of the sample. Forty-nine percent of the participants were aged over 50 years old, however 61% had 15 years of experience or less in their position. This was particularly noticeable in the RTLB and MoE:SE groups. Possible explanations are the relatively recent creation of the RTLB position in 1999 (Ministry of Education, n.d.-c), and the requirements that RTLB are experienced class teachers and that they pursue education at the postgraduate level. Further training could also explain this phenomenon for MoE:SE staff. Table 5.1 also confirms that participants worked in all geographical areas of New Zealand. Only the northern region had fewer teacher and teacher aide participants compared to other regions due to low school participation in that region (see 4.4.2.1).

As indicated in Table 5.1, the total number of school deciles reported was higher than the number of participants because some participants worked in multiple schools. Overall, the lower (1 to 5) and upper deciles (6 to 10) were evenly distributed. This observation is applicable to the RTLB and MoE:SE groups. However, most teacher aides worked in low decile schools. Two thirds of the teachers worked in high decile schools, with 29% who worked in decile six schools, at the limit of the low-high decile split.

Group specific information indicates that teacher participants taught all areas of the *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007), including special needs education. They played various roles in their school (e.g., senior or middle management, SENCO, teacher in charge of literacy, *Te Kotahitanga* facilitator, etc.). Teacher aides, RTLB and MoE:SE staff worked with students enrolled in all secondary school years. MoE:SE staff occupied various functions (i.e., special education advisors, psychologists, Māori advisor).

5.1.2 Qualifications.

5.1.2.1 Highest qualification in education and qualifications in other areas.

Table 5.2 reports information about participants' highest qualification in education.

Table 5.2

Frequencies of the highest reported qualification in education per professional group

Qualifications in education (NZQA)	Qualification	Teachers (n=55)	T. aides (n=8)	RTLB (n=33)	MoE:SE (n=11)	Total (n=108)
n/a	No qualification	0	0	0	1	1
Levels 6-7	Certificate	4	4	0	0	8
Level 7	Graduate diploma	9	2	2	0	13
Level 7	Bachelor's degree	19	0	5	0	24
Level 8	Bachelor's degree, honours	2	0	0	1	3
Level 8	Postgrad. certificate	1	0	3	0	4
Level 8	Postgrad. diploma	15	0	14	3	32
Level 9	Master's degree	1	0	8	4	13
Level 10	Doctoral degree	2	0	0	0	2
n/a	Other qualification in education	2	2	1	2	7

Results indicate that teachers had qualifications at Level 6-7 (58%), Level 8 (33%), and Levels 9-10 (5%) of *The New Zealand Qualifications Framework* (New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), 2011).⁸⁴ The majority of teacher aides had qualifications in education despite the absence of requirement for specific qualifications in New Zealand. A majority of RTLB were qualified at NZQA Level 8 (52%) and Level 9 (24%), while 21% had Level 7 qualifications. One possible explanation for some RTLB having only Level 7 qualifications is that they did not complete a bachelors degree upon entering the mandatory RTLB training. In such cases, the training was awarded at the bachelor level. Teachers who had a bachelor degree when entering the programme had their RTLB training recognised as a postgraduate course. Finally, MoE:SE staff were mostly qualified at NZQA Level 8 (36%) and Level 9 (36%). Three

⁸⁴ According to *The New Zealand Qualifications Framework*, certificates are Level 6 qualifications whereas Level 7 qualifications comprise graduate certificates or diplomas, and bachelor's degrees. Postgraduate certificates and diplomas are found at Level 8 along with bachelor's degrees with honours. Master's degrees are at Level 9 and doctoral degrees at Level 10.

participants from this group were not education qualified; one was a Māori liaison officer while the other two were psychologists.

5.1.2.2 Formal training in inclusive education and/or special education.

Given the differences in qualification requirements between professional groups, direct information was sought on whether participants received formal training in inclusive education and/or special education,⁸⁵ as reported in Table 5.3. Formal training refers to a preset or structured programme led by a provider external to participants' working environment. Formal training contrasts with informal training occurring as teachers and other education professionals share their knowledge or help each other in the context of their work.

Table 5.3

Frequencies of responses about having received formal training in inclusive and/or special education per professional group

Formal training	Teachers (n=55)	T. aides (n=9)	RTL B (n=33)	MoE:SE (n=11)	Total (n=108)
Yes	18	4	28	9	59
No	37	5	5	2	49

Fifty-five percent of all respondents received formal training in inclusive education and/or special education, leaving 45% without such training. Group distinctions need to be highlighted. Thirty-three percent of the teachers and 44% of the teacher aides were formally trained in that area, indicating a greater proportion of trained teacher aides compared to teachers. Also, 85% of the RTL B and 82% of the MoE:SE staff received such training.⁸⁶

5.1.3 Summary of participant information results.

The participant information section points to the diversity of the sample in terms of gender, age, years of experience, geographical area, school deciles and qualifications. A clear distinction appears between the reported training in inclusive education and/or special education of school

⁸⁵ Inclusive education and special education were amalgamated in the question because the Ministry of Education uses terminology from both fields in its documentation.

⁸⁶ Fifteen percent of the RTL B reported not being trained in their area of expertise. Again, one possible explanation is the recent introduction of a mandatory postgraduate qualification for RTL B in 2011. Another possible explanation is that they were new RTL B and had not entered the training yet. The two MoE:SE staff not formally trained in inclusive education and/or special education were a psychologist and a Māori liaison officer.

based teachers and teacher aides and that of itinerating specialists. Only one third of the teachers reported to be trained in inclusive education and/or special education. Interestingly, a majority of teacher aides were trained in education at NZQA Level 7 despite the absence of compulsory training for this group. These results allowed the identification of the following contextual indicators to understand how inclusion is represented and practiced within school communities in Phase Two: (a) presence of teachers trained in inclusive education and/or special education in a school, (b) access to specialist support, and (c) roles imparted to teachers and teacher aides.

5.2 The Nature of Inclusion

5.2.1 Free word association and definitions of inclusion.

Participants were asked to write words or short expressions they spontaneously associated with inclusion and to select their three most representative responses. The inductive-deductive data analysis procedure employed (see Table 4.4) generated 210 themes used to code the 806 associations participants made ($n = 107$; $M = 7.5$ associations per participant). The themes were then ranked (see 4.4.3.1). Table 5.4 lists the most salient themes (highest overall frequency and score) and the most prevalent (highest number of respondents), up to the 20th rank.

Table 5.4

Ranked themes from the free word association task

Rank	Highest frequency	Highest score	Highest number of respondents
1.0	All	Everybody/Everyone	Everybody/Everyone
1.5			
2.0	Everybody/Everyone	All	Equality
2.5			
3.0	Help/Support	Equality	
3.5			
4.0	Acceptance	Learning	All; Help/Support; Learning
4.5			
5.0	Together		
5.5		Help/Support; Part of	
6.0	Part of		
6.5			Collaboration; Participation
7.0	Equality		
7.5		Acceptance; Participation	
8.0			
8.5			
9.0	Culture; Differences; Participation	Differentiation	Acceptance; Together; Group
9.5			
10.0			
10.5		Collaboration; Rights	
11.0	Included/Being Included		
11.5			
12.0	Learning	Meeting the needs	
12.5			Part of; Included/Being Included; Rights; Valuing
13.0			
13.5	Collaboration; Group		
14.0			
14.5		Group; Included/Being Included; Involvement; Together	
15.0			
15.5			Differentiation; Opportunity
16.0			
16.5			
17.0			
17.5	Belonging; Diversity; Fairness; Family/Whānau; Rights; Valuing	Valuing; Opportunity	
18.0			
18.5			Differences; Family/Whānau; Involvement; Meeting the needs
19.0			
19.5			
20.0		Diversity; Achievement; Belonging	

A first categorisation of the themes was attempted, but too many were left out to set definite categories. Thus, it was deemed more appropriate to use the themes emerging from participants' definitions of inclusion to set a coding matrix.

Following the free word association, participants were asked *How do you define inclusion in your own words?* The analysis procedure (see Table 4.5) involved the identification of the main ideas expressed by participants corresponding to 39 themes then used to code their definitions. Every time a theme was found, the whole definition was coded under that theme. Lastly, the 39 themes were classified into six categories that emerged from grouping the themes. Table 5.5 shows the number of coding references generated per category. A coding reference refers to one occurrence where an excerpt from a source was classified under a theme.

Table 5.5

Number of coding references from participants' definitions of inclusion for each category per professional group

CATEGORIES	Teachers (n=57)	T. Aides (n=9)	RTLB (n=33)	MoE:SE (n=10)	TOTAL (n=109)
Inclusive values	57	11	48	16	132
Universality	52	6	26	8	92
Inclusive practices	24	3	41	6	74
Social justice	28	3	24	8	63
Resourcing	5	1	10	2	18
Inclusion	5	0	1	1	7
TOTAL	171	24	150	41	386

Table 5.5 demonstrates that *inclusive values* received the most coding references in the four groups. These values are: participation, belonging, learning, valuing or acknowledging everyone, achievement or success, acceptance, respect, relationships, recognition of diversity, references to an inclusive culture or paradigm, high expectations, focus on strengths, and tolerance. Following was the category *universality* with 92 coding references. These themes are: everyone, all, and no exclusion. *Inclusive practices* came third with themes referring to the location of educational provision, meeting the needs of students, adaptation, collaboration, providing a safe environment, ensuring well-being, and planning. This third position is mostly due to RTLB referring frequently to inclusive practices. The category *social justice* came fourth with 63 coding references. This category included opportunities, access, rights, equity-equality,

barriers, benefits, choice, and responsibility. *Resourcing* was the next category and referred mostly to support. Themes such as maindumping, physical resources, school capacity, and training were mentioned by one or two participants. Finally, the category *Inclusion* referred to the act of including or to being included. Overall, the representational field of inclusion incorporates five main categories. The sixth category, *inclusion*, provided circular responses.

Some participants expressed their positive or negative inclination towards inclusion (position) when defining the concept. Here are examples of opinions about inclusion:

Inclusion is the government's way of cutting costs by removing specialists working with special needs children, and dumping the special needs child in a mainstream classroom. While the theory sounds all touchy feely the concept is misguided ... It is not the best solution for teacher or children. (Teacher)

A way that all students can have the best education for them, for our NZ society in a supported environment. Not maindumping as Mr Chapman⁸⁷ rightly feared it would become. (RTL B)

In many cases there will be some students for whom integration will not be an option. (RTL B)

5.2.2 Characteristics associated with inclusion.

Fifteen characteristics were created based on the *Index for inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2002) and the *Phase two school principal questionnaire* (Kearney, 2009) to evaluate the extent to which participants believed certain characteristics reflected an inclusive school. For each characteristic, participants could choose between (0) *not applicable to inclusion*,⁸⁸ (1) *not inclusive*, (2) *slightly inclusive*, (3) *moderately inclusive*, (4) *quite inclusive*, and (5) *fully inclusive*. The eight negatively formulated items depicting non-inclusive characteristics are identified with an asterisk in Table 5.6 presenting the results.⁸⁹

Results were expected to indicate a clear ascending trend from *not inclusive* to *fully inclusive* for characteristics 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 13 describing an inclusive school in the literature reviewed.

⁸⁷ This very likely refers to a paper published by Chapman (1988).

⁸⁸ This choice allowed to differentiate between a situation participants thought was not related to inclusion and a school they considered not inclusive.

⁸⁹ Characteristic number 10 on zero tolerance policies reflected a non-inclusive school, although the author acknowledges that it can be interpreted differently.

The results followed that trend. Conversely, a decreasing trend from *not inclusive* to *fully inclusive* was expected for characteristics 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, and 15 (marked with an asterisk) illustrating a not so inclusive school. Only the results to characteristics 8 and 14 followed the expected trend. Other responses either showed the inverse tendency or revealed disagreement among members of all or some professional groups. They were related to professional roles such as the roles of the teacher aide (characteristic 4) and the SENCO (characteristic 9). They were also related to homogeneous ability grouping (characteristic 11) and to the classification of students into SEN categories (characteristic 12). Finally, characteristics 10 and 15 are linked to behaviour management. The responses of teachers, teacher aides, and RTLB indicated that a majority of participants in those groups viewed schools applying zero tolerance policies towards bullying as fully inclusive. The MoE:SE staff was more divided on this question. As for suspension, while a majority of RTLB and MoE:SE staff considered suspension non-inclusive even in the case of repeated breaches to school rules, 37% of the teachers and 33% of the teacher aides viewed this practice as either *quite inclusive* or *fully inclusive*. Furthermore, 16% of the teachers and 33% of the teacher aides believed that suspending students who repeatedly break school rules were *not applicable to inclusion*.

Table 5.6

Percentage (%) of responses reflecting the inclusiveness of the characteristics of inclusion per group

Characteristics	Teachers (%) (n = 57)					Teacher aides (%) (n = 9)					RTLB (%) (n = 33)					MoE :SE (%) (n = 11)					TOTAL (%) (n = 110)									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
1. Teacher focus on student progress.	7	2	2	5	23	61	0	0	11	11	22	33	3	6	0	6	18	67	0	0	10	0	20	70	5	3	3	6	23	61
2. Staff feel responsible for meeting the needs of every student.	2	0	2	5	11	80	0	0	11	22	22	44	0	0	0	0	6	94	0	0	0	10	0	90	1	0	2	6	9	82
3. Cultural artifacts and other indications of students' cultural backgrounds are present in the school.	0	0	2	11	20	67	0	0	11	22	22	44	0	0	0	15	12	73	0	0	0	10	10	80	0	0	2	13	17	69
5. The attendance of all students is valued and monitored.	0	0	2	0	16	82	0	0	0	22	11	67	0	0	0	3	3	94	0	0	0	0	10	90	0	0	1	3	11	85
6. Teachers have high expectations for all students.	0	0	2	2	14	82	11	0	11	11	22	44	0	0	0	3	3	94	0	0	0	10	10	80	1	0	2	4	11	82
7. Classrooms are heterogeneous or mixed (e.g., culture, socio-economical status, students' abilities and needs, etc.).	4	0	0	13	21	63	0	0	22	11	0	67	0	0	6	0	19	75	0	0	0	0	0	100	2	0	4	8	17	70
13. Teachers invite parents into the classroom	4	2	7	15	20	53	13	0	0	25	0	63	0	0	0	9	9	82	0	0	10	10	10	70	3	1	5	13	14	64
*4. Teacher aides are attached to particular students.	7	11	11	21	11	39	0	0	13	25	25	38	0	21	30	21	12	15	10	10	10	50	10	10	5	13	17	24	12	29
*8. Schools have the right to determine enrolment eligibility (except for zoning criterion)	5	43	23	14	9	5	11	0	22	33	22	11	3	64	21	3	3	6	20	80	0	0	0	0	7	49	20	11	7	6
*9. The Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCO) takes actions to treat individual student's problems.	0	0	7	13	31	49	0	0	13	0	50	38	3	9	12	18	33	24	0	0	30	30	20	20	1	3	11	15	32	38
*10. The school has a zero tolerance policy regarding bullying.	5	2	4	2	20	68	0	0	11	11	22	56	6	6	6	9	3	70	0	30	10	10	0	50	5	6	6	13	66	
*11. Students of same abilities work together most of the time	4	27	18	27	20	5	11	0	44	0	11	33	6	39	21	15	9	9	0	50	40	0	10	0	5	31	23	19	15	8
*12. The school differentiates between categories of students with special needs	7	13	16	20	20	24	0	11	22	11	22	33	6	46	15	6	12	15	0	40	30	20	10	0	6	25	18	15	17	20
*14. Students with physical disabilities read novels during the physical education class	4	70	13	4	5	5	11	22	11	11	11	11	3	76	15	0	0	6	10	90	0	0	0	0	5	71	12	3	4	6
*15. Students who repeatedly break school rules are suspended	16	13	18	16	15	22	33	0	22	11	11	22	6	55	12	15	3	9	0	40	20	20	0	20	13	27	17	16	9	18

The asterisks indicate or characteristics of non-inclusive schools (negative items).

Legend: (0) not applicable to inclusion, (1) not inclusive, (2) slightly inclusive, (3) moderately inclusive, (4) quite inclusive, and (5) fully inclusive.

Further questioning complemented the information presented above. After rating the inclusiveness of the school(s) they worked in at the time of data collection, participants had the opportunity to justify their rating. The ratings are illustrated in Figure 5.1.

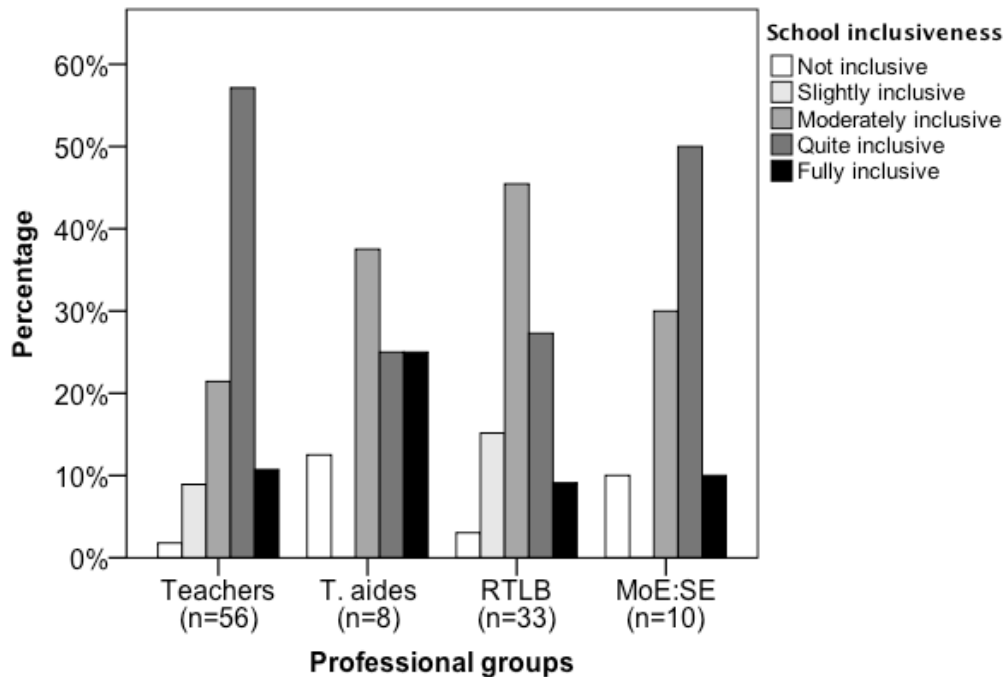


Figure 5.1. Distribution of the ratings attributed by participants of the inclusiveness of the school(s) they worked in at the time of data collection per group.

While the ratings attributed by participants showed generally positive views on the inclusiveness of the schools (the only exception being almost half the RTLB considering schools they worked in as *moderately inclusive*), the complexity of participants' views on what is an inclusive school is concealed in their justifications of these ratings. Some characteristics were used to justify both inclusiveness and non-inclusiveness, thus showing diverse participant viewpoints on what makes a school inclusive. This phenomenon was particularly salient in relation to inclusive practices and resourcing. For instance, the presence of a special education classroom or unit in a school was perceived as being *not inclusive* to *fully inclusive* at the same time. Likewise, streaming, one-on-one teaching outside the classroom, not adapting the education programme, and collaboration with the special school were all referred to as concomitantly inclusive and non-inclusive. Full results are provided in Table A-1 (Appendix S).

5.2.3 Summary of the nature of inclusion results.

This section explored the content of social representations of inclusion. The main expected outcome was to map the representational field of inclusion within the New Zealand secondary education sector. The definitions participants provided for inclusion led to the creation of five categories, consistent with the multi-faceted nature of the concept documented in the literature. Inclusive values were prominent in the responses obtained as was the universal character of inclusion, and, to a lesser extent, inclusive practices (referred to mostly by RTLB) and elements of social justice. References to resourcing were less present than other dimensions in the definitions, but the themes *help/support* and *collaboration* were both salient and prevalent in the free word association results. The coding matrix produced was considered as an appropriate canvas to approach the data in Phase Two. This coding matrix could then be iteratively modified during case study analysis according to the data gathered in each school.

The content of social representations was also explored via the characteristics participants attributed to inclusive schools. Analysis of the results showed that certain elements needed further investigation as participants' responses did not show consensus and revealed contradictions in what people considered inclusive or not: roles of the teacher aides and specialist teachers, grouping and categorisation of students, provision of support in special rooms or units, and discipline system. These elements all pertain to the categories *inclusive practices* and *resourcing*.

5.3 Knowledge About Inclusion and Behavioural Difficulties

5.3.1 Perceived level of knowledge about inclusion and confidence level to include students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties.

Participants were asked to rate their level of knowledge about inclusion. Table 5.7 shows that their perceptions were generally positive. However, teachers and teacher aides globally indicated lower levels of knowledge than RTLB and MoE:SE staff.

Table 5.7

Number (n) and percentage (%) of participants' perceived level of knowledge about inclusion per professional group

Perceived level of knowledge	Teachers (n=56)		T. aides (n=9)		RTLB (n=32)		MoE:SE (n=11)		Total (n=108)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
1 (very low)	1	2	1	11	0	0	0	0	2	2
2 (low)	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4
3 (moderate)	28	50	5	56	8	25	0	0	41	38
4 (high)	13	23	3	33	8	25	7	64	31	28.5
5 (very high)	10	18	0	0	16	50	4	36	30	27.5

This was confirmed by a Kruskal-Wallis test revealing that the self-assessed level of knowledge was significantly affected by professional groups ($H(3) = 21.61, p < .001$). The main differences were observed between teachers ($M = 3.48, SD = 0.9$) and teacher aides ($M = 3.11, SD = 0.9$) compared to RTLB ($M = 4.25, SD = 0.8$) and MoE:SE staff ($M = 4.36, SD = 0.5$). Subsequent Mann-Whitney tests were run to verify differences between professional groups.⁹⁰ These tests revealed:

- **no statistically significant** difference between the perceived levels of knowledge of teachers and teacher aides ($U = 214.00, p = .434, r = -.097$);
- **statistically significant** differences between the perceived levels of knowledge of teachers and RTLB ($U = 508.00, p < .001, r = -.38$);
- **statistically significant** differences between the perceived levels of knowledge of teachers and MoE:SE staff ($U = 135.50, p = .002, r = -.38$).

Further statistical analyses assessed the relationships between the perceived level of knowledge about inclusion reported by participants and three variables:

- a Kruskal-Wallis test ($H(6) = 12.196, p = .058$) showed **no statistically significant** relationship between participants' perceived level of knowledge and their declared years of experience;
- a Kruskal-Wallis test ($H(2) = 8.874, p = .012$) confirmed a **statistically significant** relationship between participants' perceived level of knowledge and their highest qualification in education (divided into NZQA Level 7, Level 8, and Levels 9-10);

⁹⁰ A Bonferroni correction was applied and effects are reported at a $p = .0167$ level of significance.

- a Mann-Whitney test ($U = 442.50, p < .001, r = -.616$) revealed a **statistically significant** relationship between participants' perceived level of knowledge and the fact that they reported to have received training in inclusive or special education.

These results indicate that the higher participants' qualifications in education, the higher their perceived level of knowledge about inclusion. Results also show that receiving formal training in inclusive education and/or special education is linked with a higher perceived level of knowledge about inclusion. This is consistent with the fact that specialists, who generally trained in this field, reported higher levels of knowledge about inclusion.

The positive perceptions of participants with regard to their level of knowledge were moderately correlated ($r_s = .353, p < .001$) with their reported level of confidence to include or participate in the process of including students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties in a regular classroom. Table 5.8 illustrates that a majority of participants reported feeling *quite to very confident*. The levels of confidence revealed *moderately to quite* confident teachers ($M = 3.71, SD = 1.13$) and teacher aides ($M = 3.56, SD = 1.01$), and generally *confident* RTLB ($M = 4.06, SD = .90$) and MoE:SE staff ($M = 4.67, SD = .71$).

Table 5.8

Percentage (%) of the level of confidence in including students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties reported by participants per professional group

Level of confidence	Teachers (n=55)	T. aides (n=9)	RTLB (n=33)	MoE:SE (n=9)
	%	%	%	%
1 (not confident)	6	0	0	0
2 (slightly confident)	9	11	6	0
3 (moderately confident)	22	44	18	11
4 (quite confident)	36	22	39	11
5 (very confident)	27	22	36	78

A Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that participants' level of confidence was significantly affected by the professional group to which participants belonged ($H(3) = 9.058, p = .029$). However,

subsequent Mann-Whitney tests showed **no statistically significant differences** between professional groups:⁹¹

- differences between teachers and teacher aides ($U = 187.5, p = .197, r = -.159$);
- differences between teachers and RTLB ($U = 850.5, p = .451, r = -.079$);
- differences between teachers and MoE:SE staff ($U = 154.5, p = .022, r = -.281$).

5.3.2 Training providers in inclusive education and/or special education.

The 59 participants who signalled they received inclusive education and/or special education training (see 5.1.2.2) listed all their training providers as in Table 5.9. Participants were asked to select as many training providers as applied.

Table 5.9
Number (*n*) of selections for each training provider per professional group

Training providers	Teachers (n = 18)	T. aides (n = 4)	RTLB (n = 28)	MoE:SE (n = 9)	TOTAL (n = 59)
	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>
University	10	2	26	8	46
MoE personnel	12	2	14	9	37
RTLB	4	1	14	2	21
Private	5	1	6	3	15
Teachers	9	0	2	2	13
SENCO	5	1	3	1	10
School leadership	4	0	1	2	7
School counsellors	2	0	1	1	4
TOTAL	51	7	67	28	153

Specialists selected a greater number of providers compared to teachers and teacher aides which is consistent with more specialists being trained in inclusive education and/or special education in proportion to group sizes. *University* was identified by a majority of trained RTLB (85%),

⁹¹ A Bonferroni correction was applied and effects are reported at a $p = .0167$ level of significance.

MoE:SE staff (82%), and a slight majority of teachers (56%). These figures change when reporting the results for all 110 participants and not only the 59 who received inclusive education and/or special education training. As such, only 18% of all teacher participants received university-based training despite their pivotal role in the inclusion process. This is the lowest proportion among all groups. The second most selected provider was *MoE personnel*, followed by *RTL*B. These providers were highly selected by their own groups. The same pattern of one selecting his or her own group was found in that *Teachers* and *SENCO* were mostly selected by teacher participants. Figure 5.2 illustrates group relationships in terms of selecting other groups or one's own group as a training provider.

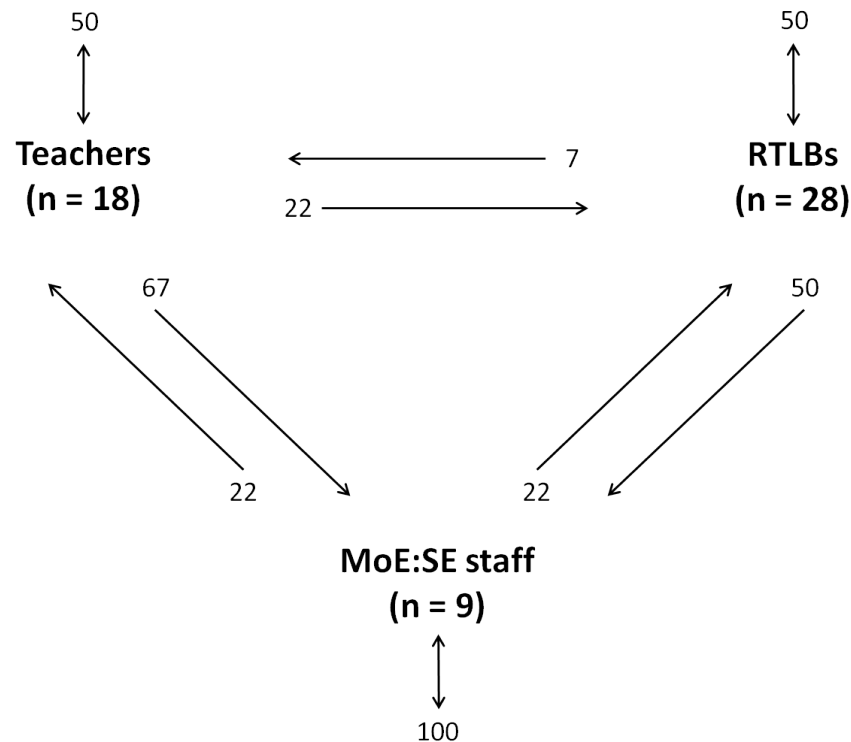


Figure 5.2. Selections of other groups or one's own group as a training provider in inclusive education and/or special education. Numbers and arrows read: percentage (%) of participants from group X selected → group Y as a training provider. Double-sided arrows show group auto-selections. Examples: 50% of the teachers selected teachers as a training provider and 7% of the RTL B selected teachers.

5.3.3 Sources of information.

When invited to select all the sources they got information from regarding inclusion when provided a list, participants made 934 selections. They were asked to select as many as applied. Figure 5.3 shows the distribution of the number of sources selected per participant in each group. The average numbers of sources of information selected by teachers and teacher aides were lower than the average for the two specialist groups.

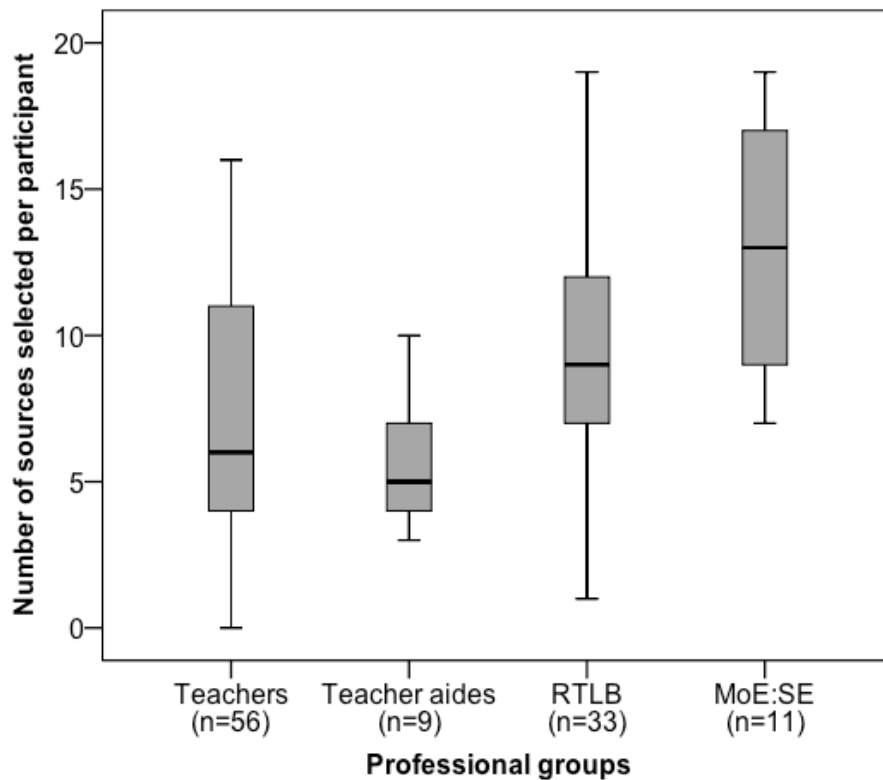


Figure 5.3. Distribution of the number of sources of information about inclusion selected by individual participants per group. Additional information for each group: teachers ($M = 7.09$, $SD = 4.20$, $Mdn = 6$); teacher aides ($M = 5.89$, $SD = 2.26$, $Mdn = 5$); RTLB ($M = 9.85$, $SD = 4.23$, $Mdn = 9$); and MoE:SE staff ($M = 12.55$, $SD = 4.11$, $Mdn = 13$).

Statistical analyses were run to look for potential relationships between the number of sources selected by a participant and other variables:

- a statistically significant relationship was found between the number of sources selected by a participant and the **perceived level of knowledge** about inclusive education reported ($r_s = .477, p < .001$);
- a statistically significant relationship was found between the number of sources selected by a participant and the fact a participant received **training** in inclusive education and/or special education ($U = 828.00, p < .001, r = -.357$);
- no statistically significant relationship was found between the number of sources selected by a participant and the participants' **highest qualification in education** ($H(3) = 4.969, p = .174$ n.s.).

These results signal that the more sources participants access with regard to inclusion, the higher their perceived level of knowledge and the more chances they were trained in inclusive education and/or special education.

Table 5.10 presents the sources participants got information from regarding inclusion. *Professional development* was the most selected source of information. It was chosen more often than *initial education* and *further education* (the former received fewer selections) in all four groups. These frequent citations could be due to the fact that PD spans over the entire career compared to initial and further education. It might also be possible that, the emphasis put on inclusive education being fairly recent, participants upgraded their knowledge through PD. While *educational publications* ranked second overall, academia-related sources like *research reports* and *attending conferences* ranked higher among specialists. The most cited sources for teachers were *teachers*, *teacher aides*, *educational publications*, and *professional development*. For teacher aides, they were *professional development*, *teachers*, *teacher aides*, and *parents*. It needs to be mentioned that all New Zealand schools do not have the same support systems in place to facilitate inclusion. This might have impacted on the identification of sources of information such as *SENCO*, *school leadership team* and *school counsellors*. The least identified sources were *academics*, *unions* and the *medias*. Low citations for *academics* could be related to the fact that this source is indirectly included in categories such as *initial education*, *further education*, *attending conferences*, and *research reports* or that participants do not have frequent direct interactions with academics. Finally, participants could indicate they did *not* get information about inclusive education. Two teachers chose this response.

Table 5.10

Number (n) and percentage (%) of selections and rank for each source of information about inclusive education per professional group

Sources of information	Teachers (n = 56)		Teacher aides (n = 9)		RTL B (n = 33)		MOE:SE (n = 11)		Total (n = 109)						
	n	%	n	rank	n	%	n	rank	n	%	rank				
Professional development	30	3.3	4	7	0.8	1	31	3.4	11	1.2	2	79	8.7	1	
Educational publications	31	3.4	3	3	0.3	7.5	30	3.3	2	10	1.1	5	74	8.1	2
Teachers	39	4.3	1	6	0.7	3.5	17	1.9	7	7	0.8	10	69	7.6	3
RTL B	27	3.0	6	2	0.2	10	26	2.8	7	7	0.8	10	62	6.8	4
Parents	28	3.1	5	6	0.7	3.5	18	2.0	9	9	1.0	7.5	61	6.7	5
Teacher aides	32	3.5	2	6	0.7	3.5	15	1.6	6	6	0.7	13.5	59	6.5	6
MOE personnel	19	2.1	11	6	0.7	3.5	22	2.4	7	11	1.2	2	58	6.4	7
Research reports	18	2.0	12	2	0.2	10	26	2.8	4.5	10	1.1	5	56	6.1	8
Attending conferences	15	1.6	16	2	0.2	10	28	3.1	3	10	1.1	5	55	6.0	9
Further education	20	2.2	10	3	0.3	7.5	23	2.5	6	7	0.8	10	53	5.8	10
School leadership team	24	2.6	8	5	0.6	6	15	1.6	12.5	5	0.6	16	49	5.4	11
MOE publications	17	1.9	13.5	0	0.0	18	20	2.2	8	11	1.2	2	48	5.3	12.5
SENCO	26	2.8	7	1	0.1	14	15	1.6	12.5	6	0.7	13.5	48	5.3	12.5
Internet	22	2.4	9	0	0.0	18	15	1.6	12.5	9	1.0	7.5	46	5.0	14
School counsellors	17	1.9	13.5	1	0.1	14	11	1.2	15	3	0.3	18	32	3.5	15
Initial education	16	1.8	15	1	0.1	14	6	0.7	16	6	0.7	13.5	29	3.2	16
Medias	12	1.3	17	0	0.0	18	2	0.2	18	6	0.7	13.5	20	2.2	17
Unions	4	0.4	18	1	0.1	14	5	0.6	17	4	0.4	17	14	1.5	18
Academics	0	0.0	19	1	0.1	14	0	0.0	19	0	0.0	19	1	0.1	19
TOTAL	397	43.5	-	53	5.8	-	325	35.6	-	138	15.1	-	913	100	

Figure 5.4 illustrates that all groups selected their own group as a source of information about inclusive education more often than other groups, except for teacher aides who selected *MoE:SE personnel* and *teachers* equally as *teacher aides*. The percentages shown in the figure indicate an almost reciprocal selection between MoE:SE and RTLB and between teachers and RTLB. However, teachers selected *teacher aides* more often than *RTLB* and *MoE:SE staff*.

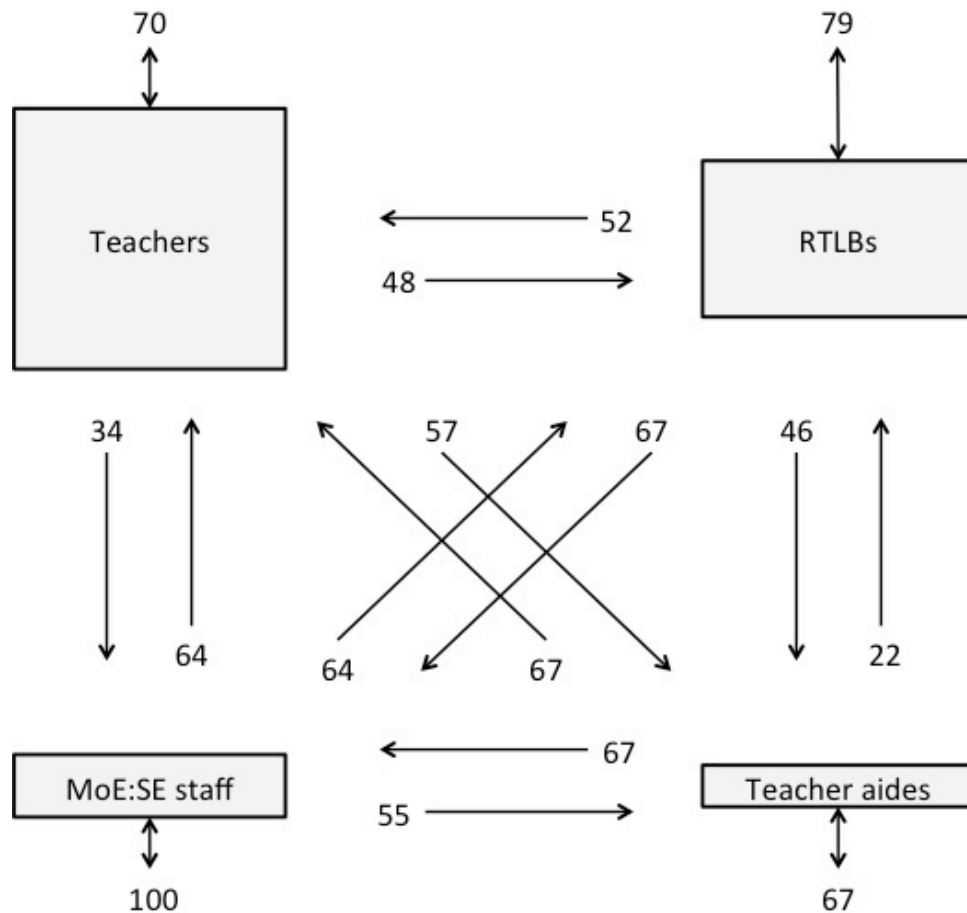


Figure 5.4. Relationships between groups in selecting other groups or one's own group as a source of information about inclusive education. The numbers and direction of the arrows read: percentage (%) of participants from group X selected → group Y as a source of information. Auto-selections are indicated by double-sided arrows. Examples: 70% of the teachers selected teachers as a source of information and 46% of the RTLB selected teacher aides. Participants in each group: teachers (n=56), teacher aides (n=9), RTLB (n=33), MoE:SE (n=11).

5.3.4 Discussions about inclusion.

Participants rated the frequency to which they discussed or witnessed discussions about inclusion. Five categories of situations were presented: (a) with professionals; (b) during professional meetings; (c) with students, SEN students, and parents; (d) during education or training situations; and (e) with people experiencing SEN and in everyday life. The scale provided for the ratings was: (0) *not applicable*, (1) *never*, (2) *rarely*, (3) *sometimes*, (4) *frequently*. The option *not applicable* allowed participants to differentiate their response from the option *never*. The mean was calculated by attributing points to each of the responses, using the numerical values from 1 to 4 and removing responses indicating this was *not applicable* to inclusion from calculations. While responses generally varied from one situation to another, one teacher participant selected never for all situations. Some participants identified that the following situations were *not applicable* to inclusion: in university course (9%), in union meetings (9%), in IEP meetings (7%), in PD sessions (4%), with people experiencing SEN other than students (4%), in class with all students (4%), in school-wide meetings (3%), with the school leadership team (3%), with students experiencing SEN (3%), in department/faculty/team meetings (2%), with teacher aides (2%), and with special education specialists (1%). Detailed results are presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11

Mean and standard deviation (SD) for situations where discussions about inclusion occurred or were witnessed per professional group

Situations for discussion about inclusion	Teachers		Teacher aides		RTLB		MoE :SE		TOTAL						
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD			
With special education specialists	56	3.20	.80	8	3.00	1.07	33	3.85	.36	11	3.91	.30	108	3.45	.75
With teachers	57	3.35	.69	9	3.00	.71	33	3.61	.61	11	3.55	.52	110	3.42	.67
With teacher aides	55	3.33	.70	8	3.75	.46	33	3.48	.62	11	3.45	.69	107	3.42	.66
In IEP meetings	50	2.94	1.11	7	3.57	.54	32	3.72	.52	11	3.55	.52	100	3.30	.94
In department/faculty/team meetings	54	3.04	.90	9	3.11	1.05	33	3.48	.76	11	3.64	.51	107	3.24	.85
With parents	56	3.00	.85	8	3.25	.71	33	3.55	.62	11	3.45	.52	108	3.23	.78
With the school leadership team	55	3.13	.84	8	2.38	1.06	33	3.42	.66	11	3.09	.94	107	3.16	.85
In professional development sessions	54	2.56	.98	7	2.14	.90	33	3.42	.71	11	3.64	.51	105	2.91	.99
With students experiencing SEN	55	2.84	.90	9	2.56	.88	30	3.07	.91	9	3.00	1.00	103	2.89	.91
With people experiencing SEN (not students)	54	2.76	1.00	8	2.75	1.04	31	3.13	.96	11	3.00	.89	104	2.89	.98
In a university course	50	2.46	1.22	5	1.60	1.34	31	3.65	.71	10	3.20	1.03	96	2.88	1.22
In everyday life	56	2.80	.94	9	2.56	1.01	31	3.06	.81	11	2.91	.94	107	2.87	.91
In class with all students	54	2.70	.92	9	2.67	1.23	32	2.84	.95	10	2.80	1.03	105	2.75	.96
In school-wide meetings	56	2.52	.89	7	1.43	.79	33	2.91	.84	10	2.60	.97	106	2.58	.94
In union meetings	50	1.40	.57	1	1.14	.38	31	1.81	1.05	10	1.50	.71	98	1.52	.78

A closer look at the results allowed specification of key results:

- overall, specialists reported discussions at higher frequencies than teachers and teacher aides;
- situations involving discussions with professionals received the highest frequencies overall;
- discussions with teachers, with teacher aides, and with special education specialist were reported at high frequencies by participants in all four groups, partly due to the fact that the highest reported frequencies in each group involved discussions within each professional group;
- discussions about inclusion in IEP meetings and in departmental/faculty/team⁹² meetings were the most identified by participants among the four situations involving professional meetings;
- the lowest frequencies for discussions in IEP meetings were reported by teachers (six teachers and two teacher aides selected *not applicable*, and seven teachers *never*, as if they had never been involved in IEP meetings or as if inclusion was not discussed in the meetings they attended);
- discussions about inclusion in school-wide meetings were reported at low frequencies in all four groups;
- specialists reported higher frequencies of discussion about inclusion in university courses and PD than teachers and teacher aides;
- discussions with parents and students about inclusion were reported in all professional groups; and
- participants from all groups discussed or witnessed discussions about inclusion in in their everyday life, outside school or work.

Adding to this last result, 79% of all participants mentioned they had relationships with someone living with a disability or experiencing special needs either as close friends, family members, extended family members, or acquaintances. The group with the highest proportion of its members having these types of relationships was the MoE:SE group (91%) followed by teacher aides (89%), RTLB (82%), and teachers (74%). Seventy-three percent of the participants who mentioned they had contacts with people living with a disability or experiencing special needs also indicated that discussions about inclusion occurred *sometimes* or *frequently* in their everyday life.

⁹² *Department* and *faculty* were the terms employed in version A of the questionnaire (for teachers) while the generic term *team* was used in version B (for the three other groups).

5.3.5 Summary of knowledge-related results.

The theory of social representations provides a framework for describing people's knowledge about objects of their environment, but also for unveiling the communication processes involved in the construction of this knowledge. This section explored participants' perceptions of their knowledge and channels of communication in which this knowledge is likely to be shared through interactions.

In sum, participants reported generally positive perceptions of their level of knowledge about inclusion. Results showed statistically significant relationships between the perceived level of knowledge reported by participants and: (a) the fact that a participant had received training in inclusive or special education, (b) the number of sources participants got information from about inclusive education, and (c) the highest qualification in education. Notwithstanding, specialists indicated higher levels of perceived knowledge than teachers and teacher aides, which is consistent with their higher reports of training in inclusive/special education, the greater number of training providers they identified, the greater number of sources they got information from about inclusive education, their higher qualifications in education, and the higher frequencies of reported discussions about inclusion in university courses and PD compared to teachers and teacher aides.

Interestingly, the perceived level of knowledge was correlated with the level of confidence one has in including or participating in the inclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties, whatever the professional group as no statistically significant differences were found between groups. The results nevertheless showed that teachers and teacher aides felt less confident than specialists (although this was not statistically significant).

Although *university* was identified by a majority of participants as a training provider for inclusive or special education, it was mostly identified by specialists while only 18% of all teachers received university-based training, the lowest proportion among all groups. *Specialists* were often selected as training providers partly because the results show a trend in participants selecting their own group as a training provider. Noteworthy, 50% of the teachers reported other *teachers* as training providers.

Findings related to the sources participants got information from regarding inclusion and the reported frequencies of discussions about inclusion follow the same trend. Teachers frequently reported their own group as a source of information and revealed the frequent occurrence of

discussions about inclusion with other *teachers* or *teacher aides* rather than with specialists. It appeared that teachers' knowledge emerged from communication within their own group rather than from specialist and academic discourses. This leads to the question of finding out how these specialist and academic discourses about inclusion were socially reconstructed or transformed into social and professional representations for teachers.

Finally, the results allowed identification of the extent to which inclusion was discussed in particular situations according to participants. While professional meetings were the scene of discussions, discussions about inclusion in school-wide meetings were reported at low frequencies in all four groups. In addition, teachers did not appear to be involved as much in discussions happening in IEP meetings compared to the other groups. Discussions with parents and students about inclusion were reported in all professional groups. Lastly, participants from all groups also reported to have discussed inclusion in their everyday life and a majority had personal relationships with someone living with a disability or experiencing special needs. This amounts to the idea that inclusion is not exclusive to professional representations, but is represented in the social sphere.

Notwithstanding indicators of strong in-group communication, analysis of the data revealed multiple communication channels. Such complexity points to the importance of looking at the context. It is within situations occurring in the everyday lives of school communities that information is shared and interactions about inclusion occur. Therefore, gathering school data in case studies (Phase Two) could help delineate the culture of a school and its practices to better understand how they influence the representations and practices of teachers.

5.4 Experience of Inclusion and Behavioural Difficulties

5.4.1 Participants' experience of student behavioural difficulties.

To gain information about the type of behaviours teachers perceived were occurring in New Zealand schools and classrooms, participants were presented with a list of 22 behaviours and asked to select the behaviours they encountered in their practice. This list allowed exploration of the behaviours participants perceived as difficult in their specific school context. The behaviours listed were drawn from the literature where they were reported as observed in classrooms (Atici, 2007; Browne, 2013; Church, 2003; Michail, 2011, 2012; Ministry of Education, 2008; Walker, Ramsey, & Gresham, 2004). The list was validated by five Massey University academics with practical experience in New Zealand secondary education,

and by four professionals working with secondary school students (see 4.4.1). Participants also had the opportunity to report other behaviours in their own words. Table 5.12 presents the results.

Table 5.12
Number (n) and percentage (%) of participants selecting each type of behaviour

Types of behaviour	Teachers (n=57)		T. aides (n=9)		RTLB (n=33)		MoE:SE (n=11)		TOTAL (n=110)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Talking back	57	100	9	100	31	94	11	100	108	98
Off-task talking	55	97	9	100	32	97	11	100	107	97
Name calling	55	97	9	100	30	91	11	100	105	96
Defiance	55	97	9	100	29	88	11	100	104	95
Noise making	54	95	9	100	31	94	10	91	104	95
Swearing/inappropriate language	53	93	9	100	30	91	11	100	103	94
Out of seat	52	91	8	89	31	94	11	100	102	93
Regular absences	52	91	6	67	32	97	11	100	101	92
Bullying	52	91	7	78	30	91	11	100	100	91
Inappropriate uniform	45	79	8	89	27	82	8	73	88	80
Throwing objects	47	83	7	78	22	67	11	100	87	79
Pushing	45	79	5	56	25	76	11	100	86	78
Excluding others	46	81	5	56	25	76	10	91	86	78
Yelling	45	79	6	67	23	70	11	100	85	77
Self-withdrawal	43	75	4	44	26	79	11	100	84	76
Hitting	41	72	5	56	25	76	11	100	82	75
Threatening	38	67	5	56	22	67	9	82	74	67
Cheating	41	72	7	78	19	58	7	64	74	67
Stealing	43	75	2	22	22	67	7	64	74	67
Fighting	39	68	3	33	22	67	8	73	72	66
Drug or alcohol consumption	29	51	3	33	13	39	6	55	51	46
Spitting	18	32	1	11	11	33	7	64	37	34

Table 5.12 indicates that everyone selected multiple behaviours, an average of 17 selections per participant. Almost all behaviours were selected by more than half the participants. None of the behaviours were selected unanimously by all participants across the four groups, but each behaviour was selected in each of the four groups. The distribution of the frequencies for low

level disruption, defiant behaviours, or violent act shows that more participants reported they faced low-end behaviours than severe misconduct. The proportion of MoE:SE staff selecting moderate, serious, or severe behaviours was greater than in other groups, reflecting the end-of-the-line type of services provided by these professionals to students with high needs.

Additional behaviours were reported by a minimum of participants and represented different levels of severity, as illustrated by these examples:

Lateness to class. (Teacher)

Smashing windows, absconding, inciting a riot, trashing rooms, graffiti, dialling 111, etc. (Teacher)

Assault weapons 3 knives 2 guns in a week assault on teacher and kids - improvised explosive devices yes really. (Teacher)

Setting things on fire, breaking windows, turning on gas in Tech, throwing and threatening with weapons. (Teacher aide)

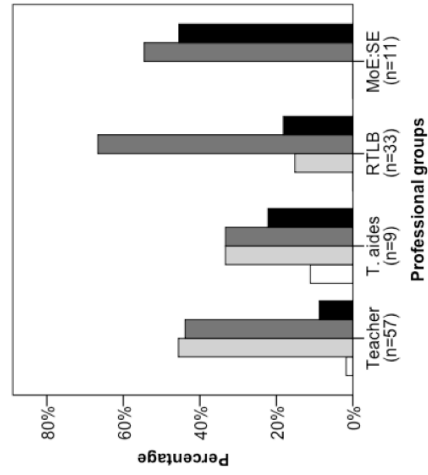
Faeces on buildings, urinating, smoking in the school and class, using spraying deodorants, texting during class and assemblies & having the phones ringing from all areas of the hall/space (RTL B)

Non-compliance, racist remarks to teacher or peers, selling or distributing drugs, gang intimidation (between students with families affiliated with different gangs), vandalism, intimidation of teaching staff. (RTL B)

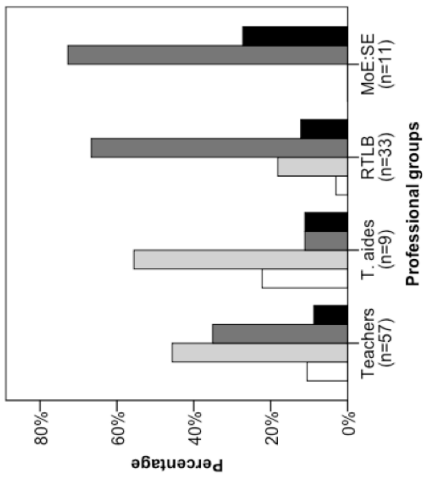
5.4.2 Feeling of safety.

Some of the behaviours encountered by participants can be considered as a threat to safety, and some are criminal offenses in New Zealand. Participants' perspectives on school safety were investigated through three questions: (a) *have you ever felt that the safety of one of your students was threatened due to his or her own behaviour*, (b) *have you ever felt that the safety of the other students was threatened due to a student's behaviour*, and (c) *have you ever felt that your safety was threatened due to a student's behaviour*. Results are presented in Figure 5.5.

Students safety threatened due to a student's behaviour



Student safety threatened due to his/her own behaviour



Participant safety threatened due to a student's behaviour

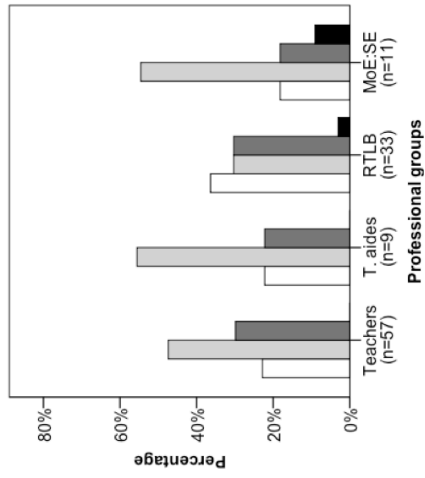


Figure 5.5. Percentages of the level of safety as perceived by participants in three situations.

The patterns of responses to the (a) and (b) statements above show similarities. In both situations, it appears that specialists perceived more threats to student safety than teachers and teacher aides. One potential explanation is the nature of specialist work who are often called in when and where serious behaviours arise. The responses to the (c) statement show that participants believed that their own safety was threatened less often than that of students. Again, the nature of specialist work could explain why they felt more threatened than teachers and teacher aides.

5.4.3 Support for SEN and behavioural difficulties.

Participants were asked who they consulted first if they needed help to meet the needs of a student experiencing SEN. The analysis procedure (see Table 4.4) created 48 themes classified into 14 categories. Even though participants were asked to identify only one person, 22 participants mentioned more. Results are presented in Table 5.13.

School-based resources such as people from the *learner support* services and *school management* were reported by teachers as being consulted first for help. However, the *RTLB* were consulted by 20% of the teachers. *RTLB* were also frequently identified as a resource by *RTLB* participants and *MoE:SE staff* was the first resource consulted by people working within *MoE:SE* and ranked second among *RTLB* participants. More teachers reported consulting *parents/caregivers* and the *student themselves* than specialists from *MoE:SE*. Finally, Table 5.13 also shows a range of other people and organisations who were identified by participants.

Table 5.13

Frequencies of participants' selection of the categories of people consulted first for help to meet the needs of a SEN student, per professional group

Categories of people consulted for help	Teachers (n=54)	T. aides (n=5)	RTL B (n=31)	MoE:SE (n=10)	TOTAL (n=100)
Learner support (i.e., SENCO, specialist teacher, learning support staff)	26	2	5	0	33
RTL B	11	0	10	0	21
Management (i.e., leadership, Principal, Assistant or Deputy, Head of Department, Dean, Board of Trustees)	18	1	0	1	20
Family/whānau (i.e., parents, caregivers)	6	0	3	3	12
Teachers	3	2	5	1	11
MoE:SE	1	0	6	4	11
The SEN student	5	0	1	0	6
Specialists/experts (unspecified)	0	0	4	1	5
Other (i.e., "depends on the needs")	3	0	1	0	4
External agencies (unspecified)	0	0	2	0	2
Teacher aides	1	0	0	0	1
Curriculum resource	1	0	0	0	1
Everyone	1	0	0	0	1
Health professionals	0	0	0	1	1
TOTAL	76	5	37	11	129

A specific question was addressed to teachers who were asked to indicate from whom they received support in the past to deal with difficult behaviour. They could select as many support providers as appropriate from a list. The results are shown in Figure 5.6.

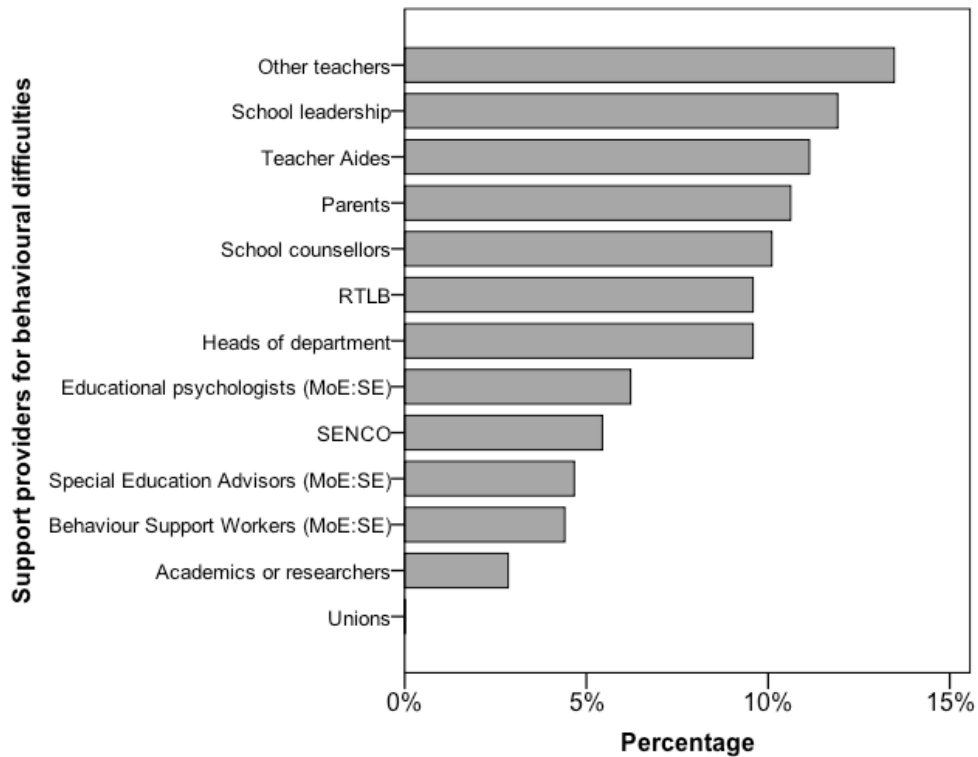


Figure 5.6. Percentage of the selections for the support providers as identified by teachers for dealing with behavioural difficulties.

The first source of support identified by teachers to deal with difficult behaviour was *other teachers*. The next sources were *school leaders* and *teacher aides*, followed by *parents* who were selected by more than 40 teachers. In relation to these findings, it is important to note that not all schools and not all teachers can necessarily access all the organisations or people listed. For instance, smaller schools do not necessarily have a counsellor and some RTLB clusters do not have a full-time RTLB in each school.⁹³ In addition the level of support and the number of people and organisations involved in dealing with difficult behaviour vary according to the nature, intensity, and frequency of the difficulties.

5.4.4 School-wide behaviour management practices.

All participants were asked about the practices, procedures, or programmes to manage difficult behaviour in place in the school(s) they worked in at the time of data collection by selecting all that applied from a list. Results are shown in Figure 5.7.

⁹³ Data collection occurred prior to the restructuring of the RTLB services.

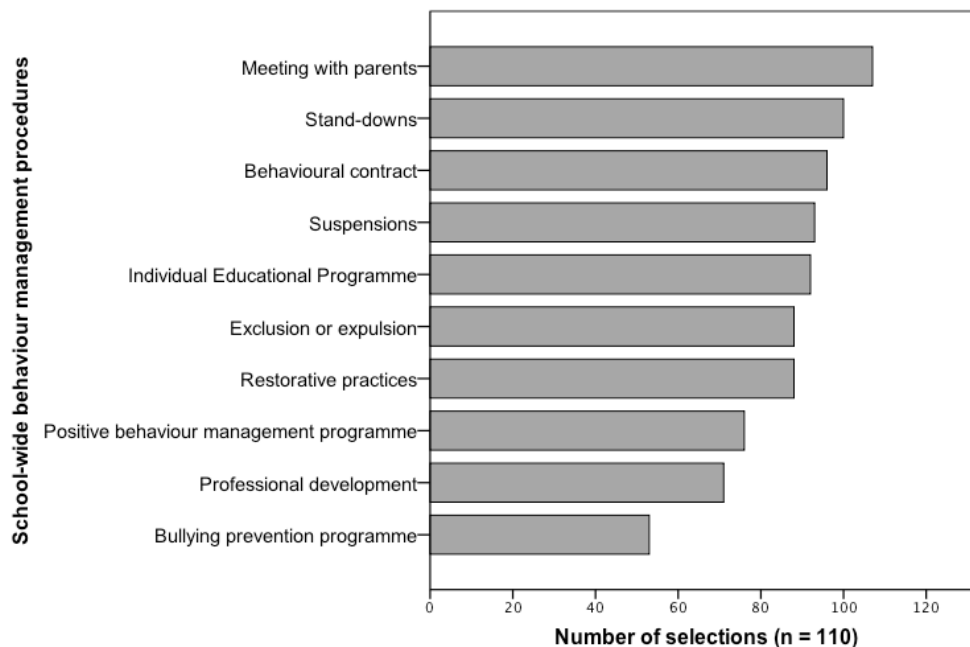


Figure 5.7. Number of selections for school-wide practices, procedures or programmes in place in the school(s) where participants worked at the time of data collection.

Overall, *meeting the parents* was identified by 107 participants out of 110. *Stand-downs* received 100 overall selections, *suspensions* 93, and *exclusions or expulsions* 88. The individual interventions *behavioural contract* and *Individual Educational Programme* were identified by 96 and 92 participants, respectively. Preventative approaches were identified by the following number of participants out of 110: 88 identified *restorative practices*, 76 identified *positive behaviour management programmes*, 71 identified *professional development*, and 53 identified *bullying prevention programmes*. Results indicate that targeted individual interventions were identified more often as occurring in schools than preventative programmes or practices.

5.4.5 Summary of experience of inclusion and behavioural difficulties results.

Results show that more participants encountered low level than severe behaviours. However, some of the behaviours reported were violent acts. This is consistent with participants' view that challenging behaviours could be a threat to safety with specialists reporting that students' safety and their own safety was compromised in greater proportions than teachers and teacher aides. Information about the professional experience of participants also revealed that teachers and teacher aides mostly sought support from school resources before looking for specialist help for

inclusion and for managing difficult behaviours. Noteworthy, teachers were first supported by *other teachers, school leaders* and *teacher aides* when they needed help to deal with difficult behaviour. On the contrary, specialists received support mostly from other specialist resources. Finally, at the school-wide level, targeted and individual interventions were identified more often as occurring in schools than preventative programmes or practices to manage behavioural difficulties.

The results reported in this section provided insights on the professional experience of participants with regard to inclusion and behavioural difficulties, unveiling aspects of the practices in place in New Zealand secondary schools. The results also informed data collection for Phase Two and permitted reflection on risks and safety issues for ethics approval.

5.5 Participants' Position Towards Inclusion and Behavioural Difficulties

5.5.1 Attitudinal scale.

Inspired by the *Index for inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2002) and by the *Phase two school principal questionnaire* (Kearney, 2009), 15 statements were created to examine participants' attitudes towards inclusion using a five-point Likert scale. Seven items were negatively formulated to reduce bias (Field, 2009). The scale showed high reliability with Cronbach $\alpha = .873$. The correlations between each item and the scale were moderate ($.341 \leq r \leq .684$) (Field, 2009). For each participant, a score was calculated representing the sum of the agreement levels to the 15 statements.⁹⁴ Reverse coding was used for the negatively formulated items to calculate the scores. The lowest possible value was 15, the highest 75 and the middle point 45. The higher the score, the more positive participants' attitudes towards the items presented.

Figure 5.8 shows the distribution of the scores per group. Participants' attitudes were generally positive as the median scores were above 45 in each group. However, specialists presented with the most positive attitudes towards inclusion. This was confirmed by a Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance test revealing that attitudinal scores were significantly related to professional groups

⁹⁴ Because some participants did not select a level of agreement for some of the statements, there were missing responses. Scores were adjusted in function of the number of missing responses. For instance, if a participant responded to 14 of the 15 statements, then the maximum score would become 70 instead of 75. The levels of agreement would be summed up, then multiplied by the maximum score of the scale (75) and finally divided by the maximum score (70). The same procedure would be applied to someone who indicated agreement levels for 13 statements, but then the maximum score would be 65 instead of 70.

($H(3) = 17.560, p = .001$). Subsequent Mann-Whitney tests⁹⁵ showed that although teachers appeared to have more positive attitudes than teacher aides, these differences were not statistically significant ($U = 228.00, p = .594, r = -.10$). On the other hand, statistically significant differences were found between RTLB and teachers ($U = 510.00, p < .001, r = -.38$) and MoE:SE staff and teachers ($U = 161.50, p = .03, r = -.27$).

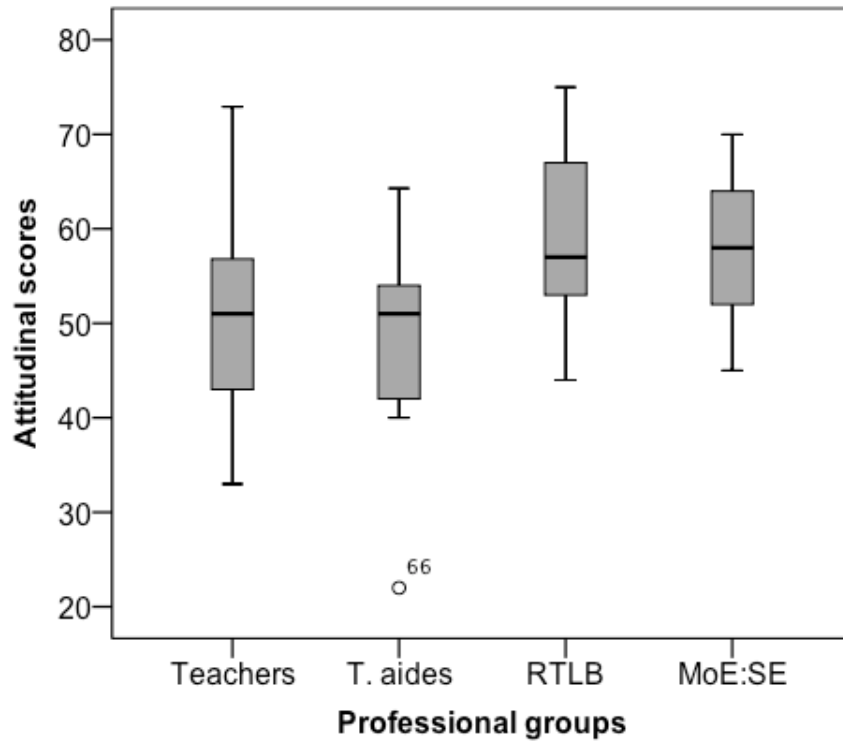


Figure 5.8. Distribution of the attitudinal scores per group. Additional information for each group: teachers ($n = 57, M = 51, SD = 10, Mdn = 51$); teacher aides ($n = 9, M = 48, SD = 12, Mdn = 51$); RTLB ($n = 33, M = 59, SD = 8.1, Mdn = 57$); and MoE:SE staff ($n = 10, M = 58, SD = 7.8, Mdn = 58$).

⁹⁵ A Bonferroni correction was applied and effects are reported at a $p = .0167$ level of significance.

Relationships were also examined between attitudinal scores and three variables, revealing links between participants' attitudes and the knowledge-related information they provided:

- a **moderate correlation** was observed between participants' attitudinal score and their perceived level of knowledge ($r_s = .379$, $p < .001$);
- a **low correlation** was found between participants' attitudinal score and the number of sources selected by participants ($r_s = .261$, $p = .006$);
- a Mann-Whitney test revealed a **statistically significant relationship** between participants' attitudinal score and whether participants were trained in inclusive education and/or special education or not ($U = 754.5$, $p < .001$, $r = -.40$).

Table 5.14 presents participants' original responses for each statement.

Table 5.14

Percentage (%) of the levels of agreement of participants for each attitudinal statement per professional group

Attitudinal statements	Teachers (%)					Teacher aides (%)					RTLBE (%)					MoE :SE (%)					TOTAL (%)				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1. The regular classroom should be the best place to educate all students.	7	44	11	21	18	0	56	11	11	22	3	9	15	39	33	10	10	30	30	20	6	31	14	27	23
3. Students with behavioural difficulties have more opportunities to improve their social skills in a regular class.	0	25	12	53	11	0	44	33	11	11	3	3	9	27	58	0	20	10	30	40	1	19	13	39	28
5. In regular classrooms, students accept and become friends with their disabled classmates.	0	7	14	51	28	0	11	22	44	22	0	3	15	36	46	0	10	20	30	40	0	6	16	44	34
7. Students with special needs should participate in the same learning activities as the rest of the class when included in regular classrooms.	4	18	20	44	15	11	0	11	33	44	6	15	15	42	21	0	10	10	60	20	5	15	17	44	20
8. With the support of a special education specialist, every student can be successfully included in a regular classroom whatever his or her needs.	5	21	9	46	19	11	22	11	33	22	3	12	12	46	27	10	30	10	40	10	6	19	10	44	21
9. Students with behavioural difficulties can improve their behaviour and succeed academically in regular classrooms.	0	11	30	44	16	11	22	33	22	11	0	0	9	52	39	0	0	10	40	50	1	7	22	44	26
14. Adaptations made to meet the needs of a particular student benefit his or her classmates.	0	13	32	43	13	0	0	22	67	11	3	3	13	38	44	0	0	20	50	30	1	8	24	44	24
15. All students belong in a regular classroom, whatever their needs or origins.	16	28	12	35	9	11	67	11	0	11	0	9	33	18	39	10	30	20	20	20	10	26	19	26	19
*2. Extra support for students with special needs is more efficient when provided outside the regular classroom.	11	51	7	28	4	11	22	22	22	22	30	42	18	9	0	20	50	10	10	10	17	46	12	20	5
*4. Regular schools are safer when students with behavioural difficulties enrol in special schools.	18	32	23	21	5	22	11	33	22	11	46	39	25	0	0	30	50	10	10	0	28	34	20	14	4
*6. Special schools are the best place to respond to the needs of students with special needs.	11	29	35	22	4	22	33	0	33	11	30	39	24	3	3	20	30	50	0	0	19	33	30	15	4
*10. Including students with special needs in a regular classroom is too much work for teachers.	20	27	23	21	9	0	33	22	22	22	24	46	18	9	3	10	60	30	0	0	19	36	22	16	7
*11. The inclusion of students with special needs in regular classrooms slows down the progress of their classmates.	16	36	30	11	7	11	44	11	22	11	32	48	0	10	10	20	70	10	0	0	21	43	18	10	8
*12. Certain categories of students should not be enrolled in regular schools.	18	18	20	27	16	0	38	13	38	13	33	15	21	15	15	60	10	20	10	0	26	18	20	23	14
*13. Having students with special educational needs in a regular school lowers the academic achievement performance of the school	22	49	16	13	0	22	44	11	11	11	46	33	6	12	3	60	40	0	0	0	33	43	11	11	2

The asterisks indicate negatively formulated items.

Legend: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, (5) strongly agree

The results were expected to indicate a clear ascending trend from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* for statements 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 14, and 15 which represent positive attitudes towards inclusion according to the literature. Results to statements 5, 7, 8, and 14 followed the expected trend. On the contrary, a descending trend from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* was expected for negatively formulated statements 2, 4, 6, 10, 11, 12 and 13 (marked with asterisks). This expectation was met for statements 11 and 13 only. Therefore, responses to statements 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 12, 15 show the inverse tendency to the expected responses (particularly among teachers and teacher aides), which can reveal intra-group disagreement. Analysis of the responses to these nine statements is presented into three blocks.

First, statements 1, 6, 12, and 15 were related to the universality of inclusion and to placement issues. For these statements, teachers and teacher aides responses were found on both sides of the scale, perhaps reflecting disagreement within these groups. Specialists were also divided on the *enrolment of certain categories of students in regular schools* (RTLB division for statement 12) and on the idea that *all students belong in a regular classroom, whatever their needs or origins* (MoE:SE staff division for statement 15).

Second are the results to statements 2 and 10 referring to resourcing. Again, the results were found on both sides of the scale, showing a division among teachers and teacher aides on the idea that *extra support for students with special needs is more efficient when provided outside the regular classroom* (statement 2) as well as on the idea that *including students with special needs in a regular classroom is too much work for teachers* (statement 10).

Third, statements 3, 4, 9 were related to behavioural difficulties. While responses from the specialists revealed positive attitudes, the results from teacher and teacher aide participants told another story. Although the school-based teachers seemed to agree with the benefits of inclusion for students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties (statements 3 and 9), many of them disagreed that *schools would be safer if students experiencing behavioural difficulties were to be enrolled in special schools* (statement 4). These results show an apparent contradiction in teachers' attitudes. Teacher aides were divided on these three statements.

5.5.2 Preferred type of provision for extra help.

Participants' preferences for the provision of extra help to meet the needs of a student were investigated through ranking of three statements from the most to the least preferred: (a) *a special education specialist (e.g. RTLB, GSE, SENCO, etc.) comes into the classroom to*

observe and advise the teacher on how to adapt practice in order to meet the needs of the student; (b) the student is taken outside the classroom for a special education specialist (e.g. RTLB, GSE, SENCO, etc.) to provide extra help; and (c) a teacher aide is present in my classroom to support my teaching and help the student. Results are shown in Figure 5.9.

The least preferred form of provision for all four groups was taking the student outside of the classroom for a special education specialist to provide extra help. RTLB were particularly clear in their responses. They showed a high level of agreement in selecting a specialist intervention in the classroom over taking the student out. In-class support from a teacher aide was their second choice. Similar responses were provided by MoE:SE staff. A majority of teacher aides selected the presence of a teacher aide in the classroom as their favourite form of provision. As for teachers, while the majority also preferred in-class support from teacher aides, they were more divided regarding their second and third choices with a slight preference for in-class specialist support over out-of-class specialist support.

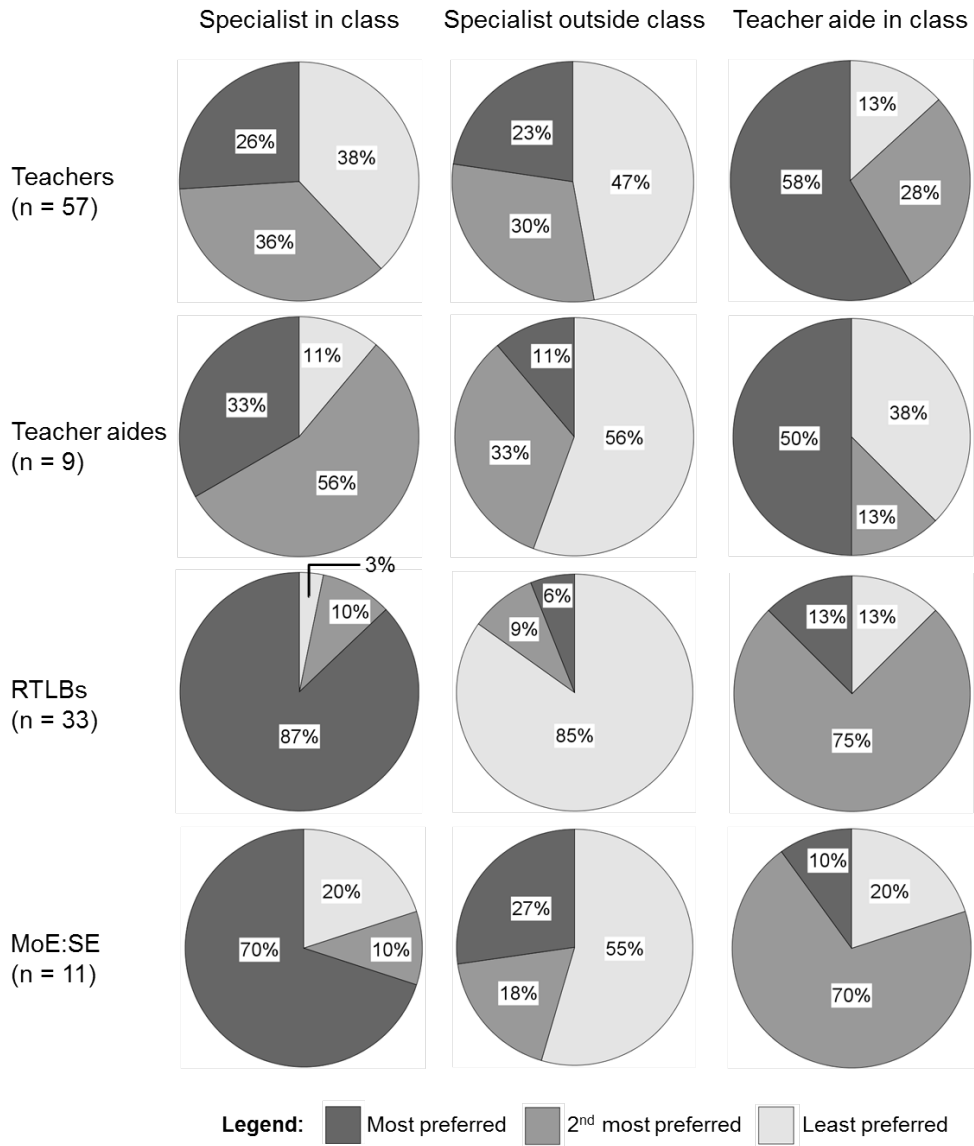


Figure 5.9. Preferences in terms of support for extra help to meet the needs of a SEN student per professional group.

5.5.3 Causes of behavioural difficulties.

Participants were asked to identify what they believed was the main cause of behavioural difficulties. Data analysis was guided by the procedure explained in Table 4.4. Table 5.15 presents the number of coding references for each category of cause per professional group.

Forty-two percent of the respondents provided one cause as requested, but the majority of participants inserted multiple causes. Causes for difficult behaviours linked to the school and to the students themselves were the two categories receiving the highest number of coding references, particularly from the RTLB and teachers. However, while a majority of teachers and teacher aides cited family-related issues, few RTLB did. The student and home issues were the two largest categories for MoE:SE staff.

Table 5.15

Number of coding references for each category of causes of difficult behaviour per professional group

Categories of causes of difficult behaviour	Teachers (n=54)	T. aides (n=8)	RTLB (n=33)	MoE:SE (n=10)	TOTAL (n=105)
School-related issues (e.g., inappropriate task or curriculum adaptation, poor student-teacher relationship, lack of or unclear class or teacher expectations, class environment, class management, lack of understanding the student, poor class relationships, school disinteresting, exclusionary measures, lack of school culture, lack of teacher support, poor leadership, teachers' attitudes, too much time out of class with specialists)	20	1	34	1	56
The student himself or herself (e.g., lack of ability, social skills, respect or self-discipline, frustration or anger, anxiety or stress, negative self-concept, medical condition or diagnosis, learning difficulties, unwillingness, truanting, attention seeking, choice to misbehave, idleness, immaturity, other behaviours)	24	3	18	4	49
Issues coming from the family/home background (e.g., poor parenting, family background, lack of or poor role models in the family, lack of or unclear family boundaries, poor family relationships)	31	5	5	3	44
Lack of or unclear boundaries in unspecified settings	3	1	3	1	8
Issues coming from outside the classroom (e.g., unspecified issues reported as coming from outside the classroom or from the student life brought in the classroom, arguments with peers or friends)	7	0	1	0	8
Lack of or poor relationships (unspecified)	2	0	3	0	5
Societal change (e.g., lack of values in the society, the changing world)	2	0	1	0	3
Other (e.g., negative thinking, lack of love, human nature, abuse or bullying)	3	0	0	1	4
TOTAL	92	10	65	10	177

5.5.4 Other important issues.

Investigating the perspectives of participants on inclusion and behavioural difficulties involved asking them if there were issues they believed were important in these matters.⁹⁶ Responses to two open-ended questions were analysed following the procedures presented in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 (respectively questions 7 and 51 of the questionnaire). Then, the responses were combined in Table 5.16.

The issues reported by participants echoed some of the categories reflecting the nature of inclusion as viewed by participants. However, while themes pertaining to the categories *inclusive values* and *universality* were the most salient in participants' definitions of inclusion (see 5.2.1), *resourcing* appears as the main issue highlighted by participants, followed by issues of *social justice*, *inclusive practices*, and *inclusive values*. Other issues were also reported, including people's attitudes. Interestingly, some participants identified the meaning of inclusion, which is the core object of this study, as an important issue. According to a teacher and a RTLB, people do not understand what inclusion is. A teacher and a RTLB also believed that the Ministry of Education's vision of inclusion needs to be clarified. Further investigation of the meaning of these issues was made possible through conducting interviews in the case studies allowing participants to speak their minds in more length.

⁹⁶ In the first place, participants were asked to rate the importance of pre-identified issues for successful inclusion. Results indicate that in the opinion of participants, most issues were of high importance. It is possible that this pre-identification of issues induced a bias. Therefore, focus was put on responses to the open-ended questions which involved the identification of issues by participants.

Table 5.16

Frequencies of the categories of issues reported as important by participants per professional group

Categories of issues (reported in questions 7 and 51)	Teachers (Q07: n=26) (Q51: n=20)	T. aides (Q07: n=5) (Q51: n=2)	RTLB (Q07: n=18) (Q51: n=14)	MoE:SE (Q07: n=7) (Q51: n=3)	TOTAL (Q07: n=56) (Q51: n=39)
Resourcing (e.g., education, training and skills, funding, material resources or physical environment, special education specialists, provision of teacher aides, classroom size, support for teachers, time, teachers taking responsibility, school-wide system or plan, influence of school leaders on inclusion, picking the right teacher, student support, parent support, bureaucracy, learner support department)	62	5	24	3	94
Social justice (e.g., differentiating between categories or severity of SEN, access, choice of provision, effects on other students, school accountability, cultural responsiveness, children's voice, equity/equality, magnet schools, rights)	26	2	13	4	45
Inclusive practices (e.g., ensuring safety, differentiation or adaptation, collaboration, ecological view, needs identification, relationships, student data gathering, teaching about diversity, behaviour contract, clear boundaries, innovation, interactions with peers with similar disabilities)	12	3	11	7	33
Inclusive values or culture (e.g., school culture, sense of belonging, achievement, respect, focus on strengths, acceptance)	0	2	8	2	12
Other (e.g., understanding inclusion, social or family problems, research, Ministry's awareness and vision, stagnation of mainstream education, how students learn)	4	1	7	0	12
Attitudes (e.g., attitudes of teachers, school managers, teacher aides, parents)	2	1	4	0	7
TOTAL	106	14	67	16	203

5.5.5 Summary of standpoints and issues results.

Attitudes and standpoints are part of the evaluative dimension of social representations. Participants' attitudes towards inclusion were generally positive, but RTLB and MoE:SE staff presented with the most positive attitudes compared to teachers and teacher aides. Participants' attitudes towards inclusion were notably related to being trained in inclusive and/or special education, to a positive perception of one's own knowledge about inclusion, and, to a lesser extent, to referring to diversified sources of information about inclusion. Notwithstanding, a closer look at the results showed that some issues generated negative attitudes or dissensions among participants, particularly within the teacher and teacher aide groups and with regard to the location of education provision, the universality of inclusion, the resources to support inclusion, and behavioural difficulties. Noteworthy, many causes were attributed to behavioural difficulties: the students were mentioned often in all groups; home issues were mostly cited by teachers, teacher aides and MoE:SE staff; and school issues were frequently reported by teachers and RTLB. One interesting result was the fact that participants from all four groups signalled out-of-class specialist support as their least favourite form of support provision for inclusion. Specialists preferred in-class specialist support while teachers and teacher aides favoured in-class teacher aide support. Finally, the variety of the issues identified by participants in relation to inclusion and behavioural difficulties, the differences found between the issues highlighted by participants and their definitions of inclusion, and the identification of the lack of clarity and understanding about what inclusion is reflect the complexity of inclusive education. This supports the relevance of investigating this phenomenon further by looking into three different schools to conduct case studies.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided information on the perspectives of participants from four New Zealand professional groups on inclusion and behavioural difficulties. The results permitted a first exploration of the nature of inclusion according to participants in order to map the representational field within the New Zealand secondary education sector. Some elements mostly related to inclusive practices and resourcing were pointed out as generating contradictions in regard to the nature of inclusion. The chapter also reported on the generally positive perceptions participants had of their level of knowledge and identified a variety of channels of communication and resources for support. Noteworthy, a clear distinction between results from school based teachers and teacher aides and itinerating specialists was present

throughout the chapter, indicating strong in-group communication and interaction, particularly with regard to the provision of training in inclusive or special education, sources of knowledge about inclusion, sources of support for inclusion or dealing with behavioural difficulties, and attitudes towards inclusion and behavioural difficulties. Finally, the findings allowed for a description of the experience of participants in terms of the types of behavioural difficulties encountered in practice, of the feeling of safety, of the nature of support provided, and of the types of interventions and programmes supported by schools. Elements needing further investigation in Phase Two were identified. Chapter Six and Chapter Seven present results from the case studies.

Chapter Six

Introduction to the Case Studies

Chapter Six introduces the case studies and the school settings in which they were conducted. The chapter is divided into three main sections, each presenting information relevant to one case study. Each section first defines the case under study. Then, contextual information is provided to help understand the climate that shaped representations and practices in each school. Finally, difficult behaviours encountered by participants in each school are described, followed by a description of school-wide behaviour management practices.

6.1 Case Study A: Kānuka School Teachers

6.1.1 Defining Case Study A.

Kānuka School is a South Island rural composite school catering for Year 1 to Year 13 children and teenagers from a small town and its regional farming community. Kānuka was in the mid-upper deciles, but the average SES of families with children in the secondary sector was lower than that of the primary sector. There were less than 500 students enrolled at Kānuka School, with few students in the secondary sector due to many teenagers enrolling at boarding schools outside their immediate community. There were more boys than girls and the wide majority of students were Pākehā. The proportions of Māori and Pasifika students reported by the ERO were lower than those of the Year 1 to Year 13 New Zealand student population (Ministry of Education, 2013b).⁹⁷ There were very few students of other ethnicities. About 2.5% of the students were identified with high or very high SEN. These students were not identified on the basis of behaviour issues, but according to the liaison person and to some participants, they experienced other SEN with concomitant odd behaviours.

[Sources: a.P04.Interviews; a.P07.Interviews; a.Schl.Charter; a.Schl.Data; a.Schl.ERO; a.Schl.Report; a.FieldNotes]

⁹⁷ School demographic data were compared with Ministry of Education data for the same year the ERO report was conducted.

The researcher visited Kānuka School in June 2011 for seven school days, spending a weekend in the community. All secondary education teachers working at Kānuka during this period agreed to participate ($n = 8$). Table 6.1 shows demographic information.

Table 6.1

Demographic information about Case Study A participants

	Gender		Years of experience in a similar position			Years of experience at Kānuka School		
	Female	Male	1-5	6-10	Over 10	1-5	6-10	Over 10
Teachers	6	2	3	3	2	5	1	2

Five teachers were New Zealanders, with or without overseas teaching experience. The three others originally came from Europe. The teaching team covered all learning areas of *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) and taught a variety of NCEA subjects. One teacher was the designated SENCO and one the deputy principal.⁹⁸ Teachers' participation generated the primary sources of information found in Table 6.2. Secondary sources of information were also gathered, as in Table 6.3.

⁹⁸ Their pseudonyms and identification numbers are not provided here to reduce the risk of identification.

Table 6.2

Primary sources of information for Case Study A

Participant	Identifier	Interviews 1 and 2	Mind map associations	Observation sessions	Self-report forms
Allan	a.P01	Combined	3	1	
Annie	a.P02	Separate	1	1	
Andrew	a.P03	Combined	5	1	
Abigail	a.P04	Separate	3	1	
Alice	a.P05	Combined	11		
Ann-Marie	a.P06	Separate	9		3
Amanda	a.P07	Separate	12	2	
Ashley	a.P08	Combined	6	1	

Table 6.3

Secondary sources of information for Case Study A

Document description	Identifier
ERO report	a.Schl.ERO
School report produced for the school by external body	a.Schl.Report
School charter	a.Schl.Charter
Handbook of procedures for teachers	a.Schl.Procedures
PD document on restorative practices	a.Schl.PD-Restoration
PD document on reflective practice	a.Schl.PD-Reflection
Field notes	a.FieldNotes
Notes on school data	a.Schl.Data

6.1.2 Contextual information about Kānuka School.

The Kānuka School community was dedicated to offer the best opportunities for success to its children. A number of documents, including field notes, mentioned that the school was under transformation with the recent appointment of a new principal. Support from the Ministry of Education and consultation with the community and local iwi⁹⁹ helped in targeting areas for improvement. Teachers were committed to work under the principal's guidance and there was a general feeling that things had positively changed over the short period he had been in charge. He was perceived as responsive to the needs of all students. During this process, respect became the central value and the school's mission statement emphasised partnerships among the school community. The curriculum was being reviewed, accentuating the seamless character of the school and key competencies. Increased achievement levels were expected, particularly for Māori students, although they achieved similarly or above their Pākehā peers in the secondary sector. A member of the community of Māori descent piloted a Māori learning programme. The SENCO was introducing multi-sensory teaching across the school in order to become 'dyslexia friendly'. Finally, two school-wide programmes were implemented to deal with discipline issues (see 6.1.4).

[Sources: a.P01.Interview; a.P02.Interviews; a.P03.Interview; a.P05.Interview; a.Schl.Charter; a.Schl.ERO; a.Schl.Report; a.Fieldnotes]

Kānuka School was divided into primary and secondary. While the newly appointed principal overviewed both sectors, an assistant principal (primary) and a deputy principal (secondary) were also appointed. Data showed a clear division between sectors, but efforts were made to develop a unified school culture:

... there is actually unfortunately quite a big division between primary teachers and secondary teachers here ... I am very aware that there is a big division which [current Principal's name] has been, you know, over the [period of time] that he's been here, he's been trying to work around, but it's difficult to break sometimes. (Andrew)

The case study only concerns the secondary sector. The small student roll influenced the organisation and structure of this sector in many ways. First, teachers were expected to teach from Year 9 through to Year 13. Some taught at the primary and intermediate levels too. Consequently, teachers and students worked together for a number of years. Second, streaming was not possible. Most subjects were concurrently taught to mixed-year levels and diversity was found in all groups.

⁹⁹ Iwi is the Māori word for tribe or people.

We've got all kinds of levels within the one class that comes into the room, from very high ability to the autistic kid who operates at a kind of a seven-year-old level. (Annie)

Third, all teachers were curriculum leaders. This required prime involvement in developing and reviewing the curriculum and knowledge of achievement levels across secondary education. Finally, despite a limited number of teachers, the school provided access to diverse curriculum opportunities through video-conferencing (e.g., programme for gifted and talented students up to Year 10) and through the Gateway and the Secondary Tertiary Alignment Resource (STAR) programmes.¹⁰⁰

[Sources: a.P01.Interview; a.P02.Interviews; a.P03.Interview; a.P04.Interviews; a.P05.Interview; a.P06.Interviews; a.P07.Interviews; a.P08.Interview; a.P08.Observation; a.Schl.Charter; a.Schl.ERO; a.Schl.Report; a.Fieldnotes]

Members of the secondary team met weekly to monitor students' progress and behaviour across subjects and classrooms. The researcher saw one of these pastoral meetings occurring during her visit, but she did not get the opportunity to attend. Teachers also 'touched base' when needed:

... I guess just as a matter arises you suddenly seek help or ... well I tend to. I tend to just see how it goes and then if something comes up, I'll say to someone "Hey how do you deal with this or what's the best approach?" (Abigail)

Teachers mostly consulted with the SENCO and the deputy principal if they or their students needed help. The SENCO worked with teachers, individual or small groups of students, and was involved with literacy and numeracy assessments, identification of gifted and talented students, curriculum or classroom activities adaptation, and liaison with specialists. The provision of SEN services was based on referrals and funded under the school's operational funds for students with low to moderate needs and the Ongoing Resourcing Scheme (ORS)¹⁰¹ for students with higher needs. The deputy principal was the main reference for dealing with behaviour incidents, although one participant mentioned that the SENCO was the go-to person when behavioural issues arose with identified SEN students.

With this particular student I would go to [SENCO's name] if behaviour became a concern. (Ann-Marie)

¹⁰⁰ The Gateway and STAR programmes offer non-national curriculum learning opportunities focused on vocational training for at-risk students, with Gateway providing workplace only learning opportunities (Vaughan & Kenneally, 2003).

¹⁰¹ ORS provides continuous support to meet the needs of students identified with high and very high needs during their schooling up to the year when they turn 19 years old.

[Sources: a.P02.Interviews; a.P04.Interviews; a.P05.Interview; a.P06.Interviews; a.P07.Interviews; a.P07.Observation-2; a.P08.Interview; a.Fieldnotes]

6.1.3 Behavioural difficulties at Kānuka School.

Participants qualified the behaviours encountered in the secondary sector as generally low level, non-malevolent, and displayed mostly by Year 9 and Year 10 students. Here are some examples:

They can get quite, you know not nasty, but quite kiddy nasty with each other. (Allan)

Really in this particular school, I find it tends to be very persistent low level things. Things that sort of after a while just really get on your nerves. Like shouting out, silly inflammatory comments to each other, things like picking up each other pencil case... just things to sort of, I don't know not malicious, not threatening, not aggressive, not challenging, but just silly. Sometimes I find in this school the kids particularly the boys tend to be very very boisterous so sometimes they'll, in the middle of the lesson, they'll jump up and 3 chairs will fall over at the same time. That sort of behaviour. And as I said it's just low level ... I think probably the worse behaviour I've seen here is cheekiness to teachers. I've witnessed it with the students with a couple teachers. And not, you know, they're certainly not threatening or aggressive or using unacceptable language but a bit cheeky (Ann-Marie)

I probably deal with just talking over top of you or others ... they can play with stuff or touch stuff that they're not meant to at the right time ... And then, probably the other thing you deal with is language, inappropriate language whether it's rude or swearing ... And then the other one would be insults, you know calling someone a name, yelling across the room. (Abigail)

... they are loud, they are argumentative ... they still hide each other's pencil cases or take people's things or think it's funny to trip someone up as they are walking down. Really childish stuff ... And they're so talkative ... And they're not, none of them, none of them are malicious, none of them would intentionally hurt me or anyone else, they wouldn't intentionally say things that are nasty or intentionally go out to ... they are not like that, they're just very bubbly. (Ashley)

[Sources: a.P01.Interview; a.P02.Interviews; a.P04.Interviews; a.P06.Interviews; a.P08.Interview]

Some participants believed that working in a small rural school compared to a big urban school was related to the types of behaviours they had to deal with.

When I was first here, I came from [name of the school] which is a difficult city school, and I think if you've been in a relatively tough environment in a difficult school and then you come somewhere like this you've got your classroom controlled and all that stuff sorted out, because you either sink or swim in those tough schools ... we don't have really difficult kids here, because I've been in a much more difficult situation it's not difficult at all here. (Allan)

... I don't think behaviour is as big a problem at this school as it can be in some of the bigger inner-city schools. (Ann-Marie)

This feature was viewed as an asset by external agencies as students perceived or identified as experiencing severe behavioural difficulties were transferred to this rural community by Child, Youth and Family (children and youth protection services) because it could help them settle.

[Sources: a.P01.Interview; a.P06.Interviews; a.P07.Interviews]

Despite this general consensus regarding the low level of disruptive behaviours, a participant qualified the Years 9-10 students as *really kind of high needs* (Annie) and another believed that a particular student was *an extreme* (Andrew). In addition, there were fluctuations in the severity of behaviours with a few episodes where the behaviours displayed became more serious.

Our Year 9 class last year was fraught. Several students have actually moved to go back to living with various other family members but it was a very challenging class and you did need to use quite a few behavioural skills to deal with them last year. We don't have the same issues this year. (Amanda)

Moderate and serious behaviours were witnessed or reported during data collection. For instance, a student confronted a teacher by refusing to move seats for team work and grabbed a teammate by his clothes in class. Another example involved stealing brand new pens from a teacher, an incident which required a whole-class intervention led by the teacher. A window was also broken during school time. Harassment and bullying were present at Kānuka School, as reported by a teacher below. For instance, girls from the secondary sector complained about boys acting inappropriately towards them. Moreover, some participants explained how particular students were bullied or rejected by their peers.

Apparently there is, bullying does go on in the playground and I am aware that children have complained about that. (Ann-Marie)

These more serious behaviours, although they occurred infrequently in the views of participants, were nevertheless part of the reality teachers had to deal with.

[Sources: a.P01.Interview; a.P02.Interviews; a.P02.Observation; a.P03.Interview; a.P04.Interviews; P04.Observation; a.P06.Interviews; a.P07.Interviews; a.Fieldnotes]

6.1.4 Behaviour management practices at Kānuka School.

Two school-wide programmes were being implemented at Kānuka School with the intention of transforming teaching and behaviour management practices for better student outcomes, engagement, and student-teacher relationships. The first programme involved the principal as an agent for encouraging teachers' reflective practice. It would contribute to create meaningful learning opportunities for teachers, help them build their confidence through tailored support from the principal, participate in implementing a collaborative professional learning community, and reduce discipline problems. However, it was the second programme that specifically targeted discipline by replacing punitive interventions by restorative practices. While some teachers faced difficulties in managing behaviour and frequently withdrew students from class, others used these restorative practices instinctively prior to implementation. This programme, initially funded by the MoE and further funded by the Board of Trustees, was implemented and supported by an external provider and coordinated by a nominated teacher (not a participant). At the time of data collection, staff had already had PD on restorative practices. This was to be continued the following school year.

[Sources: a.P01.Interview; a.P03.Interview; a.P05.Interview; a.P06.Interviews; a.P07.Interviews; a.Schl.Report; a.Fieldnotes; a.Schl.Charter; a.Schl.PD-Reflection; a.Schl.PD-Restoration]

Parallel to these programmes, a discipline system was in place at Kānuka School although the restorative process was to be used in the first place.

... if you give a child the opportunity to make things right and they're in you face or chose not to or downstream, they haven't learnt or grown from the experience, then the discipline side of it kicks in. (Amanda)

In case of minor incidents where reparation was not achieved, the form dean would help solve the issue. In case of serious incidents, the deputy principal or principal would be involved. Two students were stood-down during the first half of 2011. Three were stood-down once during the entire 2010 school year. No suspensions, exclusions and expulsions were reported for both 2010

and 2011. However, some students who were part of the challenging Year 9 and Year 10 class of 2010 moved out of the region as signalled previously. Finally, although most behaviour issues were dealt with by the school community, tailored interventions and external support were occasionally needed for specific problems. For instance, when girls complained of harassment from boys, the school put the following measures in place: weekly friendship circles, social skills training, pastoral care meetings, restorative conferences facilitated by teachers between individuals affected, and workshops led by external agencies.

[Sources: a.P04.Interviews; a.P05.Interview; a.P07.Interviews; a.Fieldnotes]

6.2 Case Study B: Nikau College Teachers

6.2.1 Defining Case Study B.

Nikau College is a large North Island multi-ethnic secondary school welcoming teenagers from neighbouring urban and rural communities. With more than 1,500 students on its roll, Nikau was a middle decile school, but catered for families from the entire SES spectrum. School data were compared to the Year 9 to Year 13 New Zealand student population (Ministry of Education, 2013b),¹⁰² indicating that the proportion of Māori students was similar to that of the population, that Asian students and students of other ethnicities were in greater proportions whereas Pasifika and Pākehā students were in smaller proportions. Pākehā still formed the majority. Girls slightly outnumbered boys. Less than 1% of the students were identified as experiencing high or very high needs. The Learner Support Department in collaboration with the RTLB identified that just under 10% had moderate learning needs while about 2.5% experienced moderate behavioural needs.

[Sources: b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Charter; b.P07.Interview; b.P11.Interview]

The researcher spent 11 school days in the college in August 2011. She met with teachers, teacher aides, students, and other staff members. Table 6.4 presents information about the ten teacher participants.

¹⁰² School demographic data were compared with Ministry of Education data about secondary students for the same year the ERO report was conducted.

Table 6.4

Demographic information about Case Study B participants

	Gender		Years of experience in a similar position			Years of experience at Nikau College		
	Female	Male	1-5	6-10	Over 10	1-5	6-10	Over 10
Teachers	6	4	1	2	7	4	4	2
Other staff	5	0	1	1	3	1	4	0

Half the teachers were New Zealanders and the other five were originally from Europe, including four who trained and worked overseas before coming to New Zealand. Teacher participants covered the following learning areas of *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007): learning languages, social sciences, mathematics and technology. They taught NCEA subjects as well as courses addressed to particular groups of students or offered as options. All participants also contributed to the school as heads of departments, deans, programme coordinators, and tutor teachers.

Table 6.5 presents the primary sources of information. Similar data listed in Table 6.6 were collected as secondary sources of information from other school staff: one member of the leadership team, three teacher aides, and one specialist teacher. All other secondary sources of information are detailed in Table 6.7, including student interviews. The students were five boys and one girl identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties, aged between 13 and 16, and enrolled in Year 9 to Year 11. One student was in an advanced class, one in a regular class while the others were or had been in a development class.¹⁰³

¹⁰³ Nikau College divided its Year 9 and Year 10 classes for core subjects into development, regular, and advanced classes. This streaming practice was meant to help meet students' needs through targeted teaching.

Table 6.5

Primary sources of information involving teachers for Case Study B

Participant	Identifier	Interviews 1 and 2	Mind map associations	Observation sessions	Self-report forms
Bethany	b.P03	Combined	5	1	
Beatrice	b.P04	Separate	10	2	
Bernice	b.P05	Combined		1	
Bernard	b.P06	Separate	9	2	
Brent	b.P07	Combined	15	1	
Barbara	b.P08	Combined	4	2	
Bianca	b.P09	Combined	7		
Brian	b.P10	Combined	4		
Barry	b.P12	Combined	1	1	
Blanche	b.P13	Separate	6	1	

Table 6.6

Secondary sources of information involving other staff for Case Study B

Participant	Identifier	Interviews 1 and 2	Mind map associations	Observation sessions	Self-report forms
Bronwyn	b.P01	Combined	10		1
Belinda	b.P02	Combined	7		3
Bridgette	b.P11	Combined			
Beverley	b.P14	Combined	11		
Bonnie	b.P15	Combined	1	1	

Table 6.7

Secondary sources of information for Case Study B

Document description	Identifier
ERO report	b.Schl.ERO
School charter	b.Schl.Charter
Procedures for teachers	b.Schl.Procedures
Information found on the school's website	b.Schl.Website
PD document on attention	b.Schl.PD-Attention
PD document on co-construction	b.Schl.PD-Co-constr
PD document on cultural responsiveness	b.Schl.PD-CultResp
PD document on strategies	b.Schl.PD-Strategies
Field notes	b.FieldNotes
Notes on school data	b.Schl.Data
Data obtained from key informants in interviews, observation sessions and self-report forms	Detailed information in Table 6.6
Interviews with students	b.S01.Interview; b.S04.Interview; b.S02.Interview; b.S05.Interview; b.S03.Interview; b.S06.Interview

6.2.2 Contextual information about Nikau College.

As stated in its school charter, Nikau College was committed to providing a caring and supportive learning environment where personal excellence was a core value. The college was structured into: (a) academic departments, and (b) vertical pastoral groups. Heads of department led the academic departments. Their roles included seeking resources, supporting teaching and learning, and analysing and reporting achievement data. Deans led vertical pastoral groups named in Te Reo Māori. Their purpose was to create a sense of belonging (e.g., multiple-day camps, table of honours, daily tutor time, etc.), to ensure the well-being and monitor progress of individual students during their school years. Each group comprised about 300 students and was divided into smaller vertical tutoring groups supervised by tutor teachers.

[Sources: b.P06.Interviews; b.P09.Interview; b.P12.Interview; b.P13.Interviews; b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Charter; b.Schl.Website; b.Fieldnotes]

Various initiatives were undertaken to foster students' engagement in learning. An array of academic, cultural, and sporting opportunities were offered as well as a diverse curriculum and the Gateway and STAR programmes. In addition, access to student data was increased for parents who were invited to participate with their children in a collaborative goal setting process with tutor teachers. Finally, progress was monitored through ongoing consultation with the community and a self-review process led and supported by management.

[Sources: b.P06.Interviews; b.P11.Interviews; b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Charter; b.Schl.Website; b.Fieldnotes]

Teaching appraisal indicated a wide range of practices. According to the ERO report, while excellent teachers provided engaging and differentiated learning opportunities, established respectful partnerships with students, had high expectations for learning and behaviour, and used assessment data, others needed substantial improvement as they did not differentiate learning opportunities and fostered behaviour management instead of learning. In order to improve teaching practices to lift achievement, *Te Kotahitanga* (Bishop et al., 2009) was implemented at Nikau College. This programme focused on improving achievement, targeting Māori students. It promoted culturally responsive pedagogy through ongoing professional development provided for and by school staff. Sessions were held once each term. The programme also intended to move towards a solution focused discourse with teachers undertaking an agentic position rather than seeing students as the sole bearers of a deficit.

[Sources: b.P04.Interviews; b.P05.Interview; b.P06.Interviews; b.P07.Interview; b.P09.Interview; b.P10.Interview; b.P11.Interview; b.P14.Interview; b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Charter; b.Schl.PD-Attention; b.Schl.PD-Co-constr; b.Schl.PD-CulResp; b.Schl.PD-Strategies]

At Nikau College, all members of staff were expected to meet the needs of individual students, but as far as deemed possible considering the physical and human resources of the college. In addition to Māori specific initiatives, the school had a gifted and talented students centre. It also had an international student department located in the busy centre of the school to facilitate relationship building between international students and their New Zealand peers. However, one group of students stood out as needing more attention. Some participants believed that students from development classes or those who had transited through these classes were not provided with equitable opportunities because not much was provided for them from Year 11 onwards, except for lower academic classes in core subjects. There was less funding and teacher aide time for these students after Year 10. However, a programme was developing to support them with literacy and numeracy.

... the development students that I've had a lot to do with are now in Year 11 and I have a real care and concern for that group of students; there is about 15 of them that have

come through. And making sure their needs are met within school I think it's been something that's been really important to me ... and I think in the past sometimes these students haven't really been included in an education plan. But I think recently we've started doing a much better job and I mean there are a few kids that really stick out to me that I'm not comfortable with them leaving school yet. And we need to find ways to meet their academic abilities. (Bianca)

[Sources: b.P02.Interview; b.P04.Interviews; b.P05.Interview; b.P06.Interviews; b.P07.Interview; b.P09.Interview; b.P11.Interview; b.P12.Interview; b.P13.Interview; b.P14.Interview; b.S04.Interview; b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Charter]

Nikau College had a Learning Support Department managed jointly by a head of department and the RTLB. Five teacher aides worked closely together and felt supported by the managers. The department included a classroom, two offices, and two rooms where teacher aides worked with individuals or small groups of students. The services provided comprised liaising with previous schools and family/whānau, assessing and monitoring progress, managing IEP, evaluating access to school facilities, teaching targeted programmes to the development classes (specialist teachers), and teaching individual students (teacher aides supported by managers). Most of the students who were provided with individual teaching had been excluded from class for disciplinary reasons or sent to the Learning Support Department because their learning needs seemed too high. Interestingly, many students involved with the department spent their breaks in or around the department building. At the time of data collection, funding had just been cut and some teacher aides had lost their jobs. Those who remained were redirected to working mainly with individually funded SEN students rather than in classrooms alongside teachers.

[Sources: b.P01.Interview; b.P07.Interview; b.P15.Interview; b.S.01.Interview; b.S.02.Interview; b.S.06.Interview; b.Schl.ERO; b.Fieldnotes]

6.2.3 Behavioural difficulties at Nikau College.

The most common behaviour problems at Nikau College consisted in low level disruptions. Mostly found in junior classes, these behaviours interfered with learning and the classroom order in the following ways:

... I don't have many issues on behaviour, but I would say if I have some issues that would be on the fact that they are not listening, forgetting their equipment ... (Bethany)

People talking across the room, calling out, people thinking they can just get up and move around. (Barbara)

... the one that bugs me the most is people talking over each other ... Other than that I don't often, touchwood, come across too many other negative behaviours. Yeah, there is the odd people saying things to other people that are inappropriate but it tends to be fairly low level. I don't encounter it very often. (Bernard)

I still do have difficulty with junior classes, getting the students to stop talking and to listen. (Blanche)

The key problems that the staff tend to have here are students talking whilst they're talking, students slow to sit down and settle down, students talking too loudly when they're doing their work. (Brian)

The presence of such behaviours was corroborated by other staff:

The most would probably be just ignoring instructions, just keep on talking ... it's mainly not listening to teachers or answering the teacher back, things like that, yeah. I haven't been in a class where there has been violence or anything. (Bronwyn)

[Sources: b.P01.Interview; b.P02.Interview; b.P03.Interview; b.P05.Interview; b.P06.Interviews; b.P08.Interview; b.P10.Interview; b.P13.Interviews; b.S03.Interview; b.S05.Interview]

Non-compliance also occurred. Although one participant working exclusively with seniors did not find this to be prevalent, a teacher and other staff working with juniors and development classes were left with the impression that non-compliance was rather increasing or frequent.

In seven years, I've only had one student who has absolutely categorically refused to work and refused to come back in the classroom and said "I'm not working for her". (Barbara)

... refusal to work that's getting quite common actually. Much more common than it used to be. (Bernice)

What I'm most likely to see is children who won't comply. (Beverley)

Most common I think just constantly disturbing the class. You know refusing to do work, just a student that's in a class and does nothing and disturbs the whole class and stops the teacher from teaching. Because the teacher has to spend all the time with them trying to keep them in their desk, trying to get them to do some work so the rest can work. So I

think the students that I get in here [Learning Support Department] are usually the extreme ones and they are the ones the teachers have just given up. They've tried everything and they can't get the student to work so I think, from what they say, I think it's just that disruptive thing, students, yeah. (Belinda)

[Sources: b.P02.Interview; b.P05.Interview; b.P08.Interview; b.P14.Interview]

The behaviours reported above were classified as continual disobedience because they involved recurring classroom disruptions by students identified or perceived as experiencing behavioural difficulties. However, more serious behaviours also occurred: climbing on benches walking around the room, throwing desks, truancy, drugs, fights, damage to property, and bullying. Harassment or verbal abuse towards staff was reported as was damage to teacher aides' and teachers' vehicles. Physical assaults towards staff had happened, but rarely and were not believed to have been premeditated:

That would tend to be a pushing or a reactive gesture rather than a pre-planned attack or assault. (Bridgette)

Gross misconduct also occurred. It was defined as one-off serious or severe behavioural events breaching the school code of conduct. It could but did not always involve students identified or perceived as experiencing behavioural difficulties.

... the student who you may have seen me with, no history of classroom management or behaviour management problems preceding. It was one incident that blew up, the student made some very bad choices, out of all proportion, it became gross misconduct. (Bridgette)

[Sources: b.P01.Interview; b.P02.Interview; b.P03.Interview; b.P08.Interview; b.P09.Interview; b.P11.Interview]

6.2.4 Behaviour management practices at Nikau College.

Behaviour management was central at Nikau College, along with pastoral care and support for learning. Many initiatives were undertaken to prevent and manage difficult behaviour: close monitoring of attendance, establishing a clear code of conduct for an array of situations (e.g., cell phone, uniform, truancy, bullying, harassment and abuse, serious misconduct, assault, theft, vandalism, tobacco, drugs and alcohol, weapons), informing staff, students and their family/whānau about this code of conduct, conducting a survey to assess students' and staff's

perceptions of school safety, and other programmes managed by staff or external providers. In addition, teachers received PD each term to overcome uneven teaching practices and foster learning. The teacher aides signalled that they did not receive PD however. Lastly, efforts were made to reduce disciplinary practices, particularly against Māori and Pasifika students who were the most stood-down and suspended at Nikau College. *Te Kotahitanga* was part of these efforts as was a programme aimed at forming young Māori and Pasifika leaders.

[Sources: b.P01.Interview; b.P02.Interview; b.P06.Interviews; b.P10.Interview; b.P11.Interview; b.P12.Interview; b.P13.Interviews; b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Procedures; b.Fieldnotes]

Restorative practices were embedded in the college's code of conduct. This approach was considered first in managing behaviour incidents as a way to restore what had been broken, as a way to *make it back up* (Bianca). It was also meant to teach students to take responsibility for their behaviour instead of punishing.

It's an approach to what would in other schools be discipline issues whereby rather than saying ok you've done wrong here is a punishment what we try to do in as many cases as possible is say "Ok you have hurt this person. Let this person tell you how they've been hurt. Do you understand it?" And in 98% of the situations I think it works better than any sort of punitive discipline system because it's amazing how much that person actually does take on board in most cases. "Oh yeah I've done that, I was an idiot". (Bernard)

Not only was PD on restorative practices provided to teaching staff, but a school-wide procedure facilitated the restorative process. When an issue was not resolved in the first place, then *a restorative* (Barbara) was needed and the student who caused harm explained what had happened in writing. If issues were not sorted out, deans facilitated restorative conversations. Parents were sometimes involved in these mediated conversations. In case issues were *bigger* or involved *bullying type of behaviours*, or a *large friendship group* (Bridgette), then the process was managed by Student Support or by a highly trained staff member. Albeit a general recognition of the effectiveness of the restorative approach, two teachers identified some limitations.

That doesn't work with them [students in the development classes] either because the majority of them can't write and if they can they can't spell and the first task they have to do with the restorative system is write out what they've been thinking and what they've been feeling and all that and they can't do it. So we don't use that with the development kids. (Bernice)

And yeah some people can play the system. There's always a small number of people that can play the system and it doesn't work for. (Bernard)

A student reinforced this last idea.

Oh, you do have a restorative with the teacher. She gives you a sheet A which is you write out what you did wrong, when did you do it, and how you could have thought differently, who it had affected, how it affected you, did it affect the teacher, blah, blah, blah. What are we gonna do to solve this problem. Yeah. [The researcher: And do you find it works with you?] I've done that sheet about a hundred times [laughing].... But no, I don't think it's a good idea. (b.S06.Interview)

Another staff member pointed out a teacher-related limitation while confirming her agreement about the system's effectiveness for most instances.

I feel confident in the system of behaviour management we have in place. It's based on restorative practices. However, I am less confident that it is used properly by all staff. (Bridgette)

[Sources: b.P05.Interview; b.P06.Interviews; b.P08.Interview; b.P11.Interview; b.S06.Interview; b.Schl.ERO; b.Schl.Charter]

Parallel with restorative practices, Nikau College had a progressive discipline system in place. It proposed graduated responses as the severity, intensity and/or frequency of the behaviour increased. For a minor breach to the code of conduct (e.g., uniform issues, lateness to school), a lunchtime detention where students picked up litter was in place and dealt with by tutors. Then, if things worsened, various types of reports were used: (a) positive goals reports for students to self-regulate, (b) targeted behaviours and associated consequences reports overviewed by deans, and (c) after stand-down or suspension re-entry condition reports managed by senior management. Continual disobedience or gross misconduct could lead to stand-downs and suspensions. Although statistics on exclusionary practices were not revealed to the researcher, she witnessed a reintegration from suspension. Also, two students confirmed that the following behaviours got them stood-down:

... sometimes I get stood-down easily just by screaming at teachers.... I was swearing at most of my teachers. Like swearing and being naughty ... Yeah and not behaving in class ... Like swearing and stuff. And yelling. It's mostly when I get relievers I normally get stood-down. (b.S01.Interview)

I don't listen to the teacher. [The researcher: Did that happen only once?] Heaps of times. (b.S05.Interview)

[Sources: b.P04.Interviews; b.P04.Observation; b.P05.Interview; b.P06.Interviews; b.P11.Interview; b.S01.Interview; b.S05.Interview; b.Schl.ERO; b.Fieldnotes]

6.3 Case Study C: Ponga High School Teachers

6.3.1 Defining Case Study C.

The researcher visited Ponga High School in September and October 2011 for seven school days. Ponga High School is a medium size North Island multi-ethnic urban secondary school with a roll between 500 and 1,500 students. School data were compared to the Year 9 to Year 13 New Zealand student population (Ministry of Education, 2013b).¹⁰⁴ This comparison signalled that the proportions of Māori, Asian and Pasifika students were lower than in the designated population whereas the percentage of Pākehā students was slightly higher. The proportion of students of other ethnicities was higher than in the population, but Pākehā students were still in majority. Boys outnumbered girls. There were just below 20% of the students identified as experiencing SEN, including students with learning and behaviour needs and gifted and talented students. This high proportion is coherent with the broad definition of SEN highlighted in school documents.

[Sources: c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.ERO; c.Fieldnotes]

Table 6.8 presents teacher participants information. These four teachers were New Zealanders and taught the following learning areas of *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007): health and physical education, learning languages, mathematics, sciences, and technology. Two teachers were involved in subjects addressed to particular groups of students with lower academic abilities.

¹⁰⁴ Comparison for the same year the ERO report was conducted.

Table 6.8

Demographic information for participants to Case Study C

	Gender		Years of experience in a similar position			Years of experience at Ponga High School		
	Female	Male	1-5	6-10	Over 10	1-5	6-10	Over 10
Teachers	2	2		2	2	3	1	

Table 6.9 and Table 6.10 present the primary and secondary sources of information, respectively. The latter includes documents and data gathered from a specialist and two students. The first student was a Year 12 girl. The second student was a Year 10 boy enrolled at Ponga High but who had been attending a satellite unit, Rata Centre, since term two of the 2011 school year following a suspension (see 6.3.4).

Table 6.9

Primary sources of information for Case Study C

Participant	Identifier	Interviews 1 and 2	Mind map associations	Observation sessions	Self-report forms
Caleb	c.P01	Separate	A multitude	2	
Charles	c.P02	Separate		2	
Caroline	c.P04	Separate	5	1	
Christine	c.P05	Combined	5	2	

Table 6.10

Secondary sources of information for Case Study C

Document description	Identifier
School ERO report	c.Schl.ERO
Satellite unit ERO report	c.Schl.ERO-Satellite
Report produced by the Learning Support Department	c.Schl.Report
School strategic plan	c.Schl.StrategicPlan
Procedures for teachers	c.Schl.Procedures
Information found on the school's website	c.Schl.Website
PD document on restorative practices	b.Schl.PD-Restoration
Field notes	c.FieldNotes
Notes on school data	c.Schl.Data
Interview and self-report forms with a key informant (Conrad)	c.P03.Interview; c.P03.Self-Report
Interviews with students (Zoey and Zach)	c.S01.Interview; c.S02.Interview

6.3.2 Contextual information about Ponga High School.

Ponga High School welcomed a very diverse student population. The school made a clear commitment to inclusive education as found throughout the analysed documents. The school's mission statement emphasised respect, equity, diversity, and the expression of students' individuality. Ponga High was also committed to cultural responsiveness with a large body of international students and with the school's values and elements of its structure phrased in Te Reo Māori. In addition, all forms of achievement were valued and celebrated. The school offered a wide range of academic, cultural, technological, and sporting opportunities as well as multiple academic pathways. Among these were the STAR and Gateway programmes and life-orientated practical courses (e.g., home finances through practical mathematics).

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.P02.Interviews; c.P04.Interviews; c.P05.Interview; c.S01.Interview; c.Schl.StrategicPlan; c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.ERO; c.Schl.Website; c.Fieldnotes]

Pastoral care and support for learning and behaviour were integrated into various systems. First, tutor groups of 10 to 15 students allowed tutor teachers to monitor progress using the student

management system and to hold weekly learning-focused discussions with these students. The tutoring system was viewed as an efficient scheme to cater for students with mild to moderate needs. Second and consistent with this practice, each dean followed a cohort of students from Year 9 through to Year 13. Third, pastoral care and support for learning and behaviour were integrated in the operation of the Year 9 and Year 10 classes under a team teaching model in which students and teachers worked together for two years. In this model, links between various subjects were made explicit and the co-construction of teaching and learning was encouraged. Also cultivated were the development of key competencies and the use of technology for sharing student information (e.g., achievement data, progress report, behaviour incidents, etc.) with school staff, students and family-whānau. All these measures aimed at facilitating the transition into secondary school through the creation of significant relationships.

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.P02.Interviews; c.P05.Interviews; c.Schl.StrategicPlan; c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.ERO; c.Schl.Website; c.Fieldnotes]

As mentioned above, Ponga High School documents stated a commitment to creating an inclusive school. Staff members were asked to meet the needs of each student. The Learning Support Department played a central role in that matter, identifying students' needs and providing support for learning and behaviour. Fostering a problem-solving approach, the department mostly dealt with literacy and numeracy assessment, SEN register management, curriculum modification, IEP management, human and financial resources coordination, add-on programmes for students identified with literacy and numeracy needs, and PD provision for teachers and teacher aides (mostly offered by staff members or a RTLB). The department comprised numerous teacher aides and was managed by two specialist teachers with differentiated roles. The first manager took charge of in-class support at the junior levels, literacy and gifted and talented coordination, and liaison with school staff and the RTLB. The second manager administered external funding (e.g., ORS teachers and teacher aides), supported staff and students with behaviour issues, liaised with external agencies, and coordinated regional programmes. The department collaborated closely with in-school and external specialists and organisations. A RTLB working with the school on a regular basis offered PD sessions to teaching staff and teacher aides on autism spectrum disorders and on the role of the teacher aide, respectively. This RTLB also worked with Ponga High and contributing schools to facilitate information sharing between institutions and the transition from Year 8 into secondary education. Finally, external agencies were involved with the school, including the MoE:SE, but also community resources such as alternative education facilities, thus working with the services available in the area.

[Sources: c.P03.Interview; c.P04.Interviews; c.P05.Interview; c.S01.Interview; c.S02.Interview; c.Schl.ERO; c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.Website; c.Fieldnotes]

The school had a special needs unit for disabled students identified with high needs. It was under the responsibility of a specialist teacher. Most of the students in the unit attended general education classes for parts of their schedules, generally with teacher aide support. This was coordinated by the Learning Support Department. Regular classroom teachers and the unit's designated teacher worked collaboratively to design the curriculum for the students attached to the unit. However, the unit was viewed as their hub as it aimed to provide a safe mainstreaming experience for disabled students.

[Sources: c.P02.Interviews; c.P02.Observation-1; c.P03.Interview; c.P04.Interviews; c.Schl.ERO; c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.Website; c.Fieldnotes]

6.3.3 Behavioural difficulties at Ponga High School.

Data analysis signalled that behaviours from the entire mild-to-severe spectrum were encountered at Ponga High School:

Ah, calling out, hitting, fighting, yelling at people, abusing people, picking on people, the full range of disruptive behaviours you could imagine would be shown in the class. (Caleb)

Maybe hitting, kicking, punching, scratching, non-compliant, off-task, truancy, give a cheat to teachers, fighting with peers, not following instructions, running out of classrooms, all that kind of good stuff. Swearing. (Conrad)

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.P03.Interview]

Starting at the lower end of the spectrum, behaviours such as talking over the teacher, calling out, or interrupting were amongst the most common behaviours. Here is an example of what a teacher reported to deal with frequently:

That would be attention seeking students who will always be calling out and looking for a laugh and all of those things. They are very disruptive. They take way too much of my time. They take the rest of the class off focus. Those are probably the ones I have the biggest issues with. They are not necessarily the worst kids and sometimes they are actually quite, they are really nice personalities, but their behaviour can be really counter-productive. (Charles)

A student confirmed adopting similar behaviours which he associated to difficulties with his learning:

... it was mainly just when I didn't understand things I just distract everyone else and I just like be real ruckus in class and just because I didn't understand it I just like distract everyone else so they couldn't do anything. (Zach)

At the same level of the spectrum, off-task behaviour or not doing any work was common, as stated by a teacher and the two students.

And generally, they might be annoying as in they are not working and it's probably the worse behaviour I have. I can't stand these kids just sitting here thinking "I just won't do any work", but it's manageable stuff, it's not out of control stuff. (Caroline)

... I swear 2/3rds of the class do nothing. And like honestly me and my mate, she's also in maths, she and I come into English and we're just gonna sleep, like it's that easy. (Zoey)

When I first went to [Ponga High School], I was in a class with like a few of my other mates and that just did not work at all. I was just so, just did not work and I eventually got kicked out of that class. (Zach)

In the same vein, there was recognition that truancy was a problem with students not showing up at school or in the workplace when doing an internship.

[Sources: c.P02.Interviews; c.P03.Interview; c.P04.Interviews; c.S01.Interview; c.S02.Interview; c.Schl.Report]

Low to moderate behavioural difficulties also included the lack of respect among students and resistance to teachers' instructions and demands such as the refusal to move seats or arguing with teachers. However, a student said she could go as far as swearing or shouting at teachers.

I mean some of the boys drive me mad because of their lack of respect of each other. Not their lack of respect of me because generally they are reasonably respectful but the way they can disrespect each other and then try and turn it into a "but it's just a joke". (Caroline)

We'll start with maths because it's the most inappropriate I mean I'm always swearing at my teacher. I always tell him to f-off or to leave us all alone or I don't do my work, I'm always like, we're always cursing at each other ... So my behaviour in that class is probably the worst. (Zoey)

Such non-compliant behaviour could sometimes intensify into violent outbursts and thus transform into severe or serious behaviour incidents. For instance, a teacher reported that a chair

was thrown on the whiteboard earlier that year when a reliever was in class. Here are two other examples of serious behaviours which could have the potential to threaten to safety.

... text books thrown out the window, lending a student a pen only to have her eat it in front of you, students kicking the door in, those would be the big ones to talk about. (Charles)

I had an extreme behaviour incident last year which was really horrible. A, a quite, a violent young man who actually had been in front of the law for his violence. It looked like he was going to get very violent at the kids in the classroom and it was really interesting because he got really threatening and I just said, said his name, and said "Right, come on out" and he didn't want to move and I didn't want the confrontation so then, but then he started flicking kids and things like that. And I said "No, time to go" and he wouldn't move and in the end it took 3 teachers to shepherd him through the door really rather than ... And what he was doing the kids all went dead still and dead quiet because he was going around flicking kids and he was this seed in massive violence. It was just horrible. That really ruined my year's teaching actually. I hate violence in the classroom. And I don't often have violent incidents in the classroom but this was dreadful. Yeah. He was out of control because he externalised all his violence. It was always at someone it wasn't like it was inside. (Caroline)

In addition, two teachers reported weapons at school, although these incidents were perceived differently from one situation to another.

... I did have a student bringing a knife, but basically he brought the knife so that he could find an excuse to make me open it, to make me get him open his bag so he could show me the knife. (Charles)

In some years, we have taken like three knives, two guns in a week off kids so it can be extremely dangerous. (Caleb)

A teacher reported to have monitored students' activity on a social network website as some students used that platform for planning a fight at school. The fight did not occur in the end as the situation was reported to and addressed by school management.

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.P02.Interviews; c.P04.Interviews; c.S01.Interview]

Finally, drug and alcohol abuse were encountered at Ponga High. A student said he was stood-down trying to buy drugs and explained this type of behaviour:

... I just didn't really fit into [Ponga High School]. Just started hanging out with like pretty not very desirable people just like wagging school just like my behaviour at school just like drinking and smoking and stuff that I shouldn't be. [The interviewer asking "On school time?"] Yeah. Yeah. On school time and just like yeah yeah. And with the police as well. I have had like some run-ins with the police.... I got arrested twice in school time before for drinking. (Zach)

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.S02.Interview]

6.3.4 Behaviour management practices at Ponga High School.

Given its commitment to inclusive education, Ponga High School aimed to provide a safe environment where all forms of diversity were valued and where everyone could express their views and personalities. Behaviour management practices emphasised fostering respectful relationships with a focus on learning rather than on controlling difficult behaviours. This preventative goal was achieved in part through learning and pastoral tutoring by deans and tutor teachers. Ponga High's values and mission statement also focused on positive relationships as well as on students' engagement in learning. Relationships and learning were central to the school's code of conduct formulated as expectations for students' behaviour, along with rules related to health and safety issues (e.g., rules about smoking, drinking, drugs and being on site during school time). Lastly, relationships were sustained through restorative practices which had been in use for a number of years at Ponga High. All these practices aimed at encouraging students to become responsible and accountable for their actions. This same ideal applied to the rest of the school community as teaching staff had received PD on restorative practices.

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.P05.Interview; c.Schl.Procedures; c.Schl.ERO; c.Schl.Report]

A seven-step procedure was put in place to deal with the spectrum of behavioural difficulties encountered at Ponga High School. This sequence of progressive interventions was modelled on restorative practices. First, good classroom practices were promoted to prevent behavioural issues. Second, when students' behaviour needed adjusting, teachers and students were invited to have a warning conversation. Third, a one-on-one mini chat was to be held, with or without classroom withdrawal, to work things out and restore the relationship. Fourth, if there was no resolution between students and teachers (even with the involvement of family-whānau where necessary), then the deans or heads of department were involved in a mini conference potentially involving family-whānau, counsellors, or external agencies where relevant. At this stage, the behavioural issue was flagged as moderate. Fifth, outrageous behaviour or continual

disobedience was referred to senior management. Sixth and seventh were stand-downs and suspensions, respectively. Albeit this seven-step procedure where teachers were first encouraged to find a way to deal with behaviour issues restoratively, some Year 9 and Year 10 teachers agreed, as a group, to use assertive discipline with a high level of teacher control and install practices such as writing warnings on the board and use classroom detention at lunchtime, as well as reports for students and entire groups to carry in class.

[Sources: c.P01.Interviews; c.P.05.Interview; c.Schl.Procedures; c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.Fieldnotes]

As mentioned above, one manager from the Learning Support Department was mandated to deal with severe behaviour incidents or recurring behaviour problems. This person supported teachers and students when behaviour issues arose by way of assessment, intervention, reports on the student management system, and liaison with family/whānau. Because Ponga High School was sometimes mandated by the MoE to enrol students who had been excluded from other schools for disciplinary reasons, one specific role of the manager was to facilitate the integration process for these students. This person also proceeded to the reintegration of students initially enrolled at Ponga High but who had been admitted into a satellite unit such as Rata Centre in order to sort out their behaviour issues following a suspension. One of the students interviewed had received support mostly from the RTLB in that transition. This led to a collaborative problem solving approach involving student, whānau, staff, RTLB, external agencies, and alternative education centres. As an alternative education provider, Rata Centre offered intensive support aiming at reengaging students identified with behavioural difficulties in learning.

[Sources: c.S02.Interview; c.Schl.Report; c.Schl.ERO-Satellite; c.Fieldnotes]

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter described the contexts of the case studies looking at the number of participants and their characteristics, at the primary and secondary sources of information, and at the demographic features of each school. In the next chapter, results will be presented for all three case studies together to understand the complexity of the wider phenomenon under study. Nonetheless, it was deemed important to report on the attributes of each school considering the theoretical premise that representations and practices are shared as a result of interactions in specific contexts. Indeed, not only were the schools different in terms of their size, location, decile rating and student body, but each school had contextual specificities in terms of its culture, values, and practices. For instance, all three schools used the restorative practices approach, but they incorporated it differently into their systems. It was therefore important to

highlight the peculiarities of each school because these observations were helpful in analysing the data. Contextual differences will be highlighted where relevant.

Chapter Seven

Representations and Practices

I think that a good thing about inclusiveness is that there are many ways to it, there are many parts to the one truth, there are many truths actually, but there are many ways of looking. (Caleb, a participant, Ponga High School)

This chapter reports information on the social representations and educational practices of Kānuka School, Nikau College, and Ponga High School teachers. The aggregation of information from the three case studies is consistent with the nature of multiple case study research which builds on the combined particularities of singular cases embedded in various contexts to understand the complexity of a wider phenomenon. The results draw primarily on information provided by teachers, in line with the research questions. Where relevant, distinctions are made between schools to reflect the specificities of each school environment.

Chapter Seven is divided in three main sections. The first section describes results related to the nature of inclusion highlighting components of teacher participants' representations. The second section presents the position of participants towards inclusion and behavioural difficulties. These two sections address research question one. Third, educational practices used by teacher participants to manage difficult behaviour are presented, helping answering the second research question. The third research question is also addressed in this third section as it contributes to understand the relationships between the representations of participants and their practices.

7.1 The Nature of Inclusion

The information presented below was extracted from the mind maps teachers produced for an associative network task during the interviews and from the interviews per se. In 7.1.1, the results from the associative network task are organised according to the five category coding matrix developed from analysing definitions of inclusion in Phase One (see 5.2.1): (1) *inclusive*

practices, (2) *inclusive values*, (3) *resourcing*, (4) *social justice*, and (5) *universality*.¹⁰⁵ Some themes from Phase One were reused when pertinent. Others were reworded or re-categorised. In 7.1.2, the results from the interviews do not specifically report information pertaining to the category universality. This category was not useful in analysing interview data because the universal character of inclusion was best grasped and contextualised when coded within other categories. In-depth context relevant explanations allowed for a better understanding of participants' positioning towards inclusion and difficult behaviour, thus adding this category to the coding matrix (see 7.2). The aforementioned categories served as an organisational frame. They should not be considered in isolation as ideas found within one category echo into others.

7.1.1 Results from the associative network task.

Participants were invited to produce a mind map using words or short expressions they spontaneously associated with the term inclusion to gain information on potentially salient and important elements of social representations. Table 7.1 summarises the number of coding references for each theme and the teachers referring to these themes. As a reminder, a coding reference represents one occurrence where an excerpt from a source was classified under a theme.

¹⁰⁵ In Phase Two, the category *inclusion* (see 5.2.1) was removed because it only provided circular responses and was thus not relevant to analyse in-depth data gathered in the interviews.

Table 7.1

Associative network task: number of coding references for each theme and teachers referring to each theme per case study school

Themes	Kānuka School (n = 8)		Nikau College (n = 9)		Ponga High School (n = 3)		TOTAL (n = 20)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Inclusive values								
Participation of all students	6	1,3,4,7	4	3,6,12			10	7
Recognising, valuing diversity			6	3,6,13	4 ^a	1,4,5	10 ^a	6
Acceptance	4	4,6,7	4	3,6,13	1	4	9	7
Belonging	6	3,4,6,7	3	3,12			9	6
Achievement and progress			6	4,7,8,9,10			6	5
Respect for all	2	1,6	2	3,13			4	4
Sense of family & community	2	7,8					2	2
Building confidence	1	5					1	1
Valuing all people			1	13			1	1
TOTAL	21	7 teachers	26	9 teachers	5^a	3 teachers	52^a	20 teachers
Inclusive practices								
Using differentiation	9	2,3,5,7	9	4,6,8,13	1	4	19	9
Providing a safe environment	1	1	1	9	1	4	3	3
Collaborating	1	7	1	7			2	2
Developing/maintaining positive relationships			2	6,13			2	2
Assessing student achievement or needs	1		1	6			1	1
Consistency between teachers	1	5					1	1
Facilitating transition	1	5					1	1
Alternative to standing-down	1	6					1	1
Strategy	1	6					1	1
TOTAL	15	6 teachers	14	6 teachers	2	1 teacher	31	13 teachers

^a The numerous associations made by teacher C01 on the mind map were coded as one coding reference under the theme recognising, valuing diversity.

Table 7.1

Number of coding references for each theme and teachers referring to each theme in the associative network task per case study school (continued)

Themes	Kānuka School (n = 8)		Nikau College (n = 9)		Ponga High School (n = 3)		TOTAL (n = 20)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Social justice								
Everyone has a voice	3	8	2	6,10			5	3
Equality/equity			3	6,9,10	1	4	4	4
Cultural responsiveness			3	4,10	1	5	4	3
Obligation to enrol all students			1	9	1	5	2	1
Teachers taking responsibility for students			2	4			2	1
Resisting to changing practice			2	4			2	1
Access to the curriculum			1	6			1	1
Avoid tokenism			1	4			1	1
TOTAL	3	1 teacher	15	4 teachers	3	2 teachers	21	7 teachers
Resourcing								
Support for individual students	3	3,5,7	2	4,6			5	5
Access to expert support			2	4,7			2	2
Physical environment and use of technology			2	4,7			2	2
Support for staff	1	7	1	7			2	2
Location of educational provision			2	7,9			2	2
Coordination of support	1	5					1	1
Funding			1	4			1	1
Staff skills and training (PD)			1	7			1	1
Support for parents			1	7			1	1
Teacher aides work			1	7			1	1
TOTAL	5	3 teachers	13	4 teachers			18	7 teachers
Universality								
Everyone-all	1	5	5	4,8,9			6	4
TOTAL	1	1 teacher	5	3 teachers			6	4 teachers

Kānuka School participants produced 49 associations ($M = 6.13$; $SD = 4.05$; $min = 1$; $max = 12$). Among their responses, two could not be incorporated into the predefined categories: ‘dyslexia friendly school’ was categorised as particularities of the school and ‘agreement on inclusion’ was a position towards inclusion. Two teachers made a low number of associations and voiced their difficulty to define inclusion.

Nine Nikau College teachers produced 59 associations ($M = 6.56$; $SD = 4.07$; $min = 1$; $max = 15$). They were all incorporated into the five category coding matrix. The tenth teacher did not complete a mind map. Albeit making six associations, one teacher said she was not familiar with the term inclusion prior to the study.

Lastly, one Ponga High School teacher covered both sides of the sheet with words and drawings, all referring to one essential idea: diversity in all its forms. A single coding reference was attributed (recognising or valuing diversity) for this particular mind map because it was impossible to clearly determine the number of associations made. In the end, 10 associations were produced by two other teachers (five each). They were all coded in the five category coding matrix. The fourth teacher did not complete a mind map.

Table 7.1 shows the overall salience of *inclusive values* in teachers’ representations. All teachers who completed the associative network task spontaneously referred to this category. Six values were reported by at least four teachers: ‘participation of all students’, ‘recognising or valuing diversity’, ‘acceptance’, ‘belonging’, ‘achievement and progress’, and ‘respect for all’. The category *inclusive practices* was also prominent. Sixty percent of the teachers who completed the task produced associations under this category. Specifically, the inclusive practice ‘using differentiation’ generated 19 coding references from nine teachers. The three most reported themes in the category *social justice* were ‘everyone has a voice’, ‘equality/equity’, and ‘cultural responsiveness’. Themes in the category *resourcing* were reported by participants from Kānuka School and Nikau College only, with the most coded being ‘support for individual students’. Finally, six teachers from Kānuka School and Nikau College acknowledged that inclusion applied to ‘everyone-all’ evoking the *universality* of inclusion.

Participants’ explanations of their mind maps during the interviews contributed to defining or nuancing what their word associations meant and permitted a further exploration of the elements of social representations not initially brought up by teacher participants.

7.1.2 Results from the interviews.

Interview data provided extensive information on the nature of inclusion as represented by participants. Here are the elements forming these representations following data analysis.

7.1.2.1 Inclusive practices.

Table 7.2 summarises the results for the category *inclusive practices*.

Table 7.2

Interviews analysis: number of coding references for each theme and teachers referring to each theme in the category inclusive practices per case study school

Themes for the category inclusive practices	Kānuka School (n = 8)		Nikau College (n = 10)		Ponga High School (n = 4)		TOTAL (n = 22)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Using differentiation	40	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	70	3,4,5,6,7,8,9,12,13	53	1,2,4,5	163	21
Developing/maintaining positive relationships	50	1,3,4,6,7,8	61	3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,12,13	31	1,4,5	142	19
Providing a safe environment	27	1,2,4,5,7,8	32	3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,13	19	1,4,5	78	18
Assessing student achievement or needs	9	3,4,5,6,7	21	3,4,5,6,7,8, 10,13	12	1,4,5	42	16
Teaching social skills, self-control	20	1,3,4,5,7,8	6	4,6,13	7	1,2,4	33	12
Collaborating	3	4,8	24	3,4,6,7,8,9,10	5	1,2,4	32	12
Communicating	7	2,4,5,6,8	19	3,4,5,7,8,9,12,13	4	1,4	30	15
Appraising professional practice	2	3,7	17	4,5,6,7,8,10,12,13	5	1,2,5	24	13
Facilitating transitions	7	5,6,7,8	7	3,4,7,12	10	4,5	24	10
Consistency between teachers	8	3,5,6,7	7	3,4,5,8,12,13	1	1	16	11
Defining/developing/reviewing the curriculum	7	1,3,8			8	1,2,5	15	6
Developing/applying a clear code of conduct	1	4	3	6,8	2	4	6	4
TOTAL	181	8 teachers	267	10 teachers	157	4 teachers	605	22 teachers

All teachers but one referred to ‘using differentiation’, indicating that this theme was thoroughly embedded in participants’ representations of inclusion. Differentiation was first associated to providing meaningful learning opportunities at the appropriate academic level for each student and to setting expectations according to those levels.

... when we get a class of students we know that each one is an individual, unique, all with their own needs and their own way of learning. And so as teachers you need to be mindful of presenting in a way that will be different for different groups of students. So all the whole differentiation argument. (Blanche)

... if you have a child sitting in the classroom that is working at Level 2 of the curriculum and you’re teaching Level 5, they’re not getting anything meaningful out of being here. We’re a babysitting service. So if you’re actually serious about including them in the school, they need to have work that’s at their level, that’s meaningful and fairly repetitive so they can actually progress at their own rate. And that’s not just handicapped students it’s also students that may come to you having bounced around 10-12 schools. (Amanda)

Differentiation is setting the bar at different heights for different students. So the more able students in the class I would expect them to go through more hoops at a higher standard than students that struggle. (Andrew)

Participants gave examples of the strategies they used to differentiate.

I basically make up a task and then I just have to re-gig it completely to accommodate the lower readers or indeed the higher ability kids that need big extension tasks ... So it is down to the teacher how inclusive they are with differentiating their work. (Beatrice)

And you have to use different learning techniques, and different strategies, and different group work, and different book work, and different levels and a whole lot of different range of techniques. (Caleb)

Learning and behaviour difficulties being intrinsically related, many participants believed that differentiation, or providing interesting work at the appropriate level, would help ease difficult behaviour.

Lots of teachers have what they teach and that’s what they teach. The brainy kids get bored and the lower ability kids sit there going “I haven’t got a clue what you’re talking about and I can’t do this” and then they give up and then they get naughty because they don’t know what they are doing. (Beatrice)

Notwithstanding its benefits in preventing difficult behaviour, differentiation was perceived as hard to implement for teachers if they did not have support and advice to differentiate and *think outside the square* (Abigail). There was also a perception that it would be a great ask for teachers to differentiate for students whose learning needs were too far away from the curriculum level of the rest of the class and only very skillful teachers could do it. Specifically, at Kānuka School, teachers associated differentiation to working in a small rural school where many students worked at different levels in the same class. In the two other schools, the systems in place would facilitate differentiation. At Nikau College, the Learner Support Department supported teachers to providing work at the appropriate level. The streamed classes were also considered as a way to differentiate by providing work at the appropriate level

... the students in the development class if they were just in a mixed class they would not be included they would be excluded all the time because they wouldn't know what was going on. But as they're together in one class then they can be included. (Bernice)

At Ponga High, differentiation was supported by the Learner Support Department as well as by the multiple programmes and pathways available. 'Defining, developing, or reviewing the curriculum' was described as providing work that is meaningful for the students. This theme was particularly salient at Kānuka School where the curriculum was being reviewed. It was also present at Ponga High School where teachers talked about specific courses and pathways and how they co-constructed learning with their students.

'Developing and maintaining positive relationships' was coded in the interviews of a majority of teachers. Mostly referring to student-teacher relationships, it meant for teachers to genuinely want to develop those relationships.

... the students know if you generally want to teach and you want to be there because you enjoy it and you want to see them succeed or if you're just there doing a job (Allan)

If you don't love kids, you shouldn't be in the classroom. (Barry)

... it strikes me frequently that some teachers don't seem to like the kids in front of them and that puzzles me because I can't imagine doing this job if you don't like kids. (Bernard)

However, the relationships needed to be balanced and remain professional.

... one of the big things I see with young teachers particularly is that they can't differentiate between the kids liking them and the kids respecting them ... The

relationship doesn't have to be anywhere near friendship because actually that's not the role we are here to do. (Caroline)

Teachers generally agreed that relationships must move away from power and control over students.

... if you come in with the negative or you try and say for them to do something or back them into a corner it's just not going to work. Not at this school. Probably not in many schools. (Caleb)

Where some more traditional teachers get it wrong, they walk in the room and they think they're going to respect them when they're dominant ... And then when all the problems start, those teachers think the problem is in the students ... But it's not. That teacher is not interested in developing their individual relationship or a relationship based on respect with that group. They just demand respect. And you don't get that off young people today. It doesn't just happen. (Allan)

Again, good relationships had the potential to ease discipline issues.

I personally think behaviour management is such a core to building up a positive relationship in the classroom with the students. Staff need a drip feed constant reminding to keep that method of dealing with discipline problems, positive behaviour methods, at the forefront of their minds (Brian)

... if you're teaching them things that are relevant to them and you can build a positive relationship with them they don't want to let you down. They don't want to disap... well not disappoint but I guess they don't want to be offside with you. (Bianca)

Sometimes they can tell you really pertinent things that are happening at home that you didn't know about. Then you can be a little bit more forgiving of their behaviour so it's a dialogue. And that one on one is really important I think with discipline issues, bad discipline issues. Just giving them the chance to explain what's going on and why they are like that. (Blanche)

At Kānuka, relationships were facilitated because people knew each other well and met socially. However, building positive relationships was necessary whatever the classroom size according to Amanda. At Nikau College and Ponga High School, the pastoral systems reinforced positive relationships. To a lesser extent, positive relationships with the family/whānau were part of teachers' representations, as were positive relationships among students and with colleagues and co-workers.

Participants signalled the importance of ‘providing a safe environment’ and making sure students felt valued and respected by not allowing put downs or bullying, by encouraging students to give their best without too much pressure, and by recognising diversity.

Well basically I don't allow put downs. For example if someone said something really cheeky or rude ... and they just say "oh you're cabbage" or whatever. If I hear those sorts of comments then I always jump on them and say we don't use that word, no one is cabbage, everyone you know and I just do a little morale kind of "I'm not having that in this class" (Blanche)

... some kids will do their best but they do not feel comfortable in speaking in public and stuff so I'm never trying to push too much because I don't like that either. If you are too much on their back this is also a way to actually make them even back off a little bit more. So I just want to make them feel comfortable in the class, that's what also inclusion is for me, making them comfortable in our little family (Bethany)

If you get to know your kids, you acknowledge their differences, you make sure that you make them feel comfortable and welcome in your classroom and all those things, it will go well. (Caroline)

A number of participants were concerned with the safety of SEN students. At Kānuka School, there was a feeling that they could be bullied in a city school. A Nikau College teacher also had doubts regarding the safety of SEN students.

... there have been some students that have come to us or have been wanting to come to us who I don't think our school is the right place for them ... I mean a typical teenage life can be quite harsh sometimes you know bullying, teasing, limited understanding of each other. A lot of teenagers have that 'you're different so therefore wrong' attitude ... And so I think sometimes are we doing the right thing by that student by subjecting them to that I mean in that is inclusion in the best interest of that child or would it be better if they were in another kind of education facility? ... Are they just going to get hassled to pieces because they're different? I don't know and I really struggle with that a lot of the time. (Bianca)

The Nikau College Learner Support Department was reported as a safe hub for SEN students and a classroom was kept open by a concerned teacher for students with ASD so they could get away from being bullied at lunchtime. At Ponga High, the special unit served as a safe place for SEN students and classes where these students were mainstreamed were carefully selected. Overall, safety was made a priority at this school.

Because it's part of our tikanga¹⁰⁶ at school and it's like creating a positive learning environment and making sure that kids feel safe ... (Christine)

Participants also recognised that challenging behaviours created unsafe learning environments sometimes, justifying the need for extra help.

We've had one or two [severely behaviourally challenged students] come through here and they fairly well needed minders the whole time ... But yes, first and foremost, it must be a safety issue. (Amanda)

One different view was voiced by Allan who believed that regular schools did not provide a safe environment for students experiencing difficulties with learning and behaviour to develop holistically and succeed at their level. These students were not achieving and were put down, creating frustration. Finally, inclusion was also about 'providing a safe environment' for staff and their property, especially at Nikau College and Ponga High School where severe behaviours occurred (see 6.2.3 and 6.3.3).

'Assessing students' achievement and needs' was done informally by teachers as they looked at students' work in class to measure progress. Some teachers in all three schools mentioned keeping records of students' progress. Participants also reported formal assessment conducted by the SENCO or a learning support specialist teacher. Standardised testing was the basis for providing work at the appropriate level, adapting the curriculum, planning special programmes, implementing appropriate strategies, or selecting classes and courses.

They test some kids that have low [name of test] or maybe their behaviour isn't up to you know and so they get tested by somebody at school and that's what happens with the [programme]. So they go on a programme and they do X amount a week. (Christine)

... and the deans will chose who goes into that Year 11 [subject] class and that is based purely on how confident we are that they will get literacy in their Year 11 year. (Caroline)

'Teaching social skills and self-control' was reportedly used by participants to help students manage their learning and behaviour. This practice was viewed as particularly important for young people identified as experiencing difficulties with their behaviour or having to deal with situations where they needed to exercise their skills and control.

¹⁰⁶ Tikanga is the Māori word for custom, practice, manner.

... we have circle time, which is sort of like therapy for teenagers, and they'd talk about their behaviour and what they could do better and why they behaved the way they did so that we'd tried to understand and put in strategies in place for if they started to feel angry what could they do about it, those sorts of things, which then enabled them to go back into mainstream. (Beatrice)

So what I was doing I was working with those [Māori and Pasifika] boys to try and get that managing self thing so the next time there's a confrontation for almost for them to take the adult role and step back when they're against those bossy teachers who just want to control their environment (Allan)

'Collaborating and communicating' was about teachers sharing and working together informally and formally. At Kānuka School, the small size of the school facilitated formal weekly pastoral meetings and informal talk allowing teachers to find ways, by working together, to help their students whom they generally knew well both at school and outside. Informal or casual discussions were reported by teachers from other schools as well. This occurred mostly when they talked with teacher aides or specialist teachers about students. Although recognising the importance of sharing, some Nikau College teachers admitted it was not always happening. Bernice reported casual conversations with colleagues in the staff room, but also commented on the relative isolation of teachers in her department who did not ask for help. Bethany provided the answer below when asked if she talked to her colleagues about a student she described as problematic.

... I never tried to actually talk about it with other teachers, I should definitely try to talk to my colleagues about it and see what's going on. (Bethany)

Participants wanted for information and management decisions to be communicated to them, particularly when it affected their work. A Nikau College teacher deplored having received a notice mentioning that the teacher aide assigned to her class would not be there anymore the same day that change was made effective. A few teachers mentioned the necessity to communicate with parents about positive situations.

'Appraising professional practice' was related to teachers reflecting on their own actions.

I often reflect on what the bad things are, the things that went wrong and how and when I could have intervened and changed the outcomes. Sometimes I will have a great lesson and I think "What was it that made it great? Can I make it happen again?" (Amanda)

External evaluations by competent colleagues or specialist teachers were another way for practice appraisal. Noteworthy, some participants perceived their participation in this study as an opportunity to reflect on their practice.

‘Facilitating transitions’ referred to looking at data from contributing schools to appropriately differentiate teaching and learning. It also referred to the policies in place in all three schools to welcome new students.

I believe the school is doing really well in order to include everyone and make sure that all kids are feeling included. That goes from the very beginning of the year where there are lots of supports given to the youngsters when they arrive in the school. (Bethany)

This theme was also related to helping students when they left secondary education.

... this whole inclusion thing is that it's a wider issue, is that inclusion in society, that sort of citizenship stuff so that you can feel that you have a right to go from school to the next part of your life ... And I think it's really important because the inclusion thing it's when people feel that they are not included that they feel disconnected with something, that's when you are going to end up having crime, self-harm, all kinds of things health related. (Caroline)

‘Consistency between teachers’ involved similarities in teachers’ expectations and ways of doing.

We have meetings once every term for each class. All the teachers get together so we come up with plans that we will all, or things that we would all do across their core subjects so there is continuity of the way they would come into a classroom or the way they do this or the way they do that, so they know that it's the same in every lesson. So it's setting those patterns for them. (Beatrice)

In all schools, some teachers disagreed with the practices set up by management or agreed upon by their colleagues (i.e., wearing the uniform, lateness to class, completing homework, giving detentions or stand downs). These teachers usually did otherwise, explaining their own functioning to their students.

‘Developing and applying a clear code of conduct’ was associated with the disciplinary systems in place in each school. Teachers highlighted the importance of such systems, although one participant mentioned needing more support.

I would like to be more strict but sometimes I feel that there are not the systems in place within the school to support me and it is like a one-man-crusade. (Abigail)

Again, some participants criticised the systems in place and dealt with issues arising with students in their own ways. Finally, this theme applied to classrooms too with most participants acknowledging the importance of setting clear boundaries in their class.

7.1.2.2 Resourcing.

Table 7.3 presents the results for the second most coded category, *resourcing*.

Table 7.3

Interviews analysis: number of coding references for each theme and teachers referring to each theme in the category resourcing per case study school

Themes for the category resourcing	Kānuka School (n = 8)		Nikau College (n = 9)		Ponga High School (n = 3)		TOTAL (n = 20)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Staff skills and training	15	1,3,4,5,7	60	3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,12,13	17	1,2,4,5	92	19
Location of education provision	11	1,3,5,7,8	51	3,4,5,7,8,9,12,13	16	2,4,5	78	16
Support for individual students	18	2,3,5,6,7,8	30	3,4,5,6,7,8,9,12	3	1,4,5	51	17
Teacher aides' work	11	2,3,4,6,7	15	4,5,6,7,8,9	18	1,2,4,5	44	15
Physical environment and technology	12	4,5,6,7,8	9	4,7,8,12	15	1,4,5	36	12
Funding	5	1,5,7	22	4,6,7,9	6	2,4	33	9
Support for staff	17	2,3,4,5,6,7	13	3,4,5,6,7,9,12	2	4	32	14
Access to expert support	5	5,7	11	3,4,6,9,10	2	1,4	18	9
Coordination of support	3	5	11	4,7,13			14	4
Management's impact on inclusion	4	1,5,7	3	4,9			7	5
TOTAL	101	8 teachers	225	10 teachers	79	4 teachers	405	22 teachers

‘Staff skills and training’ was the most coded theme in the category *resourcing*. Most participants said they needed to upskill in behaviour management and catering for diversity. However, some participants in each school described themselves as competent and confident teachers and commented on the skills and training of their peers.

I think there is genuine goodwill and people want there to be inclusion. However if I was honest I would say we have a way to go for staff to change their practice in order for inclusion to be, for us to enable students to be included ... I guess what I'm actually saying is that I don't think there is an intent to exclude. I just think there is perhaps still more knowledge, some skills, some understanding that's required to enable staff to move to where inclusion can actually happen. (Brian)

Specialist teachers and teachers in management or pastoral positions mentioned how some of their colleagues sent them students experiencing moderate to severe difficulties because of their lack of skills and training in dealing with those issues. On this point, three teachers affirmed that primary school training prepared teachers better for diversity and behaviour management compared to secondary education training. One was particularly annoyed about the small amount of education received in behaviour management.

I have got no training in behaviour management ... You do not get it taught and yes you have to learn it on the job. It's extremely annoying to me that you have to do it if you are not trained in it. That should be 50%, or half the amount of time at teachers training college should be on behaviour management. If you don't get the behaviour management right, you're screwed. (Caleb)

Participants were explicitly asked about their training needs. At Kānuka School, training in restorative practices was mentioned, consistent with the new programme implemented. A Nikau College teacher mentioned the will of the school to provide explicit PD on inclusion and how to meet the needs of SEN students in order to have a more unified discourse on inclusion. It was signalled, however, that PD was voluntary, resulting in a low turn out.

PD days have been good but they are voluntary. I go to them all. There might be eight people on it. (Barbara)

There has been certain teachers who have attended these certain [PD] modules who would be clear on what inclusion is and what current paradigm we are working under. But there would be other teachers who were perhaps educated in a different era who would have been given a different message about what inclusion was and maybe no message at all. (Brent)

Finally, two Ponga High School teachers wanted to learn about student diversity with particular interest in strategies to help students with ASD. Overall, many participants agreed they needed behaviour management PD. A few teachers however said they did not need such training because they did not face big enough behavioural issues or because their extensive experience was sufficient to deal with most problems. One teacher did not believe in the value of PD:

I don't think I would ever like to have training specifically on behaviour management because [sigh] my experience through teachers' college was that it was never very useful ... the work that we have been doing on restorative practice here has been very good for giving me a framework to work with, but as far as actual training to use it I have yet to go to a course or whatever where it's been effective. Like I say, every classroom is different. If you are role modelling it with some adult learners they are going to behave in ways that adult learners will behave, not the way a hyped up teenager or hyperactive teenager is going to behave. (Charles)

Generally speaking, school-based learning seemed to be preferred and many wanted to look at the behaviour management practices of their skilled peers: specialists or competent mainstream classroom teachers with or without special education training or teachers successfully working in tough schools (Abigail).

I really do wish I could see what other people do as best practice. (Barbara)

I would like to know how the guy next door can actually hold the kids in the palm of his hand in complete silence for 45 minutes and how they do what they are told. And I would like to know how he does it and what he does. And I would like to know what my boss does and how my boss builds relationships with them. I would like to know how the woman downstairs does it when she can tell them stories non-stop all the time. Each of these teachers have real gifts that I would like to discover, work out how it is that they do behaviour management and how they do the control and then take those ideas on with me. So I look upon the school and the system as a huge area or laboratory or school for me from which I can learn about how people manage kids ... As well as from the ones who don't succeed, the ones who fail abysmally. I would like to work out what went completely wrong. I would like to work out what it was that didn't work. I would like to work out what they could do different or better. (Caleb)

On this last idea, collaborative work was put forward by a few Nikau College participants as ideas to help teachers who struggled.

Professional learning groups work well. (Bernard)

I would like to see more focus groups for those teachers who are struggling. They need to see teachers in classrooms positively interacting with students to show them what good behaviour management looks like. (Brian)

Another Nikau College teacher believed that initial training from the Ministry of Education in behaviour management should be made compulsory and continued by the school team. Even the self-described competent and confident teachers believed that special education experts providing highly specialised interventions were sometimes needed to deal with severe behaviours. These teachers who kept up-to-date on behaviour management techniques through reading, watching videos, or attending PD sessions believed their knowledge and skills were not always sufficient for all students.

‘Location of education provision’ was related to the place where students should receive their education. Clear distinctions were made between mainstream classrooms and specialised settings (i.e., special units or schools, alternative education facilities). The mainstream classroom was considered the appropriate environment for most children so long as the difficulties were not too severe and that students could be supported by school resources: SENCO (Kānuka School); streamed classes and learner support (Nikau College); special unit, assisted mainstreaming, and learner support (Ponga High School); teacher aides, ORS funded teachers, specialist teachers, and RTLB (all schools). Despite the benefits of the regular classroom for SEN students, this option did not always work as some participants questioned the capacity of their school to cater for high or very high academic needs.

I think for the really challenged learning wise, whatever the learning problem is, then it's just how much money we've got in the system. If we can, if you're in a really big school, you've got a small antennal learning unit that specialises in trying to help them, but we're not big enough to have that here. So they just get tagged on to the mainstream. There are some advantages in that I'm quite happy to have them in [subject]. I think it does a lot of good to one or two of the students you saw yesterday but I sort of question in other subjects, probably sometimes it's just a complete waste of time in being in the room. (Allan)

Depends how severe they are. If their disability is too severe I don't think it's fair putting them in an ordinary mainstream class even in a development class. It's not fair on them I don't think. Socially it might be good for them but academically it's not good for them, it's not good for the teacher because there is always that separateness that you've got to say the class is doing this and you're doing this. (Bernice)

Holding a different view, a Ponga High teacher described the SEN special unit as an exclusionary setting. Generally speaking though, participants either wanted to keep the provision of education in special settings available or did not have a straight answer as to what was the best location for the provision of education for SEN students.

For example, inclusion doesn't necessarily have to mean all these kids with different needs all in the same class, not necessarily being included in mainstream classes but being included in some way in a school or being included in education in some way. You know not excluded from education like not being at home, stuck at home or whatever ... I mean inclusion in my opinion it's not just about physical location necessarily it's about something else so. But I don't think, I think what some teachers believe that inclusion will mean is that they can expect high behaviour needs kids, high mobility needs kids, high academic needs kids all in the same classroom and then be expected to deal with that which probably in our circumstances wouldn't work best. (Brent)

... I confuse myself over my opinions about who should be in and who should be out and who has the right to say who is in and who is out and how much should that cost the school ... (Bianca)

There was a palpable tension between the difficulties of having all students in the regular classroom (or what participants viewed as mainstreaming) and their benefits for students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Although the mainstream classroom would contribute to learning pro-social behaviours, behaviour difficulties were sometimes too disturbing to keep students in mainstream education.

I've had a student who had major violent outbursts ... And it was just not the right environment for him ... I had to basically keep him contained until we could find the right place for him which was an outside smaller specialised unit that worked with children with behavioural issues but there was only 10 of them and there were like five members of staff. (Beatrice)

Overall, it was the level of students' needs that would dictate the location of education provision. The higher the needs, the more specialised the setting.

'Support for individual students' was about giving extra help to students who struggled with their learning. Support was first provided by teacher aides, specialist teachers or SENCO, and external resources such as RTLB, although the access to these external resources was not the same in the three schools. At Kānuka School, extra staffing was viewed as limited and teachers were highly solicited to meet the needs of their students.

... it comes down to how much extra a teacher can do (Alice)

Some Nikau College teachers mentioned the necessity to better support students from the lowest ability classes (development) after Year 10, despite the individualised and classroom interventions provided by the teacher aides and specialist teachers. One teacher mentioned the need to also be aware of the needs of students with mental health issues. At Ponga High, the involvement of teacher aides and specialist teachers in systematic assessment and individual programming for students with lower literacy and numeracy was positively viewed, as was the support from the SEN teacher for the mainstreaming of SEN students. In all schools, funding was an essential condition for individual support.

I've worked in other schools where it's not been anywhere near as difficult ... I don't know if it's in this country either. And that may be because of lack of money. (Beatrice)

'Teacher aides' work' referred to teacher aides working with particular students or with the whole class. The work of a teacher aide attached to a particular student was frequently reported and was a condition for the presence of SEN students in the classroom.

Well, I couldn't cope if I hadn't had the teacher aide. I wouldn't have been able to teach her [SEN student] and the class. That would have been impossible because she was on a totally different programme. And she needed constant help with her writing and holding a pencil and stuff like that. (Bernice)

Teacher aides were also assigned to specific classes. Schools had guidelines with regard to teacher aides' work, but the data from this study indicated that it was often up to the teacher to decide who was responsible for students. Most teachers felt in charge of teaching and learning all students and believed teacher aides provided support to the whole group or individual students.

I have teacher aides in the classroom every day. Two or three on a good day. Normally, they are associated with one or two particularly problematic kids, but generally you just get them to do what it is you need in terms of helping the whole class. (Caleb)

Well, I think they [teacher aides] are aiding the students to get their work done so I mean I'm still setting and saying what they need to be doing and they just ensure that they can do it ... it's just another pair of eyes (Abigail)

However, it was not always clear who was in charge of teaching SEN students.

I have had some [students] with special needs. But we do have teacher aides helping with the development class and they tend to pick up those students and work one on one with them so that leaves me free to work with the rest of the class, although I do sort of check in with them sometimes. (Bernice)

This last excerpt is supported by information provided by teacher aides who mentioned that they sometimes became completely responsible for teaching and evaluating students as a result of long-term withdrawal, although this was done under the supervision of specialist teachers. The classroom teacher was not involved with the students anymore. Another example was that of a Ponga High School teacher confirming planning long-term work for the SEN students attending the class while the teacher aides assisted and assessed the students. This resulted, as observed by the researcher, in the teacher having very few interactions with SEN students in a given period and in SEN students being physically regrouped with their teacher aides in the classroom. Finally, two Ponga High School teachers criticised the work of teacher aides saying they were sometimes talking when the teacher was talking or pushing the students to finish their tasks quickly without making sure they learnt something.

According to teacher participants, 'physical environment and technology' could contribute to create an inclusive school. Not only did the physical environment need to be well organised, clean and welcoming, but adaptations were necessary for students with mobility issues to access classrooms and the curriculum. A Nikau College teacher deplored that a student in a wheelchair could not enrol in a particular subject because there was inadequate access to the room. This teacher also criticised the fact that a student in a wheelchair could not fully participate in assemblies where he was made to sit apart from his peers. The teacher said that things were positively changing however due to parents' and teachers' advocacy for the students. Adaptations made to a workstation in a technology class illustrated this positive change. Some participants also evoked the theme physical environment in relation to behavioural difficulties saying spaces for students to go to when their behaviours became too disruptive were needed. The schools did not necessarily provide for this however.

... some behaviourally challenged students do not react well in the initial roll-out into a group dynamic, and sometimes you may need to remove them somewhere to cool them down or to give them just a wee bit of de-stressing and so you've actually got to have that support in place so these things can happen because otherwise you get stressors build up that are almost impossible to deal with. (Amanda)

... if we have got students with behaviour issues who then start to exhibit those behaviour issues it impacts on everybody else in the area as well. So we have to sort of almost say

well certain behaviours we can't have down here because we haven't got the facilities to manage those students with what we've got because it disrupts too many other people at the same time. (Brent)

As for technology, it facilitated access to the curriculum. Technology was also viewed as a tool to support individual students and their learning.

... technology enables them to either partake, engage or demonstrate their true knowledge and understanding. (Brent)

Finally, technology presented risks. A participant explained how Nikau College was aware of this issue and ensured online safety. As briefly reported in 6.3.3, a Ponga High teacher monitored interactions on a social network during a weekend, finding out that a fight between two clans was preparing for the following Monday at school. Nothing happened fortunately as the potential altercation was reported to school management who met the students involved. This situation was viewed as highly problematic by the teacher who reported the incident.

'Funding' was referred to as a major issue by nine participants. For instance, a Kānuka School teacher and a Ponga High School teacher expressed concerns with regard to accessing funding.

And you know, in my view there should be more funding. Also the access to the funding is made really complicated sometimes ... they [MoE:SE] only have so and so much money available, it's never enough. (Alice)

In one of my Year 10 classes we have a child whose parents have managed to find a grant to get him a teacher aide who comes in and assists with several [subject] lessons a week ... They managed to find funding about half way through the year. It is a bit odd. (Charles)

The recent cuts at Nikau College in teacher aide time impacted negatively the support provided to the development classes and to students who had transited through those classes beyond Year 10. Two teachers were concerned with the potential disengagement of these students. Moreover, the lack of funding could also jeopardise access to the curriculum for some students, as explained below:

... I think schools should be funded to help all students with whatever their needs are and we're not. We really do struggle to provide for the needs of some of our students and it's a great shame. Simple things you could do for some of our students who come from homes where they are very poor. There are course fees attached to some subjects. If you

want to do hard materials technology it costs you money. If they've got no money how do they do that subject? And I know that this is not true just of this school but of most schools in New Zealand, actually we say "you can't do that subject sorry". (Bernard)

So funding would not be sufficient and difficult to access and funding-related decisions could impact on the school experience of some students.

'Support for staff' was defined by participants as the need to be supported in helping their students, specifically SEN students or students experiencing learning or behaviour difficulties.

I'm a great believer in inclusion as long as there is the support that the classroom teacher needs. If they just drop the children into a school environment and expect it to work it will very often not work. (Amanda)

The support needed was of the same nature than that targeted for individual students: teacher aides, SENCO and specialist teachers. There was however a general feeling, in all three schools, that support was often not sufficient, consistent with issues pointed out in relation to funding, support for individual students, and staff skills and training.

According to many participants, expert support was needed when students' difficulties were too severe. However, 'access to expert support' was difficult:

Group Special Ed [MoE:SE] as I understand comes in after the testing is done. Or if the school calls them in and say look this child is just way beyond anything we have ever dealt with, we need someone to come and see them. Then you can wait six weeks. In the meantime they are, you know we've literally had kids ripping up the place being violent ... (Beatrice)

For a Kānuka School teacher, expert help was needed to help students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties who had difficult family situations.

I am getting more dysfunctional families' children into my class. Their problems are amazing and I wonder how I can help them to learn when mum is drunk or dad beats them or mum, or I don't know if dad will let me in the house happens. How do you teach these children? How can you help them? Children with no social skills or conscience are unable to engage in classrooms. Are there any experts around that can help us cope with tragedies in the making? (Amanda)

‘Coordination of support’ referred to who was in charge of organising the resources to help students experiencing difficulties. This role was carried out by the SENCO or by the learning support staff. Finally, ‘management’s impact on inclusion’ was related to decisions made by school leaders that effected SEN students or students experiencing school difficulties.

And of course it depends on the principal, how much money he makes available through the Operations Grant. ... and everybody has a different idea about learning support and special needs. And one or two of these [former] principals have not been in favour of doing anything for students with disabilities. And that is very difficult. (Alice)

7.1.2.3 Inclusive values.

Table 7.4 presents the results for the category *inclusive values*, the third most coded category.

Table 7.4

Interviews analysis: number of coding references for each theme and teachers referring to each theme in the category inclusive values per case study school

Themes for the category inclusive values	Kānuka School (n = 8)		Nikau College (n = 10)		Ponga High School (n = 4)		TOTAL (n = 22)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Participation of all students	39	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	36	3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,12,13	31	1,2,4,5	106	22
Achievement and progress	13	1,2,3,4,6,7,8	41	3,4,6,7,8,9,10,12	39	1,2,4,5	93	19
Recognising and valuing diversity	10	4,5,7,8	26	3,4,6,9,12,13	24	1,2,4,5	60	14
Acceptance	15	1,2,4,6,7,8	9	3,6,13	5	1,2,4,5	29	13
Respect for all	10	1,2,4,7	8	3,7,8,13	4	2,4,5	22	11
Belonging	9	3,4,6,8	7	3,4,6,7	5	1,4,5	21	11
Sense of family and community	15	2,4,6,7,8	3	3,6	2	5	20	8
Building confidence	12	1,5,6,7,8	5	4,5,8,12	2	1	19	10
Developing an holistic being	3	1,8	3	6,9,12	3	1,4	9	7
TOTAL	126	8 teachers	138	10 teachers	115	4 teachers	379	22 teachers

The theme 'participation of all students' was found in many excerpts. It referred to participation or involvement in classroom activities. Many teachers expected their students to actively participate in the learning process.

I wouldn't like kids to be an island in my classroom, they're not expected to. So in a situation near the beginning of a unit of work, everyone has to contribute. They have to be involved in the setting up of the unit of work. (Barry)

This expectation of participation was linked with students engaging in their learning. There were two main views on student engagement. First, participants pointed out how their own practice impacted on student engagement. This view reveals the active role of the teacher towards keeping students engaged and fostering everyone's participation. For instance, participation was linked to making sure everyone spoke in class and to differentiating so that students could all participate in classroom activities at the appropriate academic level.

So I will try a wide range of ways to interact, of getting them to engage. Some will engage with books, some will engage with media, some will engage orally, some will engage mentally, some will engage physically, some will engage lots of different ways of interacting, yeah. (Caleb)

Second, other teachers believed that it was the students' responsibility to engage in learning.

If I know a student can do better, and they're not prepared to do the work, then maybe I get a little bit critical. You know to try and encourage them to actually start pulling their finger out. (Andrew)

It makes you want to cry sometimes when you see this attitude because you can see their whole future stretched in front of them, there is nothing, they're going nowhere. Just occasionally one of them will pick themselves up by their boot straps and say "Yes, I'm going to get an education, yes I'm going to do something about it" and they do but it doesn't happen very often. (Bernice)

Participation also referred to taking part in school-wide activities. Schools needed to offer opportunities for all students according to some participants.

... we have all the kids from Year 7 to 13 and some of the Year 6 involved in Friday afternoon sports, a fully inclusive thing. When we do sports day, athletics day, every single kid takes part and has a go. And when I was at [previous school] that was, it was

elitist again. Only the kids who were good at sport would take part in athletics day. So it was like a more selective thing. (Allan)

And so we should be looking at the needs of different groups and individuals for what activities are offered. What lunchtime activities are there? What clubs are there? What do we do as part of our social function? Do we cater for everyone? And we don't and I don't think you'd find very few schools that do but we try. (Bernard)

Finally, teachers recognised the importance of social participation, meaning that all students could be and share with peers the same age. That would lead to social benefits for all.

... not only is it of benefit for the student to fit in within his community and his peers and get to know them and so he can relate to them on the street, he's not, you know some kid that goes off to a unit in [city], but I think it's also incredibly valuable for the normal students to come across various members of the community with different needs and issues. It's very healthy for them that they're not all the same. (Amanda)

Social participation would also benefit students identified or perceived as experiencing behavioural difficulties.

The kids with behaviour issues in a mainstream class they see how other people react and sometimes you can point that out and say "Nobody else is acting like this. Why do you think they are responding to you like that?" Without that sort of situation I think they would miss out on a huge amount of school. (Charles)

Participants agreed that 'achievement and progress' should be judged against the students' own performance and based on expectations at the appropriate academic level. In other words, teachers saw achievement and progress happening when students gave it their best shot, whatever their level.

"Doesn't matter who's the best in the group or who's got the least ability in the group, I'm just looking for you to do the best you can do". (Allan)

Additionally, some participants believed it was important to celebrate and value achievement and progress at the students' level, but also in various learning areas. Nonetheless, teachers mentioned their role in making sure students achieved the best results possible in NCEA. While most teachers valued achieving the highest number of credits with the highest results, the very nature of NCEA was perceived as creating barriers to achievement and progress by some teachers.

I know English and Maths are now going to do Level 1 as a two year programme rather than a one year programme. And that's the only way they can see to help those children [development class] ... If you keep failing a four credit assessment and you don't understand algebra you're never going to pass it. Whereas if they had like a little two credit thing where they could pass at least they chip away at getting some credits and I really worry that they are going to be so disillusioned. (Beatrice)

I still feel, when I go to meetings and these other schools – we are the kind of school, we like that, we think that's really good and kids should feel and understand success – but there are schools saying you know “How can you figure out who your losers are if you are going to let everyone get something and why can't we say that this is more important than that?”. We still have that kind of hierarchy of importance, but a lot of those people would be the first to complain if they couldn't have some qualified person to fix their car for example or build their house ... So we have got to accept that 75% of our population [New Zealand] are not what some secondary schools see that is the whole point of their being. They see that the only pathway is you go to school to go to university whereas 75% of our kids don't do that. And we have got to accept that it's not failure, that's a different kind of success. And there is no hierarchy of what's most important. (Caroline)

Finally, Māori achievement was viewed as critical at Nikau College and Ponga High School. These schools needed to address the gap between Māori students and students from other ethnicities, although participants mentioned the gap was closing.¹⁰⁷

‘Recognising and valuing diversity’ was related to the increasingly diverse student population. Bernard described diversity in generic terms:

You've got to have the basic understanding that people are different. I think it's quite important for educators to keep an open mind about things and to be constantly trying to learn about different people. And yes you can put people into groups but you have to accept that everyone fits into a whole range of different groups. Those overlap, but no one fits squarely into one group you're going to say pigeon hole there, that's who you are. (Bernard)

Some teachers talked about specific areas where diversity was expressed (i.e., age, ethnicity, gender, ability, disability, religion, cultural beliefs, language, health, family, geographical area,

¹⁰⁷ This was not an issue at Kānuka School because Māori students achieved as high and higher than Pākehā students. More details are provided about catering for Māori students in section 7.1.2.4.

experience, interests, academic pathways, etc.). Teachers reported how they tried to create a climate where students' singularity was recognised and valued.

I guess right from Year 9 we start with where are you from? And then if someone is from somewhere different well then we treat it as really interesting and finding out about it and so then they feel special and the others feel that that's something if they can contribute where they are from even if it's a European one but like from Ireland or England or whatever that makes them a bit different and special too and it's something to be valued. (Blanche)

I put them [ideas about recognising and valuing diversity] into practice by mixing up the kids as much as possible, by challenging them to accept others, by not putting up or allowing them to be homophobic or racist or negative towards each other, by supporting them, by rejoicing in their differences, by drawing out their thoughts, by allowing them to shine, by showing them in a good way, by working with them. (Caleb)

I think we are quite accommodating in this school that difference is celebrated and we do have some young people that are confused about their identity. I have a particular student who wasn't there today in [subject], a boy who wants to be a girl. Yeah. So I call him her and she likes it. (Christine)

Despite the presence of this value in teachers' representations, students did not always recognise this diversity. Abigail and Bethany reported stories of students being rejected by their peers because of their difference. While reported in all three schools, the theme recognising and valuing diversity was particularly salient and important at Ponga High School.

We seek to celebrate the differences. We seek to reinforce the diversity, we seek to allow the other to reflect them as they are, to embrace the whole, not to exclude you know, to try and see them as they are in their own right, as their own person, as their own people. So we take all the people who other schools and other places reject and say is different and we welcome them. So if you come from another school or another place we welcome you no matter how damaged or scarred or hurt you are by your background, but we welcome as many types of people and as many different ranges of people as we possibly can and that's what makes us strong We are not the centralised you know the one, we are the many. (Caleb)

'Acceptance' was closely related to recognising and valuing diversity. It referred to accepting difference. Participants explained how they fostered acceptance among students.

I also think that it's important they accept each other and that's a big hurdle really for a teacher because obviously they are imperfect and they come in and when they fight and argue with each other and this one doesn't like that one and so teaching them how to be respectful of each other and listen to each other, that's a major part of the teaching programme. (Blanche)

The hardest thing was actually getting the other kids their minds at the place so they accept that [SEN student]'s different ... and he's just working at his own level. And it took a little while ... Once there's that level of acceptance, the inclusion seems to follow ... It's not something you can force on them though. You just have to create the opportunities for it to happen and it will. (Amanda)

Participants also believed that teachers needed to be accepting of all students.

So I think of my dyslexic kids and my kids with learning disabilities and accepting their difference and seeing how we can work with that. (Annie)

I just think that it's important as a teacher to be accepting of everyone who walks through the door basically into your room. And that includes where they are coming from in terms of their home values and their opinions and their motivation and all that sort of things. (Blanche)

One Kānuka School teacher had a different definition of the theme 'acceptance'. She defined it as accepting the disciplinary policies of the school, even if she disagreed. She gave the example of a student who had been impolite and aggressive towards a teacher without being stood-down. Even if other measures were undertaken by management to address the situation, the teacher disagreed with the decision. This definition is akin to consistency between teachers.

'Respect for all' was important in all three schools. It was associated with acceptance.

I think including people is also respecting each other, accepting the differences. (Bethany)

Many examples reflecting this theme were related to providing a safe environment and developing and maintaining positive relationships. For instance, respecting people meant not putting them down and involved mutuality in the relationship. That was true for student-student and student-teacher relationships.

You've got an individual relationship with those students as well as the group and you have to treat them with respect if they're going to treat you with respect. (Allan)

And respect is something you earn, it's not there. You may be respected by a lot of kids and eventually they might like you but they may not like you either and that's ok as well because if they respect you and you in turn you are respectful back, that's enough for the relationship. (Caroline)

'Belonging' was defined as being a member of a group of people, as fitting in, as being accepted as a member of the group, of the team, of the circle. Although this theme was mostly associated to students in general, a few references were made to SEN students being part of the group. For Caroline, belonging needed to be considered beyond school, in facilitating transitions to prepare students to be full members of society. Another viewpoint was Caleb's who described his school as a community of learners.

The theme 'sense of family and community' was salient and important mostly at Kānuka School, likely because of the size and rural situation of this school. This value was illustrated by participants saying they worked with students for a number of years and interacted with them in social contexts, thus creating a strong bond. Many excerpts provide examples to support this finding, but the words of Amanda explicitly illustrate this value:

There are quite a few adults in the high school area who care passionately about these kids, because they're our kids and it's our community. And I know myself that I'm still going to be interacting with these students when they're off in the community when they're builders and mothers and all of these other things ... I talk about the school being a family, but I'm not actually saying I would love it if they were a family, they actually are, they feel strongly attached to the community. (Amanda)

This sense of family was embedded in how the student-teachers and the school-community relationships were lived.

I find the kids at the school kind of more familiar. Like you almost feel like their aunty than their teacher ... I don't think you'd get that in a big school. (Abigail)

... because it's such a small community, parents tend to know what's going on at school anyway. (Ann-Marie)

Amanda expressed that close relationships fostered a sense of care for all children from the community including SEN students. However, she also mentioned that teenagers coming from outside and presenting with behavioural difficulties were perceived as if they did not fully belong.

The ones that we had that have been the most difficult to deal with are often severely dysfunctional families ... CYFS [Child, Youth and Family], in their wisdom, or social welfare have moved them into the rural environment, assuming that a nice wee country school would be a very good place for them and they have major issues and problems that we don't have the skills to deal with. (Amanda)

A few references to this theme were made by teachers from the other schools. Bernard, Caleb and Christine spoke about creating a community. Bethany used the word family to describe her class.

For me inclusion is in the classroom for the students to be included in the classroom. We are like a whole group, a whole family (Bethany)

'Building student confidence' meant encouraging and praising the students and making sure everyone experienced success at their level. Therefore, school difficulties would impact on student confidence.

And I think the problem we've got in our educational system is students who don't achieve and are just constantly put down and put down and put down, they don't build up any self-confidence or self-identity. (Allan)

It was thus important for participants that students had a measure of achievement and progress at their level and that schools and teachers worked towards this. Finally, 'developing a holistic being' essentially referred to catering for students beyond the academic abilities exclusively (i.e., social, health and body, culture, personality, identity, values, talents, interests, etc.). Agreeing with the majority, Caleb believed that helping students develop *as a whole person, as a holistic whole* was better done in primary schooling than in subject-orientated secondary education. Only Barry had a different view thinking that schools were taking too many non-academic responsibilities dealing with issues that should be addressed by parents.

7.1.2.4 *Social justice.*

Results for the category *social justice* are displayed in Table 7.5.

The main *social justice* idea found in participants' representations was that of 'equity and equality', as illustrated here:

...giving everybody a chance, giving everybody a go. A fair go as they say in New Zealand. (Bernice)

I think inclusion literally means, the definition it means school for all where special needs, Māori students, students of different social classes, colours, creeds, that school should be a place where they are all treated equally. (Brian)

For some participants, it was important to differentiate between equity and equality.

It's not about equality... if we are looking at inclusion we should be looking at what people need rather than giving everyone the same thing (Bernard)

I think that it's equity of opportunity. But I think equity is different from equality. It doesn't mean that everything needs to be exactly the same; it means that everyone has the same rights to learn and so therefore they have to learn with regard to the needs that they have. (Caroline)

Following this logic, some participants believed that the needs of all groups of students and individuals should be met with appropriate resources. Accordingly, groups of students should not be favoured inequitably. For example, a Nikau College teacher believed that *Te Kotahitanga* which focused on increasing achievement of Māori students inequitably poured resources on that one group of students while low ability students from various ethnic backgrounds were not properly catered for. Another Nikau teacher pointed out that asking for a medical certificate if students missed an assessment was an issue of equity given that all families could not pay for medical services.

Table 7.5

Interviews analysis: number of coding references for each theme and teachers referring to each theme in the category social justice per case study school

Themes for the category social justice	Kānuka School (n = 8)		Nikau College (n = 9)		Ponga High School (n = 3)		TOTAL (n = 20)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Equality/equity	2	3,6	24	4,5,6,7,9,10,12	7	1,4,5	33	12
Cultural responsiveness	2	1,4	15	3,4,5,6,9,10	11	1,4,5	28	11
Everyone has a voice	5	8	18	3,4,6,8,9,10,13	4	1,2,5	27	11
Teachers taking responsibility for students	2	4,5	8	3,4	16	1,2,4,5	26	8
Access to the curriculum	12	1,3,4,5,7,8	11	4,5,6,7			23	10
Obligation to enrol all students	5	5,7	5	4,7,9,12	5	1,5	15	8
Being an advocate for students	6	1,5,6,8	4	4,6,8	3	5	13	8
Resisting to changing practices	2	1,2	9	4,6,10	2	4	13	6
TOTAL	36	8 teachers	94	10 teachers	48	4 teachers	178	22 teachers

A Ponga High School teacher mentioned that almost all students were catered for, but including students experiencing behavioural difficulties revealed problematic:

... we are very good at being inclusive for probably 95% of our population. But I think we have that 5% of serious behavioural needs and it's more behavioural than intellectual that we actually do still have problems with. (Caroline)

Many other examples of issues related to 'equity and equality' are provided above (i.e., equal access to the curriculum, environmental adaptation, equitable distribution of resources, provision of work at the appropriate level, etc.). Finally, two teachers mentioned how students had a sense of equity or equality that needed consideration in their classroom practice.

... they really hate to think that you're being unfair or you're picking on them or somebody else so it's the same routines that are applied everyday to everyone. (Ann-Marie)

'Everyone has a voice' referred to listening to every individual or group in the school community. This would involve sharing and respecting different opinions and viewpoints. This theme had proximities with the inclusive values acceptance, respect for all, and recognising and valuing diversity. It also meant that teachers listened to their students, an idea linked with developing and maintaining positive and reciprocal relationships.

You listen to them; you talk to them, that's what this whole two-way street thing is all about. It's about not just educating but learning as you are educating. ... You've got to get a relationship with the students. As an educator you've got to be prepared to listen to what they have to say, listen to who they are, and understand. (Bernard)

It is important to know how the students feel about the way some teachers interact with them, more particularly about their behaviour. So I think we have a lot to learn from other teachers and also the students. (Bethany)

'Cultural responsiveness' involved being sensitive to the needs of students in relation to their cultural background. Most references were made in relation to being culturally responsive to Māori students, reflecting the bicultural heritage of the New Zealand society. Two Pākehā teachers affirmed strong views on cultural sensitivity.

... there are certain groups I definitely think in school who do feel excluded from education almost. I mean our Māori achievement programme in school Te Kotahitanga it is about making sure that Māori feel valued within education. (Bianca)

Also it comes from recognising that the educational system that we have set up is biased, is racist, is Pākehā orientated and that it's reinforcing and rewarding Pākehā endeavours. (Caleb)

Some teachers adopting this perspective put forward the idea that culturally responsive practices targeted for Māori students worked for everyone as well.

What was coming across was that the things that we were recommending for Māori students were genuinely good for all students, and they were simply good practice. (Brian)

I mean we have a big push in our school at why Māori students achieve and they don't achieve and we have got initiatives that they call Māori initiatives, but they are the same basic common sense stuff you know. (Caroline)

Most teachers also recognised the importance of being responsive to all other cultures. As mentioned above, one teacher was critical towards *Te Kotahitanga* because the programme targeted a group of students whereas students from all cultural backgrounds faced difficulties. Furthermore, this teacher believed that not all Māori students should be lumped together as a homogenous group as this could contribute to dismiss the needs of individual Māori students. A second teacher pointed out that the cultural background of every student should be valued in a multicultural perspective instead of focusing on Māori students from a bicultural viewpoint.

'Teachers taking responsibility for the students' was the recognition by teachers of their role as the first support person for their students. This responsibility was not to be exclusive and extra help could be provided. Notwithstanding, if a teacher aide was involved with a particular student, the planning, differentiation, teaching, and assessment remained the teacher's responsibility. Examples were given of teachers assuming this role and teachers passing on responsibility to someone else, whether teacher aides or learning support staff (see teacher aides' work in 7.2.1.2). One participant explained how teachers did not take responsibility for students perceived or identified as experiencing behaviour needs reintegrated in regular classrooms after a temporary placement in a special class.

And everybody was really pleased that that [special class] existed because it meant that they didn't have to deal with all the kids that had really bad ADHD or dyslexia or

whatever else. But when it came to the point of the year... to integrate them back in it, it was like all the barriers went up or down or anything that anyone else could do to stop them coming into their classroom they would do it. (Beatrice)

The teacher nuanced her discourse afterwards saying that some teachers took responsibility for these students.

I'm not saying every teacher ignores them lots of teachers do a really good job helping them and making sure that everyone keeps up... but there are vast numbers of teachers that don't. (Beatrice)

Here is a counter example of a concerned teacher taking full responsibility for the learning and achievement and progress of his students.

So failure is a constant pressure for me and there are things that wake me up in the night. I worry about them all the time. I worry about who should sit next to who and how they could react and what I could say and what I could do different or what I could do better and I reflect all the time ... I look upon them like these are my children, this is who I am responsible for (Caleb)

'Access to the curriculum' referred to the role of the schools in providing various curriculum opportunities for all students. For Allan, this appeared to be a problem in New Zealand secondary education.

And in NCEA, we are driven by curriculum ... Because you're just driven by, you've got to do all those units and get everything done and you've got no spare in the curriculum. (Allan)

Following a strict curriculum would leave little space and time for other options. Moreover, seeing NCEA as the main goal of secondary education could reduce the interest in developing different options, particularly for students experiencing school difficulties (see achievement and progress in 7.1.2.3). There were positive views regarding the options offered to students at Ponga High and Kānuka. However, Nikau College participants who referred to this theme generally agreed that the school did not provide as well as it could for students experiencing school difficulties. The following excerpt illustrates this situation:

There is no real accommodation made for the Year 10 development class. Most of them they are 15 going 16. Most of them are operating at the level of a 10-11 year old. And we have a development class in Year 9 and Year 10. Next year in Year 11 when they do

NCEA, there is nothing. There is not development, anything. They get the same choice of subjects as everyone else. The only exceptions are they will be streamed for English and maths and science... There is a computer type course, the basic computing course which was designed specifically for the lower ability children in the school and I think there are a couple of technology classes that are designed to get everybody on an equal footing ... And after that there is very little. It's scary. (Beatrice)

One solution to this problem was to redirect students to alternative education or the like.

We have been able to include some students in education, keep them in education but they are no longer with us at our school but I feel that they are included in education better than they were here. (Beatrice)

Other examples of barriers to accessing the curriculum at Nikau College were reported above (i.e., no wheelchair access and limited financial resources to enrol in fee-paying course).

'Obligation to enrol all students' principally referred to the New Zealand laws and policies fostering inclusive education.

... I believe we're actually very inclusive. We have to be. We are the only school for best part of an hour in any direction, we take any student that enrolls, and we do the very best we can for them. (Amanda)

... it's part of our laws in New Zealand anyway that all students have an equal opportunity. (Barry)

The word 'opportunity' was used in the excerpt above. Interestingly, the notion of 'right' was not mentioned very often. No one used it at Kānuka School. It was mentioned twice at Nikau College with one teacher saying that all students had equal rights to education and another mentioning that accommodations could be made for students having specific religious requests so long as it did not impinge upon the rights of others. At Ponga High School, one teacher highlighted the right of Māori and Pasifika students to achieve, one mentioned the right to transition smoothly into adulthood, and one recognised every student's right to an education. Even if some participants acknowledged the mandatory enrolment of all students, they recognised that schools did not always want all students.

Everyone should be in school, who we have to accept. Sometimes there are students that we do not want, but we have to take them because we are legally obliged to. And I think everybody has the right to an education in this country and in this city. (Christine)

... if the hierarchy do not want challenging students in their school there are ways and means for getting them out. (Amanda)

In particular, it appeared difficult to cater for students perceived or identified as experiencing high behavioural needs whose enrolment was imposed on the school. A Ponga High School teacher who had a very positive view of inclusion and described himself as welcoming of diversity saw major limits to the capacity of schools to enrol these students.

... there is an inability to get rid of kids who are causing problems. There is nowhere to go. We have become the toxic waste ground, the dumping ground for a catchment from here to infinity basically. And well people are not working it out, and they will often end up here. To manage them out, we have one or two kids and they can take you huge amounts of time and energy, it takes you months and weeks and years to get rid of kids who are problematic. And the amount of energy it takes breaks people you know. (Caleb)

‘Being an advocate for the students’ was linked to teachers taking responsibility for the students. Teachers taking up an advocacy role not only felt responsible for the learning and well-being of their students, but they voiced their position if they thought students were treated unfairly, linking this theme to equity or equality. There were teachers-advocates in all three schools. A Kānuka School teacher explained how Māori and Pasifika boys who also happened to be low achievers and experienced behavioural issues were stopped from playing rugby, an activity in which they achieved brilliantly, for disciplinary issues in core classes. The advocate would still let them play to keep their confidence level up. A Nikau College teacher in a pastoral care position had to mediate a conflict between a student and a teacher. It appeared evident that the teacher was wrong and the mediator, in a meeting with the student and parents, had to take the student’s side. A Ponga High teacher interrupted the interview when a school manager passed by to defend a student who had been stood-down following a conflict with a reportedly confrontational teacher.

‘Resistance to changing practices’ was formulated as a criticism towards other teachers who did not want to change their ways to better support their students, as expressed by Bernard:

Unfortunately there are still those who will say “Well we don’t want to be inclusive, we don’t want those sorts of people in our school, it makes life difficult why should we do that?” And it’s a reality which we as educators and those of us who want to be inclusive have to face is that we are going to have to try, work to change people’s opinion and you can’t do it by saying you’ve got to do this. You’ve actually got to make people think

differently which is going to be a long and difficult task. And I don't think in the near future we are going to achieve it because some people are very much set in a particular way. (Bernard)

Section 7.1 reported the main elements of the social representations of inclusion teacher participants described. The next section looks at their representations from a different angle, focusing principally on the positions teachers held about inclusion and behavioural difficulties.

7.2 Positioning Towards Inclusion and Behavioural Difficulties

Teachers' position towards inclusion and behavioural difficulties are presented in three subsections: attitudes towards inclusion, agreement about inclusion and representations of behavioural difficulties.

7.2.1 Attitudes towards inclusion.

Participants were asked *Are you in favour of inclusion?* The positive, negative or ambivalent nature of the very first sentence of their immediate response to this question is illustrated in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6
Nature of participants' attitudes towards inclusion

Attitudes towards inclusion	Kānuka School (n = 8)	Nikau College (n = 10)	Ponga High School (n = 4)	TOTAL (n = 22)
Positive	3	6	4	13
Negative	1			1
Ambivalent	4	4		8

A majority of participants spontaneously expressed a positive attitude. However, no matter the position expressed, all participants identified conditions to inclusion when developing their ideas further in interviews. Here is an overview of these conditions which are related to some of the themes presented in 7.1.2.

Student-related conditions:

- students' needs not to be too 'severe' for education provision in a mainstream class (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- behavioural challenges presented by some students need not to be too 'severe' for education provision in a mainstream class (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School).

The severity of students' needs was a condition for inclusion and teachers would not be willing to work with students whose needs were high or very high without the other conditions being met. They doubted the capacity of the school and their own capacity to meet severe needs. Importantly, the needs of students experiencing important behavioural difficulties would be particularly difficult to meet.

I think the behavioural ones are the actual most difficult ones to handle. They are the ones who get the least support too disquietly. (Amanda)

Resource-related conditions:

- sufficient funding to support staff and students (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- support for staff from teacher aides and/or specialists (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- support for individual students by school staff (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- support for individual students by specialised staff and resources (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- support for individual students in a mix of different locations of education provision meeting their specific needs (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- provision of a safe environment for SEN students in mainstream classrooms and at school in general (Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- low number of students experiencing learning or behavioural difficulties per mainstream class (Kānuka School, Nikau College).

Conditions related to the provision and organisation of support were reported in all three schools with particular emphasis put on funding, support for staff, and multiple modes of

support for individual students (i.e., school resources, specialists, educational settings). Providing a safe environment was a condition enunciated in the two big urban schools. A low number of students experiencing school difficulties per class was a condition mentioned by Kānuka School and Nikau College participants.

Teacher-related conditions:

- teachers should not resist to change their practices (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School);
- trained and skilled teachers (Kānuka School, Nikau College, Ponga High School).

Participants from all schools believed that teachers should not resist modifying their practices to better meet the needs of their students. Although reported in all schools, a strong focus was put on teachers' skills and training as a condition for inclusion at Nikau College. This is aligned with the emphasis Nikau College put on PD for staff as well as with the views of many participants on the lack of skills and training of their colleagues (see 7.2.2).

Conditions related to school culture:

- school culture that supports inclusion (Kānuka School, Nikau College);
- clear discourse on what inclusion is among school staff (Nikau College).

Lastly, in relation to the school culture being supportive of inclusion, the situation of Kānuka School fostering the culture of a small rural school encouraged the social participation of SEN students and students experiencing school difficulties. One participant believed that the school had a flexible enough structure to permit the provision of work at the appropriate level for students. That being said, participants from Kānuka still believed that the needs of the students were not to be too 'severe' for inclusion in their school. Interestingly, two participants believed there needed to be more coherence and clarity on what inclusion was at Nikau College. As for Ponga High School, teachers mentioned a strong commitment to inclusion as part of the school's *tikanga*.

7.2.2 Agreement about inclusion.¹⁰⁸

Participants' perceptions of an agreement about inclusion among their colleagues were sought, giving them an opportunity to reveal counter-normative elements or elements considered as a given for the school community (see 4.5.3.2). This was also a way to learn how and in what circumstances participants talked about inclusion with their colleagues.

Three of the eight Kānuka School teachers felt there was agreement about inclusion among their colleagues, although this remained informal and although one of these teachers had difficulties defining inclusion in the first place. These participants conceded that they talked about inclusion only when they shared information and supported each other in providing support for individual students. Likewise, another participant stated that there was no evidence of visible agreement about inclusion. Three other teachers thought people disagreed and commented on the work of their colleagues. One among them formulated a general comment about the lack of skills of some colleagues while another teacher was positive about the principal and a peer who were perceived as effective in using restorative practices and developing positive relationships with the students. However, this person also felt that some colleagues were resistant to changing their practice. The last teacher said that a colleague was too “pally” with the students thus setting different standards of interactions which had an impact on the consistency between teachers.

At Nikau College, two teachers mentioned they were unsure about what inclusion meant, although one of these participants had been provided with PD on inclusion. Two teachers thought there was agreement about inclusion in their school, mostly due to a strong school policy fostering cultural responsiveness and differentiation. The other six teachers did not believe there was agreement about inclusion at Nikau College. Here are the reasons they gave:

- no clear policy and discourse at school;
- management trying hard to get the message across, yet unsuccessfully;
- school focus on cultural responsiveness should rather be based on responsiveness to students' abilities;
- teachers confound inclusion with differentiation, as if inclusion was only about differentiation;
- lack of skills and training;
- teachers resist to changing practice;

¹⁰⁸ Excerpts from interviews are not provided in this section because references are made to teachers criticising their colleagues with regard to specific situations. Presenting direct quotes from teachers could lead to identifying some participants.

- perception that inclusion was only about the location of educational provision for all children in a mainstream class;
- non-recognition of inadequate access to the curriculum for lower ability students;
- denial of the school's obligation to enrol all students;
- provision of an unsafe environment by harmful teacher practices (i.e., shouting or saying personal remarks about students in class).

At Ponga High School, the responses were divided as well. One teacher believed that most staff agreed on the importance of recognising and valuing diversity. Another teacher thought that there were still some colleagues who were resistant to changing their practices and to welcoming all students in their regular classrooms, thus referring to the location for educational provision. The other two teachers were unsure. One believed, on the one hand, that school policies such as restorative practices fostered inclusion while thinking, on the other hand, that people did not talk about inclusion formally. The second said that people knew what an inclusive school ought to be but some were still resistant to changing their practices.

7.2.3 Representations of behavioural difficulties.

The information reported in Chapter Six (see 6.1.3, 6.2.3 and 6.3.3) about the behaviours teacher participants encountered in their practice provided a good indicator of their representations of student behaviour. Further analysis of interview data has allowed identification of the causes teachers attributed to student difficult behaviours. The three main categories of causes for disruptive behaviours found in Phase One (see 5.5.3) were reflected in participants' attributions for the behaviours they encountered in their practice.

Category one regrouped school-related attributions, including the lack of resources to deal with difficult behaviours. They also referred to teachers reflecting and questioning their own teaching or behaviour management practices and how they impacted on student behaviour.

... I think classroom management is one of my, is not a strength with me. And I think part of it is because I can be flexible in my expectations, I probably sometimes give students the wrong message. (Andrew)

... the one that bugs me most is people talking over each other. It's a never ending battle I think because, and probably because I quite like a lively classroom. So yeah it's getting that balance right between a lively classroom where people have got things to say and

they want to say things, and actually having the level of respect whereby people are listening to each other as well. (Bernard)

Others criticised colleagues, whether at their school or teachers in general.

... because I was perceived as being able to cope and deal with these children, they started sending them direct to me and so I was actually flooded with silly things. (Amanda)

... so any problem that arises will be a relationship sort of an issue or a student who has brought some issues into the classroom or a teacher who has brought some issues into a classroom and I'm really hot on that. (Barry)

The second category of attributions were student-related, referring to the condition or characteristics of the students.

Last year ... there was a couple of Year 10 boys who were kind of type-A personalities and kind of pushing pushing pushing to see where my boundaries were. (Annie)

There is no getting through to saying if only you would settle down and stop this behaviour you might learn something, but there is just no getting through to them. (Bernice)

Students' difficulties with learning were also linked to disruptive behaviours.

... I think 90% of the time when it's persistent bad behaviour it's linked to their learning. The one off once maybe it's something else that's happened and they come you know a chip on their shoulder, a bit of baggage, but yeah. I do think these persistent disrupters is usually linked to their learning. (Ann-Marie)

Quite often you find that a student that might find the task particularly difficult rather than having a go at it, they might find some sort of diversionary tactic to actually avoid doing it: "I haven't got my pencil" or "I need to go to the toilet" or "I can't find the page in the book" you know, anything like that, anything to slow down the process of actually getting the task done. (Andrew)

The third category of attributions for behavioural difficulties were linked to the family or background of the student.

One has got an awful home life and just does not know how to behave in class, what to do, how to start, how to do anything really. (Bernice)

I've got one kid he lives almost next door to the school, he's late every single morning ... The fact that he isn't out on the streets doing bad things is a major achievement. I know his family background is bad. It would be so easy for him to fall into a really criminal lifestyle. (Bernard)

It must be mentioned that not all attributions were negative as there was also an acknowledgement by a few participants that some parents were supportive.

7.3 Educational Practices Used to Manage Difficult Behaviour

The information presented in this section comes from observational data and interviews. The first subsection describes the practices directly witnessed by the researcher in the 24 classrooms visited. The second subsection presents the relationships established between the observed practices and the elements of representations as discussed by participants during the interviews.

7.3.1 Results from the observations sessions and self-report forms.

The results from the observation sessions are reported in Table 7.7. Eighteen teachers were observed in 24 sessions. Two Kānuka School and two Nikau College teachers preferred not to be observed. One of the Kānuka teachers completed three self-report forms.¹⁰⁹

On examining Table 7.7, it appears that the most coded practices consisted of learning-focused pre-emptive and preventative strategies which built on positive behaviour management. Generally speaking, the following scenario happened in the classrooms visited. The *verbal instructions* given by participants were mostly used to set or to guide the learning tasks. Teachers made sure everyone had the appropriate *material* to execute the task and *questioned students* to guide their learning. They *assessed students' work* by *roving the class* and *providing one-on-one help* when needed. They also helped students *managing their time*.

¹⁰⁹ The practices Ann-Marie recorded on her self-report forms included: (a) time out and discussion outside the classroom with a student who was *wandering around the room going through the pencil cases of other students, taking items and running around the class with them*; (b) setting an after-school detention, after talking to parents and senior management, as a consequence for not attending a lunch time detention; and (c) withdrawal from the classroom followed by a restorative conversation with a student who was *refusing to work and created 'uproar'*.

Table 7.7

Number of coding references for observed practices and teachers referring to each practice per case study school

Observed practices	Kānuka School (teachers = 6) (sessions = 7)		Nikau College (teachers = 8) (sessions = 10)		Ponga High School (teachers = 4) (sessions = 7)		TOTAL (teachers = 18) (sessions = 24)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
One-on-one help with task	15	2,3,7	87	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	45	1,2,4,5	147	15
Praise	41	1,2,3,4,7,8	68	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	35	1,2,4,5	144	18
Verbal instructions	44	1,2,3,4,7	63	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	22	1,2,4,5	129	17
Manage material	13	1,2,3,4,7	58	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	53	1,2,4,5	124	17
Rove the class	16	2,3,4,7	76	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	25	1,2,4,5	117	16
Question	38	1,2,3,4,7,8	51	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	19	1,2,5	108	17
Assess/check work	16	1,3,4,7	53	3,4,5,6,7,8,12	16	1,2,4,5	85	15
Non-verbal sign	19	1,2,3,4,7	33	3,4,5,6,8,12,13	27	1,2,5	79	15
Humour	34	1,2,4,7,8	33	3,4,5,6,7,8,12	11	1,2,5	78	15
Call student name	28	2,3,4,7	36	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	13	1,4,5	77	15
Discussion with students	19	1,2,4,7,8	28	4,5,6,7,8,12	21	1,2,4,5	68	15
Reminder	16	1,2,3,4,7	35	3,4,5,6,7,8,12,13	11	1,2,4,5	62	17
Manage time	11	2,3,7,8	26	3,4,5,7,8,12,13	10	1,2,4,5	47	15
Proximity	14	1,2,3,4,7	14	3,4,5,6,7,12	12	1,2,4,5	40	15
Greet, welcome students	10	1,2,3,4,7	13	4,6,7,12,13	17	1,2,4,5	40	14
Set class expectations	13	1,2,3,7	13	3,4,5,6,7,8,12	12	1,2,4,5	38	15
State inappropriate behav.	18	1,2,3,4,7,8	5	3,4,6,8	8	1,2,4,5	31	14
Wait for silence	8	1,2,3,4,7	19	3,5,6,13	3	5	30	10
Reinforce appropriate behav.	9	1,2,7,8	15	4,6,7,8,12	3	1,5	27	11

Table 7.7

Number of coding references for observed practices and teachers referring to each practice per case study school (continued)

Observed practices	Kānuka School (teachers = 6) (sessions = 7)		Nikau College (teachers = 8) (sessions = 10)		Ponga High School (teachers = 4) (sessions = 7)		TOTAL (teachers = 18) (sessions = 24)	
	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Teachers	Coding references	Number of teachers
Redirect on task	12	2,3,4,7,8	2	3,13	6	1,5	20	9
Give the look	4	1,2,7	9	4,5,6,7,8	3	5	16	9
Manage attendance			6	3,4,5,6,8,12	9	1,2,5	15	9
Give a responsibility	5	1,2,7	6	4,7,8	2	1,5	13	8
Tactical ignoring	9	1,3,4,7	2	5			11	5
Count to three	2	2,3			6	2	8	3
Apology to student	4	1,4,7	1	6	2	1	7	5
Shift desks	3	2,4,7			2	4,5	5	5
Give time to comply	4	2,3,7			1	4	5	4
Removal of a reward	3	4	2	3,4			5	3
Refer to school management			4	5	1	4	5	2
Write name on the board			4	3,7,12			4	3
Give consequence	1	2	2	4,5			3	3
Modelling behaviour	1	8	1	13	1	5	3	3
Time out	3	1,2					3	2
Give limited choices					2	1,4	2	2
Withdrawal					2	4,5	2	2
Use discipline system			1	4			1	1

Then, if students were off-task, talked when they were not meant to, or started to display disruptive behaviours, teachers used various strategies: making a *non-verbal sign* to students, deflecting the situation *humorously*, *calling the student's name*, having a quick and quiet *discussion with the student*, giving a *reminder*, going next to the student (*proximity*), restating the *classroom expectations*, *stating the inappropriate behaviour*, *waiting for silence* or *counting to three*, *reinforcing the appropriate behaviour* and *tactically ignoring the inappropriate behaviour*, *redirecting on task*, '*giving the look*', or giving the disruptive student a *responsibility* as a way to redirect him or her on task. Teachers also gave *direct verbal instructions* to students, asked them *questions* about what they should be doing, or *modelled the appropriate behaviour*. If after many attempts the strategies selected did not work and the student did not comply after being *given time* to do so, then more targeted interventions were put forward such as giving *limited choices*, writing the *student's name on the board*, *shifting desks*, *removing a reward*, *giving an after-class consequence*, *time out*, and even *referral to school management* and *withdrawal*.¹¹⁰ Overall, there was a progression in intervention which is shown by the diminution of the coding references as the practices became more serious. It has to be noticed that there were some discrepancies between teachers with some moving more quickly on to behaviour-focused interventions than others.

The number of coding references for each practice presented in Table 7.7 are context dependent. This could explain in part why some pre-emptive and preventative practices received lower coding references. For instance, *managing attendance* through monitoring the presences on the student management system was common in the bigger schools, but this practice was not observed at all at Kānuka School possibly because of the small class sizes. *Greeting and welcoming students* was not always observable because the students were sometimes already in class before the researcher arrived. Lastly, *using the school discipline system* was only observed when a student carried a behavioural contract. This happened on one occasion.

¹¹⁰ On a few occasions, withdrawal was used for students to receive targeted teaching and not necessarily for disciplinary purposes.

In addition to the above-mentioned practices, the researcher observed specific interventions when more significant behaviour incidents occurred (recorded as field notes). These are reported below since they were discussed and commented by participants during the interviews.

7.3.2 Results from the interviews: main practices discussed by participants.

This subsection aims to link the practices of teacher participants to their representations of inclusion. It is through these explanations and justifications that those links are established.

7.3.2.1 Relationships between inclusive practices and observed practices.

Participants established links between the practices observed in class and the inclusive practices reported in 7.1.2.1. The most important links are presented below.

First, although differentiation was the most salient inclusive practice in teachers' representations, it was difficult to observe in class because the researcher was not aware of the level of the students nor did she have access to student material. However, some participants explained how they enacted differentiation referring to practices reported in 7.3.1. A Kānuka School teacher explained how she provided *one-on-one help with the task* and *assessed the work* of a student participating in a differentiated programme.

[The SENCO] has been absolutely fabulous with the Year 9 and 10 student that we have and has compiled fairly much a worksheet based, a little booklet of worksheets based on his level... [The SENCO]'s assessed him for me ... and then she's developed a booklet for him and as I'm going around the other students, I'll stop and talk to that young man about what he's actually doing. (Amanda)

Notwithstanding the support given and the level-appropriate task, this student completed the booklet without participating in the learning activity of the rest of the group during the observation session. A different example is provided by a Ponga High teacher who planned a writing task for the class and provided *one-on-one help with the task* to a student for whom it was adapted. The teacher set *clear expectations* asking the student to complete a writing task as well. During the same observation session, another student, perceived as often distracting his peers, was *withdrawn with a teacher aide* to complete a targeted teaching programme. A fourth example was given by a Nikau College teacher who provided notes to some development class students to glue in their notebook instead of copying them down because the teacher wanted

them all to complete the activity in the same timeframe. This teacher *managed the material* in a differentiated way.

Second, teachers talked about how they developed and maintained positive relationships with their students. *Greeting and welcoming* the students when they entered the room was a first step towards positive relationship building and most teachers observed did it. Part of creating positive relationships was also through using *humour* in class.

I use humour as my tool of choice and I think that leads to developing these really nice little relationships (Christine)

Many participants admitted they *apologised to students* if they made a mistake. Developing and maintaining positive relationships was also closely attached to *restorative practices* which were utilised to repair or restore a relationship. This could be done through an apology.

Normally if I have done something wrong I apologise and say publicly to the class "Look, I'm sorry I went overboard on this I was wrong". Or if I had accused someone of doing something and they haven't done it then I back down and say "Look I'm really sorry" ... I would do it in the next period in order to heal the relationship. (Caleb)

Restorative practices were difficult to observe beyond the pre-emptive and preventative strategies they entail (see 2.5.6), although there was one situation where a restorative process really came into action. Abigail opened up her lesson (observation session) telling the students that her brand new pens the students borrowed during their previous lesson were stolen. She explained that she was hurt, felt disrespected, and wanted restoration through getting her pens back. Dealing with the situation in a restorative way, she tried not to target specific students:

... if you go in with teenagers and accuse them and it's not them and they're there for the end of the year, you just ruined any relationship you've got with them (Abigail)

Consistent with this, she asked every young person to go outside the room one after the other taking their bag with them, thus giving everyone an equal chance to give the pens back without further harm being done. The pens were not rendered immediately but were brought back the next day. The last practice related to developing and maintaining positive relationships is *setting a seating plan*. Albeit most teachers distributing the seats tactically to avoid disruptions, others let the students select their own seats because they did not want to force relationships upon students.

I don't believe in forcing students who are uncomfortable with each other. We're such a small group that if you force them to sit beside someone that they had a falling out with it's only going to make it worse not better. You're not going to get good quality learning.
(Amanda)

Third, teachers tried to create a positive classroom climate and to provide a safe environment. Again, *greeting and welcoming* the students in class was a good way to create a safe classroom. *Humour* was mentioned as well with the condition to avoid sarcasm as it could make students feel unsafe and undervalued. A safe environment could be created when *clear expectations* were set and students knew what they were meant to be doing. Moreover, *one-on-one help* provided to students made the learning experience safer for students who struggled according to some participants.

He struggles with his work and in his defence, whenever he feels uncomfortable, to deflect the tension away from that, he'll get a little bit silly or start playing up a bit. As soon as he gets his one-on-one attention or I set him different work... as soon as I've given him the attention, I've set him on his coursework, he's fine. But it's when the work is set generally and he sits there, panics a little bit and it's when the behaviour occurs.
(Ann-Marie)

Positive ways to help students engage in their learning such as *redirecting on task* also contributed to creating a safe environment whereas *stating the inappropriate behaviour* could lead to creating tensions.

Yeah you don't say "ah you're off-track you're not doing the right thing". You just ask them a question. And then you give them a way out, you say "you can ask your friend, you can ask the guy beside you or you can ask the girl beside you or you can ask whoever" so that they don't feel on the spot if they don't know the answer. (Caleb)

Assessment of students' achievement and needs was informally done through teachers *roving the class* and *assessing the work* achieved during the lesson. Formal assessment of students was not visible during classroom observations, but one teacher from Nikau College linked it to *setting a seating plan* in her interview.

...first of all in the year I seat them alphabetically so that its purely random where they are and then they do the asTTLe¹¹¹ and we get the asTTLe results and so we have been asked to seat them in [name of the department] by the asTTLe results ... so I have the higher asTTLe results at the back, the lowest ones at the front and the others the average ones in the middle. And it really works well because if there is a problem that they don't understand you can actually work with three at a time because they are all at the same level. So the three who sit here at the front I can talk to all three of them about the same problem and also pull in somebody from there and somebody from here and it really works well and they don't mind. They didn't like it at first. [The researcher asking: "Yes because do you tell them that they're sitting..."] Yes I say "I'm sitting you on your asTTLe results" and they go "Oh I'm stupid" you know and they make comments but they get used to it, they get used to sitting where they are and then they get used to me being able to help them. (Bernice)

This was perceived as an inclusive practice by the participant who argued that this helped providing work at the right curriculum level and allowed to support students individually.

Consistency between teachers was associated with *using the school discipline system*. In a Nikau College classroom, that was observed as the teacher completed a behavioural contract for a student at the end of a lesson. The school discipline system was used at Nikau College and Ponga High School when two teachers *withdrew* students and made *referrals to school management*. This was planned in the school procedures. Beyond the school system, teachers also mentioned the need to be consistent in their classroom. Essentially, this was done through *setting clear classroom expectations* as part of the class rules or code of conduct and making sure students met those expectations.

... you've got to follow through, if you say something you got to do it. (Allan)

In the end, no direct relationships were established by participants between observed classroom practices and the following inclusive practices described in 7.1.2.1: appraising professional practice, collaborating and communicating, facilitating transitions, and defining, developing, or reviewing the curriculum. Teaching social skills and self-control was observed in some classes as part of the curriculum taught.

¹¹¹ The asTTLe is a standardised assessment tool giving information on students' achievement and progress in reading, writing and mathematics.

7.3.2.2 Relationships between resourcing issues and observed practices.

Fewer direct relationships were established between resourcing issues and observed practices than with the previous category of inclusive practices. Essentially, the resourcing issues associated with the observed practices were support for individual students, teacher aides' work and support for staff.

In the classroom, support for individual students was first linked with the provision of *one-on-one help with the task* as teachers spent time with individual students guiding their learning. Teachers also supported students individually through *praise and encouragement*. In line with the information provided in 7.1.2.2, *teacher aides supported* students during a number of observation sessions: (a) none at Kānuka School; (b) two at Nikau College, including one attached to an individual student and one to a class; and (c) three at Ponga High School, including one attached to a classroom, one attached to a group of mainstreamed SEN students, and one who worked with a student in a different room. Further support was provided to the teachers on two occasions, combining *classroom withdrawal* and *referral to school management*. First, a group of four students were late to a Nikau College development class and the teacher asked them to pick up 10 pieces of trash on the school grounds as a consequence already set in the code of conduct for this specific class. As the students never really came back and were being disruptive, they were withdrawn and referred to school management. Interestingly, another teacher said that the development class was the best the school could do to avoid the students being withdrawn.

I think it's the best the school can do because if they were in a mainstream class they would be excluded because of the level of the work and most of the time they would be physically excluded from the class because they would be kicked out because of their behaviour. (Beatrice)

Second, in a Ponga High class, a student refused to shift seats as demanded by the teacher even after being given time to comply. After a few minutes, the teacher sought help from a learning support manager. The student was withdrawn and referred to that manager.

Finally, staff skills and training were indirectly associated to the *use of restorative practices* because some teachers, mostly from Kānuka School, asked to be trained in those practices. No direct links were established with the other themes in the category resourcing, namely coordination of support, management's impact on inclusion, access to expert support, funding, and physical environment and technology.

7.3.2.3 Relationships between inclusive values and observed practices.

Achievement and progress were fostered by the provision of *one-on-one help* and were reinforced through teachers *praising* the work of their students. This is what Abigail explains below when she reports how she praised her students and *reinforced on-task behaviour* while *roving the classroom* and *assessing the work* accomplished by her students experiencing difficulties with their learning.

I know there's a couple of boys you just keep an eye on what they're doing and I think and probably like have different expectations of what they can do compared to the other kids ... and they probably can see that they're way behind the others but for them they're actually doing okay so it's probably just for them to hear you know "Hey, look you're doing good" even though the others might have finished it they haven't, I don't know, so they don't feel crappy all the time that they're behind just to say "Hey no you're going okay". (Abigail)

Praise was explicitly given by Allan in *discussions with individual students* during his lesson to help students achieve their learning goals and foster their engagement. Beatrice and Blanche set fragmented expectations for the task in that they gave clear *verbal instructions* for the first part of the task and then *assessed the work* of students before explaining the second part of the task *one-on-one* or with small groups of students. It is through these practices that teachers believed they could help students achieve and build their confidence as well.

Many participants pointed out the important role of teachers to foster participation in classroom activities (although a portion of the participants believed students were first responsible for their participation). This role referred to everything teachers did so that students actively participated in the lesson and stayed on task. Therefore, all the learning-focused pre-emptive and preventative strategies reported in 7.3.1 were linked to participation. Nevertheless, the first condition for student participation was their presence at school, linking participation to *managing attendance*. One Nikau College teacher told how managing attendance occurred with a particular student who was always late. The teacher reported not giving detentions as prescribed in the school's discipline procedures, but encouraging the student in a positive and *humoristic* way through frequent *individual discussions* instead.

Student presence in the classroom was a prerequisite for participation. A distinction was made between two practices involving sending students outside the class. First, teachers used *time out* to send students out for a few minutes as a way to cool the disruptive student down, to ventilate

a little, and for other students to get on with their work. Although time out was only observed three times by the researcher, many teachers talked about that practice.

I think especially teenage boys they get backed into corners ... and sometimes they just need a [taking a deep breath] to take five. And sometimes as a teacher I think I need that too so if I give them a bit of space and then when the class is in the midst of doing something else I just go and have a chat with them and then we move on from there. (Ashley)

I actually had to exclude one of the development students yesterday from the class because they were being so disruptive to the other 14. And that happens quite often, they will, one of them will kick off and despite your best tactics and trying everything you know they just won't settle and they won't do as they're asked. (Beatrice)

Often it's just to get 5 or 10 minutes of peace away from them, not so much for them, but more for you so you can actually have the time and space to see them in a different light. So they are going to spend 5 minutes in the sunshine so much the better. (Caleb)

Depending on the issue that triggered the time out, teachers would follow up by having a *discussion with the student*, often a *restorative conversation*, or by *referring the student to management*. Second, students could be excluded for a longer period from the classroom through *stand-downs, suspensions or exclusions*, although this could not be directly observed in the classrooms as it was decided by school management. Here is an excerpt showing why this would happen.

... when a child refuses to be compliant to a point where you cannot teach them, you cannot have them in the classroom. (Amanda)

Respect for all was first enacted through *setting clear expectations* and rules in the classroom. As a matter of fact, respect was often the main rule in the classes visited (displayed on classroom walls). If disrespectful comments were made (put down), the teachers would intervene straight away through *verbal instructions* or through *calling the student's name* for instance. In addition, it was important that students felt respected when teachers used *humour*. No sarcastic jokes were witnessed in the classrooms visited. Respect for all had to be embedded in all interactions between students and between students and teachers.

I try and treat them with respect. I never try and back them into a corner. I try, if I made a mistake, I try to be really straight up about it ... if I thought I had stepped over the mark with a student, I would apologise and I have in the past (Amanda)

In this example, Amanda shows respect by *apologising* to students if necessary. Bernard provided a concrete example of how he showed respect to the students when he *introduced a seating plan*.

And I don't like to say "because of these people", I would rather say "I want to introduce a seating plan, I'm going to have you sitting in this formation". Sometimes I'll say "it's because it helps you work better" but I try and address that to the whole class rather than just to that individual. You cause more problems than you solve like that. (Bernard)

As for the other inclusive values found in participants' representations, many teachers explained how they tried in various ways to create a classroom climate where students' singularity was recognised and valued, where people felt accepted and felt that they belonged to a community in which they could develop and progress. Preventative and positive behaviour management as well as learning-focused teaching strategies were used with that goal in mind. Noteworthy, the *seating plan* was used by a teacher to help her students recognise and value diversity.

And I said to them "Look, the way we study [subject] is you need to have as many different points of views or perspectives on things as you can get. So sit with someone of a different gender, maybe sit with someone of a different ethnic background, sit with someone you don't know that you get more points of view and you get different feed in." (Beatrice)

7.3.2.4 Relationships between social justice issues and observed practices.

Teachers established only a few links between issues of social justice and observed classroom practices. An obvious example of the notions of equity and equality was found in the intervention inspired by *restorative practices* put forward by Abigail to get her stolen pens back (see 7.3.2.1). The teacher gave equal chances to all students to restore the harm done and thus did not point to particular students as potential culprits.

Giving everyone a voice was done, in classrooms, through *asking questions* to all students and listening to their ideas. It was also supported when teachers *praised* students for these ideas or

when they spoke up. The *restorative practices* implemented in all three schools were also considered as a good way to give students a voice, as explained here as Blanche describes a restorative conversation she had with a student:

One boy for example this year said to me “Oh, because I was getting really frustrated because you weren’t answering my questions I was asking and you were ignoring me”. That was his perceptions and it wasn’t my perception but it was his and I thought well fair enough, if that’s the way he is seeing the situation. So then I made the commitment that I would be a lot more attentive to his questions and then he felt a lot happier about that and we got on better afterwards. (Blanche)

Being culturally responsive was associated by a few participants with the way they addressed *verbal instructions* to students or *discussed with them*, making sure they were acting in an appropriate manner with regard to the culture of the students.

...I am more in favour of going to them and having a quiet word rather than shouting at them in front of everybody else. I know especially like with kids like ethnic sort of kids, they talk about Māori and Polynesian and Samoan, they particularly don’t like that sort of approach. They’re much better if you just sidle up to them and have a quiet word (Abigail)

Finally, participants did not establish direct relationships between the observed practices and the obligation to enrol all students, teachers taking responsibility for the students, access to the curriculum, resistance to changing practices, and being an advocate for the students. These elements of social representations were found in participants’ discourse but were difficult to link with specific practices perhaps because they pertain to overarching principles of social justice.

Overall, the most numerous and documented links between the practices observed by the researcher during the observation sessions and the elements of social representations identified in 7.1.2 belonged to inclusive practices and inclusive values. Notwithstanding, some aspects related to resourcing and social justice were also enacted by teachers in their classrooms.

7.4 Chapter Summary

The results presented above confirm the idea that the representations of inclusion constructed by teachers were complex. They referred altogether to a set of practices and values influenced by resourcing issues and principles of social justice. While many elements of these representations were shared between participants from the three schools, others were more important or salient in one or two contexts or even for particular teachers, thus enhancing the complexity of teachers' social representations. Moreover, although half the participants had a positive attitude towards inclusion, they all identified conditions for inclusion. Results also show that a majority of teachers felt there was no agreement on inclusion in their school. Some participants even criticised their colleagues, particularly their lack of skills and training and their resistance to changing their practices. There were not many formal discussions occurring at Kānuka School and Nikau College in relation to inclusion. Nevertheless, there was a general agreement among teachers on the three main categories of causes for difficult behaviour. Finally, results illustrate the progressive approach put in place by teachers as they used many pre-emptive and preventative practices to try and make sure students were on task and then used targeted interventions as the behaviours worsened. Finally, the explanations provided by participants for using these observed practices led to the identification of relationships between representations and practices. The results presented in this chapter are discussed further in Chapter Eight.

Chapter Eight

Discussion

... the field of education appears to be a privileged field to witness how social representations are constructed, evolve and transform within social groups as well as to inform us on the role of these constructions in the relationships between social groups and objects of their representations.¹¹² (Gilly, 1989, p. 364)

This chapter discusses the main findings from the preliminary examination and the case studies. While the case study results were central to this study, results from the preliminary examination are discussed in support of the case study findings, thus contributing to increase our understanding of inclusion as an object of social representations in the context of preventing and dealing with behavioural difficulties in New Zealand secondary schools. Findings are discussed with references to the theoretical underpinnings and research accounts from the fields of inclusive education and research on social representations.

The discussion is guided by the three research questions:

- RQ1. What are the social representations of inclusion among secondary school teachers?
- RQ2. What practices do secondary school teachers use to manage students' behaviour?
- RQ3. How are the social representations of inclusion among secondary school teachers and the practices they use to manage student behaviour related?

The first section of the chapter addresses RQ1. It discusses teachers' social representations of inclusion, considering their content and organisation, their conditional aspect, their processes, and their relationships with barriers to inclusion. The second section discusses representations-practices relationships, addressing RQ2 and RQ3. Finally, ways to support schools are discussed with regard to how representations and practices were shared.

¹¹² Original text: "le champ éducatif apparaît comme un champ privilégié pour voir comment se construisent, évoluent et se transforment des représentations sociales au sein de groupes sociaux, et nous éclairer sur le rôle de ces constructions dans les rapports de ces groupes à l'objet de leur représentation".

8.1 The Nature of Inclusion: Representations Among Teacher Participants

Keeping with the exploratory and descriptive aims of this research, this section discusses the nature of inclusion from the perspectives of teacher participants. Elements of the representational field are presented and compared to the characteristics of inclusive education reported in the literature. Then, participants' attitudes towards inclusion are discussed, shedding light on the conditional character of inclusion and on the idea that their representations are anchored in the model of integration. Finally, this section discusses the barriers to inclusion identified in participants' responses.

8.1.1 Inclusion: the representational field.

8.1.1.1 Main elements of the representational field.

In both phases, participants completed a free word association task and defined inclusion. Their answers were formulated as descriptions, a phenomenon observed in most research reporting on social representations of specific objects (Lahlou & Abric, 2011). These descriptions formed the representational field and were distributed into four categories: principles and ideas of social justice, inclusive values, inclusive practices, and resourcing. The identification of these categories is an important finding of this study. It establishes that teacher participants conceptualised inclusion beyond locational issues (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; MacArthur, 2013; Sapon-Shevin, 2007; Slee, 2001a), although this aspect is still present in their representations.

The extent of this discussion does not permit a review of all the elements of the representational field. Instead, the discussion is organised around the four categories mentioned above. The literature also offers guidelines to discuss the results.

The discussion considers elements of the representational field reported by teachers as a group. Case specific information and individual differences are discussed in 8.1.1.3. In addition, many participants reported barriers to inclusion throughout their interviews. These relate to the representational field, but they are given specific attention in 8.1.4.

Principles and ideas related to social justice. Arguments of social justice guided the development of inclusive education with the aim to fight the marginalisation and exclusion of some children and young people within, and from public education. Such grounding leads to observe that “inclusive education is essentially social justice in education” (Kearney, 2009, p.

10). Social justice refers to a fair redistribution of the resources and benefits common to a group or society to reduce disparities and all forms of discrimination.

Equity is a central principle of social justice and inclusive education (Winter & O'Raw, 2010). Reported by participants in both phases, equality and equity were distinguished by case study participants. The former was related to supplying the same amount of the same resources to everyone while the latter referred to providing resources according to individual- or group-specific needs. Through the examples they provided, teachers showed they were concerned about equitably meeting the needs of individuals and groups of students, including students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. Many were concerned about access to the curriculum and whether the curriculum met the needs of their students, at the appropriate level. A diversified and flexible curriculum is considered an important characteristic of inclusive schools as it contributes to increase learning and participation (UNESCO, 2005). Teacher participants also mentioned the importance of listening to everyone's voice, a necessary condition to engage schools in democracy and encourage everyone's active participation in society, particularly those who are excluded (Ainscow et al., 1999; Byrnes & Rickards, 2011; Grenot-Scheyer et al., 2001; Slee, 2000, 2011; Winter & O'Raw, 2010). Cultural responsiveness was part of inclusion for participants. This is aligned with the important literature on this topic in New Zealand acknowledging the bicultural heritage of the country (e.g., Bevan-Brown, 2003, 2011; Bishop et al., 2009; Macfarlane, 2004, 2005; Macfarlane et al., 2011; Wearmouth & Berryman, 2012; Wearmouth et al., 2007) (see 8.1.4). In sum, teachers were concerned about equity, curriculum access and appropriateness, listening to everyone's voice, and cultural responsiveness. These concerns contribute to identifying barriers to inclusion, an essential step in creating inclusive schools (MacArthur, 2009).

If inclusive education is social justice in action so that all students access quality education meeting their needs at their local school, then teachers are expected to take responsibility for all their students in inclusive schools (Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012). This seemed to be recognised by a vast majority of teachers who participated in the questionnaire as 91% *agreed* or *strongly agreed* with the statement 'staff feel responsible for meeting the needs of every student'. Staff could have been thought of as teacher aides or specialists as well however. Teachers' responsibility was recognised by case study participants, including when they referred to working with teacher aides. Examples of teachers taking up the role of an advocate for their students were also reported. Athanases and Martin (2006) mention that the phenomenon of teacher advocacy for students, a fairly recent field of study, is grounded in the principle of equity. These authors encourage preparing teachers to take up this role in providing coursework and apprenticeship focused on educational equity.

Finally, the obligation to enrol all students, enshrined in New Zealand legislation as the right of every student to enrol and receive an education at a state school of their choice without prejudice, was reported and recognised by some participants. It must be noted, however, that few teacher participants referred to the notion of ‘rights’.¹¹³ This was surprising given the centrality of human rights in the inclusive education literature. One potential explanation for this absence from teachers’ representations is that it was considered as a given for participants (Gervais, 1997; Gervais et al., 1999; Moisan, 2010). A second potential explanation needs consideration however. It builds on the ideas found in a Manitoban study (Duchesne, 2002) which showed that school managers, school staff, and senior secondary school students with low levels of knowledge about human rights viewed these rights as conditional and modifiable according to circumstances. However, rights are unconditional by definition. They imply accountability and legal obligations. They do not rest on good will. Evidence from both phases of the present study supports the idea that the notion of rights was conditional (see 8.1.2). First, although their scores to the attitudinal scale showed positive attitudes towards inclusion as all the other groups involved in Phase One (see 5.5.1), a certain proportion of teacher participants put into question the right of all students to enrol at a regular school:

- 43% *agreed* or *strongly agreed* that ‘certain categories of students should not be enrolled in regular schools’ while 20% were *neutral* and 36% *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed*;
- 26% *agreed* or *strongly agreed* and 35 % were *neutral* about the idea that ‘special schools are the best place to respond to the needs of students with special needs’ while 40% *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed*.

Interestingly, RTLB whose role is central in implementing inclusive education practices were divided on these questions as a majority of RTLB were *neutral* (21%), *agreed* (15%) or *strongly agreed* (15%) with the first statement. However, a majority of RTLB *disagreed* (39%) or *strongly disagreed* (30%) with the second statement. Second, the percentage of participants who utilised the notion of right in the free word association task and in the definition task of Phase One was calculated. While 27.3% of the RTLB and 27.3% of the MoE:SE staff referred to students’ rights, only 5.3% of the teachers did and no teacher aides did. Third, only five teachers out of the 22 who participated in the case studies referred to rights. By comparison, six used the words ‘chance’ or ‘opportunity’ referring to students being offered the chance or opportunity to be at school, learn and achieve. This lack of acknowledgement of the rights of students in teachers’ representations of inclusion is an important finding of the present study, particularly in light of the extensive literature on human rights in inclusive education (Duchesne, 2002; MacArthur, 2009).

¹¹³ As a reminder, references to student rights were coded under the theme *obligation to enrol all students*.

Inclusive values. Values are an essential component of inclusive education (MacArthur, 2009; Mentis, Quinn, & Ryba, 2005). Many authors define inclusive education or picture inclusive schools by referring to values (e.g., Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012; Rousseau & Prud'homme, 2010; Winter & O'Raw, 2010). The *Index for inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2011) proposes that schools consider the following inclusive values in their reflection on inclusive education: equity, rights, participation, community, respect for diversity, sustainability, non-violence, trust, compassion, honesty, courage, joy, love, hope/optimism, and beauty. Of course, these are provided as guidelines. Inclusive values need to be discussed, agreed upon, and made explicit in each school and members of the school community need to commit to these key values (Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012). Another set of values is found in *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007): community and participation; excellence; diversity; equity; ecological sustainability; integrity; innovation, inquiry, and curiosity; and respect for self, others, and human rights. Although there is no specific mention about those values being inclusive values, they echo the values commonly identified in the inclusive education literature. While adherence to these values is not prescribed, they are “to be encouraged, modelled, and explored” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 10).

The values reported by teacher who participated to both phases of the study are:

- participation of all students (academic and social);
- achievement and progress or learning at the student level;
- recognising and valuing diversity and everyone;
- acceptance (or tolerance);
- respect for all;
- sense of belonging;
- sense of family and community;
- building confidence and focus on strengths;
- developing holistic beings.

Although the values proposed in the *Index for inclusion* and *The New Zealand Curriculum* are not prescriptions, it is interesting to observe that they are embedded in teachers' representations. The values reported by teachers, along with the values proposed in those guidelines, provide a basis for discussion among school communities. According to Ballard (2011), ideas of inclusive education are supported by a system of values. This author recommends clarifying inclusive

values supporting inclusive educational practice “in order to contest the accepted order of things and to progress towards more inclusive alternatives” (p. 763). Therefore, individual teachers and school communities should reflect on what it is that they want to achieve for all their students and what forms of exclusion do they need to eliminate or transform into inclusive practices. This involves critical examination of the values presented in the guidelines and the values found in their own representations. For instance, although they are perceived as inclusive, the values achievement (in participant’s representations) and excellence (in the curriculum) can create exclusionary conditions (see 8.1.4).

Inclusive practices. In the mid-1990s, Mittler (1995, in Booth, 1996a) believed that there were sufficient examples of inclusive practice to understand how quality education for all could be provided. Yet, there is still a feeling that inclusion is difficult to translate into practice (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011; Rouse, 2006). While Winter and O’Raw (2010) report that some believe more evidence describing how inclusive schools foster presence, participation, learning, and achievement is still needed, others think that enough examples exist to understand inclusive practice (Rouse, 2006). Beyond this debate, it must be understood that the inclusiveness of a given practice fluctuates depending on how, where, and when it is implemented. Booth (1996a) asserts that the “search for good practice is a chimera” (p. 89) because inclusion consists in the endless processes of increasing participation and reducing exclusion in each school. In other words, the inclusiveness of a given practice cannot be assumed out-of-context and it should be appraised as to whether it fosters participation or creates exclusionary conditions there and then. Participants in this study reported what they considered inclusive practices based on their experience. Many of these practices align with the characteristics of inclusive schools reported in the literature and presented in Chapter Two (see 2.2.3). However, their inclusiveness should not be assumed in all contexts.

The most coded theme in the representations of case study teachers was differentiation. Differentiation is widely recognised as a way to create inclusive conditions because it contributes to increase academic participation and achievement (Rousseau & Prud’homme, 2010). Supported by thorough assessment seeking information on students’ achievement, progress, and interests (Rouse, 2006), differentiation was perceived by participants as a good way to provide meaningful learning opportunities that engage students in learning and help lower disruptive behaviour. This idea is supported in the literature (Alton-Lee, 2003; Borders et al., 2012; Cooper & Jacobs, 2011; Royer, 2005; Wearmouth, Richmond, & Connors, 2004).

The creation of positive relationships with students was also mentioned as a way to reduce behavioural difficulties. According to participants, it was easier in small schools (Kānuka

School) and it was facilitated by the pastoral roles played by teachers (all schools). Positive relationships established between teachers and their students lead to positive student outcomes (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011). Likewise, schools which create a climate where everyone feels safe are more likely to see positive learning outcomes for all students (Alton-Lee, 2003) and are considered inclusive (ERO, 2011). These schools usually have a clear code of conduct formulated as expectations, as reported by participants and in the literature (ERO, 2014; Savage, Lewis, & Colless, 2011).

Teaching social skills and self-control was mentioned by participants as a way to positively help students with their learning and behaviour. Teaching social skills is an integral part of creating a school where difficult behaviour is managed positively (Savage et al., 2011). Teaching students to self-regulate their behaviour and learning is particularly important to support students experiencing behavioural difficulties: “students with emotional and behavioural problems will need a curriculum which includes self-management skills and building self-esteem” (Winter & O’Raw, 2010, p. 84). Cognitive behavioural instructional programmes have proven particularly effective to increase self-regulation in students experiencing behavioural difficulties (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011). In this study, teachers mentioned doing this informally however.

Finally, participants reported that inclusive practice encompassed collaboration and communication within the school, consistency between teachers, and teaching practice appraisal. Inclusive schools are recognised for these characteristics as they favour collaboration, shared practices, and self-review (Rouse, 2006). Interestingly, only a few mentions of collaboration and communication with the family were made by participants even if this is viewed as an important characteristic of an inclusive school in the literature (MacArthur, 2009; Siggers, Macartney, & Guerin, 2012).

Resourcing. Resources to support inclusion are a major concern for teachers, as demonstrated by the salience and prevalence of the theme *help/support* in the free word association results (see 5.2.1). Funding is often reported as critical in relation to inclusion, although no causal relationship has been established between funding and student learning outcomes (D. Mitchell, 2010). Participants to this study mentioned that funding was indispensable to realise inclusion, but they also reported other resources for inclusion that were coded at higher frequencies. Staff skills and training were reported by many participants, either as a comment on their own capacity to meet the needs of their students or as a criticism of their colleagues. This recognition of the lack of skills and training by participants follows a general agreement in the literature that teachers are not prepared to meet the needs of all students (Forlin et al., 2009; Garner, 2000; MacBeath et al., 2006; Titone, 2005). In this study however, some teachers described

themselves as competent and confident. They were the teachers who said they took responsibility for students and stood up as advocates (see 7.1.2.2 and 7.1.2.4). They were the teachers who attended PD, did personal reading, or engaged in postgraduate education to improve their practice. This is consistent with results from Phase One showing that self-reported positive perceptions of participants' level of knowledge about inclusion was associated with the fact that a participant had received training in inclusive or special education, a high number of sources participants got information from about inclusive education, participants' highest qualification in education, and a high level of confidence in including students experiencing behavioural difficulties (see 5.3.1).

Even if some case study teacher participants reported being skilful and confident, they said support for them and their students experiencing low to moderate needs was important. Students with severe needs would demand expert support and participants were generally against or ambivalent with regard to the presence of these students in regular classrooms and schools, which links to the on-going debate regarding the location for education provision for SEN students (Cigman, 2007; Doudin et al., 2006). According to Carrington and Elkins (2002a), support needs to be in place in schools for inclusive policies to take form and it should be diversified, readily available, and provided in class, as depicted in the description of an Australian secondary inclusive school (Carrington & Elkins, 2002b). In the present study, the type of support mentioned by case study participants included teacher aides, specialist teachers, and external resources such as RTLB. In Phase One, teachers reported that they first consulted learner support staff, management, and RTLB for help to meet the needs of SEN students, but they mentioned first receiving support from other teachers, management, and teacher aides for behaviour issues. More evidence is necessary to better understand this distinction.

One interesting finding from Phase One is that participants from all four groups preferred in-class support over out-of-class provision. Teachers and teacher aides preferred support from teacher aides over support from specialists while RTLB and MoE:SE staff preferred specialist support. This can be linked to the resistance to inclusion and specialist support among teachers reported in research evidence from a New Zealand study (Prochnow, 2006). Participants in the present study complained about difficult access to expert support. They reported that resources should also come in the form of adaptations to the physical environment and of technology facilitating learning for disabled students. Finally, the impact of management on inclusion was acknowledged by participants. Inclusive schools generally have a positive leader carrying the school's vision and yet sharing leadership. A recent New Zealand report presenting storied experiences of secondary schools highlights this important role of the principal (ERO, 2014).

8.1.1.2 Salience of the categories.

The elements forming the representational field and its categories were not all equally referred to and emphasised by teacher participants. The frequency of reference coding for the categories of social representations is used here to report on their relative salience. Table 8.1 compares the salience of the categories across phases and data collection methods. It must be noted that the numbers of reference coding differ between data collection methods, likely because of the nature of the data and because of the data analysis procedures. What should be examined in Table 8.1 is the relative position of each category from one data collection method to the other.

Table 8.1

Number of coding references for the categories of representations of inclusion among teacher participants per data collection method

Phase One Definition	Phase Two Associative network	Phase Two Interviews
Inclusive values (57)	Inclusive values (52)	Inclusive practices (605)
Universality (52)	Inclusive practices (31)	Resourcing (405)
Social justice (28)	Social justice (21)	Inclusive values (379)
Inclusive practices (24)	Resourcing (18)	Social justice (178)
Resourcing (5)	Universality (6)	
Inclusion (5)		

Table 8.1 shows that inclusive values was the most coded category in the definitions given by teacher participants in Phase One and in the associative network task of Phase Two. The universal character of inclusion was also salient in Phase One. The principles and ideas of social justice were salient in Phase One and in the associative network task of Phase Two. Resourcing issues were coded at lower frequencies in these two data collection methods. Inclusive practices were more salient in the associative network task than in the questionnaire. Analysis of the interview data revealed a different order. Inclusive practices and resourcing, the two categories referring to practical aspects of inclusion, were coded at a higher frequency than inclusive values and social justice, two categories belonging to the theoretical grounding of inclusion.

These differences are perhaps associated with the nature of the questions and the context of production of each data set. It is likely that teacher participants used different frames of reference according to the nature and context of each task. On the one hand, teachers referred to the principles and ideas of social justice and inclusive values in their definitions. This general question about the meaning of inclusion spontaneously generated responses related to the

theoretical underpinnings of inclusion. On the other hand, teachers referred to their practical experience of inclusion and drew on the professional aspects of their representations in the interviews allowing them to express what was directly relevant to their everyday working situation. They then attributed a more specific or technical connotation to inclusion (Piasser & Bataille, 2011). Additionally, the interviews were also aimed at discussing the classroom practices observed by the researcher. Although this might have had an impact on the number of references made to inclusive practices, this category was the second most coded in the associative network task where participants spontaneously made associations to inclusion without prior prompts. In this situation, the context of production of the data, an interview in the workplace of participants, possibly contributed to this result. The differences in salience for the categories pointed out here illustrate the necessity to use multiple methods and to consider the context of production of the data in social representations investigations.

The results provided interesting information on the relative salience of the social and professional aspects of inclusion, both present in teacher participants' representations. The fact that teachers seemed to use different reference frames (social and professional) when defining inclusion and talking about their practical experience of it can lead to formulate the hypothesis of a disconnection between the social (i.e., values and social justice) and professional (i.e., practices and resources) dimensions of inclusion. However, it is argued in the inclusive education literature that these dimensions should be amalgamated in an articulated vision. For instance, the *Index for inclusion* defines inclusion as “putting values into action” (Booth & Ainscow, 2011, p. 18), a process sustained by an inclusive school culture and inclusive policies. Other authors support the idea that practice must be informed by values and principles of social justice (Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012; Mentis et al., 2005; Sapon-Shevin, 2007).

8.1.1.3 Specificity of each case and individual differences.

Some elements were qualitatively emphasised in each of the case study schools. These elements are different from school to school, consistent with the many contextual factors impacting on how educators understand inclusion (e.g., school culture, local community, variables related to individual teachers). Individual and contextual differences are acknowledged (Doise, 2002a; P. Moliner et al., 2002).

At Kānuka School, the theme *sense of family and community* was qualitatively emphasised. Participants reported many examples as to how the relationships were central to the school. Even teachers who had joined the team a few months prior to data collection reported that the

community was tightly knitted. Results from the associative network task showed the salience of the inclusive values *acceptance* and *belonging*. Also important was the theme *developing and maintaining positive relationships*. Direct references were made to the school being a family, revealing the almost ontological status of a family for this school community. In this sense, the representations of inclusion among participants from Kānuka School were closely related to the representations they had of their community. As a result, all members of the community were legitimately part of the school, including children and youth with high needs. Teachers took responsibility for them because they were ‘their children’. Such results are similar to those of a Canadian study where school staff in rural areas were conscious about their responsibilities towards disabled students (Duchesne, 2002). Staff’s responsibility has been pointed out as an important issue in rural areas where specialist support is not always readily available (Wood, Spandagou, & Evans, 2012). In the present study, students experiencing severe behavioural needs coming from outside the community were not welcome at Kānuka. Teachers did not feel they had the capacity to meet their needs. Finally, despite the importance of the sense of family and community, and despite weekly pastoral meetings, teachers reportedly lacked consistency in terms of the relationships they established with students. Dissensions were also reported in relation to teachers’ skills and resistance to changing their practice.

At Nikau College, two elements were emphasised. First, most teachers viewed *cultural responsiveness* towards Māori students as an important mandate of the school. The school was involved in *Te Kotahitanga* and recognised Māori students as valued members of the school community. However, this was also an area of disagreement as two teachers perceived their school community as multicultural and thought there was inequity towards students from other ethnic groups and vulnerable students, whatever their ethnicity. Cultural responsiveness applies to all cultural groups (Macfarlane & Margrain, 2011). *Equity* was referred to as another important element. The school was seen as catering for most of its students through classroom practice, PD, Learner Support Department, pastoral care system, extra-curricular activities, and streamed classes. Nevertheless, the ‘low ability’ or ‘development’ students were perceived as not being catered for as well as the other groups, particularly because the curricular opportunities became scarce from Year 11. At Nikau College, participants often described students as per their belonging to one of the three levels of streamed classes.

At Ponga High School, the theme *recognising and valuing diversity* was central and qualitatively emphasised by teachers. Again, the representations of inclusion among participants were closely related to the representations they had of their diverse student population. The diversity of the student population was described beyond references to culture, as explained by Tangen and Bland (2012):

Diversity is not only inclusive of students' culture and language. It recognises the variety of differences in birthplace, language, and religions and spiritual beliefs in a particular community, as well as recognises and promotes the range of skills and abilities individuals hold within that community. (p. 123)

This last aspect was important for Ponga High teacher participants who highlighted their efforts to provide a variety of classroom strategies and non-NCEA pathways for students who experienced difficulties. In spite of Ponga High School's strong commitment to cater for its diverse student population, a teacher believed that some colleagues were resistant to welcome SEN students in their regular classrooms. For this participant, the fact that disabled students were attached to, and taught in the SEN unit part-time was a sign of their social exclusion from the school community.

Analysis of the evidence from the three case studies shows that teachers' representations of their school community influenced their representations of inclusion: the Kānuka School community was as a family; the Nikau College community was composed of different groups of students; and the Ponga High School community regrouped very diverse people. Further research is needed to understand how these representations of the school community impact on representations of inclusion and on school organisation and practices. Research on inclusive school cultures can provide insights for such investigations.

To conclude, the elements found in the representational field of inclusion reflect many of the characteristics of inclusive education documented in the literature. This demonstrates that teachers who participated in this study are knowledgeable, as a group, about inclusion. Some elements were more important than others for teachers given their belonging to a particular school community. Nevertheless, the extent of the representational field shows that some important ideas about inclusive education circulated in the case study schools. However, this does not warrant their translation into practice, mostly because of the conditional character of inclusion observed in the data.

8.1.2 The conditional aspect of inclusion.

In this study, the overall attitudes of participants towards inclusion were positive, as indicated by their scores to the attitudinal scale (see 5.5.1) and by their immediate responses to the question *Are you in favour of inclusion?* (see 7.2.1). These results corroborate findings from numerous studies showing that teachers generally accept the principles supporting inclusion (Anderson et al., 2007; Avissar, 2000; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Avramidis & Norwich,

2002; Duchesne, 2002; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Subban & Sharma, 2005). Provided that a positive inclination towards inclusion is necessary to create inclusive schools and classrooms (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Bélanger, 2010; Carrington, 1999; Loreman et al., 2011), these results seem encouraging. However, along with reporting teachers' positive attitudes towards inclusion, numerous studies concomitantly identify factors impacting on these attitudes, namely teachers' experience with SEN students, their preparation or in-service training, their knowledge about human rights, the support and resources available, the inclusiveness of the school culture, and the severity and nature of students' difficulties, including behavioural difficulties (Avissar, 2000; Avramidis et al., 2000b; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Bélanger, 2010; Carrington, 1999; Clough, 1999; Duchesne, 2002; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). These factors mostly align with the nature of the conditions for inclusion reported in the present study (see 7.2.1) and summed up here:

- severity and nature of students' needs, particularly behavioural needs;
- availability of resources to support staff and students (funding, staff, multiple location for provision, capacity to provide a safe environment for SEN students, low number of students experiencing difficulties per class);
- teachers' resistance, skills and training; and
- school culture supportive of inclusion and explicit discourse about it.¹¹⁴

According to Avramidis and Kalyva (2007) when discussing similar findings from a Greek study:

...the contradictory attitudes reported in this survey—on the one hand being supportive of inclusive education, but on the other hand viewing the process as dependent on the severity of the child's 'needs' and extra resources—are by no means unique to Greece. (p. 384)

Beyond highlighting the geographical spread of research findings reporting positive attitudes accompanied by reservations, the researchers foster the idea of a contradiction. The present study interprets this phenomenon differently, drawing on the theoretical perspective provided by the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1961, 2008). Working with this theory necessitates considering the knowledge individuals and groups construct about an object together with their attitudes towards this very construction (in opposition to their attitudes towards the object as presented by experts). From this perspective, conditions to, and positive attitudes towards inclusion form a set of organised cognitions providing guidelines for action.

¹¹⁴ This aspect encompasses representations of the school community, as suggested in 8.1.1.3.

The idea that discursive prescriptions can be conditional (Flament, 1994b) is useful in understanding how conditions for inclusion and positive attitudes work together in an organised system. Case study participants depicted what inclusion was for them in terms of the social justice principles and ideas it sustains, the values it promotes, the resources it necessitates, and the inclusive practices it entails. These descriptions can be considered as prescriptions as to how inclusion should look like and be enacted, generally speaking (discursive prescriptions for action). However, these discursive prescriptions can become conditional when teachers face specific and challenging situations such as welcoming students experiencing behavioural difficulties, as shown in the following example. Teachers questioned the presence of students having high learning or behavioural needs in regular settings, admitting that these students would be better served in other education facilities using the following arguments: (a) they did not have the capacity to meet the needs of these students, (b) their school did not put sufficient support mechanisms in place to foster students' learning in a differentiated way, (c) their school allowed students withdrawal from class, and (d) their school allowed the transfer of students' responsibility to teacher aides if students could not follow the curriculum or disturbed the classroom climate. In this example, the nature and severity of students' needs, the lack of teachers' skills, the lack of resources and the school culture allowing withdrawals justified placement outside the regular classroom or school even if teachers' representations of inclusion incorporate elements such as differentiation, achievement and progress at the appropriate level for each student, teacher taking responsibility for all students, and the regular classroom as the best environment for students. This is supported by results from Phase One as teacher participants were divided on whether a school where 'students who repeatedly break school rules are suspended' was inclusive or not. Interestingly, 37% of the teachers believed that this was *quite inclusive* or *fully inclusive* and another 16% believed it was *not applicable to inclusion*. Here, the nature and severity of students' difficulties were conditions for inclusion, possibly justifying resorting to suspension, a practice that jeopardises inclusion.

Therefore, a single social representation of inclusion carrying general discursive prescriptions and conditions for specific cases works as an organised system to justify different practices for specific cases. It appears that participants' representations of inclusion do not strictly dictate action but contribute to define what is possible given the specificity of a situation, leaving action open to individual choice and to negotiation among teachers. This question is discussed further in 8.2.1.

The conditional character of inclusion reported here is akin to the notion of compromise discussed by Norwich (2008) who believes that inclusion involves problematic choices and that compromise proves necessary. An English study (Clark, Dyson, Millward, & Robson, 1999)

investigated the organisation of a secondary school believed to be inclusive. Results show tensions inherent to the school culture leading the authors to qualify the school's approach as "dilemmatic" (p. 45). Compromise was practiced with some staff even putting their commitment to inclusion into question. For instance, the school had a solid system of support in place to meet the needs of all students, but it was deemed inadequate to meet the needs of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. As a consequence, students were often withdrawn from regular classrooms with one department using withdrawal as a long-term solution. The willingness to be inclusive was therefore attached to 'buts' in order to justify compromise and even exclusive practices. According to Slee (2011), the notion of compromise is conservative and can hinder progress in overcoming exclusion. Notwithstanding, dilemmas or conflicts could be incentives for change: "Schools may change when ambiguities in practice and policy are resolved by confident, forceful, persistent people who manage to convince themselves and others to adopt new practices that introduce change" (Carrington, 1999, p. 262).

8.1.3 Anchoring in the integration model.

Bélanger (2010) concludes her literature review on education stakeholders' attitudes towards inclusion saying that not much has changed over the last decade as positive attitudes towards inclusion are still being reported alongside remaining obstacles. This author then asks whether the move from integration to inclusion is happening. The theory of social representations provides theoretical constructs to reflect on this question.

Two processes lead to the genesis of a social representation: objectification and anchoring (see 3.2.3). In this study, evidence of objectification is found in the results describing the nature of inclusion attesting that teachers selected elements of information available to them to construct functional representations. In this process, the information selected was anchored into pre-existing representations. The results lead to believe that teacher participants' representations of inclusion are anchored in the antecedent model of integration.

One characteristic of the integration model was its conditionality (see 2.1.3) as SEN students had the right to enrol at their local school and could be integrated in a regular classroom, but as far as feasible given the resources available and the severity of their needs (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987; Sleek & Howie, 1987). Although the main objective of integration was to keep all students in regular classrooms in agreement with the principles of normalisation and the least restrictive environment (Chapman, 1988; Vienneau, 2006), many placement options were

offered (e.g., cascade system (Deno, 1970, 1994)). This characteristic of integration is clearly linked to the conditional character of inclusion found in teacher participants' representations. The conditions teachers identified for educating all students in their regular classrooms are similar to the reservations that have been reported for many decades with regards to mainstreaming (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). The gap between the attitudes of New Zealand teachers and their actual behaviours reported almost two decades ago (J. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1987) lingers on, despite teachers' representations of inclusion featuring many characteristics of inclusive education as depicted in recent literature. This is an indicator of the persistence of the integration model in participants' representations and constitutes a barrier to inclusive education. This is also an indicator of the presence of a moderate position towards inclusive education (Cigman, 2007).

The potential anchoring of teachers' representations of inclusion in the special education model was also explored. Despite a commitment to inclusive education in New Zealand, analysis of educational policy found a strong and recurring presence of special education ideas in policy documents (Higgins et al., 2008; Higgins et al., 2006; Kearney & Kane, 2006; Rutherford, 2012; Tearle & Spandagou, 2012; Wills, 2006). Publications by the Ministry of Education contain references to special education:

Despite the Ministry's current definition of inclusion, there appears to be significant inconsistencies between the definition and the applied use of the terms. Most significantly, the term, 'inclusion', has been subsumed in 'special' education. For example, inclusion is linked to special units in the Ministry of Education's magazine, the *Education Gazette*. (Higgins et al., 2006, p. 2)

This information could lead to conclude that teachers' representations of inclusion are anchored in special education. The evidence gathered in this study does not permit to assert confidently that it is the case. Teacher participants' representations of inclusion were constructed as teachers selected elements of information available to them from a range of sources, not exclusively policy documents (see 5.3.3), but further research would be relevant in that area.

8.1.4 Representations of inclusion and barriers to inclusion.

Barriers to inclusion were identified in teachers' representations of inclusion. This was not surprising because of the close relationship between inclusion and exclusion (Booth, 1996a) and because of the conditional character of teacher participants' representations of inclusion.

Findings from this study are discussed alongside the insights brought by two New Zealand investigations.

Kearney (2009) examined how and why disabled students and students experiencing difficulties with their learning and behaviour were excluded. The author reports eight major factors contributing to the exclusion of disabled students. Five of these factors echo the findings of the present study.¹¹⁵

Being denied enrolment and/or full-time attendance. Kearney found that disabled students were denied enrolment, an illegal practice as SEN students have the right to enrol and receive an education at their local school without prejudice in New Zealand. No direct evidence of denied enrolment was found in the present study. However, findings indicate that participants envisaged such a practice. For instance, 14% of the teachers who responded to the online questionnaire thought that the statement ‘schools have the right to determine enrolment eligibility (except for zoning criterion)’ was the characteristic of a *quite inclusive* or *fully inclusive* school, another 14% thought it was *moderately inclusive*, and five percent thought this characteristic was *not applicable to inclusion*. Moreover, a few case study participants talked about the desire or the possibility for school management to get rid of unwanted students. Students perceived or identified as experiencing severe behavioural difficulties were pointed as unwanted (see 7.1.2.4).

It must be reiterated that stand-downs, suspensions, exclusions, and expulsions are enshrined in New Zealand legislation (sections 13-19 of the *Education Act 1989*). It is argued that while these practices diminish the opportunities for students experiencing behavioural difficulties to learn, they help create a safer and less disruptive learning environment for their classmates (Ministry of Education, 2009c, 2009d). Although the use of these exclusionary practices is regulated so that it does not lead to denied enrolment, it generates a situation where students are not present at school for finite or indefinite periods. Moreover, it creates dilemmas for school management and staff who have to balance between the rights of students experiencing behavioural difficulties to be at school and the rights of others to learn in a safe environment (Dharan et al., 2012; Wearmouth et al., 2007). Naturally, safety issues must be recognised and addressed all the more that participants in all four professional groups participating in Phase One felt that student behaviour was a threat to their students’ safety and their own safety. However, the fact that continual disobedience is one leading cause of suspension is problematic

¹¹⁵ The factors not discussed here but reported by Kearney are inappropriate beliefs and practices in relation to funding, poor relationships between parents and school staff, and inappropriate beliefs and practices in relation to teacher aides.

(Michail, 2011; Ministry of Education, 2011b), particularly since continual disobedience is interpreted in many ways (Dharan et al., 2012):

Continual disobedience is defined as deliberately and regularly failing to do what you are told and a student's behaviour must set a harmful or dangerous example to other students to meet this criterion (Ministry of Education, 2009) ... However, the lack of specificity of this category has led to its interpretations being highly contextualised allowing a wide range of behaviours such as truancy, disruptive behaviour, non-compliance, and even tardiness to fit into this category (Hemphill et al., 2012; Skiba & Sprague, 2008; Vavrus & Cole, 2002). (p. 123)

This is concerning, especially in light of the identification of the severity of students' behaviour as a condition for inclusion. Such interpretations of continual disobedience can lead to standing-down or suspending students displaying low to moderate behaviours who would then miss out on learning. The reasons for being stood-down that were reported by students who participated in the study included screaming, swearing, swearing at relievers, and not listening to the teacher (see 6.2.4). In cases of continual disobedience as interpreted in the excerpt above, safety is not necessarily at stake and other issues should be considered to replace punitive approaches by positive alternatives (e.g., teachers' skills and training, support for staff and students). However, when deciding on using or not exclusionary discipline practices, schools need to make sure that the principles and ideas of social justice underpinning inclusive education and inclusive values such as participation do not become disembodied from practical issues (Slee, 2001a). This is particularly relevant since the presence of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties in a regular classroom alongside pro-social peers is recognised as beneficial for them (Michail, 2011).

Being denied access to, and participation within the curriculum. Kearney reports that disabled students were excluded because of a lack of curriculum adaptation. In the present study, the salience of differentiation in participants' representations of inclusion show that teacher participants thought it important to adapt the curriculum and provide differentiated work so students could learn, experience success, and build their confidence. Nevertheless, for some participants, the strong systemic focus on NCEA limits curriculum access for students experiencing learning and behaviour difficulties. This focus on NCEA creates a climate where competition between schools generates inequities for the most vulnerable students, including those experiencing behavioural difficulties (Burton et al., 2009; Slee, 2011).¹¹⁶ Case study data

¹¹⁶ In light of the idea that focusing on excellence can hinder the inclusive education equity agenda (Winter & O'Raw, 2010), it is interesting to note that the *Index for Inclusion* (Booth & Ainscow, 2011) did not list achievement as a value while *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) listed excellence.

showed that efforts were made at Ponga High to offer different pathways through investing resources to facilitate the transition into adulthood for students perceived as unable to achieve NCEA. The culture of this school fostered access to the curriculum for all students, but also provided other curricular opportunities to keep students at school and prepare them as well as possible for adulthood. When such opportunities were not provided, students were at risk of leaving school or being reoriented to alternative education, as it reportedly happened at Nikau College.

The study by Kearney also showed that disabled students were sent to separate classrooms or buildings segregated from their peers and from participation in the regular curriculum. Evidence from the present study points to this form of exclusion as well (see 7.1.2.2 and 7.1.2.4). At Nikau College, the impossibility to physically access a classroom and the incapacity of families to pay for course fees impacted negatively on curriculum access. At Ponga High School, one teacher viewed the special unit as exclusionary. Classroom observation at this school revealed that SEN students were segregated within the regular classroom as they sat apart from their peers with their teacher aides, had few interactions with the teacher, and worked on different work. In-class segregation was also observed at Kānukā School where a student with identified SEN was provided with work adapted to his level but sat apart from his peers. Further observations showed full participation in three classrooms however. Finally, the streamed Year 9 and 10 classes at Nikau College and the streaming practice of a department using assessment results to sit students according to ability can be seen as barriers to inclusion. In Phase One, 25% of the teacher participants thought that the statement ‘students of same abilities work together most of the time’ pertained to a *fully inclusive* or *quite inclusive* school while 27% thought it was the characteristic of a *moderately inclusive* school and 45% believed it was *slightly inclusive* or *not inclusive*. Streaming according to ability is criticised in the literature. A study (Ireson et al., 1999) found that streaming in secondary schools only had small effects on achievement in mathematics but had no effect in English and Science. It also found that students in mixed ability groups had a higher academic subject self-concept (small effects) than students in homogeneous groups. No convincing evidence was found in research that streaming by ability impacts on secondary students’ achievement (Harlen & Malcolm, 1999; Ramberg, 2014; Sukhnandan & Lee, 1998). Moreover, streaming by ability would create conditions of inequity for students (Ramberg, 2014), particularly with regards to curriculum and participation.

A lack of caring, valuing and responsibility by school staff. While Kearney’s study found a lack of caring, valuing and responsibility by school staff, this study identified both good and inadequate practice in that matter. Good practice witnessed by the researcher and reported by participants referred to the creation of genuine relationships. Research evidence points to

positive effects of good relationships between teachers and students experiencing behavioural difficulties on academic outcomes and engagement (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011). In New Zealand, a study of nine low decile secondary schools whose students were achieving well showed the benefits of positive relationships: “ERO found that having relationships which focused on the wellbeing of each student, underpinned the school’s success in keeping students at school and engaged” (ERO, 2014, p. 1). Another good practice is that of teachers advocacy for their students. While this showed care for the students, this also meant that situations were created where advocacy became necessary. It occurred when teachers felt their students were confronted to controlling teachers who lacked caring and understanding.

Kearney reported that the responsibility for disabled students was passed on to teacher aides. Teacher giving up responsibility for their disabled or SEN students is a well-documented phenomenon (Ainscow, 1999; Giangreco & Broer, 2005; Rutherford, 2012). While this practice provides individual support with learning and behaviour for students, it can contribute to singling students out (Ainscow, 2000; Ward, 2011). In Phase One, 50% of the teacher participants believed that the statement ‘teacher aides are attached to particular students’ reflected a *quite inclusive* or *fully inclusive* school while 21% believed it was *moderately inclusive*, 22% *slightly inclusive* or *not inclusive*, and 7% did not believe this was related to inclusion. While these data are about students in general, findings of the present study also indicate the handover of responsibility to teacher aides of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. As reported in 6.2.2 and 7.1.2.2, some Nikau College students were taught and evaluated by teacher aides after their exclusion from class for disciplinary reasons or because their learning needs seemed too high. Teacher aides mentioned that they sometimes became fully responsible for students as a result of long term withdrawal.

A lack of teacher knowledge and understanding. The lack of teacher knowledge was reported as one of the main barriers by the parents participating in the study by Kearney. The issue of teacher knowledge is a recurring one in the field of inclusive education. Quality teaching is essential for better student outcomes (Alton-Lee, 2003; Rouse, 2006) and the recurrently reported lack of knowledge from teachers is problematic. Findings from the present study suggest that teachers who participated in this study were knowledgeable, as a group, about inclusion. For instance, the extent of the descriptions case study teacher participants’ made of inclusion reflected many of the characteristics of inclusive education documented in the literature. However, many teachers reported the skills and training of teachers as a condition for inclusion, acknowledging that many teachers were not providing quality teaching.

Teacher knowledge is also problematic in the fields of classroom management and behavioural difficulties, with a gap being recurrently reported between the knowledge gathered from research evidence and teachers' practices (Royer, 2005). In the present study, teachers who completed the online questionnaire revealed they were moderately to quite confident to include students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. These findings slightly differ from a New Zealand study involving primary school teachers (n = 42) in which 77.5% of the participants reported feeling confident or very confident in managing difficult behaviour in the classroom, although reporting not feeling sufficiently prepared to deal with difficult behaviours (Johansen et al., 2011). Other studies have also reported similar findings, showing generally high levels of confidence in behaviour management in teachers and pre-service teachers (Anderson et al., 2007; Atici, 2007; Avramidis et al., 2000a, 2000b; Cartledge & Johnson, 1996; Fontaine et al., 2012). Nevertheless, a positive perception of one's level of confidence in behaviour management does not warrant effective practice. In the present study, the practices used in classrooms revealed generally adequate given the level of behaviour displayed by students. Overall, findings from this study point to the lack of knowledge reported by participants as creating barriers to inclusion, but it also acknowledges that some teachers feel and are knowledgeable and skilful, as shown by the extent of their representations of inclusion and their classroom practices.

Being bullied. In her study, Kearney reports two types of bullying that contribute to exclusion. Student-to-student bullying was associated with the students' learning difficulties for half of her participants. In the present study, this type of bullying was reported and teachers were concerned about the safety of SEN students. They emphasised the importance of acceptance and respect and offered students safe spots to avoid being bullied (Nikau College and Ponga High). In Phase One, 91% of the participants reported that bullying occurred at their school.¹¹⁷ Teacher-to-student bullying was also documented by Kearney. Provided that some teachers in the case studies reported they defended their students when other teachers treated them unfairly or backed them into a corner, it is suggested, following Kearney, to investigate teacher-to-student bullying further looking into power and control issues in secondary classrooms and schools.

The study by Prochnow (2006) identified barriers to the inclusion of students experiencing behavioural difficulties. Four categories of issues were identified: teacher, delivery, learner, and parents. The results regroup responses from students, parents, teachers, principals and special education specialists.

¹¹⁷ It is assumed here that participants referred mostly to student-to-student bullying as this is the most commonly reported form of bullying.

Teacher issues. In the study by Prochnow, teacher issues included teachers' belief that students were the source of the problem, a negative teacher attitude towards students experiencing behavioural difficulties, teacher resistance to change classroom and teaching management strategies, teachers not pursuing the adaptations agreed upon with specialists and a lack of consistency, teachers wanting a quick fix, and a lack of teacher belief in inclusion. Participants in the present study reported many of these barriers. In Phase One, the most reported causes for difficult behaviour by teachers were family and students (see 5.5.3). However, participants' responses also presented attributions pertaining to schools and teachers (see 5.5.3 and 7.2.3). The evidence thus points to the recognition by teachers of their responsibility for their students, although some teachers clearly identifying unskilled and resistant teachers as causing or amplifying challenging behaviours through their actions and relationships with the students (see 7.1.2.4). The different types of attributions demonstrate an understanding of the complexity of behavioural difficulties, including causation. Interestingly, Prochnow explains that while specialists reported teacher issues in large proportions, no teacher reported such issues. This contradicts findings from this study as some participants clearly identified the need to improve their practice and some criticised the lack of skills of their colleagues. As for the lack of belief in inclusion, results from the present study indicate that teachers were generally favourable to inclusion, but with conditions. These conditions included behavioural difficulties (nature of student difficulties).

Delivery issues. The delivery issues in Prochnow's research comprised using suspensions, lack of specialist support and funding, learning and behaviour expectations of the school, lack of communication with parents, lack of support for re-entry in class, ineffective and inappropriate practices suggested by specialists, and insufficient special programmes (i.e., Māori focused programmes, alternative programmes, early intervention programmes). Only the first two barriers were reported in the present study. In relation to suspensions, Phase One results pointed out that teacher participants were divided on whether this was an inclusive practice or not. Participants also reported the need for support, support being a condition for inclusion. Phase One results also showed that teachers preferred in-class teacher aides support over specialist support and that the help they received to deal with difficult behaviour mostly came from other teachers, school management and teacher aides (see 5.4.3), although it is reported in the literature that support should be provided by specialists for better outcomes, particularly as the severity of the behaviours increases (Church, 2003). Case study participants mentioned that getting access to expert support was laborious.

Learner issues. The learner issues identified by Prochnow included the learner's disruptive and difficult behaviours, the amount of support needed in the classroom, negative relationships with

their peers, and low self-esteem. The disruptive behaviour itself was also reported in the present study as a condition for inclusion, particularly when severe.

Parent issues. In her study, Prochnow identified the following parent issues: dysfunctional home life, resistance or non-cooperation, and lack of consistency. According to Prochnow, “home issues, particularly in regard to dysfunctional families, ranked first in terms of frequency of comments made by teachers” (p. 338). This was true for the present study as 34% of the attributions made by teachers in the online questionnaire were family-related. By comparison, 26% of their attributions were student-related and 22% were school- or teacher-related. The difficulties reported by case study participants with regard to their students having difficult family situations corroborate the findings from Prochnow.

Overall, many of the barriers to inclusion identified by previous New Zealand research were supported by evidence from the present study. They include: the idea that some students can be denied enrolment due to their ‘unwanted’ status, use of suspensions, inequity of access to the curriculum and grouping practices, handover of responsibility for students to teacher aides, lack of teacher skills and knowledge, teacher resistance, lack of support, bullying, severity of student behaviour, and family difficulties. Many teacher participants were concerned about these barriers, thus acknowledging their existence and recognising their role or the role of teachers in general in creating some of them. They viewed these barriers either as factors hindering inclusion or as conditions for inclusion. As a result, teachers’ representations of inclusion and the barriers identified in this section are intertwined. Some of these barriers have an immediate impact on the inclusion or exclusion of students (i.e., denied enrolment, use of suspension), but most of the barriers have a long-term impact, hence the relevance to identify the many forms of exclusion experienced in schools (Booth, 1996b).

8.2 Relationships Between Social Representations of Inclusion and Practices

The enacting of inclusive education policies into practice has proven difficult in many countries, including New Zealand. The multiple and multifaceted barriers to inclusion reported in the literature and the barriers and conditions for inclusion reported in the present thesis counteract the efforts to create more inclusive classrooms, schools, and educational systems. An international review of inclusive education practice points out that legislation fostering inclusion is not adequately translated into practice and that there is no consensus on what inclusive practices are (Curcic, 2009). Rouse (2006) believes that providing teachers with content knowledge about good inclusive teaching and inclusive practices is important, but he also

believes it is not sufficient because teachers do not put their knowledge in practice. In other words, knowledge and practice would be disconnected.

The articulation between knowledge about inclusion and practices is a key area of investigation to move towards creating inclusive classrooms and schools. This section looks at the articulation between the practices observed in classrooms and teacher participants' social representations of inclusion. It then discusses the need to reflect individually and collectively on the articulation between representations and practices.

8.2.1 Articulating the representations-practices relationships.

The relationships established by participants between the practices they effectively used in their classrooms and elements of their social representations were reported in section 7.3.2. With regard to the observed classroom practices alone, data analysis led to conclude that there was a progression in the interventions used by teachers in their classrooms with preventative and pre-emptive classroom and behaviour management practices used first. Teachers used proactive strategies meaning that their actions contributed to lowering the chances for problem behaviour to occur or escalate (Clunies - Ross et al., 2008). These strategies were learning-focused rather than centred on disciplining students. As students did not comply or as the behaviour worsened, teachers started using more targeted interventions and punitive strategies, culminating with classroom withdrawal.

Examples are provided of how teacher participants explained or justified their practices by referring to elements of their social representations of inclusion. Findings indicate that many teacher participants made clear links between what they did in the classroom and the inclusive practices they reported verbally when describing their representations. For instance, participants explained how they developed and maintained positive relationships with their students through observable behaviours such as greeting students when they arrived, or apologising if they felt they treated them unfairly. Many participants also associated their actions to inclusive values. As an example, to foster the achievement and progress of their students, teachers praised their work, provided one-on-one help with the task, and reinforced their on-task behaviour. Fewer relationships were established between classroom practices and the principles and ideas of social justice. This echoes the difficulties in enacting the principles sustaining inclusion reported by Cooper & Jacobs (2011). Essentially, the associations made showed that equity was enacted through a restorative classroom discussion, listening to everyone's voice was done by way of questioning all students during a lesson and letting students express their viewpoint in

restorative conversations, and cultural responsiveness was observed in the way participants addressed the students. Finally, very few links were established with resourcing issues, possibly because the themes in this category did not depend on teachers' actions in the classroom, except for support for student and staff. Support for individual students was observed when teachers provided direct one-on-one help with the task or praised and encouraged students. Support for staff was related to teachers seeking help from school managers when they withdrew or referred students.

In a professional context such as that of the present study, the practices adopted by individuals or groups are judged against criteria often determined by experts in a given domain. The practices adopted by teachers can be evaluated as inclusive or not as per the inclusive education literature or guidelines provided by regulatory bodies (ERO, 2011; Ministry of Education, 2013a). However, the complexity inherent to inclusive education can lead to disagreements on what inclusive practices are (Curcic, 2009). The diversity of school, classroom, teacher, and student circumstances can lead to different judgments on whether a practice is inclusive or not. This calls for examining the explanations and justifications given by participants for what they did. These explanations and justifications rest on their representations of inclusion. Two significant examples are discussed here.

First, the researcher observed student withdrawal during data collection in all three schools. The explanations given by teachers as for why they resorted to withdrawal were somewhat different because dissimilar elements of the teachers' representations of inclusion were evoked justifying withdrawal. For instance, a teacher (Ponga High) withdrew a student for an entire lesson so he could work one-on-one with a teacher aide on a programme aimed at increasing his achievement level in literacy. Withdrawal as a punitive or disciplinary practice also occurred. Two teachers (Nikau College and Ponga High) explained that they withdrew students because they did not comply to the instructions given and that their behaviour disrupted their peers' work, creating an unsafe environment. On a different note, two other teachers (Kānuka School and Ponga High) said they withdrew students for non-compliance, but they also said they did it to avoid escalation so the non-compliant student would not feel backed into a corner, thus preserving their relationship. In the case of the first two teachers, the withdrawal lasted for the whole period. In the case of the last two teachers, only a few minutes of time out of class were necessary.

Second, references to the seating plan teachers set as a classroom management practice were common in the interviews. Classroom observations were a good opportunity to understand how teachers used their seating plan in different ways and for different reasons. Some teachers

mentioned they did not impose a seating plan in their classroom because they did not want to force people who were not getting along to sit together and feel unsafe. Another teacher asked her students to sit with people they did not know and who were different from them in order for students to recognise diversity and learn from one another. One teacher changed the seating plan in his class constantly so that students would participate in different types of groupings and would learn to work with different people and play different roles. Finally, a teacher applied the practice in place in her department by using results to a standardised evaluation to sit students according to ability. The teacher justified this practice by saying that it was easier for her to provide support to students at the appropriate level even if they did not like it and felt like they were 'stupid'. While the first two teachers referred to safety and positive relationships in justifying their practice, the following two teachers used their seating plan to foster the recognition of diversity by students. As for the last teacher, she explained using it to increase the achievement and progress of her students by providing them help at the appropriate level. Although she recognised the students felt devalued, she carried on with the departmental practice thinking it was working well.

These examples show how social representations work to justify similar practices applied in different situations, thus unveiling the complex relationships between people's belief and knowledge and their actions. The inclusiveness of teachers' practices (and also school-wide practices) should be judged within their context and in relation to the explanations and justifications provided. These explanations and justifications pertaining to representations can then be challenged and potentially transformed with the values and social justice principles and ideas underpinning inclusion in mind for increased inclusion. In doing so, teachers would draw on the social and professional aspects of their representations to bridge the theoretical underpinnings of inclusive education with its practical dimension.

8.2.2 Individual and collective reflection on the representations-practices relationships.

Social representations produced by groups provide guidelines for individuals to orientate and justify their actions whilst leaving those actions open to individual choice. Therefore, reflecting on the representations-practices relationships should be both an individual and a collective process.

At the individual level, the examples presented in 8.2.1 illustrate the justifications and explanations teachers gave about what they did in their classrooms. Whether or not one agrees with their discourses, they demonstrate how teachers can connect their practices to their

representations of inclusion, showing a coherent system of cognitions and actions. However, given the identification of conditional aspects to inclusion as reported above, this system should be challenged when what teachers think and do create barriers to, or impose conditions on inclusion. This reflection should be part of a dialogue at the school level and be guided by inclusive values and principles and ideas of social justice. It should also recognise factors external to teachers that need addressing at the systemic level. Carrington and her colleagues (Carrington & Elkins, 2002b; Carrington & Robinson, 2006) present the idea that teachers who develop an articulated inclusive vision and practice have a value-based education platform, consisting in a coherent set of values they transfer into practice. The teachers advocating for their students met during this study seem to fit this description and further research could help understand how they build and utilise their system of thought and action for increased inclusion.

At the collective level, findings from this study showed that discussions about inclusion were mostly informal (see 5.3.4 and 7.2.2). For instance, responses to the online questionnaire indicated that inclusion was not discussed often in school-wide meetings. Case study participants mentioned discussing inclusion informally, mostly in practical terms when they talked about particular students. A teacher even mentioned she had never heard the term used in an educational context prior to her involvement in the study. The creation of an inclusive school culture and the coherence and consistency of practices at the school level call for a dialogue within (and beyond) the school community. These discussions and reflections should be explicit (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). The collective reflection can build on the identification and discussion of areas of agreement and disagreement within the school community. Here are examples of the reasons given by case study participants explaining why they believed there was or there was no agreement among their colleagues about inclusion (see 7.2.2):

- critique of other teachers' skills, practices and resistance to change;
- lack of consistency between teachers in terms of practice;
- informal discussions about inclusive education;
- lack of, or unclear understanding among staff about what inclusion is; and
- lack of, or unclear inclusive policy and culture.

A difficulty in creating inclusive classrooms and schools rests on the interactions of sub-cultures within schools (Prosser, 1999). Visser, Cole and Daniels (2002) illustrate this phenomenon by pointing out that schools succeeding in including students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties feature "a 'critical mass' of staff committed to inclusive values" (p. 24), including the school leaders. Conversely, it is also possible to figure that a

critical mass of staff opposing inclusion can create exclusionary conditions for these students. It is therefore important to support schools in the transformation process towards greater inclusion.

8.3 Supporting School Communities

Making schools better places for all children and young people so that they can achieve their full potential and feel welcome and valued should be a goal for every society. The New Zealand education sector made a commitment to inclusive education through its policies. However, support is necessary for schools and teachers as they aim to increase the participation and reduce exclusionary pressures for all students (Booth, 1996a). Two main reasons point to the necessity for supporting school communities in relation to inclusion.

First, New Zealand ITE programmes seem to be lacking clarity and content with regard to inclusive education, thus perpetuating a cycle of untrained and unprepared beginning teachers. A study by Kane et al. (2005) describes ITE policy and practice. Results show that no clear policies were stated by more than half of the New Zealand ITE providers to guide the practice of inclusion in their programmes, that an infused approach incorporating components of inclusion throughout the programme was claimed to be used without evidence of its enactment, that an add-on approach where courses on inclusive education were optional was used, and that components related to diversity and SEN were exhibited in lieu of components of inclusion. A study by Morton and Gordon (2006) investigated how ITE provide teachers with knowledge and skills to work with disabled students. Findings show great disparities in the content and form of the programmes. The study also shows that fewer courses on inclusion are provided within single year secondary ITE programmes than in multiple-year primary ITE programmes. According to O'Neill, Bourke and Kearney (2009), preparing teachers for inclusive education is challenged by the duality of the New Zealand educational system incorporating principles of inclusive and special education. The strong and recurring presence of special education ideas and vocabulary in policy documents creates confusion for teachers. Adding to this, findings presented in this study (see 5.3.2) showed that only 18% of the teacher participant to Phase One received university-based training in inclusive or special education. Among those who were trained, 50% reported other *teachers* as their training providers. Efforts are still and should still be made to improve ITE, but this situation calls for direct support to school communities.

Second, recent evidence reports that not all schools in New Zealand adopt inclusive practices (ERO, 2010, 2012a, 2012b). Then, it seems that PD is needed to help school communities

develop an inclusive ethos and inclusive practices. One-day PD sessions are a popular mode of delivery in New Zealand, despite being reported as inadequate to engage teachers in advanced instruction for change (Timperley et al., 2007). Information gathered in the present study shows that teachers demand to have more opportunities to share with their competent colleagues in training anchored in practice. These competent teachers were identified as specialists or skilled mainstream classroom teachers with or without special education training or having worked in difficult schools. Similar preferences are reported elsewhere (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007). Given teachers' preferences for learning from other teachers in real school contexts, and given their reported resistance in receiving support from specialists as described in previous New Zealand (Prochnow, 2006) and Australian (Anderson et al., 2007) research, the question is: how can we support secondary school communities to articulate their vision and practice of inclusion?

The field of inclusive education provides useful guidelines based on empiric evidence for helping school communities to articulate a clear, holistic, and committed vision of inclusion in their school culture, policies, values, and practices (Ainscow, 2000; Carrington, Bourke, et al., 2012; Carrington & Robinson, 2004). The *Index for inclusion* is an influential framework for understanding inclusion and developing inclusive schools (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, 2011). At its core is the development of inclusive cultures through "putting values into action" (p. 17).¹¹⁸ Inclusive values are complementary and inextricably linked to practices (Booth & Ainscow, 2011; Mentis et al., 2005; Sapon-Shevin, 2007). The *Index for inclusion* guides school communities in discussing ways to connect inclusive values and beliefs with inclusive practices. It should be reminded here that as reported in 2.2.4, three sets of guidelines have been recently released in New Zealand to help schools going through a self-review process on how they enact inclusion (2011; Ministry of Education, 2013a; NZCER, n.d.).

Whether the *Index for inclusion* or/and other guidelines are used, school communities would benefit from being guided through their review process due to the complexity of inclusion itself, due to the multiplicity and diversity of the barriers to inclusion, and, following the present study, due to the complexity and conditionality of teachers' representations of inclusion and their articulation with practices. Carrington and Robinson (2004) and Ainscow (2000) suggest to involve a *critical friend* whose role is to facilitate the process, to support and challenge at the same time, and to mediate between the individual positions and practices for better consistency. Carrington and Robinson (2006) also suggest to "value and collaborate with parents and the

¹¹⁸ Although the authors provide a number of values among which are equality, rights, participation, respect for diversity, community, non-violence, trust and honesty among others, they also point out that values are to be discussed and agreed upon among the school community.

broader community” (p. 327), to “engage students as citizens in school review and development” (p. 329), and to “support teacher’s critical engagement with inclusive ideals and practices” (p. 331). The role of the school principal is central in developing such inclusive schools (Carrington, MacArthur, et al., 2012).

Specifically in relation to students identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties, it is suggested to combine specialist knowledge with the practical experience of teachers to foster their engagement (Anderson et al., 2007; Cooper, 2004). Although this perspective can be challenged from an inclusive education perspective as it could involve a mismatch between the inclusive education and the medical models, it should be considered as well, so long as the assumptions guiding the process and support are explicit and reflected upon.

Investigations using the theory of social representations and using the conceptual tools provided by this theory have the potential to enhance the transformative process schools go through if combined with the above-mentioned guidance for schools. Specific recommendations for further research are made in the conclusion to this thesis.

8.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed findings of both phases of this study within the context of the literature on inclusive education and on social representations research. The chapter was divided in three main sections. The first section discussed the social representations of inclusion among teacher participants through linking elements of the four categories forming the representational field with the characteristics of inclusion found in the literature. There was adequacy between the representational field and the literature, showing that teachers were knowledgeable, as a group, about inclusion. Comparisons were made between the categories forming the representational field, pointing to the need to resort to multiple data collection methods in order to grasp a social representation. The categories did not have the same importance for all participants and differences were found between the three case study schools. Then, participants were found to have positive attitudes towards inclusion, but the conditional character of inclusion was exposed in their representations, supporting the idea that teacher participants’ representations of inclusion were anchored in the integration model. Finally, barriers to inclusion identified in participants’ responses were discussed within the context of previous research undertaken in New Zealand. The second section of this chapter provided examples of how case study participants explained their practices using elements forming their social representations of inclusion. It was highlighted that a single element of a representation could

lead to different practices or different justifications or explanations. From there, the importance of reflecting individually and collectively on the representations-practices relationships was discussed in light of the literature in inclusive education. Finally, the third section built on the findings in order to suggest ways to support schools in the process of becoming more inclusive.

Chapter Nine

Conclusions

... the whole point of a school is to form some sort of social interactive society, a learning environment. If we are not working with each other and listening to each other we won't do that, it will be us and them. (Bernard, participant from Nikau College)

This study explored the knowledge of New Zealand secondary school teachers about inclusion using the framework provided by the theory of social representations. The study investigated to what extent the principles, values, and practices of inclusive education had permeated through secondary schools and were socially constructed among teachers. Anticipating that an increasing number of children would be integrated in mainstream education, New Zealand authors J. Mitchell and Mitchell (1987) called upon the education sector almost three decades ago to resolve issues this situation entailed, including the “gap that sometimes exists between expressed attitudes and actual behaviours of teachers” (p. 113). This study thus also looked at this recurring issue by way of investigating the relationships between teachers' representations of inclusion and their practices, particularly in the context of dealing with difficult behaviour at school, a situation reported as “the ‘elephant in the living room’ of the inclusive education agenda” (Cooper & Jacobs, 2011, p. 24).

The conclusions from the study highlight the multi-dimensional, context-dependent, and conditional character of teacher participants' social representations of inclusion. The barriers to inclusion identified by participants are also highlighted, followed by the complex relationships between representations and practices. After presenting a summary of the findings, this chapter presents contributions and implications of this study, allowing the formulation of recommendations intended for the secondary education sector. Limitations of the study are identified and propositions for future research are made.

9.1 Conclusions From the Study

This study asked the question: *What are the social representations of inclusion among secondary school teachers?* The information gathered from an online questionnaire and in three schools by way of case studies allowed the identification of the components of teacher participants' social representations of inclusion. These representations revealed multi-dimensional, context-dependent, and conditional.

Teachers' social representations of inclusion showed to be multi-dimensional as they encompassed practices, values, principles or ideas related to social justice, and resourcing issues. It is possible to draw on the elements forming the representational field of inclusion among teacher participants to paint a portrait of how inclusive looks like in schools. Based on teachers' social representations, schools that foster inclusion are schools where:

- teachers use differentiation to provide meaningful learning opportunities at the level of their students;
- teachers assess the progress and needs of the students;
- teachers develop positive relationships with their students;
- a safe classroom and school environment is provided;
- social skills and self-control are taught to help students with learning and behaviour;
- staff collaborate and communicate;
- there is consistency between teachers;
- a clear code of conduct sets expectations for students at the school-wide level; and
- teaching is reflected upon through practice appraisal.

In these schools, inclusion is noticeable through:

- academic and social participation of all students;
- achievement and progress at the student level and in various learning areas;
- recognition and valorisation of diversity;
- acceptance of everyone;
- respect for all;
- sense of belonging;

- sense of family and community;
- building confidence and focus on strengths; and
- developing holistic beings.

In addition, inclusive schools provide equitably for individual and groups of students, they permit access to the curriculum, they allow for everyone's voice to be heard, and they foster cultural responsiveness. Such schools have skilled and trained staff who take responsibility for students, stand up as advocates, attend PD, and do personal readings and/or engage in postgraduate courses to improve their practice. Inclusive schools also have a leader committed to meeting the needs of disabled students or students experiencing school difficulties. Inclusive schools are supportive of students and teachers, mostly through in-class teacher aide support which is preferred over specialist support, either in-class or outside. Finally, the physical environment is adapted and technology supports learning where necessary.

Teachers' social representations of inclusion were also shown to be context-dependent. This was noticed in two ways. First, teachers seemed to use different frames of reference when asked to define inclusion in general terms and when they talked about their experience of inclusion, thus leading to the hypothesis of a disconnection between the social (i.e., values and social justice) and professional (i.e., practices and resources) aspects of inclusion. An integrated vision would be more favourable to the development of inclusive schools. Second, some elements of the representational field were more important in each case study school. It was found that teachers' representations of their school community influenced their representations of inclusion.

Teachers' social representations of inclusion also have a conditional character. This aspect made consensus among case study participants who believed that for inclusion to happen, the following conditions needed to be in place:

- students' needs were not to be too severe, particularly behavioural needs;
- resources and support needed to be available for staff and students;
- teachers needed to be skilled and trained and should not resist to changing their practices; and
- the school culture needed to be supportive of inclusion and explicit about it.

These conditions for inclusion were part of an organised system embraced by all teachers in the case studies. These teachers did not necessarily perceive a contradiction between their representations of inclusion (or what they believed an inclusive school was) and the exclusion of some students from regular settings. This aspect of teachers' representations legitimately challenged students' right to be in a regular school. As a matter of fact, the notion of rights was infrequently mentioned by teachers. Findings also showed that some students identified or perceived as experiencing high behavioural difficulties were unwanted. The conditionality of inclusion embedded in teacher participants' representations as part of an organised system of thought and action which made consensus illustrates that their representations are anchored in the antecedent model of integration. This a major finding of this study. As Thomazet (2008) rightly points out in the title of his article, "Integration has limitations, not the inclusive school!" (p. 123).¹¹⁹

Findings also pointed out that it is difficult to talk about inclusion without referring to exclusion. Barriers to inclusion were identified in this study and they were aligned with the conditions for inclusion enunciated by participants (teachers, students, specialists, and teacher aides). The barriers identified by participants were:

- the lack of skills and knowledge of some teachers ;
- the resistance of some teachers to change their practices and/or collaborate with specialists;
- limited access to the curriculum (physical and economical barriers, NCEA barriers, no provision for students experiencing school difficulties);
- lack of funding and support;
- segregation of SEN students in special units;
- teachers giving up the responsibility for their students;
- teachers not developing positive relationships with their students;
- bullying (student-to-student bullying and controlling teachers);
- attribution of behavioural difficulties to student-related and family-related causes.

Other barriers were identified by the researcher as a result of comparing the information provided by participants to barriers already identified in the literature (Kearney, 2009; Prochnow, 2006). The barriers identified by the researcher are:

¹¹⁹ Original text: "L'intégration a des limites, pas l'école inclusive!".

- the ‘unwanted status’ of students experiencing behavioural difficulties;
- the use of stand-downs and suspensions to deal with continual disobedience;
- singling out of individual students or groups of students sitting apart or by ability in the classroom;
- streaming of students; and
- the conditional aspect of inclusion embedded in teachers’ representations.

Albeit the identification of many barriers to inclusion, findings indicate that teachers who participated in this study were knowledgeable, as a group, about inclusion. Their representations reflected many characteristics of inclusive education documented in the literature. In addition, many teachers identified barriers to inclusion and recognised their role or the role of teachers in creating some of them.

In response to the second research question *What practices do secondary school teachers use to manage students’ behaviour?* findings showed that participants used progressive interventions, starting with learning-focused strategies and moving on to more targeted interventions as the student did not comply or as the behaviours exhibited became more serious. There were however discrepancies in that some teachers moved on to behaviour-focused interventions more quickly than others.

The third research question asked *How are the social representations of inclusion among secondary school teachers and the practices they use to manage student behaviour related?* It is through the explanations and justifications provided by participants for what they did in class that links were established. The explanations and justifications used by participants drew on their representations of inclusion. The variety of explanations and justifications reported for a single classroom management practice unveils the complex relationships between people’s belief and knowledge and their actions. This is an area to explore to try and facilitate the transfer of inclusion into practice. This can help explain apparent conflicts between what teachers say and what they do.

9.2 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has investigated how inclusion was constructed among New Zealand secondary school teachers who participated in this research. It also looked at the relationships between these constructions or representations and teachers’ practices used to deal with behavioural

difficulties. It contributed to knowledge in five main ways. First, it has described how teachers conceptualise inclusion, showing that their representations are multi-dimensional, context dependent, and generally in agreement with descriptions of inclusion found in the literature. Second, through confirming that inclusion is still conditional according to teachers, it has situated their representations as anchored in the integration model. Additionally, it has provided an alternative explanation to the apparent contradictions between positive attitudes towards inclusion and the difficulties that have been mentioned by teachers over the last decades. Furthermore, it provided evidence on the nature of these conditions in the New Zealand context. These first two contributions provide evidence-based information as to how far knowledge about inclusive education has penetrated secondary schools. Third, the study has confirmed and identified barriers to the inclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties in New Zealand secondary schools. It has enriched the existing literature through the identification of barriers from the perspectives of teachers. Fourth, the study has shown how social representations work to justify similar practices applied in different situations, thus unveiling the complex relationships between teachers' beliefs and knowledge and their practices. Finally, the study has built on a different theoretical framework to conduct research on inclusion in the New Zealand context, thus enriching the existing body of knowledge by using different theoretical lenses.

9.3 Recommendations

This study has identified the knowledge of teachers about inclusion and has investigated the relationships between this knowledge and their practices in the context of dealing with behavioural difficulties. Sharing knowledge and skills seems crucial to increase the inclusiveness of classrooms and schools.

My experience over the years leads me to believe that in most schools the expertise needed to teach all pupils effectively is usually available amongst the teaching staff. The problem is that most schools know more than they use. Thus the task of moving things forward becomes one of finding ways of making better use of existing knowledge and skills, including the often dormant skill of working together in order to devise new ways of overcoming barriers to participation and learning. (Ainscow, 2000, p. 77)

The theory of social representations can contribute to finding ways to share and use this knowledge. Here is a series of questions that individuals and schools can use to make their representations of inclusion and their articulation with practice explicit.

- What are the origins of my/our knowledge about inclusion and how can I/we diversify these sources of information?
- Are my/our representations of inclusion made explicit and shared within the school?
- How do I/we explain and justify our practices with regard to our vision of inclusion?
- What barriers do I/we identify to inclusion and how can we address them?

9.4 Limitations

While it has contributed to knowledge, this study has limitations, like any research endeavour. The main limitations of the study are identified here.

- The participants self-volunteered to this study. As a result, it is possible that participants' interests and beliefs in relation to inclusion or problem behaviour at school had an influence on the findings.
- Likewise, the principals volunteered their schools to take part in the study by sending the invitation to staff. It is possible that schools with a particular interest in inclusion and behavioural difficulties took part.
- The use of case study methodology implies that the findings are associated with the particular contexts of the schools selected. This limits the transferability of the findings.
- The small sample size in both phases of the study is likely to impact on the transferability of the results.

9.5 Future Research

This study has used a new theoretical framework to investigate the phenomenon of inclusion in the New Zealand context, clearly demonstrating the capacity of this framework to contribute to our understanding of inclusion from a social constructivist perspective. The identification of areas for future research builds on the theory of social representations.

- Investigate the social representations of inclusion from the perspectives of other professional groups to compare their knowledge of inclusion and practices to those of teachers in order to identify areas of agreement and disagreement and inform collaboration.
- Look into the experience of teacher advocates in order to understand how they construct their knowledge of inclusion, develop and articulate a vision of their teaching practice grounded in the principles of inclusion, and find out mechanisms that would contribute to sharing their knowledge and skills through collaborative research.

- Study the relationships between teachers' representations of their school community and students and their representations of inclusion.

9.6 Final Words

Achieving a shared vision of inclusion that translates into practice to increase the participation, learning, achievement, and socialisation of all children is not an easy task. Exclusionary pressures and conditions for inclusion remain despite legislation, policy, research into good practice, and general good intentions. Some important considerations for school communities and for all involved in New Zealand education can be drawn from the findings of this study. First, it is crucial to open-up and to make explicit the discussion about inclusion. Second, the conditions for inclusion identified by participants have to be addressed as they contribute to maintain New Zealand education in an integration-based model and slow down progress towards inclusive education. Third, it is important to keep challenging the deficit views with regard to behavioural difficulties, to foster an ecological perspective, and to identify and address the barriers and conditions to the inclusion of students perceived or identified as experiencing behavioural difficulties. All these actions will contribute to education opening up life choices rather than closing them down:

“Education is a key arena for the opening up and closing down of life choices” (Slee & Weiner, 2001, p. 84).

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Appendices

Appendix A

Online questionnaire (Phase One)

INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS

Research project

This research project aims to understand how secondary education teachers, teacher aides, Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour (RTLBs), and Group Special Education (GSE) staff from Behaviour Support Teams view the concept of inclusion, with a focus on behavioural difficulties in secondary schools. Based on participants' perspectives, results from the entire research project will help formulate recommendations to inform professional development and initial teacher education.

Procedure

I invite you to participate in this questionnaire. I am interested in the issues you consider as important in terms of inclusion and behavioural difficulties. The questionnaire has 8 sections.

- Sections 1 to 6 are about **inclusion in general** (definition, attitudes, knowledge, experience and role).
- Section 7 is specific to **behavioural difficulties** (experience of behavioural difficulties and educational practices).
- Section 8 gathers demographical information.

Participants rights

Completion of the questionnaire implies informed consent and means that you have read and agreed to the conditions set out here. You have the right to decline to answer any particular question. All participants will remain anonymous. At the end of the questionnaire, you will be redirected to a second questionnaire. Enter this second questionnaire only if you want to request a summary of the findings or more information on the case studies to be conducted next year. You will have to provide your contact details (name, email, phone number). Your identity will remain confidential. This procedure ensures that your identity will not be associated to the responses you gave.

Completing the survey

It should take you about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It contains scales, multiple choices and it begins with a free word association question and open-ended questions. Please use the **NEXT** button at the bottom of each page to navigate through the questionnaire. After clicking this button, you will not be able to return to your answers, so make sure your responses are complete before going to the next page. When you are done, click the **DONE** button to record your responses.

If you have any question, please feel free to contact me.

Marie-Pierre Fortier
PhD Student
Massey University College of Education
Email: [insert]

Phone: [insert]

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 10/13. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 04 801 5799 x 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Thank you very much for taking the time to respond to this questionnaire

ENTER THE QUESTIONNAIRE >

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SECTION 1: Free Word Association

Question 1

Please answer the following question with single words or short expressions. You can write up to ten responses. The order of your responses does not matter. Use a new box for each response.

What words come to your mind when you think about inclusion?

One	<input type="text"/>
Two	<input type="text"/>
Three	<input type="text"/>
Four	<input type="text"/>
Five	<input type="text"/>
Six	<input type="text"/>
Seven	<input type="text"/>
Eight	<input type="text"/>
Nine	<input type="text"/>
Ten	<input type="text"/>

Question 2

From your responses to question 1, choose the three responses you believe best represent inclusion. Please copy the words or short expressions you have written for question 1 above.

Most representative response	<input type="text"/>
Second most representative response	<input type="text"/>
Third most representative response	<input type="text"/>

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SECTION 2: What is inclusion

Question 3

How do you define inclusion in your own words?

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Question 4

Indicate to what extent the characteristics below refer to an inclusive school. Use the scale provided where:

- 0: Not inclusive
- 1: Slightly inclusive
- 2: Moderately inclusive
- 3: Quite inclusive
- 4: Fully inclusive
- N/A: Not applicable to inclusion

	0	1	2	3	4	N/A
Teachers focus on student progress	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Staff feel responsible for meeting the needs of every student	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cultural artifacts and other indications of students' cultural backgrounds are present in the school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teacher aides are attached to particular students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The attendance of all students is valued and monitored	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teachers have high expectations for all students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Classrooms are heterogeneous or mixed (e.g. culture, socio-economical status, students' abilities and needs, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Schools have the right to determine enrolment eligibility (except for zoning criterion)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCO) takes actions to treat individual student's problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The school has a zero tolerance policy regarding bullying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students of same abilities work together most of the time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The school differentiates between categories of students with special needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teachers invite parents into the classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Students with physical disabilities read novels during the physical education class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students who repeatedly break school rules are suspended	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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SECTION 3: Attitudes and opinions about inclusion

Question 5

Indicate to what extent you agree with each of the following statements. Use the scale provided.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The regular classroom should be the best place to educate all students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Extra support for students with special needs is more efficient when provided outside the regular classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students with behavioural difficulties have more opportunities to improve their social skills in a regular classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Regular schools are safer when students with behavioural difficulties enrol in special schools	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In regular classrooms, students accept and become friends with their disabled classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Special schools are the best place to respond to the needs of students with special needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students with special needs should participate in the same learning activities as the rest of the class when included in regular classrooms	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
With the support of a special education specialist, every student can be successfully included in a regular classroom whatever his or her needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students with behavioural difficulties can improve their behaviour and succeed academically in regular classrooms	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Including students with special needs in a regular classroom is too much work for teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The inclusion of students with special needs in regular classrooms slows down the progress of their classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Certain categories of students should not be enrolled in regular schools	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having students with special educational needs in a regular school lowers the academic achievement performance of the school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Adaptations made to meet the needs of a particular student benefit his or her classmates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
All students belong in a regular classroom, whatever their needs or origins	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Question 6

Indicate how important in your opinion are the following for the success of inclusion. Use the scale provided where:

- 0: Not important
- 1: Slightly important
- 2: Moderately important
- 3: Quite important
- 4: Very important

	0	1	2	3	4
Attitudes of school staff	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attitudes of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Availability of information about inclusion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collaboration with parents / whānau	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collaboration with the community	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Curriculum adaptation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Funding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Initial teacher education	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Professional development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provision of teacher aides	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
School policy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Support offered to teachers by special education specialists such as Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour (RTLBs) and Group Special Education staff (GSE)

Question 7

Please indicate any other issue you believe is important regarding the inclusion of students having special educational needs in regular classrooms.

NEXT >>

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SECTION 4: Knowledge about inclusion

Question 8

How would you rate your level of knowledge about inclusion?

- Very low
- Low
- Moderate
- High
- Very high

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Question 9

From what sources do you get information about inclusive education? Tick as many as apply.

- Academics
- Attending conferences
- Educational publications
- Engagement in further teacher education
- Group Special Education personnel
- Heads of department in my school [**version A**] / Heads of department (school) [**version B**]
- Internet
- Initial teacher education [**version A**] / Initial education [**version B**]
- Medias (TV, radio, newspapers)
- Ministry of Education's publications

- Other teachers [**version A**]/ Teachers [**version B**]
- Parents
- Professional development sessions
- Research reports
- Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour
- School counsellors
- School leadership team (Principal, Dean, Deputy Principal, Assistant Principal)
- Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators (SENCOs)
- Teacher Aides
- Unions
- I do not get information about inclusive education
- Other (please specify):

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Question 10

For each of the following situations, indicate to what extent you have discussed inclusion or you have witnessed discussions about inclusion.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	N/A
In a university course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In departmental (or faculty) meetings [version A] In team meetings [version B]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with the school's leadership team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with other teachers [version A] In discussions with teachers [version B]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with parents	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with people having special educational needs (other than my students) [version A] In discussions with people having special educational needs (other than students) [version B]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with special education specialists (RTLBs, GSE staff)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with teacher aides	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In Individual Education Programme (IEP) meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In professional development sessions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

In school-wide meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In the classroom with my students [version A]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In the classroom with students [version B]					
In discussions with my students having special educational needs [version A]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In discussions with students having special educational needs [version B]					
In union meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In my everyday life (outside school)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question 11

Other than the situations listed in question 10, please mention all other situations where you have discussed inclusion or where you have witnessed discussions about inclusion:

Question 12

Do you have formal training in inclusive education and/or in special education?

- Yes
- No

[SKIP LOGIC: if YES, redirected to question 13; if NO, redirected to question 14.]

Question 13

Who provided the training? Tick as many as apply.

- Ministry of Education personnel
- Other teachers [version A] / Teachers [version B]
- Private providers
- Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour (RTLBS)
- School counsellors
- School leadership team
- Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators (SENCOs)
- University College of Education
- Other (please specify):

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SECTION 5: Experience of inclusion

Question 14

In your personal life (outside school), are you in contact with people living with a disability or having special needs? **[version A]**

In your personal life (outside school or work), are you in contact with people living with a disability or having special needs? **[version B]**

- Yes
- No

[SKIP LOGIC: if YES, redirected to question 15; if NO, redirected to question 16.]

Question 15

How would you describe your relationship to this person or these people? Tick as many as apply.

- Acquaintance
- Close friend
- Extended family member (cousin, aunt, uncle)
- Immediate family member (partner, child, parent, sibling, grandparents)
- Other (please specify):

Question 16

Overall, how would you rate the inclusiveness of your present school? **[version A]**

Overall, how would you rate the inclusiveness of the school(s) you work in at the present time? **[version B]**

- Not inclusive
- Slightly inclusive
- Moderately inclusive
- Quite inclusive
- Fully inclusive

[SKIP LOGIC: if NOT INCLUSIVE, redirected to question 17; if SLIGHTLY INCLUSIVE, redirected to question 18; if MODERATELY INCLUSIVE, redirected to question 19; if QUITE INCLUSIVE, redirected to question 20; if FULLY INCLUSIVE, redirected to question 21]

Question 17

What in your opinion makes your school *not inclusive*? **[version A]**

What in your opinion makes that school or these schools *not inclusive*? **[version B]**

Question 18

What in your opinion makes your school *slightly inclusive*? **[version A]**

What in your opinion makes that school or these schools *slightly inclusive*? **[version B]**

Question 19

What in your opinion makes your school *moderately inclusive*? [version A]

What in your opinion makes that school or these schools *moderately inclusive*? [version B]

Question 20

What in your opinion makes your school *quite inclusive*? [version A]

What in your opinion makes that school or these schools *quite inclusive*? [version B]

Question 21

What in your opinion makes your school *fully inclusive*? [version A]

What in your opinion makes that school or these schools *fully inclusive*? [version B]

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Question 22

Indicate how confident you would feel to include students with the following conditions in your regular classroom. [version A]

Indicate how confident you would feel to participate in the process of including students with the following conditions in a regular classroom. [version B]

Use the scale provided where:

0: Not confident

1: Slightly confident

2: Moderately confident

3: Quite confident

4: Very confident

	0	1	2	3	4
At-risk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Autism spectrum disorders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Behavioural difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Down syndrome	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emotional difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English as a second language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gifted and talented	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Health needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Learning difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mental health needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Physical impairment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sensory impairment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speech or communication difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Question 23

Tick the type(s) of condition you have encountered in your classroom that necessitated extra support. Tick as many as apply. **[version A]**

Tick the type(s) of condition you have encountered in your work. Tick as many as apply. **[version B]**

- Autism spectrum disorders
- Behavioural difficulties
- Down syndrome
- Emotional difficulties
- English as a second language
- Gifted and talented
- Health needs
- Learning difficulties
- Mental health needs
- Physical impairment
- Sensory impairment
- Speech or communication difficulties
- I have not encountered any of these conditions
- Other (please specify):

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SECTION 6: Roles

Question 24

Who do you believe should be involved in the inclusion of students with special needs? List the people you believe should be involved. You can write up to ten people using their title. The order of your responses does not matter.

- Person 1
- Person 2
- Person 3
- Person 4

Person 5

Person 6

Person 7

Person 8

Person 9

Person 10

Question 25

Describe the role you believe you play as a teacher to facilitate the inclusion of students with special educational needs. **[version A]**

Describe the role you believe you play to facilitate the inclusion of students with special educational needs. **[version B]**

Question 26

If you feel you need help to meet the needs of a student having special educational needs, who do you consult first?

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Question 27

The statements below describe different ways to provide extra help for a student with special needs. Rank them according to your preferences.

- 1: least preferred
- 2: second most preferred
- 3: most preferred

	1	2	3
A special education specialist (e.g. RTLB, GSE, SENCO, etc.) comes into my classroom to observe and give me advice on how to adapt my practice in order to meet the needs of the student. [version A]			
A special education specialist (e.g. RTLB, GSE, SENCO, etc.) goes into the classroom to observe and give advice to the teacher on how to adapt his/her practice in order to meet the needs of the student. [version B]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The student is taken outside my classroom for a special education specialist (e.g. RTLB, GSE, SENCO, etc.) to provide extra help. [version A]			
The student is taken outside the classroom for a special education specialist (e.g. RTLB, GSE, SENCO, etc.) to provide extra help. [version B]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

A teacher aide is present in my classroom to support my teaching and help the student. [version A]	○	○	○
A teacher aide is present in the classroom to support the teacher and help the student. [version B]			

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SECTION 7: Behaviour-related questions

Question 28

What types of behaviours have you encountered in your classroom? **[version A]**

What types of behaviours have you encountered in classrooms? **[version B]**

Tick as many as apply.

- Bullying
- Cheating
- Defiance
- Drug or alcohol consumption
- Excluding other students
- Fighting
- Hitting
- Inappropriate uniform
- Name-calling
- Noise making
- Off-task talking
- Out of seat
- Pushing
- Regular absences (truancy)
- Self withdrawal
- Spitting
- Stealing
- Swearing or using inappropriate language
- Talking back
- Threatening
- Throwing objects
- Yelling
- Other (please specify):

Question 29

In your opinion, what is the main cause of students' behavioural difficulties?

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Question 30

Have you ever felt that the safety of one of your students was threatened due to his or her own behaviour? [version A]

Have you ever felt that the safety of a student was threatened due to his or her own behaviour? [version B]

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Frequently

Question 31

Have you ever felt that the safety of the other students was threatened due to a student's behaviour?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Frequently

Question 32

Have you ever felt that your safety was threatened due to a student's behaviour?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Frequently

NEXT >>

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***** TEACHER ONLY QUESTION (version A)*****

Question 33 - Teachers

From whom have you received help or support in the past to deal with a student's difficult behaviour?

Tick as many as apply.

- Academics or researchers
- Behaviour Support Workers (GSE)

- Educational psychologists (GSE)
- Heads of department in my school
- Other teachers
- Parents
- Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour
- School counsellors
- School leadership team (Principal, Dean, Deputy Principal, Assistant Principal)
- Special Education Advisors (GSE)
- Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators
- Teacher Aides
- Unions
- Other (please specify):

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For each of the following question, please give up to three examples of practices you use in your classroom to manage students' behaviour. **[version A]**

For each of the following question, please give up to three examples of practices you use in your classroom to manage students' behaviour. **[version B]**

Question 34

What do you do to prevent disruptive behaviour from happening?

Question 35

What do you do to assess your students' behaviour? **[version A]**

What do you do to assess students' behaviour? **[version A]**

Question 36

What type of intervention do you use when a student's behaviour disrupts a lesson?

Question 37

What do you do to follow up after a student displayed disruptive behaviours?

NEXT >>

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Question 38

Which of the following procedures are in practice in your school to manage behavioural difficulties? **[version A]**

Which of the following procedures are in practice in the school(s) you work in to manage behavioural difficulties? **[version B]**

Tick as many as apply.

- Behavioural contract
- Bullying prevention programme
- Exclusion or expulsion
- Individual Educational Programme
- Meeting with parents
- Positive behaviour management programme
- Professional development
- Restorative practices
- Stand-downs
- Suspensions
- Other (please specify):

NEXT >>

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SECTION 8: Participant Information

Question 39

Your gender.

- Female
- Male

Question 40

Your age.

- 25 years old or younger
- 26-30 years old
- 31-35 years old

- 36-40 years old
- 41-45 years old
- 46-50 years old
- 51-55 years old
- 56 years old or older

Question 41

Your geographical area.

- South (South Island)
- Central South (Taranaki, Manawatu-Whanganui, Wellington)
- Central North (Coromandels, Waikato, Bay of Plenty, East Cape, Central Plateau, Hawkes' Bay)
- North (Northland, Auckland)

Question 42

What is the decile of your school? If you work in more than one school, tick as many as apply. **[version A]**

What is the decile of the school(s) you work in at present time? If you work in more than one school, tick as many as apply. **[version A]**

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 | <input type="checkbox"/> 6 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2 | <input type="checkbox"/> 7 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3 | <input type="checkbox"/> 8 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4 | <input type="checkbox"/> 9 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 10 |

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***** TEACHER ONLY QUESTION (version A)*****

Question 43 - Teachers

Indicate the subject(s) and year levels you teach this year . Use one box per subject.

Ex:

Subject & Year(s):

Subject & Year(s):

Subject & Year(s):

Subject & Year(s):

Subject & Year(s):

***** TEACHER AIDES, RTLB OR MOE:SE ONLY QUESTION (version B)*****

Question 44 – Teacher aides, RTLB, and MoE:SE staff

Your title.

- Behaviour Support Worker
- Educational Psychologist
- Experienced Teacher
- Resource Teacher: Learning and Behaviour
- Special Education Advisor
- Teacher Aide
- 51-55 years old
- Other (please specify)

***** TEACHER AIDES, RTLB OR MOE:SE ONLY QUESTION (version B)*****

Question 45 - Teacher aides, RTLB, and MoE:SE staff

At the moment in what years do you intervene? Tick as many as apply.

- Below Year 9
- Year 9
- Year 10
- Year 11
- Year 12
- Year 13
- Above Year 13

Question 46

How many years of experience do you have as a teacher? [version A]

How many years of experience do you have in that position? [version B]

- 5 years or less
- 6 to 10 years
- 11 to 15 years
- 16 to 20 years
- 21 to 25 years
- 26 to 30 years
- 31 years and over

***** TEACHER ONLY QUESTION (version A)*****

Question 47 - Teachers

At the moment which of these specific roles do you play in your school? Tick as many as apply.

- Assistant Principal
- Class Teacher

- Dean
- Deputy Principal
- Head of Department (or Faculty)
- Mentor for beginning teachers
- Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCO)
- Specialist Classroom Teacher
- Other (please specify):

***** TEACHER AIDES, RTLB OR MOE:SE ONLY QUESTION (version B)*****

Question 48 – Teacher aides, RTLB, and MoE:SE staff

What is your current place of work? Tick as many as apply.

- A regular school
- A cluster of regular schools
- A special school
- An alternative education centre
- The Ministry of Education – Special education services
- Other (please specify)

NEXT >>

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Question 49

What is your highest academic qualification in education?

- None **[this choice in version B only]**
- Certificate
- Graduate Diploma
- Bachelors Degree
- Bachelors Degree with Honours
- Postgraduate Certificate
- Postgraduate Diploma
- Masters Degree
- Doctoral Degree
- Other (please specify)

Question 50

Do you have qualifications in other areas than education?

- Yes
- No

If *YES*, please specify the qualification and the field of study:

NEXT >>

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Question 51

Are there any other issues or considerations you would like to highlight regarding inclusion and/or behavioural difficulties?

- Yes
- No

If *YES*, please specify:

NEXT >>

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This is the last page of the questionnaire.

You will be redirected onto a second questionnaire giving you the opportunity to request a summary of the research findings and information about the next phase of the research (case studies). You have the right to accept or refuse.

In any case, please click the **DONE** button below to record your responses.

Thank you very much for your time.

DONE

NEXT >>

-----REDIRECTION ON THE SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE-----

INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS

Thank you very much for your interest in my research project. Enter this survey only if you want to request a summary of the research findings or if you want information about the case studies to be conducted next year. If not, then just click the EXIT button in the upper right corner of this page.

This questionnaire contains only one page including the following questions:

- I Your interest in the case studies.
- I Your interest in receiving a summary of the findings.
- I Your contact details (name, phone number, email address and your title).

When you are done, click the DONE button. If you have any question, please feel free to contact me.

Marie-Pierre Fortier

PhD Student, Massey University College of Education

Email: [insert]

Phone: [insert]

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 10/13. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 04 801 5799 x 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

NEXT >>

-----REDIRECTION ON THE SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE-----

Question 1

I am interested in receiving more information about the case studies:

- Yes
- No

If you have answered YES, an email will be sent to you within the next month.

A second email will be sent next December for you to signal any changes in your contact details for 2011.

Question 2

I am interested in receiving a summary of the research findings:

- Yes
- No

If you have answered YES, the summary is likely to be sent by email in a PDF format at the beginning of 2011.

If you prefer to receive a hard copy, please communicate with me either by email or by phone.

Question 3

Please provide your contact details.

Name :	<input type="text"/>
Phone :	<input type="text"/>
Email :	<input type="text"/>
Title (e.g., teacher aide) :	<input type="text"/>

Please click the **DONE** button below to record your responses.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME!

DONE

Appendix B

Request letter (Phase One)

[LETTERHEAD]

[Insert name]

[Insert title]

[Insert name of organisation]

[Insert workplace address]

[Insert email address]

Dear [insert Mr. or Ms. name],

My name is Marie-Pierre Fortier. I am a doctoral student at Massey University College of Education. My doctoral research project is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Jane Prochnow and Dr. Alison Kearney. As a special education teacher, I am interested in education professionals' views on inclusive education in relation to the inclusion of teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary schools. *[Insert in letter for school principals: To conduct my research project, I need to contact potential teacher and teacher aide participants working in 56 New Zealand schools. I am sending you this email because your school has been randomly selected among a pool of 282 state and state integrated co-educational schools providing schooling to students enrolled from year 9 to year 13.]*

My research project has three phases. Based on the research literature and on New Zealand education professional publications (phase 1), I have designed a web-based questionnaire intended for RTLB, teachers, teacher aides and GSE staff (phase 2). The questionnaire aims to explore their representations of inclusion and find out more about the educational practices they use to deal with behavioural difficulties in the classroom. Results from the questionnaire will be used to select case studies to be conducted in two schools (phase 3). *[insert in letter for school principals: The two schools will be selected later.]* The objective is to understand how the representations function in the classroom context, and to understand how they are linked to educational practices. *[Insert for RTLB or MoE:SE staff as appropriate: The case studies might include RTLBs/GSE staff.]*

Phase 1 is now completed and I am ready to collect data for phase 2. Therefore, I am seeking your permission to contact *[insert in letter for school principals: teachers and teacher aides working in your school (Years 9 to 13)]* *[insert in letter for RTLB National Coordinator: all RTLB]* *[insert in letter for MoE:SE district managers: GSE staff from Behaviour Support Teams* working in your district, including **educational psychologists, special education advisors, experienced teachers and behaviour support workers**]. I want to invite them to respond to the web-based questionnaire (SurveyMonkey). Each *[insert appropriate title]* contacted as a potential participant will be free to decide whether or not he/she wants to respond to the questionnaire. I will not be able to identify who had made the decision to do it. Please note that all participants will remain anonymous to me unless they contact me to ask a question, or give their contact details to receive information about the case studies. However, the responses given by an individual will not be linked to his/her identity, and participants' identity will remain confidential.

Along with your permission, I would need your help to send a letter (via email) to potential *[insert appropriate title]* participants. The letter aims to inform them about my research project, invite them to participate, and it contains a web link to the survey. Please reply to this email to let me know whether or not you agree for me to contact *[insert appropriate title]*. If you agree, I will provide you or a designated person with an easy-to-follow procedure to initially send the letter and to send one reminder email. Please note that a positive email response would be provided to Massey University Human Ethics Committee – Southern B who has approved the research project. *[insert in letter for MoE: SE district managers: This project was also reviewed by the Ministry of Education Ethics and Advisory Team.]*

If you have questions or if you need further information, please do not hesitate to contact me. I look forward to hearing from you.

Kind Regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Phone: [insert]

Email: [insert]

Appendix C

Information sheet (Phase One)

[LETTERHEAD]

The Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Behavioural Difficulties

INFORMATION SHEET FOR [INSERT TITLE]

Phase Two

Dear [insert title]

I would like to introduce myself and invite you to participate in my doctoral research project. My name is Marie-Pierre Fortier and I am a full-time doctoral student at Massey University College of Education. My research project is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Jane Prochnow and Dr. Alison Kearney. Being a teacher myself, I am interested in education professionals' views on inclusive education in relation to the inclusion of teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary schools. I believe this research project is an opportunity for you to reflect on both your representations of inclusion and on the educational practices you use to deal with behavioural difficulties in the classroom, and to highlight issues you believe are important in this matter. After completion of the entire research project I intend to formulate recommendations to inform professional development and pre-service formation. These recommendations will be based on the perspectives of [insert title] and other education professionals and support staff.

What is the purpose of the research project?

My research project has three phases. Based on the research literature and on New Zealand professional educational publications (phase 1), I have designed a web-based questionnaire (phase 2) intended for teachers, teacher aides, RTLBs and GSE staff. The questionnaire aims to provide a description of your representations of inclusion and find out more about the educational practices you and other professionals and support staff use to deal with behavioural difficulties in the classroom. Results from the questionnaire will then be used to select case studies to be conducted in two schools (phase 3). The case studies' objective is to understand how the representations function in the classroom context, to understand how they are linked to educational practices. Phase 1 is now completed and I am ready to collect data for phase 2. Therefore, I am inviting you to respond to the web-based questionnaire. Details follow.

Who is involved?

The web-based questionnaire from phase two is intended for teachers, teacher aides, RTLBs and GSE staff members working in Behaviour Support Teams. Specifically, you and other *[insert title]* have been selected as potential participants because you work *[insert for teachers and teacher aides: in a state or state integrated co-educational school providing schooling to year 9 to year 13 students]* *[insert for RTLB and MoE:SE staff: with students experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary schools]*. To have an accurate understanding of the views *[insert title]* have on inclusion, I needed to contact *[insert for teachers and teacher aides: many schools]*. Thus, yours and 55 other schools have been randomly selected among 282 schools throughout New Zealand. The Principal of your school, *[insert Mr. or Ms. name]*, has given me *[insert either his or her]* permission to contact you and has helped me to send you this email.] *[insert for RTLB and MoE:SE staff: [title] in New Zealand. [insert name] has given me permission to contact you and has helped me to send you this email.]*

What is involved?

If you accept to take part in the project, you will be responding to the web-based questionnaire. This should require about 30 minutes. The questions include a free word association, multiple choices, scales and open-ended questions. If you make the decision to respond to the questionnaire, you will be asked about your own definition of inclusion, your attitudes about, your knowledge and experience of inclusion, and the educational practices you use to deal with behavioural difficulties. It also intends to ask you about issues you consider as important ones in terms of inclusion and behavioural difficulties. Other questions concern personal data (years of experience, subject, training, etc.).

To access the questionnaire, you can click on the web link found at the very end of this information sheet. Such a procedure ensures that all participants remain anonymous to me. I will not be able to identify who had made the decision to respond to the questionnaire, unless you want more information. At the very end of the questionnaire, you will have the opportunity to request a summary of the research findings and more details about the case studies to be conducted in phase 3. To do so, you will enter a really short SurveyMonkey questionnaire in order to provide your contact details. In that way, I will not be able to link your responses to your identity. It will therefore remain confidential.

What happens with the data collected?

If you respond to the questionnaire, all the information you give will be stored on the SurveyMonkey website for a short period of time. Access to the responses is password protected. After the end of data collection, the survey will not be accessible through the web link anymore and I will export data on my personal and workplace computers which are password protected. All files will be deleted after five years.

As stated above, you will have the possibility to request a summary of the research findings from phase two. After analysis of the information, the third phase of the research project will be conducted. Once the project is entirely completed, the research findings will be published in my doctoral thesis which will be available from Massey University Library. I also intend to send a summary of my research findings to *[insert organisation]* and to present the results at conferences and in papers.

What are your rights if you decide to take part in the research project?

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. Completion of the questionnaire implies consent. Thus you have no consent form to sign. Please note that you have the right to decline to answer any particular question if you believe it is causing you discomfort.

If you agree to participate, I invite you to keep this information sheet. I welcome all questions and concerns. If you have any query about my research project or about your potential participation, please feel free to contact me. You can also contact my supervisor, Dr. Jane Prochnow. If you have problems accessing the questionnaire from the link found below, do not hesitate to contact me using the following contact details.

Kind Regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier***Doctoral Research Student***

School of Educational Studies
College of Education, Massey University
[insert address]
Phone: [insert]
Email: [insert]

Dr. Jane Prochnow***Doctoral Supervisor***

School of Educational Studies
College of Education, Massey University
[insert address]
Email: [insert]

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 10/13. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Karl Pajo, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 04 801 5799 x 6929, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Access to the questionnaire: *[insert appropriate link to the SurveyMonkey website]*

Please note that you can respond to the questionnaire until **[INSERT DATE 2010]** after which date the questionnaire will not be accessible anymore.

Appendix D

Follow-up letters for participation in Phase Two

Dear *[Insert name]*,

I am contacting you because you have requested more information about the last phase of my research project: case studies. Here are more details. So far, the web-based questionnaire (phase two) has allowed examination of how teachers, teacher aides and special education specialists view inclusion through their representations. From the questionnaire I also learnt more about behaviour management practices used in secondary classrooms. The case studies (phase three) will allow me to deepen our understanding of these representations and educational practices in real school context. I plan to conduct four case studies in four schools. People involved include school personnel (teachers, teacher aides, and other school staff involved in behaviour management), special education specialists and students experiencing behavioural difficulties.

The data collection methods in which adult participants may take part are:

- a short questionnaire on social representations of inclusion for school staff;
- two interviews with voluntary adult participants;
- observation in the classroom and/or self-report forms of behavioural events.

To be selected in a case study, a school has to be:

- state or state integrated;
- co-educational; and
- secondary or composite providing schooling for students enrolled in Year 9 to Year 13.

If you believe your school possesses those characteristics and if you have interest in finding out more, please email me at *[insert]*. I will send you more information. **Please make sure you give me the name of the school(s) you work in.** Schools which have participated in phase two (web-based questionnaire) will first be considered to be part in a case.

[Add paragraph if participants requested a summary of finding: On other matters, I want to let you know that I am currently working on a report summarizing the findings from the web-based questionnaire. I will send it via email when it is ready. Please email me if your contact details change.]

Best regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Hi *[insert name]*,

First of all, thank you for your interest in my project. For the last phase of my research, I want to deepen our understanding of how teachers", special education specialists" and support staff's views of inclusion function in real classrooms and examine how they are linked to educational practices. To do so, I plan to conduct four case studies in four secondary schools. Here is more information regarding who and what is involved in each school.

What is involved and from whom

- Collection of school data:
Collected with help from the Principal or his/her nominee to describe the school context.
- Questionnaire (15 minutes):
Teachers, teacher aides and other school staff involved with students experiencing behavioural difficulties will be invited to respond to a short anonymous paper-pencil questionnaire on their representations of inclusion.
- Interviews (30 minutes each):
Voluntary school staff (e.g. teachers, teacher aides, other school personnel involved with behaviour management) and special education specialists (e.g. Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour and Group Special Education staff) will be invited to participate in two interviews. Interview one focuses on representations and experiences of inclusion and interview two focuses on educational practices.
- Classroom observation (no additional time involvement)
Self-report forms (up to 30 minutes)
Observation sessions will be conducted in the classrooms of voluntary teacher participants. The researcher will focus on the adults" educational practices. Alternatively, adult participants who will not be involved in observation will be invited to report behavioural events they encountered in their practice on self-report forms.

Protections for participants

Permission has to be granted from schools and other organisations before I conduct my research. All potential participants have the right to decline my invitation and must not feel pressured to participate. With due respect to all participants, I will pay careful attention to maintain schools' names and participants" identities confidential. All documentation will be securely kept and destroyed after 5 years.

What is next?

[Insert the appropriate segment:

The school/s you work in has/have participated in the web-based questionnaire and will then be

considered first for the case studies. I believe your school/s represent/s a rich environment to successfully conduct this research. I also believe people within your school community could benefit from participating in my research. It is a good opportunity for you to reflect on inclusion and on your experience of it with an impartial person. When requesting permission, I will mention that someone has interest in the research. I will contact you later if I get permission.

[OR]

I want to invite schools which participated in phase two first. The school/s you work in has/have not participated in the web-based questionnaire. It may be considered later for the case studies. I will therefore keep your contact details.]

If you require any further information or have any question please feel free to contact me via email at *[insert]* or phone me on *[insert]*.

Thank you for the opportunity to let you know about my research.

Regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Appendix E

Request letter to school principals and boards of trustees (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

Principal
Board of Trustees
[Insert school's name]

Dear [insert name],
Dear Trustees,

I am Marie-Pierre Fortier, a doctoral student at Massey University College of Education. I work under the supervision of Dr. Jane Prochnow and Dr. Alison Kearney. As a special education teacher, I am interested in education professionals', support staff's and special education specialists' views on inclusive education in relation to the inclusion of teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary schools. My research project has three phases. Based on the research literature and on New Zealand professional educational publications (phase 1), I have designed a web-based questionnaire (phase 2) intended for teachers, teacher aides, RTLBs and for GSE staff. Results from the questionnaire have been used to design phase 3 for which I plan to conduct four case studies in four schools. The case studies' objective is to deepen our understanding on how education professionals', support staff's and special education specialists' representations of inclusion function in the classroom and how they are linked to their educational practices.

Last year, I have requested permission to send information about my research project to teachers and teacher aides working in your school. I am contacting you because I am looking forward to starting the last phase of my project. People from your school have participated in the questionnaire and showed interest in the case studies.

I believe your school is a rich environment to successfully conduct this research. I also believe people within your school community could benefit from participating in my research. It is a good opportunity for teachers, other school personnel and even for students experiencing behavioural difficulties to reflect on their own representations of inclusion and their experience of it. In addition, teachers and school personnel will be able to discuss their educational practices with an impartial person. This could result in an improvement of their practices.

But who exactly would be involved and what will be asked from them?

Principal

- Giving permission along with the Board of Trustees for me to conduct my research project in your school. I am open to discuss any question or concern you may have in this regard. If you agree, you can sign the included consent form and return it to me.
- Nominate a person responsible for behaviour management in your school to help me identifying and approaching potential student participants (e.g. SENCO, Dean, Head of Special Education Unit, etc. – or yourself if you take charge of behaviour management).
- Help me collect school data such as roll, number of stand-downs, suspensions, exclusions, expulsions, number of SEN students, behaviour management policies and programmes etc.). You can also nominate someone to help me. This data will be used to describe the school context and will in no way refer to individual students' name and details. All numbers will be rounded in order to increase the protection regarding confidentiality.

Nominee

- Help me identifying and approaching student participants according to the procedure approved by Massey University Human Ethics Committee Southern B.
- Provide support during the data collection process (e.g. choose location for a sealed box to collect the questionnaires, book rooms for the interviews, target school support for student interviews).

School staff

This group includes teachers, teacher aides and other school staff involved in behaviour management.

- Questionnaire (time involvement: maximum of 15 minutes)
Short anonymous paper-pencil questionnaire on social representations of inclusion. The questionnaire would be distributed to all school staff involved in teaching and behaviour management. Distribution and collection procedures will be negotiated with the school.
- Two semi-structured interviews (time involvement: 30 minutes each interview)
I would like to interview a maximum of 15 participants. Interview one aims to gain information on participants' representations of inclusion and plan the remaining data collection with participants. Interview two aims to discuss educational practices and is expected to enhance participants' reflection on their practices as participants will be invited to comment on the practices reported last year in the previous phase of the research. Interviews will be conducted at school in a suitable location in agreement with the school.
- Observation sessions (no additional time involvement)
Self-report form of behavioural events (time involvement: 30 minutes)
Observation sessions will be conducted in the classrooms of voluntary teachers (preference given to teachers who also agree to be interviewed). The researcher will focus on the adults' educational practices only. Alternatively, adult participants who will not be

observed will be invited to report behavioural events they encounter in their practice on self-report forms.

Staff from other organisations

If people from other organisations such as Group Special Education are involved in the school's behaviour management, I would like to invite them to participate in my research (two interviews and self-report forms). I will need to seek permission from *[insert appropriate organisations]* before including participants from *[insert appropriate groups]*.

Students experiencing behavioural difficulties

The perspective of students experiencing difficulties at school is central to learning more about inclusion. This is why I would like to interview students experiencing behavioural difficulties (maximum of 15 students in larger schools). The interview is likely to last for a maximum of 30 minutes and would be conducted outside class time. A suitable location would be agreed on with the Principal/nominee. Students will be given the opportunity to review the audio recording of the interview with the researcher. A detailed procedure to identify and approach potential student participants is approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC). This includes making sure the eligibility criteria for student participation are met: 1) identified as experiencing special educational needs in terms of behaviour; 2) has the ability to give informed and voluntary consent; and 3) parents/caregivers must already be aware of their child's difficulties at school as the research must not inform them of existing needs.

All potential adult and student participants will have the right to decline my invitation and should not feel pressured to participate. With due respect to all participants, I will pay careful attention to maintain confidentiality. I will not reveal your school's and individual participants' names. I will take special measures so your school and participants cannot be identified: all numbers will be rounded when describing school data, pseudonyms will be used for all participants and in place of the school's name, the school location will be described in general terms, and all documentation including the signed consent forms will be securely kept and destroyed after 5 years.

I would like to discuss the details regarding this last phase of my research project with you. Please choose a time that suits you best and we can arrange a way to talk. After discussion, if you agree for me to conduct a case study in your school, you will need to complete the consent form (included) and return it to me.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Kind regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier
Doctoral Research Student
School of Educational Studies
College of Education, Massey University
[insert address]
Phone: [insert]
Email: [insert]

Dr. Jane Prochnow
Doctoral Supervisor
School of Educational Studies
College of Education, Massey University
[insert address]
Email: [insert]

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 11/01. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Acting Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 8729, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

PRINCIPAL & BOARD OF TRUSTEES CONSENT FORM

I have read the *Request letter* and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

PRINCIPAL

I agree for the research project to be conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier in my school under the conditions set out in the request letter.

Principal's Signature: _____ Date: _____
Full Name – printed: _____

CHAIR OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

I agree for the research project to be conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier in our school under the conditions set out in the request letter.

Chair's Signature: _____ Date: _____
Full Name – printed: _____

Please return to the researcher using the pre-addressed and pre-paid envelope provided.

Appendix F

Confidentiality agreement for the liaison person (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I (Full Name - printed) agree to keep confidential the identity of participants in the project entitled *The Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Behavioural Difficulties* conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier.

I will not disclose information that could lead to the identification of participants in the project to people outside the research project.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

Appendix G

Initial invitation to participate for school staff (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

Hi,

I would like to introduce myself and invite you to participate in my research project. My name is Marie-Pierre Fortier and I am a doctoral student at Massey University. Before starting my post-graduate studies, I was a special education teacher working mainly with teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties.

I arrived in New Zealand in 2009. From that moment onwards, I have learnt a lot about your education system. I also have discovered very interesting programmes and initiatives related to behaviour management in secondary schools. I have strong interest in the links between behavioural difficulties and inclusive education. I believe this is a worthwhile field of research and I need help to find out more.

Specifically, my research project seeks to describe and understand education professionals', support staff's, and special education specialists' views on inclusive education in relation to the inclusion of teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties. I am also interested in the educational practices used to deal with disruptive behaviours and help students. So far, I have conducted a document analysis and a web-based questionnaire. For the last phase of my research, I want to conduct case studies in four schools.

I would like to invite you to take part in this research project. Please note that I have got permission to do so. If you agree to take part, you may participate in two interviews (30 minutes each). You may also be involved in classroom observation (no additional time involvement) or report behavioural events you encountered in your practice on report forms (30 minutes). A short questionnaire (15 minutes) would also be distributed to school staff.

If you would like to participate or just like to find out more, email me at *[insert]* or phone me at *[insert]* and I will send you more information.

Thanks for the opportunity to inform you about my research.

Regards, Marie-Pierre

Appendix H

Information sheet and consent form for adult participants (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

INFORMATION SHEET FOR ADULT PARTICIPANTS

Hi,

I would like to introduce myself and invite you to participate in my research project. My name is Marie-Pierre Fortier and I am a doctoral student at Massey University College of Education. I work under the supervision of Dr. Jane Prochnow and Dr. Alison Kearney. I am interested in education professionals', support staff's and special education specialists' views on inclusive education in relation to the inclusion of teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary schools. I am also interested in the educational practices used to deal with disruptive behaviours and help students.

What is the purpose of the research project?

The first two phases of my project are completed. They aimed to provide information on teachers', teacher aides', RTLBs' and GSE staff's representations of inclusion. They also sought to find out more about the educational practices used to deal with disruptive behaviours. I am now ready to start data collection for the third phase. I plan to conduct four case studies in four schools in order to understand how the representations function in the classroom context, how they are linked to educational practices. I have got permission to conduct a case study in your school.

Who is involved?

Different people are involved in each case: school staff including teachers, teacher aides and other staff involved in behaviour management; staff working for other agencies that collaborate with the school; and students experiencing behavioural difficulties. I am looking for a maximum of 15 adult participants in your school. The actual participants will be chosen randomly among the people who will have signed and returned their consent form. *[Insert for school staff: I am looking for a maximum of 15 adult participants in your school. The actual participants will be chosen randomly among the people who will have signed and returned their consent form. People who agree to take part in all data collection methods will be preferred.]* People who agree to take part in all data collection methods will be preferred.

What is involved?

School staff will be invited to respond to a short questionnaire (15 minutes). All information will be provided on an information sheet specific to the questionnaire. You will be invited as well but you have the right to decline this invitation. The questionnaire is anonymous so if you make the decision to respond, I will not be able to know.

- Interview one (30 minutes)

I invite you to participate in a first interview about inclusion and your experience of it. If you accept, the interview will be audio recorded helping me focus on what you are saying instead of taking notes. At the end, we would plan and agree on further data collection.

- Observation sessions (no additional involvement)

After the interview, I would like to conduct observation sessions in your classroom to observe your behaviour management practices. I would appreciate if you could introduce me to your students before. I want to conduct non-participant observation. Thus my presence should not interfere with your work and your students' work. I will use an observation sheet to gather information. No audio or image recording is involved. Again, if you accept, we will agree on the details.

- Self-report forms of behavioural events (30 minutes)

If you do not agree to take part in observation sessions, I will invite you to report behavioural events you encountered in your practice on report forms.

- Interview two (30 minutes)

I would like to meet you for a second interview to talk about educational practices. I would also seek your opinion on a pre-analysis of the reported and observed educational practices. This interview would also be audio recorded. I believe this is a good opportunity for you to reflect on and to share about your practice.

What happens with the data collected?

If you decide to participate, I will do my very best to keep your identity and all the information you give me confidential. If you agree to be interviewed and for the interviews to be audio recorded, the recorded information will be transcribed in the written form and will be sent to you for review and editing if you want to. The audio recording will be deleted once this is done. If you decide to participate, all the information you will have provided to me will be securely stored. Your name, the name of your school or any other information allowing people to identify you or other participants will not be revealed during the project and when reporting the results. Your signed consent form will be kept in a lockable cabinet. All information, including the consent form, will be destroyed after 5 years.

After completion of the entire research project I intend to formulate recommendations to inform professional development and initial teacher education. The findings will be published in my doctoral thesis which will be available from Massey University Library. I plan to present the results at conferences and in papers. I believe your school and yourself can benefit from this evidence-based reflection. This is why I also intend to send a summary of my research findings to your school for staff to consult.

What are your rights if you agree to take part in the research project?

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- withdraw from the study up until the end of data collection in your school;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview;
- decline to answer any particular question;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

I invite you to keep this information sheet. If you agree to participate and complete the consent form, I would like you to return it to me *[insert how]*. I welcome all questions and concerns. If you have any query about my research project or about your potential participation, please feel free to contact me. You can also contact my supervisor, Dr. Jane Prochnow. See contact details below.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Doctoral Research Student

School of Educational Studies

College of Education, Massey University

[insert address]

Phone: *[insert]*

Email: *[insert]*

Dr. Jane Prochnow

Doctoral Supervisor

School of Educational Studies

College of Education, Massey University

[insert address]

Email: *[insert]*

Committee Approval Statement:

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 11/01. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Acting Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 8729, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM – ADULT PARTICIPANTS

I have read the Information sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE BOX

I agree / I do not agree to be observed by the researcher [*Insert for school staff only*].

I agree / I do not agree to complete self-report forms.

I agree / I do not agree to be interviewed.

I agree / I do not agree to the interviews being sound recorded.

I wish / I do not wish to have my recordings returned to me.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature:

Date:

.....

Full Name – printed:

.....

Appendix I

Procedure to identify and approach potential student participants (Phase Two)

Procedure to identify and approach potential student participants

The procedure below was approved by Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) Southern B. It needs to be followed in identifying and approaching potential student participants.

If you have any question or concern and would like to discuss the procedure, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Again, thank you for helping me!

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Email: [insert]

Mobile: [insert]

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1. Does the student meet ALL the following criteria for eligibility?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identified as having SEN in terms of behaviour. - Has the ability to give informed and voluntary consent. <p style="margin-left: 40px;"><i>This means the student understands what is involved, his/her rights stated on the information sheet and that he/she must not feel pressured to participate.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Parents/caregivers already aware of his or her difficulties at school. | <p>→ Yes: Go to step 2.</p> <p>No: Student not eligible for participation. Do not go further.</p> |
| <p>2. Is the student under 16 years old?</p> | <p>→ Yes: Go to step 3.</p> <p>No: The student is 16 years old or older. Go to step 4.</p> |
| <p>3. Do parents/caregivers give permission for the Principal/nominee to provide their child with more information on the project?</p> <p>Would they consent for their child to participate after receiving more information?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contact the students' parents/caregivers (phone). • Use Appendix A: Guidelines for contacting parents/caregivers – step 5. | <p>→ Yes: Go to step 4.</p> <p>No: Student not eligible for participation. Do not go further.</p> |
| <p>4. Provide the student with the Information Sheet and Consent Form. Read it with him/her.</p> <p>Encourage the student to discuss his/her potential participation with his/her parents/caregivers.</p> <p>Tell the student he/she can contact me for more information.</p> <p>Ask the student to bring the consent form (completed and signed) if he/she agrees to participate. Parental consent needed for students younger than 16 years old.</p> | <p>→ Student brings back the signed consent form: Go to step 5.</p> |
| <p>5. Collection of the consent forms.</p> <p>Please keep those forms secure.</p> | <p>AT THIS POINT, PLEASE CONTACT ME.</p> |
| <p>6. Other steps - your help might be needed:</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Find a location for the collection of questionnaires. - Organise a time and place for the interviews. - Help target support for students if needed. |

Guidelines for contacting parents/caregivers (step 5)

Introduce the project:

- A Massey University student is doing a research project in our school. Her name is Marie.
- She wants to interview students experiencing difficulties at school to hear their point of view about their classroom experience.
- Her project was approved by the university's ethics committee.
- Your child [give name] was identified by the school as a potential participant.

Ask permission:

- Do you give me permission to provide your child with more information on the project?
- Would you consent for their child to participate after receiving more information?

*** A positive response must be given for the student to be eligible for participation ***

What next:

- I will give a letter from the researcher to your child to verify if he or she is interested.
- The letter contains more information.
- The letter also contains the researcher's contact details. You can contact her to ask questions or know more if you want.
- Written consent will be needed from your child and from you.

Appendix J

Request letter to the school principal, chair of the board of trustees and director of the external unit (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

Principal and Board of Trustees, *[insert school name]*

Director, *[insert unit name]*

Dear [Mx. X] and dear Trustees,

Dear [Mx. X],

I am Marie-Pierre Fortier, a doctoral student at Massey University College of Education. I work under the supervision of Dr. Jane Prochnow and Dr. Alison Kearney. As a special education teacher, I am interested in education professionals', support staff's and special education specialists' views on inclusive education in relation to the inclusion of teenagers experiencing behavioural difficulties in secondary schools. My research project has three phases. Based on the research literature and on New Zealand professional educational publications (phase 1), I have designed a web-based questionnaire (phase 2) intended for teachers, teacher aides, RTLBs and for GSE staff. Results from the questionnaire have been used to design phase 3 for which I plan to conduct three case studies in three schools. The case studies' objective is to deepen our understanding on how education professionals', support staff's and special education specialists' representations of inclusion function in the classroom and how they are linked to their educational practices.

I am conducting a case study involving a secondary school in your region (case study school). As part of this case study, I would like to interview students attending *[insert unit name]*. The liaison person for the case study school who is helping me identify and approach potential student participants according to the procedure approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) Southern B believes my research would benefit from meeting with students attending the [unit]. Only students on the case study school's roll would be approached. I also believe it is a good opportunity for students experiencing behavioural difficulties to reflect on their own representations of inclusion and their experience of it.

I understand [school name] is the host school for *[insert unit name]*. I am therefore contacting you to request permission to invite selected students in the *[insert unit name]* to participate in an interview with me. But who exactly would be involved and what will be asked from them?

Principal and Board of Trustees of the host school and Director of the activity centre

- Giving permission for me to conduct interviews with voluntary students enrolled in the case study school and attending *[insert unit name]* at the moment of data collection. I am open to discuss any question or concern you may have in this regard. If you agree, you can sign the included consent form and return it to me.
- In order to protect the case study school, I am also asking you to sign the confidentiality agreement included and return it to me.

Students experiencing behavioural difficulties

The perspective of students experiencing difficulties at school is central to learning more about inclusion. This is why I would like to interview students experiencing behavioural difficulties. All potential participants will be approached following the procedure approved by MUHEC. This includes making sure the eligibility criteria for student participation are met: 1) identified as experiencing special educational needs in terms of behaviour; 2) has the ability to give informed and voluntary consent; and 3) parents/caregivers must already be aware of their child's difficulties at school as the research must not inform them of existing needs. The interview is likely to last for a maximum of 30 minutes and would be conducted outside class time. A suitable location would be identified in coordination with the case study school's liaison person. Students will be given the opportunity to review the audio recording of the interview with the researcher.

All potential student participants will have the right to decline my invitation and should not feel pressured to participate. With due respect to all participants, I will pay careful attention to maintain confidentiality. I will not reveal *[insert unit name]'s name*, the case study school's and individual participants' names. I will take special measures so *[insert unit name]'s*, the case study school and participants cannot be identified: all numbers will be rounded when describing school data, pseudonyms will be used for all participants and in place of *[insert unit name]'s* and school's name, the school location will be described in general terms, and all documentation including the signed consent forms will be securely kept and destroyed after 5 years.

If you agree for me to conduct interviews with students attending *[insert unit name]* and enrolled in the case study school, you will need to complete the consent form (included) and the

confidentiality agreement and return them to me. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Kind regards,

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Doctoral Research Student

School of Educational Studies

College of Education, Massey University

[insert address]

Phone: *[insert]*

Email: *[insert]*

Dr. Jane Prochnow

Doctoral Supervisor

School of Educational Studies

College of Education, Massey University

[insert address]

New Zealand

Email: *[insert]*

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 11/01. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Acting Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 8729, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

PRINCIPAL & BOARD OF TRUSTEES CONSENT FORM

I have read the *Request letter* and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

PRINCIPAL

I agree for the research project to be conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier in *[insert name of unit]* governed by our school under the conditions set out in the request letter.

Principal's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

CHAIR OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

I agree for the research project to be conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier in *[insert name of unit]* centre governed by our school under the conditions set out in the request letter.

Chair's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

Please return to the researcher using the pre-addressed and pre-paid envelope provided.

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

[INSERT UNIT NAME]'S DIRECTOR CONSENT FORM

I have read the *Request letter* and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

DIRECTOR

I agree for the research project to be conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier in *[insert unit name]* under the conditions set out in the request letter.

Director's Signature:

Date:

.....

Full Name – printed:

.....

Please return to the researcher using the pre-addressed and pre-paid envelope provided.

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I (Full Name - printed) agree to keep confidential the identity of the case study school in the project entitled *The Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Behavioural Difficulties* conducted by the researcher Marie-Pierre Fortier.

I will not disclose information that could lead to the identification of participants in the project to people outside the research project.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

Appendix K

Information sheet and consent form for student participants (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

INFORMATION SHEET FOR STUDENTS & PARENTS/CAREGIVERS

Dear student,

Dear parents/caregivers,

I'd like to introduce myself. My name is Marie-Pierre (Marie). I am a doctoral student at Massey University. For my study, I am doing a research project about inclusion. I am interested in how people working in secondary schools view inclusion and school difficulties. I would like to invite you (the student) to participate in my project.

What is the project about and who is involved?

I want to describe how school staff and special education specialists view inclusion. I also want to find out how they manage behaviour and what actions they take to help students. Last year I have used a questionnaire to examine these questions. This year I would like to visit schools.

My focus is on staff rather than on students. Nevertheless, I am also interested to hear what students have to say. I strongly believe it is important to listen to students. I know young people have a lot to share when they feel we listen to them. I am particularly interested to listen to students who experience difficulties at school. *[Insert either: The Principal of your school OR Your school's [insert title, name]]* indicates you receive extra support at school. This is why I would like to invite you to take part in my project. I would like to know more about your own experience of the classroom I would like to hear your point of view, not only the adults'.

What is involved for the student?

If you agree to take part, you may participate in an interview. This should take about 30 minutes of your time. My questions will be about inclusion and your experience in the classroom. You would not have to respond to all my questions if you don't want to. The interview can be conducted at lunchtime and I will provide lunch.

I'd also like for the interview to be audio recorded if you accept. This will help me focus on what you are saying instead of taking notes. You will have the right to review what you said afterwards. A day or a few days after the interview, I would like to listen to the audio recording again with you so you can tell me if you are happy for me to use it for my research. You will have the opportunity to ask for things you said to be removed or changed. This would take another 30 minutes outside class time.

What will happen with the information collected?

If you decide to participate, I will do my very best to keep your identity and all the information you give me confidential. If you agree to be interviewed and for the interview to be audio recorded, you will have the opportunity to listen to the interview again and you will have the right to ask to remove or change things you said. The audio recording will be deleted once the interview is transcribed in the written form. I will store all information secure in a lockable cabinet and on a password protected computer. All information will be destroyed after 5 years.

When reporting the results, I will not reveal your name, the name of your school or any other information allowing people to identify you or other participants. However, if there are things you tell me during the interview that cause concern or may suggest you are at risk of harm, I will consult my supervisors and your school on the best way to help you. I will also suggest resources where you can get support from.

At the end of the project I will publish the findings in my doctoral thesis. It will be available at the Massey University Library. I plan to present the results at conferences and in papers and I will send a summary to your school. Again, your identity and the name of your school will not be revealed.

What are your rights if you agree to take part in the research project?

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you agree to participate, you have the right to:

- ask any question about the study at any time during participation;

- decline to answer any particular question;
- ask for the audio recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview;
- withdraw from the study up until the end of data collection in your school;
- be informed that your name will not be used;
- access a summary of the project findings.

I invite you to keep this information sheet. If you agree to participate I will need you to fill the consent form (last page). You will need to sign it and bring it back to school. If you are under 16 years old, one of your parents/caregivers will also have to sign.

I welcome all questions and concerns. If you want to talk about the project, please feel free to contact me. You can email, phone or text me. You can also contact my supervisor, Dr. Jane Prochnow. See contact details below.

Thanks for the opportunity to inform you about my research.

Marie-Pierre Fortier

Doctoral Research Student

School of Educational Studies
College of Education, Massey University

[insert address]

Phone: *[insert]*

Email: *[insert]*

Dr. Jane Prochnow

Doctoral Supervisor

School of Educational Studies
College of Education, Massey University

[insert address]

Phone: *[insert]*

Email: *[insert]*

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 11/01. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Nathan Matthews, Acting Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 8729, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz.

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM STUDENT AND PARENT/CAREGIVER

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE BOXES

STUDENT:

I agree / I do not agree to be interviewed.

I agree / I do not agree to the interview being sound recorded.

I wish / I do not wish to have my recordings returned to me.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Student's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

PARENT/CAREGIVER IF STUDENT IS UNDER 16 YEARS OLD:

I agree for my child to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Parent/Caregiver's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

Please bring back to : _____

Appendix L

Interview schedules for adult participants (Phase Two)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – ADULTS 1ST INTERVIEW

*** The questions serve as guidelines for this semi-structured interview. ***

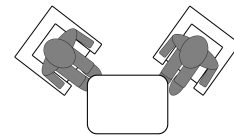
CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION

Date:

Location:

Interview starting time:

Interview setting:



Other information:

WELCOMING THE INTERVIEWEE

Invite participant to sit down and offer something to eat/drink.

State the objectives of the interview:

- learn more about how you view inclusion;

- learn more about your experience of inclusion.

Highlight the important role of the participant in the discussion as you are seeking his or her views. No right and no wrong responses.

State participants rights for the interview:

- decline to answer any particular question;

- ask any questions at any time during the interview;

- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

Ask participant not to use people's and schools' names in the interview.

"Do you have questions or comments before we begin?"

Start the recorder and explicitly let it know to the participant.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Age:

Years of experience:

Circle gender: *M* *F*

Years working in this school:

Subject(s)/Title:

Teaches/Intervene with students Year(s):

Other information:

THEME A: DEFINITION OF INCLUSION – associated words and concepts

- Present participant with a sheet and pencil. 'INCLUSION' is written in the middle.

Ask participant the following.

- Write the words you associate to inclusion.
- Can you explain how these words are related to inclusion?

- Submit the most common responses to the association task conducted to the participant.

Ask if he/she agrees with those responses or not and why.

- Everybody/everyone/all
- Help/support
- Acceptance
- Part of
- Together
- Collaboration/cooperation/working together
- Participation
- Equality

- Do you feel there is agreement in your school regarding what inclusion is? Explain.

THEME B: EXPERIENCE OF INCLUSION

- What is your experience of inclusion? You can illustrate with specific examples without naming students.

- Based on your experience, would you say you are in favour of inclusion or not? Why?

- When participating to the inclusion of a student, what role do you play?

- How does your role compare with other people involved?

THEME C: BEHAVIOURAL DIFFICULTIES

- What types of behavioural difficulties do you encounter in your practice? You can illustrate with examples without naming students.

- What difficulties do you encounter in including students experiencing behavioural difficulties?

CONCLUSION TO THE INTERVIEW

- Summarizing the interview.
- "Is there anything else you would like to share?"
- Stop recording.
- Reassure participant on confidentiality issues. 'Your name will not be used'.
- Explain what will happen to data.
- Explain what is next and plan further data collection using the *Planning Sheet*.
- "Do you have questions or comments?"

Interview ending
time:

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – ADULTS 2nd INTERVIEW

*** The questions serve as guidelines for this semi-structured interview. ***

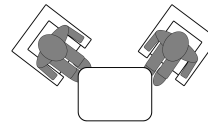
CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION

Date:

Location:

Interview starting time:

Interview setting:



Other information:

WELCOMING THE INTERVIEWEE

- Invite participant to sit down and offer something to eat/drink.

- State the objective of the interview:
 - discuss educational practices used to manage behavioural difficulties.

- Highlight the important role of the participant in the discussion as you are seeking his or her views. No right and no wrong responses.

- State participants rights for the interview:
 - decline to answer any particular question;
 - ask any questions at any time during the interview;
 - ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

- Ask participant not to use people's and schools' names in the interview.

- "Do you have questions or comments before we begin?"

- Start the recorder and explicitly let it know to the participant.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (confirm data gathered during 1st interview)

Age:

Years of experience:

Circle gender: *M* *F*

Years working in this school:

Subject(s)/Title:

Teaches/Intervene with students Year(s):

Other information:

INSTRUCTIONS:

For themes **A, B, C & D** below, discuss practices with the participant.

- Observed practices (from observation sessions)
 - I observed [practice]. Why do you use this practice?
 - Is there something else you could have done to [prevent, assess, intervene, follow up]?

- Reported practices (from self-report form on behavioural events)
 - You reported using [practice]. Why do you use this practice?
 - Is there something else you could have done to [prevent, assess, intervene, follow up]?

- Most common practices reported by other respondents (from questionnaire phase two)
 - Common practices reported by respondents in a questionnaire sent out last year include...
 - Here is how I have classified them. What do you think about these practices?

THEME A: PREVENTION

- Practice

- Practice

- Practice

THEME B: ASSESSMENT

- Practice

- Practice

- Practice

THEME C: IN-ACTION INTERVENTIONS

Practice

Practice

Practice

THEME D: FOLLOW-UP

Practice

Practice

Practice

THEME E: IMPROVING PRACTICES

Do you feel confident in your behavioural management skills? Explain.

Do you feel you have had enough training/education regarding behaviour management? Explain.

What would you like to learn? How would you like additional education to be provided to you and by whom?

CONCLUSION TO THE INTERVIEW

Summarizing the interview.

"Is there anything else you would like to share?"

Stop recording.

Reassure participant on confidentiality issues. 'Your name will not be used'.

Explain what will happen to data and what is next.

"Do you have questions or comments?"

Interview ending time: _____

Appendix M

Interview schedules for adult participants (Phase Two)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – STUDENT

*** The questions serve as guidelines for this semi-structured interview. ***

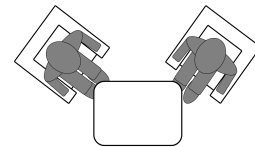
CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION

Date:

Location:

Interview starting time:

Interview setting:



Other information:

WELCOMING THE INTERVIEWEE

- Invite participant to sit down and offer something to eat/drink.
- State the objective of the interview.
 - learn more about your experience in the classroom/school
- Highlight the important role of the participant in the discussion as you are seeking his or her views. No right and no wrong responses.
- State participants rights for the interview:
 - decline to answer any particular question;
 - ask any questions at any time during the interview;
 - ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.
- Ask participant not to use people's and schools' names in the interview.
- "Do you have questions or comments before we begin?"
- Start the recorder and explicitly let it know to the participant.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Age: _____ Circle gender: *M* *F* Enrolled in year: _____

Other information: _____

THEME A: LEARNING

- How do you think you are doing with your learning?

- What gets in the way of your learning?

THEME B: RELATIONSHIPS

- What do you like and dislike at school? In your classrooms?

- How do you get on with your teachers? Other staff? Peers?

THEME C: SCHOOL DIFFICULTIES

- What kind of difficulties do you experience at school? You can give me examples.

- Do you consider your behaviour as being a problem? Why? You can give me examples.

- What happens when your behaviour in the classroom is considered as inappropriate?

- Who is involved in giving you support at school?

- How do you feel about that?

THEME D: POSITIVE QUESTION

- Think of a person or a situation at school that has a positive impact on you. How do you describe this person or this situation?

CONCLUSION TO THE INTERVIEW

- Summarizing the interview.
- “Is there anything else you would like to share?”
- Stop recording.
- Reassure participant on confidentiality issues. ‘Your name will not be used’.
- Explain what will happen to data.
- Explain what is next.
- “Do you have questions or comments?”
- Provide the student with a list of available school resources and free phone numbers of external resources if support is needed.

Interview ending time:

.....

Appendix N

Transcriber's confidentiality agreement (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

TRANSCRIBER'S CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I (Full Name - printed) agree
to transcribe the recordings provided to me.

I agree to keep confidential all the information provided to me.

I will not make any copies of the transcripts or keep any record of them, other than
those required for the project.

Signature: **Date:**

Appendix O

Authority for the release of the transcripts (Phase Two)

[LETTERHEAD]

The School Inclusion of Teenagers Experiencing Difficulties

AUTHORITY FOR THE RELEASE OF TRANSCRIPTS

[Insert for adult participants :

I confirm that I have had the opportunity to read and amend the transcript of the interview(s) conducted with me.

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used by the researcher, *Marie-Pierre Fortier* in reports and publications arising from the research.]

[Insert for student participants :

I confirm that I have had the opportunity to listen to and amend the audio recording of the interview conducted with me.

I understand the interview with all emendations will be transcribed in the written form (transcript).

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used by the researcher, *Marie-Pierre Fortier* in reports and publications arising from the research.]

Signature:

Date:

Full Name – printed:

Appendix P

Observation sheet (Phase Two)

Observation Sheet

School: A B C D

Participant: _____

Subject-Year: _____

Date-Time: _____

Other info: _____

The following conditions apply to observation sessions:

- Teacher-researcher agreement on an observation location in the classroom
- Teacher-researcher agreement on the number of sessions
- Teacher-researcher agreement on the duration of each session
- Observe other adults present in the classroom only if they agreed

What happens	Response	Outcome
ADD LINES AS NECESSARY		

COMMENTS:

Appendix Q

Self-report form of behaviour incidents (Phase Two)

SELF-REPORT FORM OF BEHAVIOURAL EVENTS

School: A B C
Event: 1 2 3 4 5
Participant: _____

The following questions will help you recall a behavioural event you encountered in your practice. A behavioural event refers to a specific event where the behaviour displayed by one or many students disturbed the classroom's activities.

*** DO NOT USE REAL NAMES IN YOUR REPORT ***

Describe the context previous to the behavioural event (type of lesson, subject, time of the day, etc.).

Describe what happened (the student's or students' behaviour).

What did you do?

What were the outcomes?

Do you consider your actions as effective? Yes No

Why?

Appendix R

Field notes data gathering sheet (Phase Two)

QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL DATA

TO BE USED BY THE RESEARCHER

These questions aim to link data to their wider context. All numbers have to be accurate at the moment of data collection. Numbers will be rounded when reporting results to avoid identification of schools and participants. This form will be destroyed once data will be transferred in an electronic format (password protected). Data will be kept for 5 years.

School : A B C

DATA	DEFINITION	RESPONSE
School roll:	Number of students enrolled	
School decile:	School decile from 1 to 10	
Stand-downs:	Number of students stood-down in 2010	
Suspensions:	Number of students suspended in 2010	
Exclusions:	Number of students excluded from school in 2010 (aged under 16)	
Expulsions:	Number of students expelled from school in 2010 (aged 16 or over)	
SEN students:	Number of students enrolled having special educational needs	Moderate: High/very high: Total
BD Students:	Number of students behavioural difficulties	Moderate: High/very high: Total:
Funding:	Sources of funding received by the school to meet SEN students' needs	

Other relevant information about the school:

Appendix S: Table A-1

Table A-1: Characteristics of participants' schools according to the attributed level of inclusiveness

Not inclusive	Slightly inclusive	Moderately inclusive	Quite inclusive	Fully inclusive
	(1) Staff not accepting all students	(2) Student ignored by teacher (1) Rights of teachers first	(8) Inclusive culture	
		(1) School diversity (1) Enrolment of SEN students	(1) Valuing students (2) School diversity (2) Difference accepted-celebrated (4) Enrolment of SEN students	(1) Valuing students (3) Acceptance of students (1) Sense of belonging
	(2) Not working from Māori view	(2) Attitude	(2) Attitude (1) Attitude pro-inclusion (1) Positive attitude	(1) Enrolment of SEN students
	(3) Exclusionary practices	(2) Exclusionary practices	(1) SEN students treated the same as peers – can be excluded etc. (1) No exclusions	(1) Attitude pro-inclusion
(2) Needs are not met or ignored (1) Needs are not met or ignored (1) No capability to provide for some (1) Attempts to accommodate	(1) Teachers' excluding attitude (2) Needs are not met or ignored (2) Attempts to accommodate (2) Extensive student support (1) Needs are met (1) Adaptation of environment (1) No programme adaptation (2) Programme adapted	(1) Needs are not met or ignored (2) Needs are met (1) Adaptation of environment (1) No programme adaptation (2) Programme adapted	(1) Needs are met (1) Adaptation of environment (1) No programme adaptation (2) Programme adapted (3) Streaming (3) Teachers are skilled	(1) Needs are met (1) Adaptation of environment (2) Programme adapted (1) Teachers are skilled
(1) School leader not inclusive	(1) Teachers are skilled (3) Teachers are unskilled (1) Planning left to the TAs (1) No opportunities for PD	(1) Teachers are skilled (3) Teachers are unskilled (1) Planning left to the TAs (1) No opportunities for PD	(2) Opportunities for PD	(1) School leader proactive-inclusive (1) School leader expects

			Inclusion
	(1) Part-time mainstreaming	(6) Part-time mainstreaming	(8) Part-time mainstreaming
(1) Special room or unit	(3) Special room or unit	(6) Mainstreaming (8) Special room or unit	(4) Mainstreaming (4) Special room or unit (1) No special room or unit (1) Presence of international unit (2) 1-on-1 teaching (outside class)
(2) 1-on-1 teaching (outside class)			
	(1) TAs attached to student	(1) TAs attached to student (2) TAs work full-time (1) Committed staff	(3) Committed staff (1) Committed Board of Trustees
		(2) Student participate in school life (1) Selection of who participates	(5) Student participate in school life
	(1) Collaboration with special school	(1) Collaboration with special school	(2) Collaboration with special school
(1) Hard for RTLB to reach teachers		(1) Referral to specialists (1) Wanting a quick fix	(2) Presence of a specialist teacher (2) Referral to specialists
(1) Wanting a quick fix		(1) Relationships and collaboration	(1) Rural school - must include
	(1) No relationship with the family	(1) Communication with parents (1) Whanau orientated	(1) Parents collaborate with school
		(1) Staff discuss progress (1) Not using the IEP process	(1) Students have IEPs
		(1) High tolerance to BD students (1) Restorative practices	(1) Identification of SEN students (2) Ongoing assessment practices (1) No behavioural issues (1) Bullying is not tolerated
(1) Relying on funding to solve problems		(1) Lack of funding	(1) ERO says so

