EFFECTIVENESS OF RELATIONSHIP EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN SCHOOLS FOR YEARS 7–13

A rapid literature review prepared for Families Commission
The Families Commission was established under the Families Commission Act 2003 and commenced operations on 1 July 2004. Under the Crown Entities Act 2004, the Commission is designated as an autonomous Crown entity.

Our main role is to act as an advocate for the interests of families generally (rather than individual families).

Our specific functions under the Families Commission Act 2003 are to:

› encourage and facilitate informed debate about families
› increase public awareness and promote better understanding of matters affecting families
› encourage and facilitate the development and provision of government policies that promote and serve the interests of families
› consider any matter relating to the interests of families referred to us by any Minister of the Crown
› stimulate and promote research into families; for example, by funding and undertaking research
› consult with, or refer matters to, other official bodies or statutory agencies.

Our specific functions under the Whānau Strategic Framework (2009–2012, p. 5) are to develop an operating environment which is regarded by whānau, Māori, iwi and key stakeholders as representative of an organisation that:

› listens to the voice of whānau
› has regard to the needs, values and beliefs of Māori as tangata whenua, as required under Section 11(a) of the Families Commission Act 2003
› promotes and maintains whānau strength and resiliency
› promotes whānau ora through the activities of advocacy, engagement, policy development and research.

Families Commission Amendment Bill currently before Parliament, amends the principal Act of 2003. In addition to its main advocacy function, it introduces a new social policy monitoring and evaluation function. Once passed, our main functions will be:

› to act as an advocate for the interests of families generally
› to monitor and evaluate programmes and interventions in the social sector, and provide social science research into key issues, programmes and interventions across that sector.

Acknowledgements

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The content of this report and the opinions expressed by the author/s should not be assumed to reflect the views, opinions or policies of the Families Commission.
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A RAPID LITERATURE REVIEW PREPARED FOR FAMILIES COMMISSION
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Introduction

This project was funded by the Social Policy Research and Evaluation Unit (SuPERU) in the Families Commission to review the evidence and relevant literature on what works in school-based relationship education (Year 7–13), in New Zealand and elsewhere.

This report builds on The teaching of sexuality education in Years 7 to 13 report (Education Review Office, 2007) and the Report for the Ministry of Health on sexuality education (Fenton & Coates, 2008).

The review will support the Taskforce for Action on Violence within Families’ Programme of Action 2012/2013 and will link with other projects led by the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Development.

Scope and definitions

The question of what works to reduce relationship violence has been placed in the larger context of relationship education for this review. A broad definition of relationship education is used, encompassing life skills training, social and emotional learning and interpersonal skill development. It includes the learning of values and competencies for relationships in general, not only sexual or romantic relationships. Both universal approaches and those targeting ‘at-risk’ young people are included in this review. However, early intervention initiatives to address problem behaviours are excluded.

We found three main bodies of research relevant to this review: on ‘social and emotional learning/wellbeing’ (SEL); on ‘dating violence’, which sits in the broader field of violence prevention and overlaps with the SEL literature; and on sexuality education.

Methodology

A project plan was developed in consultation with SuPERU staff and the peer reviewer, Dr Gillian Tasker. A review of reviews was undertaken to summarise the international literature, focusing on recent and seminal reviews from 2008. Single studies were included in the summary of New Zealand evidence. The search for relevant material covered academic databases (Scopus, Web of Knowledge, ERIC and PsychInfo) and general internet sources.

Material was also received directly from SuPERU, the project’s topic advisor on Māori relationship education evaluation/research and peer reviewer. Some additional material was identified from references in primary material.

All of the potentially relevant papers, articles and reports were considered for inclusion, against two criteria: directly addressing the research questions; and being based on empirical findings. This report presents the findings of the review of the resulting selection of sources. Key findings for each research question are summarised below, following background information about adolescent relationship violence and the New Zealand education context.
Adolescent relationship violence

Relationship violence is defined as psychological, physical or sexual violence inflicted on a romantic partner. It includes violence in casual or new romantic relationships as well as steady relationships, and in same-sex as well as heterosexual relationships. This review particularly focuses on prevention of relationship violence amongst adolescents (12–18 years). ‘Intimate partner violence’ and ‘dating violence’ are alternative terms used in the literature. It is estimated that 10–20 percent of 12–18-year-olds in Western countries experience physical relationship violence. Studies typically show that, among teenagers, rates of perpetration and victimisation are fairly similar by gender.

The concept of ‘gender symmetry’ in adult intimate partner violence has been strongly critiqued in the literature, and there are similar debates about the gendered character of adolescent relationship violence. However, the evidence is clear that the consequences for victims, both male and female, can be serious, including, for example, school failure, suicidal ideation, substance abuse and mental illness.

The New Zealand education context

The New Zealand Curriculum identifies five key competencies that are intended to be woven into every learning area. Three competencies in particular (relating to others; managing self; and participating and contributing) are fundamental for the development of healthy relationships at every age. Although relationship competencies can be developed in various settings and subject areas, relationship education sits primarily in the Health and Physical Education (PE) Curriculum, which is compulsory from Year 1 to Year 10. The development of interpersonal and emotional skills fits into the ‘relationships with other people’ strand in particular, and the ‘mental health’ and ‘sexuality education’ areas of learning which operate from Year 1. Strand four, ‘healthy communities and environments’, is also relevant to relationship education, since understanding the dynamics of violence involves critical reflection on the social context in which violence occurs.

Four interdependent concepts underlie the Health and PE learning area: 1) hauora; 2) values such as respect, concern for others and social justice; 3) the socio-ecological perspective; and 4) health promotion. The curriculum statement recognises that classroom teaching is only one part of the educative process, the school environment and the community also being important in shaping the values, attitudes and behaviours of students.
Key findings

1. According to empirical evidence, which Years 7-13 school-based relationship education programmes and approaches are effective, and for which student outcomes?

A few school-based dating violence prevention programmes have demonstrated effectiveness in reducing relationship violence; Safe Dates and The Fourth R are the programmes most widely agreed to be effective. Others have proven ineffective or even harmful. Most have been evaluated using weak methodologies, if at all, so their effectiveness is not established.

Reviews of school-based ‘social and emotional learning’ programmes show that this approach can produce positive outcomes in various areas, and can reduce risk factors for relationship violence in adolescents. Positive outcomes include improved academic achievement, increased social and emotional skills, improved attitudes to themselves and others, more pro-social behaviour, less problem behaviour and less emotional distress.

There is broad agreement in the sexuality education literature that emotional and interpersonal skills are an important but relatively neglected area in sexuality education. Evidence suggests that comprehensive programmes with a strong focus on relationship aspects may be more effective than others for achieving sexual health outcomes.

2. What are the common characteristics and practices (ie success factors) of effective school-based relationship education? How do success factors differ by age, gender, socio-economic status or ethnicity?

While some success factors can be distilled from the literature, there are still fundamental gaps in knowledge about what works in relationship education. For example, we know little about what works for different age groups, genders, socio-economic groups or ethnicities. What we do know is that programmes need to be sensitive to diversity, and tailored to ensure that content is relevant and culturally appropriate for the target group.

The common characteristics of successful programmes in relationship violence prevention, sexual violence prevention, social and emotional learning and sexuality education are as follows:

› informed by theory and evidence
› holistic and strengths based
› integrated into the curriculum
› aimed at influencing specific risk factors/protective factors/core competencies
› focused on developing personal or social skills
› cognisant of environmental influences
› developmentally and culturally appropriate
› personally relevant (ie address immediate needs)
› use active teaching methods
› delivered by well-trained and supported educators, with appropriate skills and qualities
› process and outcomes are evaluated.

There is wide agreement in the literature that one-off sessions are ineffective, as are programmes that adopt a ‘lecture’-style delivery, and are focused only on knowledge acquisition.
3. What evidence exists about school-based relationship education approaches in New Zealand? What are examples of programmes of known or emerging effectiveness?

We did not find robust evaluation of the long-term impact (ie more than six months post-intervention) of any classroom-based relationship education programmes.

Violence prevention programmes such as *Love Bites* and *BodySafe* have been well received, with evidence of knowledge gains and changes in behavioural intention immediately post-intervention. However, their long-term impact on knowledge, behaviour and attitudes has not been tested.

Social and emotional learning programmes such as *Kiwi Can*, *Life Education* and *Attitude* are all aligned with the New Zealand Health Education and Physical Education Curriculum, and have been positively evaluated, with qualitative evidence of positive behaviour change and skill development.

There is strong evidence from robust studies that school-wide efforts to improve relationships, behaviour and school culture can be very successful, particularly when grounded in Māori relational concepts and practices. For example, research shows that school-wide use of restorative practices leads to improved behaviour and academic outcomes.

There is considerable evidence that sexuality education in New Zealand is poorly implemented in many schools, and does not meet the learning needs of students. However, examples of good practice are also documented in the literature.

The New Zealand literature is rich in studies that explore young people’s sexuality and relationship norms, attitudes and questions qualitatively, and their findings may be helpful for developing or adapting relationship education programmes for the New Zealand context.

4. What is the current thinking and evidence about what works for Māori and Pacific students (Years 7–13) in relationship education?

Māori and Pacific cultures are collectivist, with relationships at the core of their world-views. Although there is little evidence about what works for Māori and Pacific students in ‘relationship education’ as such, there is growing evidence that attention to nurturing positive relationships – between teachers and students, and between schools and families/communities – is crucial to Māori and Pacific success at school.

Certain themes recur in the literature on what works to improve Māori outcomes:

- Access to traditional knowledge, including values and practices, is important in supporting rangatahi Māori in developing positive, affirming notions of who they are in relation to their whānau, hapū, iwi and other Māori collectives.
- Culturally responsive programmes are grounded in Māori relational concepts and practices such as hauora, mana, whangaungatanga and tuakana-teina.
- Māori need to be involved in developing and evaluating programmes to ensure programmes reflect Māori aspirations, values and knowledge.
- Educators who can relate well to rangatahi Māori are essential.
- Māori potential is undermined by systems and individuals who reinforce a ‘deficit’ view, exert ‘power over’ Māori and have low expectations for Māori achievement.

Research and theory about what works to improve outcomes for Pacific students is less developed, but there appears to be growing consensus on the following themes:

- There is no generic ‘Pacific community’: interventions must acknowledge and respond to diversity within and between Pacific peoples.
- Strong relationships between school, home and community (often the church community) are essential, and collective ownership of challenges and solutions is important.
Interventions should be grounded in Pacific world-views and ways, bearing in mind that each ethnic grouping has distinct philosophies, traditions and practices.

Positive student-teacher and peer relationships at school foster positive social and academic outcomes for Pacific students.

For young Pacific people, developing a secure identity involves more than just ethnic affiliation.

Some generic programmes such as BodySafe, Kiwi Can and Cool Schools are intended to be appropriate for a wide range of students, including Māori and Pacific, and evaluations give promising results. Although we found no robust intervention studies about effective relationship education specifically for Māori and Pacific learners, there is considerable theory, descriptive research and anecdotal evidence about what works, and what does not work, for Māori and Pacific peoples. There is also considerable literature that explains Māori world-views, and concepts that are relevant to the teaching of relationship education.

Conclusions

The underlying concepts and learning goals of the New Zealand Curriculum are consistent with international literature on what works for violence prevention. The curriculum provides a sequenced, skill-focused, holistic, strengths-based framework for relationship education. New relationship education initiatives should be clearly linked to and consistent with the New Zealand Curriculum, particularly the Health Education and Physical Education Curriculum, its underlying concepts and key competencies.

There is solid New Zealand and international evidence that school-wide approaches for improving relationships and behaviour (such as restorative practices) can have positive behavioural and academic outcomes, particularly when grounded in Māori relational concepts. Whether such school-wide initiatives lead to reduced adolescent relationship violence has not been tested.

Programmes specifically aimed at preventing adolescent violence in romantic or sexual relationships can be effective, but there is evidence that many programmes are ineffective in the long term, or even harmful. Therefore consideration of the available evidence when developing new programmes is vital. Rigorous evaluation of long-term outcomes is also necessary so that harmful programmes can be discontinued.

The literature emphasises the importance of Māori and Pacific communities defining their own aspirations, and drawing on traditional knowledge, concepts and practices to find solutions. At the very least, Māori and Pacific parents and elders should be involved with programme development for sexuality and healthy relationship education. The same cultural concepts that have successfully underpinned restorative practices at the school-wide level might perhaps helpfully inform culturally responsive sexuality and violence prevention education in this country.

This report contains some clear pointers for the Government and for schools about developing and implementing relationship education programmes. For example, programmes should be integrated into the curriculum, use active teaching methods, be culturally appropriate and be taught by skilled and trained educators. There are also some clear lessons about what not to do. It is hoped that this report will contribute to emerging good practice in relationship education in New Zealand.
1. INTRODUCTION
1.1 Aim

The aim of the project was to review the evidence and relevant literature on what works in school-based relationship education (Years 7–13), in New Zealand and elsewhere.

1.2 Purpose

SuPERU funded this review for two purposes:

› to support the Ministry of Education in developing guidance for schools on selecting high-quality programmes for students addressing relationship violence and promoting respectful gender relations
› to inform other decision-makers and government agencies about best practice in school-based relationship education programmes.

This report builds on The Teaching of Sexuality Education in Years 7–13 report (Education Review Office, 2007a) and the 2008 report for the Ministry of Health on Sexuality Education (Fenton & Coates, 2008). The literature review will support the Taskforce for Action on Violence within Families’ Programme of Action 2012/2013. It will link with other projects led by the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Development.

1.3 Research questions

The review aims to answer the following questions:

1. According to empirical evidence, which Years 7–13 school-based relationship education programmes and approaches are effective, and for which student outcomes?
2. What are the common characteristics and practices (ie success factors) of effective school-based relationship education? How do success factors differ by age, gender, socio-economic status or ethnicity?
3. What evidence exists about school-based relationship education approaches/programmes in New Zealand? What are examples of programmes of known or emerging effectiveness?
4. What is the current thinking and evidence about what works for Maori and Pacific students (Years 7–13) in relationship education?

1.4 Why ‘relationship education’?

The question of what works to reduce relationship violence has been placed in the broader context of relationship education for this review. Recent evidence reviews have indicated that school-based relationship violence prevention programmes are a proven method for reducing gender violence in society. For example, a recent World Health Organization report entitled Preventing Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Against Women states:

At present, only one strategy has evidence supporting its effectiveness – and this only relates to intimate partner violence. The strategy in question is the use of school-based programmes to prevent violence within dating relationships. (World Health Organization [WHO] & London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine [LSHTM], 2010, p. 1)
The report also notes that broader school-based programmes to promote social and emotional learning “have potential in preventing subsequent intimate partner violence and sexual violence” (WHO & LSHTM, 2010, p. 43). This is because they have proved effective at improving impulse control, social competence and empathy – all factors associated with violence. However, there have not yet been studies examining the long-term impact of social and emotional learning programmes on relationship violence specifically.

The broad focus of the current report on ‘relationship education’ rather than ‘relationship violence prevention’ reflects a shift away from a deficit model towards a more strengths-based and holistic approach to promoting wellbeing and preventing problem behaviours in young people. This shift has occurred internationally and in New Zealand and is based on evidence that a range of linked problem behaviours (for example, sexual risk-taking, violence and substance abuse) can be prevented by strengthening social and emotional skills (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Guerra & Bradshaw, 2008). This approach is consistent with the New Zealand Youth Development Strategy and The New Zealand Curriculum. It is also consistent with Māori models of wellbeing (Eruera & Dobbs, 2010).

Relationship education acknowledges commonalities between superficially different kinds of abusive behaviour: “playground bullying, sexual harassment, gang attacks, homophobic slurs, violence against intimate partners, racial discrimination, workplace harassment and elder abuse” (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012, p. 30). Relationship education aims to develop the attitudes, values and skills needed for positive interpersonal relationships of all kinds, and violence prevention in various domains.

There is growing evidence that enhancing social and emotional learning in school can significantly improve various outcomes, including academic achievement (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011). Durlak et al argue that schools and families must address “relationships and emotional processes” effectively, because they “affect how and what we learn” (2011, p. 405).

Evidence consistently shows that the stronger their relationships with friends, romantic partners, teachers and families, the more likely young people are to make healthy choices and avoid problems in adolescence - including violence (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Clark et al, 2009; Durlak et al, 2011). The Youth ’07 survey found that New Zealand high school students who had good relationships with parents, teachers and friends were less likely to be victims of violence or bullying (Clark et al, 2009). This suggests that the strengthening of relationships generally may help to reduce violence within adolescents’ romantic relationships, increase academic achievement and prevent other teen problems.

1.5 Defining ‘relationship education’

A broad definition of relationship education is used in this review, focusing on life skills training, social and emotional learning and interpersonal skill development. It is about learning values and competencies for relationships in general, including relationships with peers, family and teachers, not only sexual or romantic relationships. Such learning and development occurs in the classroom (within the curriculum and through specialist programmes), and in school environments and interactions more broadly.

Because of the purpose of this review, evidence on the effectiveness of school-based dating violence prevention, sexual violence prevention and intimate partner violence prevention programmes is included. However, we have not searched for literature on other specific prevention programmes (aimed at bullying, drug abuse or depression, for example) to avoid duplication with other recent reviews (see, for example, Boyd & Barwick, 2011), and to keep the scope manageable. However, many prevention programmes now take a strengths-based approach, and have a strong emphasis on developing social and emotional skills, and this is reflected in their inclusion in reviews of literature on ‘social and emotional learning’. 
Both universal approaches and targeted approaches to ‘at-risk’ young people are included. Early intervention initiatives to address problem behaviours are excluded, as are initiatives specifically designed for students with special needs (such as autism or intellectual disability). Individual-level programmes (such as one-to-one education or therapy provided by a school-based health professional) are also excluded.

1.6 Defining ‘relationship violence’

For the purposes of this review, relationship violence is defined as psychological, physical or sexual violence inflicted on a romantic partner. It includes violence in casual or new romantic relationships as well as steady relationships, and in same-sex as well as heterosexual relationships. This review particularly focuses on prevention of relationship violence amongst adolescents (those aged 12–18 years).

The term ‘intimate partner violence’ is widely used in the literature, and definitions of it generally include violence in dating relationships (see, for example, Fanslow, 2005). However, this term was not considered appropriate for this work because much intimate partner violence research is focused on adults, and the term tends to connote adult relationships.

Much of the international literature originates in North America, where relationship violence between young people (including those in steady relationships) is termed ‘dating violence’. This term was also seen as inappropriate in the New Zealand context, since ‘dating’ is not generally used to describe boyfriend/girlfriend relationships in this country. However, it should be noted that the term ‘dating violence’ has been used in other New Zealand literature (see, for example, Jackson, 1998, 2002; Jackson, Cram, & Seymour, 2000; Sophie Elliott Foundation, 2013).

It is important to recognise that relationship violence in young people is not a trivial or rare phenomenon. Adolescence is a high-risk period for violence in general and relationship violence in particular. Fagan and Catalano (2012) find that “The prevalence and frequency of violence peak during late adolescence to early adulthood.” In New Zealand in 2010/11 nearly 30 percent of women using Women’s Refuge services were aged 25 or less. Two percent were 16 or younger (New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse, 2012). An Auckland survey of 373 high school students (mean age 16.7 years) found the majority of respondents had experienced emotional violence and unwanted sexual contact, and 17.5 percent of girls and 13.3 percent of boys reported being physically hurt by their boyfriend, girlfriend or date (Jackson et al, 2000). A recent international review of prevalence studies found that 10–20 percent of adolescents (12–18 years) in general population samples in Europe and North America had experienced physical relationship violence. Prevalence in ‘at-risk’ groups (for example, those with a history of sexual abuse, or young people in care) was up to four times higher (Leen et al, 2013). Rates of psychological or emotional relationship violence were the highest in all geographic regions, followed by rates of physical violence and, finally, by rates of sexual violence within relationships (Leen et al, 2013).

Established knowledge about the gender dynamics of violence in adult relationships may or may not hold for adolescent relationship violence. For example, contrary to the expectation that perpetrators are generally male and victims generally female, studies typically show that rates of teen relationship violence perpetration and victimisation are fairly similar by gender (Leen et al, 2013). In a recent Swedish study, reported male victimisation was substantially higher, particularly for the most serious forms of physical assault (Leen et al, 2013). However, an earlier review, cited in Hassall and Hanna (2007), concluded:

"If incidence is the focus of the research without analysis of frequency, severity, threat, or injury, the amount of dating violence boys and girls inflict and receive appears to be fairly equal. When severity, threat, and injury are taken into account, females are more likely to be the victims of severe forms of physical and sexual violence... (Fineran & Bolen, 2006, cited in Hassall & Hanna, 2007, p. 69)"
The consequences of teen relationship violence may be serious for both young men and young women. A recent longitudinal study in the US found that, for young women, victimisation predicted heavy episodic drinking, depressive symptoms, suicidal ideation and smoking. For young men, victimisation predicted antisocial behaviours, suicidal ideation and marijuana use (Exner-Cortens et al, 2013, cited in Temple, Le, Muir, Goforth, & McElhany, 2013). Research has also found associations between relationship violence and school failure, mental illness, risky sexual behaviour, substance abuse, suicide and teen pregnancy (Temple et al, 2013). Of significant concern is the finding that the experience of teen relationship violence appears to dramatically increase the risk of revictimisation in adulthood (Temple et al, 2013). Temple et al do not say whether or not these associations are found equally in males and females.

The concept of ‘gender symmetry’ in adult intimate partner violence has been strongly critiqued in the literature (see, for example, Fanslow, 2005, p. 40), and there is similar debate about the gendered nature of adolescent relationship violence. Recent evidence reviews (for example, Leen et al, 2013; Temple et al, 2013) do not solve such debates. It is still not clear whether the gendered motivations for and consequences of violence are similar in adolescent and adult relationships, or whether the dynamics are different. Further research is needed in this area.

It is worth noting that both internationally and particularly in New Zealand, violence between intimate partners aged under 18 is a somewhat invisible issue. The prevailing assumption is that if children or young people are affected by relationship violence it is by witnessing adult intimate partner violence. The idea that people aged 12–18 may themselves be victims (or perpetrators) of relationship violence is not recognised in the way that health or justice data are collected in this country. For example, the Youth ’07 survey asked detailed questions about violence and found 47.9 percent of males and 33.2 percent of females had been deliberately hit or physically harmed in the previous 12 months. However, when respondents were asked by whom, ‘my boyfriend/girlfriend’ was not a response category (Clark et al, 2009).

There is consistent evidence that the precursors of adult intimate partner violence go back to infancy and childhood. The Dunedin Longitudinal Study found that the strongest risk factor for both male and female perpetrators and victims was a record of physically aggressive delinquency before the age of 15 (Hassall & Hanna, 2007).

A recent review by Leen et al (2013) identified the four most significant modifiable risk factors for adolescent relationship violence as peer influence, substance use, psychological adjustment and competencies, and attitudes towards violence. It is important to note that, in respect of these broad factors, studies have found complex and subtle differences between males and females, and much is still unclear or unknown.

Recent US research shows that bisexual and homosexual men and women aged 18 and over experience rates of intimate partner violence at least as high, and often substantially higher than, heterosexuals (Walters, Chen, & Breiding, 2013). We did not find any literature on rates of relationship violence among non-heterosexual adolescents.
1.7 Defining ‘effectiveness’

There is considerable debate in the literature about what constitutes ‘effectiveness’ in relationship education: what relationship education is aiming to achieve, and how its success should be measured (Karney, Beckett, Collins, & Shaw, 2007; Morris, 2005). Particularly in the sexuality education field, almost all of the empirical literature on what works focuses on narrowly defined prevention goals, such as reducing teen pregnancy or increasing use of condoms. Whether and, if so, how sexuality education supports loving and respectful intimate relationships remains under-researched. Critics have pointed out the weakness of typical evaluation methodology:

Defining ‘success’ in sexuality education solely in terms of quantitative outcomes measures is woefully inadequate. All too often, such measures presuppose and perpetuate a narrow and overly instrumental view of sexuality and education. Research and evaluation favouring quantitative measures of effectiveness tend to amplify short-term results and mediocre ends at the expense of a more substantive insight into the complexities and nuances of human action and good practice. (Morris, 2005, p. 405)

When ‘healthy relationship’ programmes have been developed with a violence prevention aim, evaluations often focus on whether an intervention has improved knowledge about or attitudes to relationship violence. However, changes in knowledge and attitudes do not automatically lead to changes in behaviour, as research has repeatedly demonstrated (Carmody et al, 2009; Gluckman, 2011). When seeking to prevent relationship violence, it is behaviour that matters. This review therefore focuses particularly on what works to prevent violent behaviour. However, the methodological challenges in measuring changes in perpetration or victimisation rates must be acknowledged. Education programmes may change young people’s accuracy in self-identifying relationship violence or their willingness to disclose it, as well as their actual behaviour. When using self-reported victimisation or perpetration as the primary indicator of behaviour change, it is difficult to disentangle changes in reporting from changes in behaviour itself (Leen et al, 2013).

Because there are known risk and protective factors for relationship violence, interventions that bring about long-term changes in these factors are considered promising.

Reduced relationship violence is an outcome of particular interest, but diverse outcomes are likely from relationship education (broadly defined). All outcomes that are empirically demonstrated have been noted, including academic outcomes, reduction in discipline problems or exclusions, improved communication/relationship skills, an increase in pro-social behaviour or changes in sexual risk-taking behaviour, teen pregnancy rates, etc.

1.8 Scope

This project is a rapid review, rather than a comprehensive or systematic examination of the evidence. It was agreed that a review of reviews would be undertaken to summarise international literature; single studies would be included in the summary of New Zealand evidence (Q3 & Q4) only. The focus was on recent and seminal international literature from 2008 (to build on previous reviews published in New Zealand in 2007/08). A date limit was not applied to the New Zealand literature.

The project scope specifically excludes relationship education programmes currently being provided in New Zealand schools and to young people in non-school settings, and comparative analysis of the costs or cost-effectiveness of particular school-based interventions.
1.9 Methodology

A full account of the methods used is available upon request from the authors. A brief summary is provided below.

The project plan was finalised in early May 2013 in consultation with SuPERU and Dr Gillian Tasker.

The search for relevant material covered academic databases (Scopus, Web of Knowledge, ERIC and PsychInfo), and more general internet sources.

Further relevant material was also provided by SuPERU, Dr Gillian Tasker and Alison Green, the project’s topic advisor on Māori relationship education evaluation/research.

Searching of academic databases was undertaken at the University of Otago, Wellington. Medical Library staff helped with the development of a search strategy and advised on the choice of databases and search terms.

All potentially relevant papers, articles and reports were reviewed for inclusion against agreed criteria. Material that did not directly address the research questions, or was not based on empirical findings, was excluded.

All of the included material is summarised in this report. The report draws the findings together, considers the strength of the evidence and examines possible reasons for any inconsistencies.

1.10 Strengths and limitations of this review

A key strength of this report is its interdisciplinary approach, drawing on public health, youth development and educational literature. However, the differing paradigms that underpin these fields made the project challenging. For example, summarising the characteristics of effective programmes is complicated when ‘effectiveness’ has different meanings in different paradigms.

Understanding of effectiveness tends to be limited by a narrow research focus on a set of preventive goals using quantitative empiricist approaches (Tasker, 2001), and this review reflects this dominant approach.

The review was completed within a modest timeframe and is not a systematic. Our report is based mainly on reviews, so it relies on the quality control of others, and is limited by their definitions and the outcomes of interest to them. ‘Relationship education’ is not a concept widely used in the literature, so we drew on reviews with a broader scope (for example, social and emotional learning), a narrower scope (such as sexuality education) or a scope that overlapped that of ‘relationship education’ (such as violence prevention education).

It should be noted that a review of this kind privileges discrete ‘programmes’ over approaches that thoroughly embed relationship education in classroom learning and school practices. The empirical approach is necessary to test interventions for their effects on outcomes of interest.

Almost all of the scientific literature is North American. This raises questions about the applicability in the New Zealand context. An exception is research on school-wide approaches for improving relationships, behaviour and achievement (such as restorative practices) which have been tested here using rigorous methods.
2. THE NEW ZEALAND EDUCATION CONTEXT
2.1 Obligation to provide a safe physical and emotional environment at school

Boyd and Barwick point out that “providing a caring, safe and respectful school environment in which learning can flourish is a key priority for educators” (2011, p. 4), and outline the regulatory framework that demonstrates this priority. For example, National Administration Guideline 5(i) states that each school’s board of trustees is expected to provide a safe physical and emotional environment for students. Other policy documents note that students need to be supported to develop the skills and competencies required for managing their social environment, future learning and life in general (Boyd & Barwick, 2011).

2.2 Relationship education in the curriculum

The New Zealand Curriculum is outcomes-based and designed to engage students in critical thinking leading to critical action. It sets out five key competencies:

- thinking
- using language, symbols and texts
- managing self
- relating to others
- participating and contributing.

These capabilities for living and lifelong learning are intended to be woven into every learning area in the curriculum. The competencies are developed in social contexts, and help people form their own identity and expertise. Three competencies in particular – relating to others; managing self; and participating and contributing – are fundamental for the development of healthy relationships at every age, and they may be developed in various subject areas, through extra-curricular activities, and through whole-school policies and practices.

Although relationship skills can be developed in various settings and subject areas, relationship education sits primarily within the Health and Physical Education (PE) Curriculum, which is compulsory from Years 1 to 10. Health is a formal subject at Years 11 to 13, with a set of achievement standards like any other subject at those levels.

The curriculum document states that four “underlying and interdependent concepts” are central to this learning area:

- Hauora – a Māori philosophy of wellbeing that includes the dimensions taha wairua, taha hinengaro, taha tinana and taha whānau, each one influencing and supporting the others.
- Attitudes and values – a positive, responsible attitude on the part of students to their own wellbeing; respect, care and concern for other people and the environment; and a sense of social justice.
- The socio-ecological perspective – a way of viewing and understanding the interrelationships that exist between the individual, others and society.
- Health promotion – a process that helps to develop and maintain supportive physical and emotional environments and that involves students in personal and collective action (Ministry of Education, 2007 p. 22).

The development of interpersonal and emotional skills sits within the ‘relationships with other people’ strand in particular, and the ‘mental health’ and ‘sexuality education’ areas of learning, which operate from Year 1. The ‘healthy communities and environments’ strand is also relevant to relationship education, since understanding the dynamics of violence involves critical reflection on the social context in which it occurs.
The curriculum goals build from basic values and skills for healthy relationships at Level One to more sophisticated skills and understandings as students develop and mature. For example, at Level One (Years 1–3) students are expected to “demonstrate respect through sharing and cooperation in groups” and “express their own ideas, needs, wants and feelings clearly and listen to those of other people”. By Level Five (Years 9–10) students are expected to “investigate societal influences on the wellbeing of student communities”, “identify issues associated with relationships and describe options to achieve positive outcomes” and “demonstrate a range of interpersonal skills and processes that help them to make safe choices for themselves and other people in a variety of settings”. At Level Seven (Years 12–13) students are expected to “analyse the nature and benefits of meaningful interpersonal relationships” and “use interpersonal skills effectively to manage conflict, competition, and changes in relationships”.

There is recognition in the curriculum statement that classroom teaching is only one part of the educative process, the school environment and the community also being important in shaping the values, attitudes and behaviours of students (Lusk, 1999, cited in Fenton & Coates, 2008).

Some New Zealand literature has portrayed the Health and PE Curriculum as having low status in many schools, particularly secondary schools (see, for example, Fitzpatrick, 2010; Lusk, 1999, cited in Fenton & Coates, 2008). This is reflected in lack of formal assessment for this subject in Years 1–10, and the limited pre-service and in-service training that is available in sexuality and relationship education, for example (Fenton & Coates, 2008). A recent study of the place of health and physical education in the lives of Otara youth found that the Health and Physical Education Curriculum is rarely implemented as intended:

> Considered low status in schools [health and physical activity] are also conflated with narrow body and health norms, possibly problematic for young women, and/or are wedded to the social and cultural world of sport. Curriculum policy documents established in the last ten years offer the possibility of critical and social approaches to these subjects, but examples of critical practice remain rare. (Fitzpatrick, 2010, p. 1)

### 2.3 Other national initiatives relevant to relationship education

Proposed guidance for schools about effective relationship violence prevention programmes sits under the Positive Behaviour for Learning (PB4L) initiative. PB4L is intended to improve learners’ behaviour with the ultimate aim of improving their engagement and achievement. It has its origins in a Taumata Whanonga, a behaviour summit held in 2009. PB4L provides programmes and initiatives for schools, teachers and parents to promote positive behaviour in children and young people. It is a joint initiative between a number of education sector organisations, led by the Ministry of Education. Programmes and initiatives are delivered by the Ministry of Education in partnership with non-governmental organisations, early childhood sector organisations and Resource Teachers: Learning and Behaviour (Ministry of Education, 2013c).
2.4 Quality education for diverse learners

According to Quality Teaching for Diverse Students in Schooling: Best evidence synthesis (Alton-Lee, 2003), “Diversity encompasses many characteristics including ethnicity, socio-economic background, home language, gender, special needs, disability and giftedness.” Sexual orientation is a dimension of diversity that is clearly relevant to relationship and sexuality education. According to the Youth ’07 survey, 4 percent of New Zealand students report being attracted to the same sex or to both sexes (Rossen, Lucassen, Denny, & Robinson, 2009).

The Pasifika Education Plan 2013–2017 (Ministry of Education, 2013b) sets out what needs to be done so the education system works for Pacific learners. The plan aims to achieve optimum learning by improving the alignment between the learner’s educational environment and their home and/or cultural environment, drawing on the individual, collective and cultural connections and affiliations of communities, education providers and services.

Initiatives in Māori education seek to improve the learning outcomes of all children and students. The current priorities are supporting the development of learning programmes to lift student achievement and attainment in bilingual and Māori-immersion settings, supporting professional development for te reo Māori teachers and raising expectations of Māori achievement amongst Māori, the community and education providers (Ministry of Education, 2013a).

2.5 Self-governing schools

Compared with other countries, decision-making in the education sector is heavily devolved to the school level in New Zealand, where schools are self-governing (Gluckman, 2011). This has major implications for the development and implementation of relationship education or violence prevention initiatives, which are often driven by community organisations or central government agencies rather than by schools themselves. New Zealand schools are likely to have competing priorities and increasingly stretched resources. New initiatives must clearly meet the needs of schools (as perceived by the schools themselves) in order to be picked up and implemented properly.
3. WHAT WORKS IN SCHOOL-BASED RELATIONSHIP EDUCATION?
Our first research question was: According to empirical evidence, which Years 7–13 school-based relationship education programmes and approaches are effective, and for which student outcomes?

We found three main bodies of research relevant to this research question: literature on ‘social and emotional learning/wellbeing’ (SEL); literature on sexuality education which discusses relationship knowledge, attitudes and skills, but rarely measures outcomes in these domains; and literature on ‘dating violence’ prevention, which sits within the broader field of violence prevention and overlaps with the SEL literature.

3.1 Summary of key findings

A small number of school-based dating violence prevention programmes have demonstrated their effectiveness in reducing relationship violence; others have been ineffective or even harmful. Most have been evaluated using weak methodologies, if at all, so their effectiveness is not established.

Reviews of school-based ‘social and emotional learning’ programmes show that this approach can produce positive outcomes in various domains, and can improve risk factors for relationship violence in adolescents. Again, this evidence comes from a small number of rigorously evaluated programmes; the effectiveness of the majority of programmes operating in schools has not been established.

There is broad agreement in the sexuality education literature that emotional and interpersonal skills is an important but relatively neglected area in sexuality education. Evidence suggests that comprehensive programmes with a strong focus on relationship aspects may be more effective than others at achieving sexual health outcomes.

The evidence for these overall findings is discussed in detail below.

3.2 Life-course approach

Although this review is focused on interventions for Years 7–13, a strong theme in the literature is the importance of a life-course approach to prevention, recognising that experiences in infancy and early childhood have a major impact on adolescent behaviour and competencies (Gluckman, 2011; Hassall & Hanna, 2007; Sullivan, Farrell, Bettencourt, & Helm, 2008; WHO/LSHTM, 2010). A World Health Organization report on the prevention of violence against women argues that adopting a life-course perspective “helps to both identify early risk factors and the best times to intervene using a primary prevention approach” (WHO/LSHTM, 2010, p. 8).

The recent report by the Prime Minister’s Chief Science Advisor on reducing social and psychological morbidity during adolescence concludes: “It is now clear that early childhood is the critical period in which executive functions such as the fundamentals of self-control are established. Children who do not adequately develop these executive functions in early life are more likely to make poor decisions during adolescence” (Gluckman, 2011, p. 1). Gluckman argues that risky, antisocial behaviour in adolescence is largely a result of insufficiently developed self-control and judgement, and recommends that “social investment in New Zealand should take more account of the growing evidence that prevention and intervention strategies applied early in life are more effective in altering outcomes … over the life course than do strategies applied later” (2011, p. 2).
3.3 Relationship violence prevention programmes

There have been significant advances in research on adolescent relationship violence in recent years. This is largely due to growing recognition that violence against women is a major public health issue, and that early to mid-adolescence is a critical period for preventive interventions. There is consensus in the literature that this period offers a unique window of opportunity for prevention efforts to make teens more aware of how violence in relationships can occur and to teach healthy ways of forming intimate relationships (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Hassall & Hanna, 2007; Karney et al, 2007).

School-based programmes aimed at preventing relationship violence proliferated in the 1990s and 2000s. A number of reviews have summarised evidence on their effectiveness (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Flood, Fergus, & Heenan, 2009; Leen et al, 2013; Tutty et al, 2002; WHO/LSHTM, 2010). A recurring theme in the literature is that the evidence base is limited, since only a handful of programmes have been evaluated using rigorous methods. What little scientific evidence is available is almost all derived from North American research. Some authors have noted the extent to which findings are bound to the North American socio-cultural context, and have questioned their applicability elsewhere (see, for example, WHO/LSHTM, 2010).

3.3.1 Which programmes are effective, and with what outcomes?

Only two school-based programmes are widely considered effective in reducing self-reported relationship violence: they are Safe Dates and The Fourth R (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Flood et al, 2009; Leen et al, 2013; Temple et al, 2013; WHO/LSHTM, 2010). These programmes are described below. Another school-based programme, Healthy Relationships: A violence prevention curriculum, was identified in a 2002 Canadian review as effective for improving attitudes and behaviour, on the basis of a pre-post evaluation with control-group comparison (Tutty et al, 2002). The programme was subsequently discussed in a recent Australian review of relationship education (Flood et al, 2009) but, for unknown reasons, has not been picked up by other recent evidence reviews.

Other school-based programmes have been found to have lasting positive effects on attitudes to violence and/or interpersonal skills – both important risk factors for relationship violence. An example is the CASA House Sexual Assault Prevention Programme for Secondary Schools in Australia (Flood et al, 2009). However, the influence of such programmes on rates of perpetration and victimisation is unknown.

3.3.2 Which programmes are ineffective?

Many rigorously evaluated programmes show no positive effects on attitudes, skills or behaviour, or demonstrate positive outcomes that do not last beyond a few weeks. Examples include What’s Love Got To Do With It; Skills for Violence Free Relationships; and Connections: Relationships and Marriage Program (Leen et al, 2013; Tutty et al, 2002).

Of even greater concern, there is evidence that some programmes may do harm. Some studies have noted a ‘backlash’ effect in male attitudes in some programmes, such as Expect Respect (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Robertson & Oulton, 2008; Tutty et al, 2002). This is explained in a recent Canadian report in this way:

*Teens are often ‘hypersensitive’ to the idea that gender is related to dating violence, seeing such claims as ‘boy bashing’... Girls like to see themselves as strong, as people who can fight back – not victims. And not surprisingly, boys reject being presented as ‘the problem’ and are likely to turn around and blame the girls.* (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012, p. 13)
There is broad consensus in the literature about programmes that do not work. One-off workshops isolated from the curriculum, for example, are generally agreed to be ineffective (Flood et al, 2009). There is also growing agreement that programmes focusing on knowledge or awareness alone (without specific strategies to change attitudes, norms, skills and behaviours) tend to be ineffective in the long term (Flood et al, 2009; Leen et al, 2013).

There are a large number of programmes that have not been evaluated using rigorous methods, and most Australian and New Zealand interventions fall into this category. Without robust evaluation, we cannot be sure whether they are effective or not. Flood et al (2009) describe a number of evaluated and unevaluated programmes from Australia and other countries, and discuss the extent to which they meet good practice criteria. A number of school-based programmes are said to be promising, including *Respect, Protect, Connect; Kids Relate*; and *CASA House Sexual Assault Prevention Programme for Secondary Schools*. These are outlined below, along with *Safe Dates* and *The Fourth R*. Promising New Zealand programmes are discussed in Section 5, which examines the New Zealand literature.

### 3.3.3 Examples of effective international programmes

The two programmes described below are judged to be effective according to the following criteria:

- at least one randomised controlled study of effectiveness
- follow-up measures at least six months following the intervention
- demonstrated behaviour change (ie fewer reports of relationship violence perpetration or victimisation) at follow-up in at least some of the intervention group.

**Safe Dates**

The information on this course comes from a range of sources, primarily Tutty et al (2002), the Blueprints for Health Youth Development website and Leen et al (2013).

*Safe Dates* is a 10-session relationship violence prevention programme for Grades 8 and 9 students (equivalent to New Zealand Years 9–10), developed in the US. Its objectives include changing norms regarding relationship violence; reducing gender stereotyping; improving conflict management skills; and encouraging help-seeking behaviour from dating violence services.

*Safe Dates* has both school and community components. The school activities include 10 classroom sessions, which are integrated with the curriculum, a theatre production performed by peers and a poster contest. The school component targets primary prevention, while the community component targets secondary prevention by increasing access to support services for youth and providing information for parents.

The curriculum is generally presented by regular classroom teachers but can also be presented by community resource people outside of school. Each session is 45–50 minutes long and covers the following topics: defining caring relationships; defining dating abuse; why people abuse; helping friends; overcoming gender stereotypes; equal power through communication; how we feel/how we deal; and preventing sexual assault. Booster sessions can also be offered subsequently.

*Safe Dates* was initially implemented in seven out of 14 public schools in a county in North Carolina, USA, as part of a randomised controlled study to test the effectiveness of the programme. For this demonstration study, teachers received 20 hours’ training on relationship violence and how to teach the *Safe Dates* programme. According to the Blueprints website, training is now generally given to teachers in a one-day workshop. It should be noted that the findings below are based on one randomised controlled study. We did not find any reference to further studies of *Safe Dates*, for example, testing its effectiveness in different settings, or in ‘ordinary’ as opposed to ‘demonstration study’ conditions.
At four-year follow-up, the following results were found among Safe Dates participants compared to the control group participants:

- between 56 percent and 92 percent reported less physical and sexual dating violence, both perpetration and victimisation
- significantly less perpetration of psychological, moderate physical and sexual dating violence at all four follow-ups
- no prevention or reduction of psychological dating abuse victimisation
- no difference in conflict management skills between intervention and control groups.

A World Health Organization review notes that the programme was found to have more impact on primary prevention than on prevention of re-abuse (WHO/LSHTM, 2010).

The Blueprints website says that “Safe Dates had been proven equally effective for Caucasians and culturally diverse audiences”. However, this conflicts with a recent review, which points out that Safe Dates was tested mainly on rural and mostly Caucasian and African-American adolescents, “so generalisability to other contexts may be limited” (Temple et al, 2013, p. 3). Differences in outcomes by gender or socio-economic status are not reported in the literature reviewed.

**The Fourth R**


The Fourth R is a Canadian programme that builds on an earlier dating violence prevention project, the Youth Relationships Project. The original programme was delivered in the community and targeted adolescents assessed to be at risk because they had previously been victims or perpetrators of violence. The Fourth R was designed for a general school audience, and was piloted in 2001–02 as part of the health education requirement for Grade 9 (New Zealand Year 10) students. The findings reported are from the pilot evaluation.

The Fourth R integrates the promotion of healthy relationship skills and the prevention of relationship violence into existing health and physical education teaching. The ‘R’ stands for Relationships (expanding the common expression ‘The Three Rs’: Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic).

The programme’s 18–21 sessions focus on healthy adolescent relationships, gender role expectations, alternatives to aggressive problem-solving, violence and sexist media, alcohol and drug use, abuse of power and control, sexism, decision-making, date rape, handling dating stresses and violence. The adolescents learn communication and conflict resolution skills by solving hypothetical problem situations. Social action activities are designed to inform participants about resources in their communities that could help manage stressful relationship situations. As well as classroom learning, the programme includes a school-level component in which teachers receive specialised training on healthy relationships and students form ‘safe school committees’.

The primary outcome measured by the pilot evaluation was self-reported physical dating violence in the previous year. Secondary outcomes were physical peer violence, substance use and condom use. At 2.5 years post-intervention, The Fourth R had a significantly positive effect on boys’ but not girls’ perpetration of dating violence (Wolfe et al, 2009). Results for the secondary outcomes were not statistically significant; however, condom use by sexually active boys who received the intervention was significantly higher than by controls (Wolfe et al, 2009).

The Fourth R has been adapted to include Aboriginal perspectives and the Aboriginal Perspectives Fourth R has been adapted for specific areas (for example, a Cree-informed version for Saskatchewan and a Dene version for Northwest Territories). Adaptation was undertaken with community partners in each region. An adaptation template is available for the Aboriginal Perspectives Fourth R to modify the programme for particular communities (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012). The effectiveness of these adapted programmes was not reported in the reviewed literature.
3.3.4 Promising international programmes

A wide range of programmes could be considered promising internationally. The following programmes have been selected either for some evidence of long-term effectiveness despite not meeting the criteria cited above, or for particular relevance to New Zealand.

There is a deliberate focus on Australian rather than North American programmes, since they are likely to be more culturally relevant to New Zealand.

CASA House Sexual Assault Prevention Programme for Secondary Schools

The following description is paraphrased from Flood et al (2009). The CASA House programme appears to be the only school-based gender violence prevention programme in Australia in which long-term outcomes have been evaluated. One limitation is that, like many violence prevention programmes, its curriculum does not address other forms of relationship violence, along with sexual violence. Nevertheless, the programme focuses consistently on building knowledge and skills for respectful relationships, communication and behaviour.

The Sexual Assault Prevention Program for Secondary Schools (SAPPSS) was developed by the Centre Against Sexual Assault (CASA House) and takes a whole-school approach to prevention. The programme has the overall objective of reducing the incidence of sexual assault in school communities and building the capacity of schools to respond to sexual assault. It aims to achieve long-term cultural shifts throughout the school community.

CASA House works with the school to build the programme into the curriculum permanently, phasing it in over two to four years. The process moves from professional development for teachers and a student programme, to training of school staff, to incorporation of the student programme into the curriculum. The student programme runs over six weeks and is delivered to all the students in the year group (Years 9 or 10, equivalent to New Zealand Years 10 or 11). A Peer Educator programme for senior students has been piloted in two schools in later phases of the SAPPSS process, to foster student leadership in violence prevention.

The SAPPSS programme has been extensively evaluated over time. Its results are encouraging. Immediately after the student programme, participants demonstrated considerable improvement in their knowledge of consent and free agreement, victims’ or survivors’ rights in reporting to police, the use of force or pressure to have sex in relationships and the legitimacy of non-verbal ways of saying ‘no’ to unwanted sexual behaviour. There was also some improvement in participants’ comfort with asking a partner for consent, and more willingness to seek support. Most of these gains were maintained at six-month follow-up, although some exceptions and gender differences were noted.

One to two years after the delivery of the programme, survey responses showed that knowledge relating to sexual assault (such as the law and prevalence statistics) was largely consistent within the group; however, there was a lot of variation in attitudes, beliefs and comfort with communicative behaviours. These variations were explored in focus groups. Participants articulated their perception that the main barriers to engaging in open, respectful sexual communication and behaviour are fears and confusion arising from social and gender-based pressures and stereotypes. The effect of the programme on incidence of victimisation or perpetration of relationship violence is unknown.
Respect, Protect, Connect

The description of this programme is paraphrased from Flood et al (2009). This programme is of interest because it is well established and its impact on students has been evaluated. The *Respect, Protect, Connect* programme has been running in Victoria for around 15 years. The focus from its inception has been on working with young men to promote non-violent and respectful ways of relating to themselves and others, while encouraging broader understandings of masculinity. The programme for young women takes a rights-based approach, providing a framework for recognising violence, and encouraging young women to proactively seek support for themselves or others if faced with a situation involving violence.

*Respect, Protect, Connect* is a programme for Years 7–10 (New Zealand Years 8–11). It is run with single-sex groups, using a near-peer education model, in which facilitators are 18–25-year-old social workers, youth workers or students who have received special training. The programme is not part of the school curriculum and school staff are largely uninvolved. Although a 12-week programme is available, most schools opt to run the programme as a one-off session. This no doubt limits its impact, although it is delivered to multiple years, so students participate in these sessions year after year as they move through school.

A 2006 evaluation of *Respect, Protect, Connect* used both quantitative attitudinal measures obtained through surveys (pre and post) and qualitative data obtained from student interviews. The surveys indicated an immediate decrease in beliefs supporting the use of violence and in gender stereotyping among young men after participation in the programme. Young women who participated showed an immediate increase in awareness of different types of violence, could more readily recognise violence in their own or their friends’ relationships and were more willing to seek support (although results on other behavioural and attitudinal survey measures were mixed). In the interviews, all the young male and female participants felt that the programme had been beneficial for their knowledge and skills. Several young men said the programme had increased their understanding of issues of sexuality and consent, or developed their understanding of and empathy towards others. When asked if there was anything they thought they would now do differently because of the programme, most said they would manage their anger and solve conflict without violence. The young women were similarly positive, several indicating greater confidence in their ability to negotiate relationships or deal with life transitions and decisions. Some said they felt more assertive and better able to respond proactively to bullying, violence, peer pressure or sexual harassment. Nearly all spoke of a greater understanding of their rights, including those regarding sexual consent, and an increased awareness of the reality of violence and the different ways in which it could occur. The long-term impact of the programme has not been evaluated.

Kids Relate

*Kids Relate* was developed in northern New South Wales, Australia and had not been evaluated at the time of the Flood et al (2009) review. It is of interest because it is locally driven and is focused on prevention of both race- and gender-based violence in a community with a large indigenous population. The description below is paraphrased from Flood et al (2009).

*Kids Relate* was developed as a whole-term, curriculum-integrated violence prevention programme designed for delivery to Grade 7 (New Zealand Year 8) students in the Clarence Valley, New South Wales. It was developed in response to research that identified particular areas of concern in Clarence Valley and its schools. The project had funding and support from a number of agencies and was developed through a local consultative inter-agency process.
The resulting *Kids Relate* programme aimed to challenge the normalisation of violence in personal and social relationships and to help young people develop relationships built on equality and the valuing of difference. The content emphasises the prevention of gender-based and racially-based violence, family violence and violence in schools. The programme is co-facilitated by community members and indigenous elders. In addition to modules on sexual harassment, family violence, homophobia and the social construction of gender, there are also modules on racial bullying of indigenous people/students and explorations of the history and impact of colonisation and racism in Australia, and the indigenous rights movement.

The modules are designed to be run in the Year 7 Personal Development, Health and Physical Education stream. The programme materials include a 250-page kit, with a school lesson plan for each topic. The syllabus is called ‘Changing Relations of Power’.

The New South Wales Department for Women reports that, while teaching staff have been very supportive in the development of the programme, it was difficult to get a commitment from schools to pilot the modules.

Flood et al (2009) suggest that *Kids Relate* could be adapted for older age groups and different communities using a similar consultative process, although they note that some of the activities (for example, scripted role-plays) use colloquialisms from Clarence Valley indigenous communities, and would need to be adapted for different areas or demographics.

### 3.4 Sexuality education

The literature on what works in sexuality education is heavily focused on the prevention of adverse public health outcomes such as teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. There is evidence that comprehensive programmes (particularly those that address relationship skills) may be more effective for achieving these outcomes than programmes with a narrow focus on the biological aspects of sexual health or an ‘abstinence only’ approach (Fenton & Coates, 2008; Kirby, 2007).

In theory, the sexuality education and SEL literatures should intersect. However, in practice, sexuality education tends to focus on the physical aspects of pubertal change and reproduction, with little focus on the development of social or emotional skills (Education Review Office, 2007a; UK External Review Committee, 2009). Even where programmes emphasise the relationship aspects of sexuality, evaluation still tends to be focused on a narrow set of sexual health goals. According to Fenton and Coates, the field is limited by “lack of findings that illuminate and provide evidence of effective classroom-based sexuality education with effectiveness being ascertained using pedagogical measures” (2008, p. 84). There is also very little research on the impact of sexuality education on outcomes such as relationship satisfaction or relationship violence.

The only sexuality programme with a violence prevention focus that we found in the current review was the SHARE (Sexual Health and Relationships Education) programme in South Australia, discussed in Flood et al (2009). The programme includes content on sexual health, respectful relationships, sexuality, and violence prevention, and adopts a whole-school approach. After the intervention, students expressed slightly more confidence that they could say no to unwanted sex, but there was no significant behaviour change amongst the small number of sexual risk-takers in the sample. Findings regarding relationship violence were not reported (Flood et al, 2009).

One major advance in the international literature since Fenton and Coates’ (2008) review of best practice is UNESCO’s 2009 publication of a ‘basic minimum package’ of topics and learning objectives for sexuality education for ages five to 18+ years. Consistent with the New Zealand curriculum, UNESCO’s sexuality education package is comprehensive and starts at age five, covering four components of the learning process: information; values, attitudes and social norms; interpersonal and relationship skills; and self-responsibility. Age-appropriate learning objectives are outlined for each level, which are broadly consistent with the New Zealand curriculum.
3.5 Social and emotional learning

Research on skill-focused relationship violence prevention is a subset of the ‘social and emotional learning’ (SEL) literature. Lessons about what works from this broader and more established literature base are also relevant to this review.

There have been significant developments in the literature on SEL since the mid-2000s. Before that, the literature tended to be divided into the positive youth development field, and various prevention fields (drug and alcohol abuse prevention, violence prevention, pregnancy prevention etc). The ‘core competencies’ approach (Guerra & Bradshaw, 2008) and the SEL approach bring these literatures together, drawing attention to the skills and competencies common to positive youth development and the prevention of ‘problem behaviour’. This is a significant shift, with important practical implications for the efficiency, effectiveness and coherence of school-based programmes.

According to Durlak et al (2011), the SEL approach focuses on five competencies: self-awareness; self-management; social awareness; relationship skills; and responsible decision-making.

This list is identical to the life skills identified in the World Health Organization’s Preventing Violence by Developing Life Skills in Children and Adolescents evidence briefing (WHO, 2009). The SEL competencies are also similar to Guerra and Bradshaw’s (2008) core competencies for positive youth development and risk prevention: positive sense of self; self-control; decision-making skills; a moral system of belief; and pro-social connectedness.

The SEL competencies are typically developed using a two-pronged approach: establishing a safe and caring learning environment at school (by improving classroom management, whole-school community building or family involvement initiatives for example), and providing classroom instruction and activities. The US approach described by Durlak et al (2011) is aimed squarely at educational objectives: enhancing school engagement; reducing risky behaviour that interferes with school performance; and, ultimately, improving success in school (and life).

In the UK, the social and emotional wellbeing of young people is framed as both a public health and an educational issue. Social and emotional wellbeing is seen as important in its own right, and because it affects physical health (in youth and later in adulthood) and educational outcomes. According to the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (2009), social and emotional wellbeing encompasses three aspects:

- happiness, confidence and not feeling depressed (emotional wellbeing)
- a feeling of autonomy and control over one’s life, problem-solving skills, resilience, attentiveness and a sense of involvement with others (psychological wellbeing)
- the ability to have good relationships with others and to avoid disruptive behaviour, delinquency, violence or bullying (social wellbeing).

The Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning Programme (SEAL) was launched in the UK in 2007 to promote the development of social and emotional skills through a comprehensive whole-school approach (Humphrey, Lendrum, & Wiggelsworth, 2010). The SEAL programme draws on Goleman’s (1995) model of emotional intelligence, and focuses on development of self-awareness, self-regulation (managing of feelings), motivation, empathy and social skills.
3.5.1 Effectiveness of programmes

According to the meta-analysis conducted by Durlak et al (2011) of data from 213 studies, SEL can be effective for a number of outcomes, including academic achievement. Their meta-analysis found that SEL programmes brought about, on average, the equivalent of an 11 percent gain in students’ academic achievement, compared with controls. Other positive outcomes included improvements in social and emotional skills, attitudes to self and others, pro-social behaviour and reductions in problem behaviours and emotional distress.

Relationship violence outcomes were not specifically reported or discussed in the SEL review, but were analysed in the broader ‘increased pro-social behaviour’ and ‘decreased problem behaviour’ outcome domains.

Positive outcomes in all outcome domains were found at all school levels (elementary, middle and high schools), but the evidence was strongest at the elementary level, since most programmes and studies were conducted at that level. Only 33 out of the 213 studies included in the meta-analysis measured the long-term impact of SEL programmes. When the data were analysed, Durlak et al (2011) found that impacts tended to fade over time, but, on average, effects on all outcomes remained statistically significant for at least six months.

Reviews of pregnancy-prevention initiatives have found that service learning programmes (involving unpaid service in the community coupled with structured time for preparation and reflection) were effective in delaying initiating of sex and decreasing pregnancy rates (Charles & Blum, 2008; Kirby, 2007). Charles and Blum attributed this success to the core competencies developed through service learning: “It can foster a sense of connectedness to adults and communities and increase protective attitudes and skills through positive self-identity, self-efficacy, and empathy” (2008, p. 68).

Similarly, reviews of school-based violence prevention initiatives have found that approaches based on building core competencies (such as conflict management, communication skills, decision-making or empathy) can effectively reduce aggressive behaviour (Sullivan et al, 2008). There is some evidence of positive ‘spill-over’ effects into other outcome domains. For example, a recent review of reviews found youth violence prevention programmes had ‘small yet significant’ effects on alcohol and drug use (Matjasko et al, 2012).

Reviews of initiatives to improve behaviour management and the overall school climate have demonstrated the effectiveness of peer mediation programmes and ‘conduct behaviour modification’ programmes (Matjasko et al, 2012). New Zealand evidence supports this finding, and is discussed in Chapter 6.

However, initiatives to improve the school climate are not always effective, as demonstrated by the SEAL programme in the UK. Unlike most US programmes, the SEAL programme is a loose enabling framework for school improvement rather than a structured package applied to schools. It has been implemented in 70 percent of UK secondary schools. Two years after SEAL was introduced, implementation in sample schools was described by the evaluators as ‘patchy,’ ‘fragmented’ and ‘extremely variable,’ and they concluded that pupil-level outcome data indicated that “SEAL (as implemented by schools in our sample) failed to impact significantly upon pupils’ social and emotional skills, general mental health difficulties, pro-social behaviour or behaviour problems” (Humphrey et al, 2010, p. 3).

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2 Studies that emphasised the development of one or more SEL skills were included in the Durlak et al (2011) review. However, studies focused solely on outcomes related to physical health and development were excluded. Sexuality education programmes were notably absent, since these studies generally focus on physical health outcomes only. Studies reviewed included, for example, youth development programmes, character education programmes, service learning, life skills programmes, behaviour management programmes, problem-solving and conflict resolution programmes, violence (including dating violence and bullying) prevention programmes, drug and alcohol abuse prevention programmes, depression and suicide prevention programmes.
Differences by age, gender, ethnicity and socio-economic status (SES)

Ethnicity

Durlak et al (2011) found that the effectiveness of SEL programmes did not differ according to the predominant ethnicity of the students in the study (Caucasian, African-American or mixed). However, some reviews of youth violence prevention programmes have found smaller average effect sizes for ethnic minority participants (Matjasko et al, 2012).

Age

In the SEL meta-analysis, the only significant finding regarding age was that mean age (between 5 and 18) was inversely related to skill outcomes (Durlak et al, 2011). In other words, younger students’ social and emotional skills improved more than older students’ as a result of SEL programmes. In other outcome domains (attitudes towards self and others, positive social behaviour, conduct problems, emotional distress and academic performance), SEL programmes were equally beneficial for all age groups (Durlak et al, 2011).

In a review of reviews looking at youth violence prevention, most reviews found larger effects on younger children or no effect by age. The few that found larger effects for older children tended to be reviews of CBT-based interventions (Matjasko, 2012).

Gender

Durlak et al (2011) did not test for differences in SEL outcomes by gender. Reviews of youth violence prevention programmes have found inconsistent results – some studies found larger effect sizes for boys, some for girls, and some that sex did not modify effect size significantly (Matjasko, 2012).

Socioeconomic status (SES)

Durlak et al (2011) did not test for differences in SEL outcomes by socio-economic status. However, the impact of geographical location (urban, suburban and rural) was tested, and revealed no statistically significant variation. A review of New Zealand mentoring programmes found that those targeting low or mixed SES youth tended to be more effective than those aimed at mid-level SES youth (Farruggia et al, 2011).

3.5.2 Examples of effective programmes internationally

It is important to note that positive meta-analysis findings (for example, those of Durlak et al, 2011) do not mean that all SEL programmes are effective. On average they produce positive outcomes, but some individual programmes may be ineffective or even harmful (Fagan & Catalano, 2012). To help communities and schools choose suitable evidence-based programmes, a number of US organisations describe, review and rate individual programmes, and make their findings available publicly. Examples are Blueprints for Healthy Youth Development, What Works Clearinghouse and CASEL (Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning). The CASEL Guide 2013 provides detailed ratings and descriptions of effective social and emotional programmes for pre-school and elementary schools. A CASEL Guide covering middle and high school programmes is due for publication later in 2013.

Two examples of effective SEL programmes are described below. The first is a US programme and the second is Australian, although both have been implemented in a number of different countries worldwide, and have been subject to many rigorous evaluations. Both are mentioned in the recent report from the Prime Minister’s Chief Science Advisor, Improving the Transition: Reducing social and psychological morbidity during adolescence (Gluckman, 2011).
Life Skills Training

Botvin’s Life Skills Training is a school-based programme targeting 12-14-year-olds. It was found to have immediate and long-term benefits in a number of domains including substance use, violence and delinquency. It has been shown to be effective for a range of ethnic and socio-economic groups including disadvantaged ethnic minority groups in urban environments, and rural communities (Blueprints for Healthy Youth Development; Fagan & Catalano, 2012; Gluckman, 2011). It is the only endorsed programme on the Blueprints website that targets students in Years 7-13, and has been shown to reduce violence, and to have long-term effectiveness in diverse populations.

Resourceful Adolescent Programme (RAP)

The Australian RAP is aimed at improving mental health and preventing depression in young people. A universal school-based programme, it has been successfully introduced in 17 other countries, including New Zealand. RAP consists of three components, which promote individual, family and school protective factors respectively:

1. RAP-A for adolescents: a school-based programme for 12-15-year-olds that aims to improve the coping skills of teenagers
2. RAP-P for parents: targets family protective factors such as harmony and preventing conflict
3. RAP-T for teachers: seeks to help teachers to promote school connectedness, a protective factor that has recently been shown to be very important in teenage mental health.

Beginning with a pilot programme in 1996, RAP has been the subject of systematic evaluation for over 10 years and is now endorsed as an evidence-based programme by the Commonwealth Government in Australia. Results of published randomised controlled trials have indicated that RAP prevents depressive symptoms in adolescents and is significantly better than a placebo control (Queensland University of Technology, 2013).
4. THE COMMON CHARACTERISTICS AND PRACTICES OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOL-BASED RELATIONSHIP EDUCATION
The second question this review aims to answer is: What are the common characteristics and practices (ie the success factors) of effective school-based relationship education? How do success factors differ by age, gender, socio-economic status or ethnicity?

4.1 Summary of key findings

While some success factors can be distilled from the literature, there are still fundamental gaps in knowledge about what works in relationship education. For example, we know little about what works for different age groups, genders, socio-economic groups or ethnicities. What we do know is that programmes need to be sensitive to diversity, and tailored to ensure that content is relevant and culturally appropriate for the target group.

Successful programmes in the fields of relationship violence prevention, sexual violence prevention, social and emotional learning and sexuality education have been shown to have certain characteristics in common. They are:

- informed by theory and evidence
- holistic and strengths-based
- integrated into the curriculum
- aimed at influencing specific risk factors/protective factors/core competencies
- focused on developing personal or social skills
- cognisant of environmental influences
- developmentally and culturally appropriate
- personally relevant (ie address immediate needs)
- delivered using active teaching methods
- taught by well-trained and supported educators, with appropriate skills and qualities
- evaluated as to process and outcomes.

There is wide agreement in the literature that one-off sessions are ineffective, as are programmes that adopt a 'lecture' style of delivery, and are focused only on knowledge acquisition.

4.2 Success factors for relationship violence prevention programmes

Empirical research about what distinguishes successful from unsuccessful relationship violence prevention programmes is still in its infancy. Because so few programmes have been rigorously tested and followed up, solid evidence about what works overall, and for subgroups, is lacking.

One way of discerning what works is to determine what successful programmes have in common. Common elements of the two programmes (Safe Dates and The Fourth R) with demonstrated long-term impacts on behaviour are:

- sufficient intensity and duration (9+ sessions)
- curriculum integration
- a focus on critically examining gender stereotypes
- a focus on changing attitudes to relationship violence
EFFECTIVENESS OF RELATIONSHIP EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN SCHOOLS FOR YEARS 7–13

A focus on developing skills for healthy relationships
active teaching methods (eg role-play, drama production, discussion)
grounding in a socio-ecological understanding of violence
grounding in behaviour-change theory and evidence.

A number of reports provide guidelines for ‘best practice’ in school-based relationship violence prevention (such as Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Hassall & Hanna, 2007; Flood et al, 2009). These guidelines are informed by evidence and theory, but may also be influenced by ideology and unproven hypotheses. There is agreement on some factors, but disagreement and conflicting evidence on others. Caution is therefore required regarding best practice guidelines.

The following summary is based primarily on an Australian report, Respectful Relationships Education: Violence prevention and respectful relationships in Victorian schools, by Flood et al (2009). This is the most recent report with an in-depth evidence-based discussion of good practice in relationship education. Other literature is also drawn on, particularly where evidence is inconsistent.

4.2.1 Evidence-informed aims and strategies

There is general agreement that relationship violence prevention programmes should be informed by the latest evidence, and have a coherent programme logic. Flood et al (2009) argue that programmes should have an appropriate evidence-based theoretical framework for both understanding violence and effecting change. This framework should be reflected in the aims and learning objectives of programmes, which should target specific known risk and protective factors, or antecedents of violent behaviour (Flood et al, 2009).

It is important to note that ‘prevention science’ is a discipline in itself, which is not always familiar in the education. Programme design should be interdisciplinary, drawing on appropriate experts (from the violence prevention and behaviour change fields as well as education) to ensure that aims and strategies are evidence-informed and avoid known pitfalls (Flood et al, 2009).

4.2.2 Going beyond attitudes

Historically, changing attitudes has been a central aim of relationship violence prevention education, but the evidence suggests that this is not enough. Research in a number of fields has repeatedly shown that changes in knowledge and attitudes do not necessarily lead to changes in behaviour. This finding is confirmed in the latest review of the efficacy of primary prevention interventions for adolescent relationship violence, which concludes that “the link between effecting attitudinal change and effecting behavioural change appears to be far from straightforward” (Leen et al, 2013).

In practice, school-based relationship violence prevention programmes generally focus on one or more of three broad aims: changing attitudes and awareness; improving healthy relationship skills; and changing behaviour (Leen et al, 2013). On the basis of limited evidence, Leen et al (2013) tentatively suggest that programmes focused on behaviour change (such as Safe Dates or The Fourth R) are more likely to have positive, sustained outcomes.

There is wide agreement that improving interpersonal skills is an important aspect of relationship education, to provide young people with skills for non-violent ways of communicating, problem-solving and negotiating (Flood et al, 2009; Hassall & Hanna, 2007). Both Safe Dates and The Fourth R have a heavy emphasis on skill development, but, interestingly, the evaluation of Safe Dates found the programme did not have any significant long-term effect on conflict management skills. Its apparent effectiveness appears to be due to changes in dating violence norms and gender role norms (WHO/LSHTM, 2010).
4.2.3 Using a gender lens

A controversial issue in relationship violence prevention is whether to adopt a ‘gender-neutral’ frame of reference, as recommended by Avery-Leaf and Cascardi (2002, cited in Hassall & Hanna, 2007) or an explicitly feminist theoretical orientation, as argued by Flood et al (2009) and the Canadian Women’s Foundation (2012).

The gender-neutral approach is based on established findings that both male and female adolescents perpetrate relationship violence at similar rates (Leen et al, 2013), and programmes using a feminist model that assumes male perpetrators and female victims can cause a ‘backlash’ in male attitudes. Flood et al note evidence of resistance from teachers, schools and students to feminist approaches (2009, p. 34).

Support for a feminist approach is grounded in a socio-environmental view that relationship violence is intrinsically linked with contextual issues of power, inequality and gender-role norms. From this standpoint, “To be effective, anti-violence programming must recognise the fundamental similarity between all forms of abuse: one person (or a group of people) exercising power and control over another” (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012, p. 30).

Although evidence about ‘backlash’ effects needs to be taken seriously, there is also empirical evidence that a socio-environmental frame is more effective than framing violence as a purely individual or interpersonal issue. For example, an Australian review of 60 domestic violence projects concluded that the inclusion of material on gender inequality and gender roles was necessary for success (Flood et al, 2009).

The weight of opinion and evidence appears to lean towards the socio-ecological model. However, this does not mean adopting a simplistic (and counter-productive) assumption that ‘all boys are potential perpetrators and all girls are potential victims’. This only serves to reinforce stereotypical gender norms about men being aggressive and women being passive (Robertson & Oulton, 2008). A nuanced approach is called for:

Educators need to tread a fine line – they must clearly state that females are victimised more often, but that males are also victimised. Boys must be approached as part of the solution and given appropriate leadership roles. Most importantly, educators must not assign blame. Instead they must emphasise the power of socialisation on both females and males – this is the dynamic that sets the stage for dating violence. (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012, p. 13)

Flood et al (2009) argue that challenging traditional gender roles has benefits for both sexes. For example, it “gives young men alternatives to the limited range of behaviours and attitudes which traditionally define a ‘real man’ [and] … can enable young men to express themselves emotionally and improve their capacity to establish respectful equitable intimate relationships” (p. 38).

Even if the socio-ecological approach is rejected in favour of a more individual framework, the issue of gender difference cannot be ignored. There is clear evidence that young men and women have baseline differences in knowledge, attitudes and skills for healthy relationships (Leen et al, 2013; Tuttty et al, 2002). It is also clear that males and females respond differently to programme materials and activities (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Leen et al, 2013). Therefore, regardless of theoretical framework, the use of a gender lens is recommended.
4.2.4 Intensity, duration and integration with curriculum

It is widely agreed that programmes need a reasonable intensity and duration if they are to have a long-term impact on attitudes, skills and behaviour. It is argued that longer duration means more exposure to prevention messages and more opportunity to move beyond ‘lecture-style instruction’ with teaching methods that are proven to increase impact, such as role-plays and skills training.

Integration with the school curriculum is also recommended as best practice, regardless of whether the programme is delivered by school personnel or an external agency (Flood et al, 2009). Flood et al (2009) provide a ‘what not to do’ list, and specifically recommend against one-off sessions isolated from other curricula.

Empirical evidence about the optimum programme duration is mixed. Long duration is no guarantee of effectiveness, and it appears that programmes of varying lengths can produce good results, at least in the short term (Flood et al, 2009; Tutty et al, 2002).

4.2.5 Culturally appropriate approach

It is widely agreed that programmes need to be designed for diversity (in ethnicity, gender and sexual orientation) to ensure that their materials, language and examples are relevant and appropriate for the target audience. This is because “students feel the most comfortable and are most likely to learn when the programme material reflects their reality, is relevant to their life, and makes them feel included” (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012, p. 18). This is true not only of ‘minority’ groups, but of all young people. Flood et al (2009) note, for example, that “white, middle-class, heterosexual boys from inner-city Melbourne have ‘culture’ – specific formations of identity, norms and interaction – just as much as boys who are older, indigenous, poor, or gay” (p. 55). It is argued that programming for all (including ‘mainstream’) audiences should be attentive to culture, and build cultural appropriateness into programme design, implementation and evaluation (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012; Flood et al, 2009).

Canadian advice about adapting programmes for indigenous and ‘newcomer’ populations is to “draw upon the expertise and experience of the specific community” (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012, p. 19). Flood et al (2009) advise “mapping the gendered and sexual culture of a target group or community, in order to see which aspects of this culture contribute to relationship and family violence and which aspects can be mobilised in support of non-violence” (2009, p. 56).

There are few empirical findings about effective relationship violence prevention education for specific ethnic or racial groups. However, Flood et al (2009) note “there certainly is evidence that culturally relevant interventions among racially diverse populations are more effective than general interventions” (p. 56).

4.2.6 Whole-school approach

Flood et al (2009) argue strongly for a whole-school approach, calling it “the single most important criterion for effective violence prevention and respectful relationships education in schools”. A whole-school approach operates in four overlapping domains: curriculum, teaching and learning; school policy and practices; school culture, ethos and environment; and the relationships between school, home and the community. Flood et al argue:

Given that youth violence and conduct problems are socially embedded phenomena, programmes should attempt to change the whole culture in which children learn, targeting aspects of the school climate that are conducive to violence. (2009, p. 28)

The Canadian Women’s Foundation (2012) argues that classroom-based learning about non-violence is more effective if supported by teachers and parents who “model non-violent behaviour, and know how to de-escalate conflict using positive alternatives to shaming, intimidation or physical force” (p. 25).
The weight of opinion is strongly in favour of the whole-school approach, but empirical evidence is mixed. The whole-school approach has been shown to be effective for school-based bullying prevention and mental health promotion, for example (Boyd & Barwick, 2011; Flood et al, 2009). However, the relationship violence prevention programme with the strongest evidence of long-term effectiveness, Safe Dates, does not use a whole-school approach. A number of violence prevention and SEL meta-analyses have found that single-component (ie classroom-only) interventions are more effective, on average, than multi-component programmes. This finding is discussed further in the section on success factors for SEL programmes.

4.2.7 Content

A programme’s content should reflect its aims and address cognitive, affective and behavioural domains. Research suggests that programmes that address how people feel and what they do are more effective than those that only change what people know (Flood et al, 2009). Flood et al (2009) argue that generic skills such as conflict resolution, negotiation and assertive communication should be taught and practised. However, they warn against content that is so general that it fails to examine the specific gender dynamics of relationship violence. They argue that, for older adolescents, content about sexual consent and coercive control (and alternatives to it) in intimate relationships is essential. There is universal support for content that critically examines attitudes and norms related to relationship violence.

There is strong agreement in the literature that programme content should be personally relevant to students and age-appropriate. For example, a focus on more common, everyday relationship scenarios and behaviours (such as verbal abuse, or sexual pressure) is more universally relevant to adolescents than focusing on extreme physical violence. It allows the practising of non-violent communication skills and anger management, which are useful for all students and appropriate for the general classroom (Avery-Leaf & Cascardi, 2002, cited in Hassall & Hanna, 2007).

Flood et al (2009) state that “There is a developing consensus in the violence prevention field that educational efforts among young people must go beyond, or indeed abandon, a focus on teaching potential victims how to ‘avoid rape’ or ‘keep safe’” (p. 38). The personal safety approach puts responsibility for prevention on the potential victim, and thus potentially exacerbates victim-blaming cultural norms (Flood et al, 2009; Robertson & Oulton, 2008; Russell, 2008).

4.2.8 Active delivery

There is strong evidence that active and participatory teaching methods are most effective, as opposed to lecture-style presentations. The Canadian Women’s Foundation (2012), for example, says, “It is not enough for students to hear about a skill like assertive communication, they must also have the chance to practice it” (p. 6). Role-playing is seen as a key way of allowing students to practise new interpersonal skills, at least for young women. Some studies have found adolescent males reluctant to engage in role-play.

The literature suggests that role-plays work best when they present realistic situations that mean something to participants. However, they must be carefully planned, introduced and debriefed, and conducted in a supportive setting. It should be noted that role-playing is a skill in itself, and educators must teach students how to take part in them (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012).
4.2.9 Gender and size of group

There is considerable debate in the literature as to whether relationship education should be taught in gender-segregated or mixed-gender groups. See Flood et al (2009, pp. 47–50) for an in-depth discussion of the theory and research on this matter. Findings are inconsistent, and Flood et al (2009) conclude:

The most effective sex composition of groups may depend on such factors as the age of the students, the focus and goals of the teaching sessions, and the nature of the teaching methods used... Mixed sex groups may be more effective if the session is intended to encourage male empathy for females or victims of violence, to create gender dialogue, or to create opportunities for males to listen to females. However, if the session is intended, for example, to encourage males’ ‘ownership’ of the issue to facilitate their move from bystander to ally, then single sex groups may be more effective. (p. 49)

One study cited in Flood et al (2009) found a possible interaction between group size and gender composition. This review of school-based sexual violence interventions found that, for mixed groups, whole-class sessions were more effective, but for single-sex groups, the small-group format was more effective.

There is general agreement that small groups are more effective than whole-class or whole-school sessions, since small groups allow more active participation by each student (Flood et al, 2009). However, some evaluations have found peer-group dynamics can have unintended adverse effects. For example, one study found that group cohesion and involvement in the group process actually reduced the success intervention success (Wolfe et al, 2003, cited in Leen et al, 2013). Leen et al note that iatrogenic effects from group interventions have also been reported in previous research. However, results are mixed, with some studies citing an open and supportive group environment as a key strength of the intervention. Leen et al (2013) conclude:

The positive rating of group effects by participants may be independent from behaviour: the participants may enjoy the openness of the group, but it does not necessarily follow that behaviour will change (eg revelation and acceptance may be seen as endorsing [violent] behaviour or have no effect at all). (p. 171)

There is a gap in the literature about when and why group dynamics produce iatrogenic effects. We do not know if the risk of harm is associated with the facilitation, the content of the discussion, the characteristics of the young people involved or some other factor or interplay of factors. This knowledge gap is of major concern, but is not widely discussed in the literature. Leen et al (2013) observe that “peer-group delivery continues regardless and potential iatrogenic effects are rarely discussed within intervention evaluations” (p. 172).

4.2.10 Educators

There is also debate in the literature about who should facilitate school-based relationship violence prevention programmes, and these debates are outlined in some detail in Flood et al (2009, pp. 52–54). There is wide support for matching the gender of the facilitator with single-sex groups, and particular emphasis is in the literature on the importance of men facilitating and leading other males. Similarly, there is debate about whether regular classroom teachers should facilitate programmes, or educators from community agencies, or trained peer-educators (such as senior students). There are advantages and disadvantages to each alternative, and what little evidence is available is equivocal. Flood et al (2009) conclude that effective delivery depends above all on the skills, training and support of the educator, their gender, and whether they are a teacher, community educator or peer educator may be less important.
4.2.11 Disclosure
Flood et al (2009) note that educators need to be trained to deal appropriately with disclosure from victims or perpetrators of relationship violence. Setting up protocols within the school and links to appropriate external organisations should be part of preparation for implementing a programme.

4.2.12 Implementation issues
In respect of best practice, there is some discussion in the literature about the challenges of implementing and sustaining healthy relationships programmes in schools. In particular, there is agreement that schools need considerable support and resources to set up, implement, monitor and evaluate relationship violence prevention programmes: “effective running of programmes cannot be reliant on the good will and energy of certain committed teachers” (Flood et al. 2009, p. 30).

The Canadian Women’s Foundation (2012) also sounds a note of caution:

School-based healthy relationship programmes lead to many benefits for students, schools, and the broader community. However for the full promise of these programmes to be realised, two key challenges must be addressed: sustainable funding and the need for more coordination. (p. 29)

4.2.13 What not to do
On the basis of their extensive review of international and Australian evidence and practice, Flood et al (2009) highlight some common but ineffective approaches and strategies in school-based violence prevention. Their list of what not to do is reproduced here:

- Take action only after violence has occurred.
- Focus only on strategies of support and welfare.
- Ignore the wider contexts in which violence occurs and is sustained, including formal and informal school cultures, policies and processes.
- Focus only on the production and dissemination of a resource.
- Make programmes unsustainable: neglect policy and institutional support, ignore teacher capacity, and do not establish partnerships with stakeholders.
- Use one-off sessions, isolated from other curriculums.
- Lecture students without interaction or participation.
- Evaluate only students’ satisfaction with the programme and not its impact. (p. 25)

4.3 Success factors for sexuality education
There is a growing international consensus about best practice in sexuality education, which is reflected in recent reports from the US (Kirby, 2007), New Zealand (Fenton & Coates, 2008), the UK (External Review Committee, 2008 and UNESCO (2009). Certain common themes emerge:

- Sexuality education should not be taught in isolation but integrated with wider curriculum goals.
- Quality teaching is critical, and in particular educators’ ability to relate to young people, generate trust and create a safe environment to discuss sexuality. These factors are more important than age, gender or ethnicity.
- Educators need appropriate training and support.
- Sexuality education is most effective when there is a safe social environment for young people to participate; small gender-segregated groups may facilitate participation.
- The emotional and social aspects of sexuality education are important but often neglected, and should receive more attention.
Active teaching methods are recommended to enable young people to personalise learning and practise interpersonal skills.

Content should be personally relevant to young people, and appropriate for their culture, age and sexual experience.

Students want and need sexuality education that teaches them how to be sexually healthy and have successful relationships (Bagshaw, 2011; Charles & Blum, 2008; Education Review Office, 2007a; Fenton & Coates, 2008; UK External Steering Group, 2008; UNESCO, 2009).

There is universal agreement that sexuality education should begin early, before young people become sexually active. Both the UNESCO guidance and the New Zealand curriculum begin sexuality education at age five, based on the idea that “sexuality education should begin with relationships, respect and difference, taking up questions of reproduction along the way rather than privileging them from the start” (Fenton & Coates, 2008, citing Epstein & Johnson, 1998).

A strong theme in the literature is critique of the way sexuality education is actually taught in schools. In all the countries studied, practice in sexuality education generally falls far short of what is known to be effective. In particular, there is wide agreement that more emphasis on the relationship aspects of sexuality education is needed (UK External Steering Group, 2008).

Some of the literature also critiques the heterosexist assumptions inherent in many sexuality education programmes, and argues for a more inclusive approach (Fenton & Coates, 2008). The UNESCO report (2009) notes that unprotected sex between men is a major risk factor for HIV, and safe sex for non-heterosexual young people is an issue that is rarely addressed in school-based sexuality education.

Fenton and Coates (2008) found that programmes with a focus on threats such as unwanted pregnancy, infection and assault tend to be less effective than those that frame sexuality as a positive and healthy aspect of life. It has also been argued that programmes that do not address or acknowledge the wider environmental influences on sexual behaviour are likely to be ineffective (Coyle et al, 1999, cited in Fenton & Coates, 2008).

An international review of five studies found that “neither the age (adult versus peer) nor the gender nor the race of the educator is important. It is the ability of the educator to relate to young people that makes a difference” (Kirby, 2007, cited in Fenton & Coates, 2008, p. 41).

Another international review undertaken in Canada produced the following list of characteristics of effective sexuality programmes. They:

- have sufficient class time
- have motivated and well trained teachers
- are based on theoretical models
- ascertain student characteristics and needs
- provide information that is directly relevant to sexual health and specifically target behaviours that lead to unintended pregnancy and STIs
- address motivational factors and include activities that address social pressures related to adolescent sexual behaviour
- deliver and consistently reinforce prevention messages
- teach specific behavioural skills and provide examples of and opportunity to practise skills (role play)
4.4 Success factors for social and emotional learning

Although significant advances have been made in recent years, evidence-based knowledge about success factors for SEL interventions is not yet well developed. The following section outlines some of the key success factors that are broadly agreed on in the literature, although findings are far from clear-cut.

4.4.1 SAFE

The acronym SAFE signifies the four success factors that Durlak et al (2011) believe to be associated with successful SEL programmes:

**Sequenced** – Does the programme use a connected and coordinated set of activities to achieve its objectives relative to skill development?

**Active** – Does the programme use active forms of learning to help youth develop new skills (such as role playing or behavioural rehearsal)?

**Focused** – Does the programme have at least one component devoted to developing personal or social skills?

**Explicit** – Does the programme explicitly target one or more specific SEL skills rather than targeting skills or positive development in general terms?

Durlak et al predicted that programmes displaying all four of these success factors would be more effective, on average, than those that did not. When they analysed the outcomes of 213 SEL studies, this hypothesis was confirmed (Durlak et al, 2011). However, the SAFE approach is not a guarantee of effectiveness – some unsuccessful programmes may have all four elements, and conversely some successful programmes do not. So, clearly, there are other important factors at work.

A holistic approach that values the whole person and acknowledges environmental influences is generally seen as important. For example, a recent New Zealand review observes:

> It has been argued that the most effective [prevention programmes] generally incorporate a wide range of life skills within the curriculum, and the evidence suggests many programmes that tackle specific domains [e.g. drug and alcohol abuse, risky sexual behaviour] without regard for the holistic social, mental and physical wellbeing of the adolescent are less effective. (Gluckman, 2011, p. 89)

Other factors commonly associated with successful SEL programmes are intensity and duration; tailoring to developmental needs; integration of social and emotional skill development into the curriculum; youth engagement in development and delivery; strong leadership and good management; and appropriate professional development and resourcing (Gluckman, 2011; NICE, 2009; Stewart-Brown, 2006).

A well-established finding in the youth violence prevention field is that programmes with a cognitive-behavioural component tend to have larger effect sizes than those without one, or those with only a behavioural component (Matjasko et al, 2012). Another well-established finding is that programmes that target selected and indicated populations tend to have more effect than universal programmes, possibly because there is more room for improvement in high-risk populations (Matjasko et al, 2012).
4.4.2 Delivery by regular classroom teacher

The meta-analysis of SEL programmes by Durlak et al found that, on average, programmes delivered by the classroom teacher positively influenced a wider range of outcomes than programmes delivered by an external provider in the school setting. Notably, "student academic performance significantly improved only when school personnel conducted the intervention" (Durlak et al, 2011, p. 413). This finding is for all school levels combined, and findings specific to Years 7–13 are not reported separately.

4.4.3 Mixed findings about multi-component approaches

Guerra and Bradshaw (2008) say that “Skill-building interventions that go beyond direct instruction and address ecological influences that are important for development are more likely to have a preventive effect and promote positive adjustment” (p. 5). Consistent with this view, health promotion guidance for schools generally emphasises the importance of an ‘organisation-wide’ or ‘whole-school’ approach, and programmes that involve parents and the wider community (see, for example, Flood et al, 2009; NICE, 2009; Stewart-Brown, 2006). Multi-component and multi-setting approaches are considered more effective because they are more likely than classroom activities alone to influence the socio-cultural norms and environmental factors that underlie behaviour. However, recent empirical evidence about the effectiveness of such interventions is mixed.

A World Health Organisation review of the effectiveness of health promotion in schools concluded that the most effective mental health promotion and violence prevention programmes were “of long duration and high intensity and involved the whole school” (Stewart-Brown, 2006, p. 4). Evidence from the violence prevention literature in particular underscores the importance of the wider school environment, which can reinforce or undermine classroom learning. Recent reviews conclude that violence prevention programmes have the best chance of success when they are grounded in a wider framework, and consistent with the other values, goals and priorities of the school (Boyd & Barwick, 2011; Flood et al, 2009). Reviews of universal school-based violence prevention programmes have found programmes directly targeting the school environment or climate were effective and reduced violent behaviour significantly (Sullivan et al, 2008).

However, contrary to their conclusion, Durlak et al (2011) found that multi-component programmes that supplemented teacher-administered classroom interventions with a parent, community and/or school-wide component tended to be less effective than programmes consisting solely of classroom-based activities. Consistent with this finding, a recent meta-review of youth violence prevention programmes found that multi-component programmes on average had smaller effect sizes than single-component approaches (Matjasko et al, 2012). Durlak et al (2011) cite three other reviews that have also found that multi-component programmes have no additional benefits over single-component (classroom-only) programmes.

Durlak et al posit two possible explanations for their finding: 1) multi-component programmes are more complex and require greater resources, and are therefore more likely to face implementation problems; and 2) multi-component programmes are less likely to focus on known success factors (meaning they are less likely to be Sequenced, Active, Focused and Explicit). Both explanations are supported by their data.
Two possible further explanations are not considered in the literature: baseline differences between schools, and differing ‘bedding in’ periods. First, in schools that conduct classroom-only programmes, the existing school environment and ethos may more typically be already aligned with SEL values and practices compared with those of schools that attempt to implement a multi-component programme. If so, this may account for the apparent advantage of classroom-only interventions. Second, multi-component programmes are likely to have a much longer ‘bedding in’ period than classroom-only interventions, because change in large and complex systems (like schools or communities) takes time. A consistent finding from the public health literature is that environmental interventions take many years, and results may not be reflected within evaluation timeframes, which are typically short.

These mixed findings are difficult to interpret with any confidence. Findings suggest that a classroom-based programme is more likely to be effective if it is congruent with and supported by whole-school policies, practices and ethos. But they also suggest that simple, focused programmes that are easy to implement may produce quicker and better results than ambitious, complex programmes, with diffuse goals. It is possible that both these conclusions are correct. Further research is necessary before definitive conclusions can be drawn.

4.4.4 Intensity and duration

There is broad agreement in the SEL literature that the intensity and duration of programmes are important, and that one-off sessions or very short programmes are unlikely to achieve social and emotional learning goals. However, Durlak et al.’s (2011) meta-analysis (which, because of its focus on developing skills, did not include lecture-style programmes) found a negative association between programme duration and skill outcomes. This is surprising, since we would expect longer duration to mean more opportunity to practise and therefore better skill outcomes.

4.4.5 Implementation issues

Rolling out a programme presents considerable challenges, and Fergusson, McNaughton, Hayne, and Cunningham (2011) note “increasing recognition that the success of any intervention will depend critically on how well the programme is implemented as well as the intrinsic efficacy of the programme per se” (p. 290). Some of the factors in the success of implementation are leadership, administrative support, staff training and competencies, and cultural appropriateness (Fergusson et al, 2011).

CASEL (2011) has produced a guide called Leading an SEL School which discusses implementation issues in some depth and provides a 10-step implementation plan for schools. An appendix addresses common concerns such as lack of funds, time constraints, lack of perceived need for school-wide SEL (“We do this already”; “We only need a programme targeted at disruptive students”) and lack of pertinent teaching expertise.
5. NEW ZEALAND APPROACHES AND PROGRAMMES
The third research question for this review was: What evidence exists about school-based relationship education approaches in New Zealand? What are examples of programmes of known or emerging effectiveness?

5.1 Summary of key findings

We did not find any classroom-based relationship education programmes with robust evaluation of long-term impact (undertaken more than six months post-intervention).

Violence prevention programmes such as Love Bites and BodySafe have been well received, with evidence of knowledge gains and changes in behavioural intention immediately after intervention. However, their long-term impact on knowledge, behaviour and attitudes has not been tested.

Social and emotional learning programmes such as Kiwi Can, Life Education and Attitude are all aligned with the New Zealand Health and Physical Education Curriculum, and have been positively evaluated, with qualitative evidence of beneficial behaviour change and skill development.

There is strong evidence from robust studies that school-wide efforts aimed at improving relationships, behaviour and school culture can be very successful, particularly when grounded in Māori relational concepts and practices. For example, research shows that school-wide use of restorative practices leads to better behaviour and academic outcomes.

There is considerable evidence that sexuality education in New Zealand is poorly implemented in many schools, and does not meet the learning needs of students. However, examples of good practice are also documented in the literature.

The New Zealand literature is rich in studies that qualitatively explore young people’s sexuality and relationship norms, attitudes and questions, and these findings may be helpful for developing or adapting relationship education programmes for the New Zealand context.

5.2 Relationship education evaluation

As noted in Chapter 2, relationship education is embedded in various areas of the New Zealand Curriculum, particularly the Health and Physical Education Curriculum. Little is known about how ‘business as usual’ relationship education (broadly defined) is taught in New Zealand schools, or how effective it is. When evaluations are undertaken, they generally evaluate discrete ‘programmes’ (often delivered by external providers), rather than everyday teaching or the implementation of curriculum areas as a whole. An exception was the evaluation of sexuality education for Years 7–13 undertaken by the Education Review Office in 2007, which is discussed below.

What follows is a discussion of selected New Zealand programmes and approaches that fit into our broad definition of relationship education. Discussion is limited to programmes that have been formally evaluated, though it is important to note that most evaluations are retrospective only (rather than pre-post), and none are randomised controlled trials. Therefore most of the findings are suggestive only, and do not meet international criteria for robust evaluation design. We begin with programmes that specifically focus on relationship violence, then look at the evidence from the sexuality education field in New Zealand. This is followed by a discussion of programmes that fit into the broader SEL approach – both classroom learning programmes, and programmes that aim to improve relationships and/or relationship skills across the whole school.
5.3 Relationship violence prevention programmes

5.3.1 Love Bites

*Love Bites* is an Australian programme that was piloted in a Wellington co-educational high school in 2010–11 with Year 12 students. It aims to educate young people about respectful relationships and reduce the incidence of relationship violence in the community. The programme was presented as a full-day workshop. In the morning students learned about and discussed relationship violence in small groups, each facilitated by a team comprising a teacher, a police officer and a community organisation representative. Each facilitation team included at least one male. Topics included facts about domestic violence and sexual assault, the services available, strategies for protecting oneself and supporting friends in their relationships, and screening and discussion of a DVD about ‘Angie’s story’. In the afternoon, students participated in a creative task (such as writing and recording a hip hop song, radio advertisement or play) on the theme of preventing gendered violence (Kaitiaki Research and Evaluation Limited, 2011).

The pilot was evaluated via a student survey at the end of the workshop, and three focus groups, two including students and one of teachers only. Overall, teachers and students rated the workshop as informative, age appropriate and thought provoking. One student said, “I have been in an abusive relationship before and if I had seen *Love Bites* before then it could have saved me from the abuse. It is an excellent programme” (Kaitiaki Research and Evaluation Limited, 2011, p. 4). The survey suggested that the workshop had resulted in knowledge gains. For example, most students agreed or strongly agreed that they now knew more about sexual assault/domestic violence. Some felt they had learned strategies to avoid issues in their own relationships, particularly those who had discussed risks in ‘real-life’ situations (such as parties and binge drinking) in their group.

However, some students were critical of scenarios that were not relevant to students’ lives, or intervention strategies that were not realistic. “Some of the things they told us we could do or say to intervene were stupid and not how we would normally speak or act” (Kaitiaki Research and Evaluation Limited, 2011, p. 7). Students also expressed concern about the lack of same-sex examples, and the fact that “males were cast solely as perpetrators of violence”. This was seen as “sexist” and “unequal” by both male and female students, who thought that examples of emotional abuse and financial abuse, for example, could have reversed the “stereotypical male against female situation” (Kaitiaki Research and Evaluation Limited, 2011, pp. 9–10). Evaluators’ suggestions for improving the workshop included more training and practice for facilitators; beginning with a group-building activity; more time for discussion; more use of story-based presentation techniques; ensuring that examples and strategies are relevant and realistic; and setting clearly defined purpose and goals for the creative session.

*Love Bites* meets some best practice criteria, such as the use of interactive teaching techniques, and of engaging and relevant stories. However, in many ways it does not conform to the latest theories and evidence of what works: for example, it is a one-off session which is not clearly linked to the curriculum, it does not place violence in a socio-environmental frame (there does not appear to be discussion of gender roles, social norms etc) and there is little opportunity for the development of social and emotional skills.

5.3.2 Loves Me Not

Another pilot, *Loves Me Not*, was launched in May 2013 in nine secondary schools around New Zealand. *Loves Me Not* was developed jointly by the Sophie Elliott Foundation, the New Zealand Police, the ‘It’s not OK’ campaign team and other experts. A key focus of the programme is raising awareness in young people about the difference between healthy (equal) relationships and unhealthy (controlling) ones, and knowing the warning signs for abuse. Like *Love Bites*, it will be delivered as a full-day workshop by a team of teachers, police officers and NGO facilitators (Sophie Elliott Foundation, 2013).
5.3.3  BodySafe

Rape Prevention Education has delivered the BodySafe programme in Auckland secondary schools since 2005. The programme aims to reduce the incidence of sexual violence victimisation and perpetration within adolescent populations – it does not address relationship violence more broadly. The programme is generally delivered over three separate 45–60 minute modules to students in Years 9, 10 and 11. The topics covered include understanding consent from legal and ethical perspectives, exploring sexual violence myths, communication and negotiation skills in sexual relationships, what to do in a crisis, how to help when friends disclose abuse, and information about support services. Schools determine whether the programme is delivered to mixed or single-sex groups, and the age group to be targeted.

The BodySafe programme sets four medium-term outcome goals: young people adopt self-management strategies; more respectful sexual behaviour; increased help-seeking; and better school systems for responding to disclosure. The programme aims to achieve these outcomes primarily through increased awareness and knowledge, although sexual safety skills and communication skills are also targeted. The BodySafe programme is implemented in all school deciles and aims to be accessible and appropriate to Māori and the wide range of ethnicities in secondary schools in the Auckland region (Dickinson, Carroll, Kaiwai, & Gregory, 2010).

The programme was evaluated by Social and Health Outcomes Research and Evaluation (SHORE) in 2010 (Dickinson et al, 2010). The findings were that the programme’s design, content and implementation were of high quality and suitable for a wide range of students. Immediately after the intervention, students reported increased knowledge about the legal definition of sexual violence, and how to recognise and deal with risky situations. Almost all students said the programme had changed the way they thought or would act in situations where they might be at risk. Longer-term outcomes and effects on behaviour were not tested. The evaluation found that, in most schools, BodySafe is not explicitly aligned with the school curriculum, or delivered as part of a whole-school approach. The evaluation of programme outcomes was based primarily on retrospective views of students and teachers.

5.4  Sexuality education

We did not find any formally evaluated school-based sexuality programmes, other than the Attitude presentations on sexuality (Sex with Attitude, and Sex with Attitude II) which are discussed along with the other Attitude presentations above.

In 2006–07 the Education Review Office conducted an evaluation of the quality of sexuality education for Years 7–13 in 100 New Zealand schools. It found:

…the majority of sexuality education programmes were not meeting students’ learning need effectively. The findings identify two areas of particular weakness across schools. These are assessing learning in sexuality education and meeting the needs of diverse groups of students.

(Education Review Office, 2007a, p. 2)

The evaluation found that effectiveness is unrelated to use of external providers – both the most effective and the least effective schools used external providers to varying degrees. The Education Review Office found four schools that taught sexuality education particularly well, and distilled some common characteristics. Each school had:

- acknowledged the strong student need for being taught potentially awkward sexuality topics by approachable, trustworthy and empathetic teachers
- organised their sexuality education programme with a strong focus on positive relationships and the emotional and social aspects of sexuality
- supported their teachers in developing an effective sexuality education programme that was interactive and student-centred
- undertaken, or was in the process of completing, a regular school-wide review of the sexuality education programme
ensured teachers had the opportunity for professional development, specifically in sexuality education, to establish high quality pedagogical knowledge

fostered a school-wide ethos of respect and a classroom environment of safety and inclusiveness

provided supporting pastoral care networks and medical services

communicated effectively in a variety of ways with the school community and parents

monitored the programmes delivered by the outside organisations

provided plentiful and varied resources which were updated regularly

collected and analysed school-wide student achievement information in sexuality education to plan for students’ needs

encouraged teachers to provide for the needs of diverse groups of students (Education Review Office, 2007b p. 76).

On the basis of their evaluation, the Education Review Office made the following recommendations to schools:

- develop and implement school-wide guidelines for the planning, development and delivery of sexuality education
- collect, analyse and use assessment information to track students’ progress and achievement in sexuality education, and adapt programmes to meet students’ needs
- consult with the community every two years on how the school intends to implement the health curriculum, of which sexuality education is a part
- provide students with a safe and inclusive learning environment that supports the effective delivery of sexuality education
- ensure that their students have information about support services
- develop their capability to deliver sexuality education programmes
- when using outside providers to deliver aspects of sexuality education ensure that:
  - the outside provider delivers an identified part of the planned programme
  - the outside provider’s contribution is integrated into the overall approach
  - they review and monitor the quality and effectiveness of the programme delivered by the outside providers
  - regularly review the appropriateness of their sexuality education resources, to ensure that they met the current learning needs of all their students (Education Review Office, 2007a, p. 40).

5.5 Classroom-based social and emotional learning

Three formally evaluated SEL programmes were found. Kiwi Can and Life Education are both Years 1–8 programmes, whereas Attitude is delivered in intermediate and high schools (Years 7–13). All three are based on the Health and Physical Education Curriculum and provided in schools by an external agency.

5.5.1 Kiwi Can

Kiwi Can, established in 1993, is a Years 1–8 programme designed to improve children’s life skills and develop in them an ‘I can’ attitude. It is delivered by Kiwi Can leaders – pairs of young people – one male and one female – who are employed and trained by the local Kiwi Can Trust. Each class in a participating school attends a Kiwi Can lesson each week, accompanied by the classroom teacher.
There is an emphasis on fun and on interactive activities. The themes covered each term are agreed between the school and the Kiwi Can Trust, and are targeted to the needs of each school. The programme covers physical fitness, mental awareness, values, self-confidence and self-esteem, respect for self, peers and the community and a sense of pride in being a New Zealander. As well as providing lessons, Kiwi Can leaders interact with students at lunchtime and interval and are intended to be approachable role models for the students. Kiwi Can is intended to be a ‘permanent’ feature of the school, rather than a temporary solution to particular problems. Evaluations have associated Kiwi Can with better cooperation among students, less bullying, higher self-esteem, better manners and more care and concern for others (Murrow et al, 2004b).

A 2004 evaluation found that almost all of the 17 schools surveyed monitored the effectiveness of the programme through feedback from teachers, observing students in the playground and feedback from students. Fifteen out of 17 rated the programme as successful or very successful. Strengths of the programme identified by teachers included its good fit with the curriculum. One teacher commented that it linked with “all the essential skills, social studies, PE, health, language, English ... even maths, cooperative work, problem solving” (Murrow et al, 2004b, p. 26). The most successful outcome areas identified were improving children’s attitudes, including cooperation, manners and tolerance. Better playground behaviour was also noted. However, key informants at the schools commented that it was difficult to quantify any changes or to know for certain whether any changes that had occurred were a direct result of the programme (Murrow et al, 2004b).

5.5.2 Life Education

The Life Education Trust, established in the late 1980s, delivers Life Education programmes in primary and intermediate schools. The 19 modules are based on a philosophy of respect for oneself and others, the uniqueness of each individual and the magnificence of the human body. Content areas link with the Health and Physical Education Curriculum. They cover self-esteem, social relationships, body systems, food and nutrition and use of substances such as alcohol and tobacco (Boyd, Fisher, & Brooking, 2008). The programmes are delivered by a Life Education educator who visits the schools once or twice a year to deliver the modules to class groups in a mobile classroom. Educators use interactive teaching strategies, and are encouraged to work with school staff to ensure that Life Education is integrated into classroom practice (Boyd et al, 2008).

A 2008 staff survey of 158 primary schools found 91 percent considered Life Education either effective or very effective in supporting their delivery of the Health and Physical Education Curriculum. Students and teachers were nearly unanimous in approval of the programme, and reported positive outcomes in three domains: health content knowledge and understandings about making informed choices; sense of self-worth and self-esteem; and knowledge and use of skills and strategies to improve their health and wellbeing. Strengths of the programme identified in the 2008 evaluation included:

› a holistic understanding of health incorporating emotional, social and spiritual wellbeing
› student-centred teaching practices that appear to engage students and enhance self-esteem
› use of interactive strategies to teach social influence resistance skills (for example, role plays to practise resisting peer pressure)
› adaptation of modules to address school needs and/or support classroom or school-wide practices (Boyd et al, 2008).

The evaluation noted that Life Education was most effective when integrated with curriculum plans and school-wide policies and practices. When these connections were present, school and Life Education approaches reinforced each other (Boyd et al, 2008). Like those of the evaluation of Kiwi Can above, these findings are based on the impressions of students and teachers following the programme.
5.5.3 Attitude

Attitude is the youth education arm of Parents Inc. It provides presentations and resources for intermediate and secondary schools on aspects of the health curriculum. According to the Attitude website:

Attitude equips teenagers with the information and skills they will need to negotiate their adolescent years and build meaningful lives. The materials, based on credible research and linked to the health curriculum, give young people strategies for solving problems, handling stress and building strong, positive relationships.

The seven presentations (outlined below) are backed up by information booklets for students to take home, and an interactive website:

- Attitude – strategies for growing mental and emotional resilience, including how to handle stress, anxiety, anger and problem solving.
- X Factor – social skills, emotional intelligence and how to have great friendships.
- Sex with Attitude – decision-making in romantic relationships (including when and whether to have sex, and if you choose to have sex protecting yourself with a condom every time).
- Sex with Attitude II – how to keep relationships healthy (including ‘how to argue safely’) and what to do when romances end.
- Get a life – getting on with parents/family and becoming independent.
- The pits – how to get through tough times, including problem-solving and help seeking.
- Hardwired – making positive decisions about drug and alcohol use, including dealing with peer pressure and overcoming addictions.

In 2012, over 2,000 presentations were given, generally to multi-class or year groups of over 100 students. In total, over 250,000 intermediate and high school students were spoken to in 2012 (The Parenting Place, 2013). The presentations are one-off, but most students attend more than one presentation during their high school years, depending on which presentations their school offers.

Students attending presentations are encouraged to complete an evaluation survey on the Attitude website afterwards. In 2012 Point Research collated the responses of almost 30,000 students between 2007 and 2012. The response rate is not reported, but assuming 600,000 students attended Attitude presentations over the six-year period (a conservative estimate given that 250,000 attended in 2012 alone) that gives a response rate of 5 percent. Two-thirds of the respondents were female, and most were in Year 9. Ethnicity data are not reported. Almost all respondents found the material in the presentation useful (96.4 percent) and relevant to their lives (89.7 percent). Over two-thirds of them could describe a situation where something in the presentation had helped them, many of the examples relating to making friends, dealing with bullying and improving relationships with partners, friends and family. Over three-quarters felt that the presentation would affect their decisions in the future.

In late 2012, a follow-up survey was sent to 11,564 students (a subset of the 30,000 students above) to evaluate the longer-term impact on those who had attended presentations in the previous five years. A total of 1,439 (12 percent) responded; 77.2 percent were female. The ethnic profile of respondents was 74 percent NZ European, 11 percent Māori, 7 percent Pacific and 11 percent Asian. Over 90 percent of respondents found the topics useful and relevant and rated the presentations positively. The evaluation concluded, “Although it is difficult to establish conclusively whether the presentations have had a longer-term impact on the respondents’ attitudes and behaviors, when questioned, the majority of respondents believed that they have” (Point Research, 2013, p. 23). These findings are very positive, but it should be noted that they are based on a self-selected sample, which is not representative.
5.6 Social and emotional learning focused on the school environment

5.6.1 Cool Schools

Cool Schools Peer Mediation is a national programme developed in the late 1980s through the Peace Foundation and delivered in primary and secondary schools. The programme is related to the ‘relationship’ strand of the Health and Physical Education Curriculum, and aims to change the way conflict is handled in schools, thus creating a better learning environment. All of the teachers in a school are trained in the programme, and teachers in turn teach the mediation skills to their classes. Children are taught the skills to mediate and solve disputes without resorting to physical or verbal violence. The Cool Schools Coordinator (a nominated teacher) trains and oversees Peer Mediators – older students whose role is to patrol the playground at intervals and lunchtime to help mediate any disputes that arise (Murrow et al, 2004a).

A 2004 evaluation found that most of the schools surveyed monitored the effectiveness of the programme through qualitative feedback from teachers and/or students. Ten out of 17 rated the programme as ‘successful’ (7) or ‘very successful’ (3). A further five schools rated it as ‘partly successful’. The areas considered most successful were reducing or mediation of playground conflicts; students gaining communication skills, life skills, problem-solving skills or self-control; and Peer Mediators gaining skills or self-esteem from the role. Also observed were changes in teachers’ behaviour and possible flow-on effects to students’ academic work. The evaluation concluded that Cool Schools appeared to be most effective when thoroughly integrated into the school’s behaviour management plans. Staff turnover or lack of buy-in, and therefore variation in teachers’ commitment to the programme, was seen as a significant limitation in some schools. Key informants at the schools noted that it was difficult to quantify any changes or to know for certain whether they had occurred as a direct result of the programme (Murrow et al, 2004a).

5.6.2 Youth mentoring programmes

A recent review by Farruggia et al (2011) examined the effectiveness of 22 mentoring programmes in New Zealand, based on outcomes of 2,363 mentees aged 5–20 years. Over half the programmes were school-based and in many cases mentoring was a component of a broader life skills or educational programme. Almost all programmes had educational goals, about half had psychological, interpersonal, behavioural and/or vocational goals and 20 percent had cultural goals. Mentoring is typically offered to selected ‘high-need’ or ‘high-risk’ students, rather than universally.

Overall, most of the programmes (88 percent) showed some degree of effectiveness. When analysed by goals, programmes tended to be more effective in psychological and interpersonal areas: 86 percent and 73 percent respectively were effective or very effective at achieving such goals. Well-established programmes, those with a history of evaluation, and those that were based on international best practice tended to be more effective than other programmes. The setting of the programme (school or elsewhere) had no effect.

Broader programmes with a mentoring component were more effective than stand-alone mentoring programmes. However, programmes with fewer goals tended to be more effective than those with multiple goals. There was no difference in effectiveness by age, gender or risk status, but programmes with youth of low or mixed SES were more effective than programmes for youth of mid-range SES. The review found that one-off programmes for the purpose of research or for single-school use were largely ineffective. The authors recommend that schools seeking to start a mentoring programme "collaborate with existing programmes that have been shown to be effective" (Farruggia et al, 2011, p. 58). The authors note that the quality of the studies was relatively low, so the findings should be treated with caution.

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4 Effect sizes of below .20 were seen as unsuccessful outcomes; those with effect sizes between .20 and .35 were seen as indicating moderately effective outcomes; and effect sizes above .35 indicated successful outcomes.
5.6.3 Student Wellbeing initiative

The Student Wellbeing initiative, which began in 2001, aimed to build students’ resilience through professional development for teachers and a whole-school approach. The programme used a strengths-based approach, building on what schools were already doing and establishing additional needs. Advisors from School Support Services worked closely with school management and staff to help develop policies, procedures and sustainable programmes for supporting and enhancing mental wellbeing. The professional development component was a two-year programme comprising workshops, in-school support, team teaching, reflection, modelling and critiquing of classroom lessons. Workshop topics included drug education, building and enhancing resiliency, consultation, suicide prevention, pedagogy, managing traumatic incidents and developing sustainable strategies to enhance mental health (New Zealand Education Gazette, 2006). It is understood the initiative has now come to an end.

Both formal evaluation and anecdotal evidence suggest that the Student Wellbeing initiative brought about important benefits. For example, it “challenged many teachers’ deficit thinking” and led to shifts in teachers’ practice in most of the case study schools evaluated (Brooking, 2007, p. viii). There was also evidence of whole-school change in case study schools; for example, secondary school students talked about improvements in class climate and school culture, and teachers said they were “now speaking the same language” (Brooking, 2007, p. viii).

A New Zealand Education Gazette article (2006) described how the Student Wellbeing initiative had affected a Waikato secondary school. In 2005 the school had the highest rate of suspensions in the Waikato, with 28 drug-related suspensions, 26 of them of Māori students. In 2006, after a year on the Student Wellbeing contract, there were only six drug-related suspensions and only one of those students was Māori. The deputy principal reported a similar turnaround in behaviour. The school had made a number of changes to ensure that students were engaged and felt valued, connected and secure at school. A diversity workshop was reported to have had a particular impact on teachers, enabling them to “appreciate the different kinds of students they have in the classroom rather than having a one size fits all mentality” (New Zealand Education Gazette, 2006).

The success of the professional development programme was attributed to the expertise and knowledge of the provider team, and use of a strengths-based approach to facilitate shifts in teachers’ thinking. Strong learning communities with regular structured discussion times were found to be necessary to support professional learning and shifts in practice. The evaluation found that contextual factors in the school influenced the success of the professional development, with staffing and leadership changes in particular having an adverse effect. Key factors in sustainability were strong leadership, support from senior management, funding of release time to allow lead teachers to drive the project, and a whole-school approach (Brooking, 2007).

5.6.4 Restorative practices

Restorative practice “places the relationship at the heart of the educational experience”; it is about a school-wide effort to improve connections and relationships. Restorative practice uses a range of tools to restore relationships when harm or misconduct occur (Corrigan, 2012, p. 3). Traditional Māori ideas and practices inform restorative practices. The approach is based on:

- an inclusive culture, belonging, connectedness
- agreed school-wide expectations that are taught, modelled and reinforced
- cultural responsiveness and appropriate relationships
- early intervention problem-solving (eg restorative conversations, classroom conference circles, brief restorative interventions)
- intensive interventions (eg formal restorative conferences/hui whakatika, individualised follow-up and support).

Restorative practice has been developed as an alternative to punitive behaviour management in schools. Punitive practices, based on control and punishment, are associated with poor academic and social outcomes for Māori and ‘at-risk’ students (Corrigan, 2012).
A recent Ministry of Education report states that New Zealand and international research consistently associates the introduction of restorative practices with fewer suspensions, lower incidence of misbehaviour and disruption and an increased sense of belonging and connectedness amongst students (Corrigan, 2012). These findings are based on quantitative studies that use robust pre-post design. For example, an evaluation of restorative practices in 10 New Zealand schools, including seven secondary schools, found that suspensions were reduced by 61 percent in the 10 schools after restorative practices were introduced; suspensions of Māori students reduced by 81 percent (Gordon, 2011, cited in Corrigan, 2012). Self-assessment data from New Zealand schools show that restorative practices not only reduce suspensions and misconduct but result in “calmer schools and improved relationships among staff and students” (Corrigan, 2012, p. 8).

Recent data analysis has demonstrated that restorative practice (RP) is associated with improvement in academic achievement. Measured by the rate of school leavers with NCEA Level 2+, the average annual academic improvement from their pre-RP baseline was 10.8 percent in an RP cluster of 10 schools, compared with 3.7 percent in all New Zealand schools (Corrigan, 2012). These gains in students’ achievement may be due to improvements in student-teacher relationships, more orderly classrooms and/or better relationships among peers. All three factors are associated with academic achievement in the educational literature (Corrigan, 2012).

New Zealand research also suggests that restorative practices in the classroom can be a tool for teaching and learning of key competencies specified in the curriculum, such as ‘relating to others’ and ‘contributing and participating’ (Gray, 2011, cited in Corrigan, 2012).

Te Kotahitanga

Te Kotahitanga is a project investigating how to improve the educational achievement of Māori students in mainstream secondary school classrooms. Using kaupapa Māori research and appropriate cultural metaphors, Bishop, Berryman, Cavanagh, and Teddy (2007) developed a ‘culturally responsive pedagogy of relations’ and an ‘effective teacher profile’. The teacher profile was then implemented in the classrooms of participating teachers in 2004 and 2005 through the Te Kotahitanga professional development programme. It focused on changing teachers’ practices by developing relationships of respect and caring for students as Māori, making classroom interactions more interactive and dialogical, and an explicit rejection of deficit theories for Māori underachievement. The programme consisted of an induction hui followed by a term-by-term cycle of formal observations, follow-up feedback, group co-construction meetings and targeted shadow-coaching (Bishop et al, 2007).

Evaluation was based on student interviews, teacher interviews, classroom observation, a teacher participation survey and student achievement data. Quantitative findings indicate that maths and literacy achievement in Māori students of teachers in the Te Kotahitanga programme was significantly higher than in Māori students nationally. Importantly, the greatest literacy gains were made by students with the lowest literacy levels at baseline (Bishop et al, 2007). Achievement data also show higher percentages of Māori and Pacific students gaining NCEA Level 1 from Te Kotahitanga schools (Gluckman, 2011). These quantitative findings are based on a robust research design and are supported by qualitative findings.
5.7 Descriptive studies

It is important to note that, although robust intervention studies are lacking, there is considerable descriptive research exploring the behaviours, norms and attitudes of New Zealand adolescents about sexuality, relationships, unwanted sexual contact and relationship violence. For example, Sue Jackson’s work on dating violence (Jackson, 1998, 2002; Jackson et al, 2000) gives a rich understanding of young people’s experiences, the reasons they do or do not disclose relationship violence and the education they see as important for preventing relationship violence: specifically, learning how to relate to one another and deal with emotions, and learning communication skills, assertiveness and problem-solving skills (Jackson, 2002).

Another New Zealand study entitled Happily Ever After uses qualitative methods to explore discourses of emotion, love and health in the intimate relationships of young New Zealanders (McKenzie, 2004). Towns and Scott (2008) use similar methods to learn about young women’s experiences of control, jealousy or possessiveness in relationships with boyfriends. Their study identifies social and cultural influences in New Zealand youth culture that contribute to ownership practices in relationships (for example, the open misogyny in the language and images of music videos, and the ‘mates culture’ in which young men must be seen to be dominant over their girlfriends in order to be accepted by their peers).

More recently, the Families Commission has undertaken qualitative research to find out what support young people need during their first romantic relationships (Families Commission, 2010). Also in 2010, Eruera and Dobbs published their important study on violence prevention initiatives with young Māori: Taitamariki Māori Kōrero About Intimate Partner Relationships. This study is discussed in the following section on ‘What works for Māori and Pacific students’.
6. WHAT WORKS FOR MĀORI AND PACIFIC STUDENTS
The final research question was: What is the current thinking and evidence about what works for Māori and Pacific students (Years 7–13) in relationship education?

6.1 Summary of key findings

Māori and Pacific cultures are collectivist; that is, relationships are at the core of Māori and Pacific world-views. Although there is little evidence about what works for Māori and Pacific students in ‘relationship education’ as such, there is growing evidence that more attention to nurturing positive relationships – between teachers and students, and between schools and families/communities – is the key to Māori and Pacific success at school.

Certain themes recur in the literature on what works to improve Māori outcomes:

› Access to traditional knowledge, including values and practices, is important for rangatahi Māori to develop positive and affirming notions of who they are in relation to their whānau, hapū, iwi and other Māori collectives.
› Culturally responsive programmes should be grounded in Māori relational concepts and practices such as hauora, mana, whangaungatanga and tuakana-teina.
› Māori need to be involved in programme development and evaluation to ensure programmes reflect Māori aspirations, values and knowledge.
› Educators who can relate well to rangatahi Māori are essential.
› Māori potential is undermined by systems and individuals who reinforce a ‘deficit’ view, use ‘power over’ and have low expectations for Māori achievement.

Research and theory on what works to improve outcomes for Pacific students is less developed, but there appears to be growing consensus on the following themes:

› There is no generic ‘Pacific community’; interventions must acknowledge and respond to diversity within and between Pacific peoples.
› Strong relationships between school, home and community (often the church community) are essential, and collective ownership of challenges and solutions is important.
› Interventions should be grounded in Pacific world-views and ways, bearing in mind that each ethnic grouping has distinct philosophies, traditions and practices.
› Positive student-teacher and peer relationships at school foster positive social and academic outcomes for Pacific students.
› For young Pacific people, developing a secure identity involves more than just ethnic affiliation.

The following discussion draws out these themes in more detail, starting with the latest thinking and evidence about school-wide approaches, then looking at classroom-based social and emotional learning programmes, sexuality education programmes and relationship violence prevention programmes. Finally, this chapter touches on other literature that is relevant to the research question ‘What works for Māori and Pacific students?’
6.2 School-wide approaches

There is evidence that school-wide efforts to build a positive, caring and inclusive school culture may be particularly beneficial for Māori and Pacific students. For example, restorative practices and behaviour management techniques that draw on Māori concepts and cultural practices such as whanaungatanga (building relationships), manaakitanga (ethic of caring) and kotahitanga (ethic of bonding) (McFarlane, 2009) have been shown to improve both behavioural and academic outcomes for Māori and Pacific students (Corrigan, 2012; Gluckman, 2011).

As outlined in the previous section, the Te Kotahitanga professional development programme for teachers has also been successful in engaging and raising the achievement of Māori and Pacific students (Bishop, 2007b; Gluckman, 2011). AIMHI is another New Zealand project aimed at raising Māori and Pacific achievement. Its findings underscore the centrality of relationships to Māori and Pacific achievement. AIMHI researchers found that in low-decile multicultural secondary schools, a good relationship with the teacher was a prerequisite for learning. A positive learning relationship was achieved by teachers enjoying power ‘with’ rather than power ‘over’ their students (Hill & Hawk, cited in Corrigan, 2012).

One cannot fail to notice the parallels between the ‘power and control’ dynamic of domestic violence and the traditional punitive methods of classroom behaviour management that have proved so detrimental to Māori and Pacific students. The process of colonisation provides another example of ‘power over’ and its consequences. Clearly, the modelling of non-violent, respectful and culturally responsive relationships in the school setting is an important aspect of ‘relationship education’ and a key to young Māori and Pacific people learning respect for themselves and others.

The school-wide programmes discussed have been shown to enhance protective factors in young people (such as school achievement, school engagement, a sense of belonging and positive relationships with peers, family and other adults) that reduce the risk of relationship violence and other ‘problem’ behaviours in adolescence (Corrigan, 2012). Students who are ‘at risk’ (Māori and Pacific students are over-represented in this group) are likely to benefit most, provided the framework for school-wide action is culturally inclusive. A Canadian report on healthy relationship programmes notes that many aboriginal values, concepts and teachings are so universal that they are applicable to all students (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012).

A recent thesis on supporting achievement in the education of Pacific boys found that the following practices were associated with success:

› creating a positive learning environment
› establishing explicit learning intentions
› thorough planning and feedback
› setting high expectations
› regular contact with home
› teaching with a positive attitude (Evans, 2011).

There is wide agreement in the literature that:

Effective and sustained changes for Pacific children and young people will also only be realised if their families, extended families, caregivers and respective communities are an integral part of the mix. Collective ownership will ensure optimum care and responsibility of the wellbeing of this important group. (Siataga, 2011 p. 155)

There is anecdotal evidence that recent efforts by schools to build stronger relationships with Pacific parents, families and communities are paying dividends. For example, church-based homework clubs in South Auckland are providing positive learning environments for Pacific young people, and forging links between school, parents and church communities.
6.3 Sexuality education

The 2008 New Zealand review of best practice in sexuality education concluded, “research into effective sexuality education for Māori and Pasifika students is non-existent and this is of great concern” (Fenton & Coates, 2008). This situation does not appear to have improved much in the intervening years.

6.3.1 Sexuality education for Māori

A recent report published by Family Planning notes that research on what works is dominated by overseas studies, particular from the US. In the report, Gush (2011) argues that basing New Zealand sexual and reproductive health approaches on overseas findings "continues to fail Māori aspirations as we have unique gender constructs, very different from other cultures. The few New Zealand studies that are utilised are limited by mainstream samples that are predominantly Pākehā, urban and heterosexual” (p. 4).

New Zealand empirical research confirms the inadequacy of much school-based sexuality education for young people in general (Abel & Fitzgerald, 2005; Allen, 2005; Education Review Office, 2007a; Fenton, 2012; Tasker, 2001) and Māori in particular (Tunks, 1996). For example, a survey of 80 young men of Te Rarawa descent in the early 1990s found:

...the sex education programme in particular did not meet their needs. They wanted more information on ‘the emotional stuff’ as well as the facts about the biological aspects of sex… In some cases, it appeared their knowledge about sexuality had come from pornographic magazines and videos with no real understanding of relationships, feelings, or what is appropriate and acceptable. (Te Puni Kōkiri, 1994, cited in Tunks, 1996, p. 31).

In her doctoral thesis, Megan Tunks (1996) points out that sexuality education within the framework and delivery systems of “a mono-cultural education system in which rangatahi are continually shown to be failing does not present an effective form of health message for rangatahi” (p. 72). Peer education is associated internationally with mixed findings but research by Tunks suggests that rangatahi Māori may find it an appropriate model because they can identify with the attitudes, behaviour and values of other young Māori (p. 72).

Tunks (1996) and Gush (2011) both emphasise the importance of the whānau context, and the inclusion of Māori in the planning process. “The importance of involving Māori parents, whānau and kaumātua in the development of culturally sensitive and safe sexuality training for Māori adolescents cannot be overstated. Where practical, this may mean some or all of that education being delivered by Māori. Where this is not possible it is important to ensure that the educators are themselves appropriately educated to be sensitive to Māori values” (Lungley, 1993, cited in Tunks, 1996, p. 30). The only recent example we found of a Māori-specific sexuality education programme is described below. Note that it is not delivered in a school setting, so is strictly outside the scope of the current review.

**Tiakina Tōu Whakapapa** is a kaupapa Māori approach to sexuality education with young Māori males (aged 14–18) in the Whanganui region. It is grounded in Māori values and beliefs, and the principles of the Youth Development Strategy, and has a strong emphasis on cultural identity as the key to understanding sexuality. The developers of the programme say, “The activities we believe have relevance for our young men are based on providing a healthy life for their families” (Gush, 2011, p. 21). The programme included of a series of wānanga (traditional learning forums) focused on traditional methods of gathering and preparing food. The young men learned life skills, roles and responsibilities of traditional Māori lifestyles. A key message underlying a positive sexuality approach for Māori is:

*You are the embodiment of a dream your tūpuna had hundreds of years ago. Tiakina Tōu Whakapapa is the expression that describes the act of looking after your genealogy.*

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5 Dissatisfaction with sex education and reliance on pornography for learning about sex is by no means unique to rangatahi Māori – UK studies show similar findings (Fenton & Coates, 2008).
This means acting in a way that shows you have mana (prestige, spiritual power) and your rangatiratanga (self determination) is treated with the respect you deserve. For this to happen, we must look after ourselves in the way we would look after something that is very precious. (Greg Noda, cited in Gush, 2011, p. 24)

Participants were a mixture of young men fully engaged in school and displaying leadership qualities, and ‘at-risk’ young men. The project report describes how whanaungatanga (relationships) within the group were nurtured in culturally appropriate settings and activities, allowing open discussion about gender roles and sexual health. Specific outcomes were not reported, but the report concludes that “this project successfully engaged a group of young men in a journey to explore their identity and community, and, as a part of this process, they learnt about sexual and reproductive health. This integrated approach was very important.” Gush (2011). Gush notes that, because of its cultural specificity to the Whanganui region, the programme cannot be transferred to another context, but the learning about using experiential methods and indigenous knowledge is considered to be transferable.

6.3.2 Sexuality education for Pacific youth

Sexuality is a taboo topic in many Pacific cultures, because of religious beliefs and cultural values of honour and respect. In an appendix to the Fenton and Coates (2008) report, Leali‘i‘e’e Tuflasi Taleni eloquently explains why sexuality is rarely, if ever, discussed in Samoan homes, and why parents may say no to sexuality education for their children. Taleni concludes “Sexuality Education programmes must be delivered in a very gentle and sensitive manner for Pasifika students” (Fenton & Coates, 2008, p. 97). She notes that “common cultural values for Pacific peoples are respect, service, collective responsibility, reciprocity, humility, compassion, spirituality and love. All these cultural values are connected to the education of Pasifika students especially in a topic such as sexuality education” (p. 97).

We did not find any empirical findings on effective sexuality education for Pacific students, or examples of programmes that specifically target Pacific young people.

6.4 Classroom-based social and emotional learning

We did not find any classroom-based SEL programmes specifically targeting Māori and Pacific students. However, two recent studies have identified kapa haka as a culturally responsive learning environment for building social skills, confidence and positive self-identity in young Māori. Rubie (1999) found that students (aged 5–12) involved in a Māori cultural group experienced significant improvement in self-esteem and locus of control compared to two control groups. In addition, qualitative evidence from teachers suggests “strong improvement in academic performance” as a result of participation in the Māori culture group (Rubie, 1999, p. 1). Another study using qualitative methods reached a similarly positive conclusion:

The study revealed quite emphatically that not only does kapa haka provide Māori students with an appropriate ‘culturally responsive’ learning experience, but that they also feel more confident and optimistic about school and their education... In addition, Māori students through the kapa haka experience learn to ‘protect’, ‘problem-solve’, ‘provide’ and ‘heal’ their inner self worth, essence and wellbeing as Māori. (Whitinui, 2008, p. 1)
Some of the New Zealand programmes described in the previous chapter included significant numbers of Māori and Pacific students. For example, the four schools in the Cool Schools evaluation were all decile one, with up to 98 percent Māori students (Murrow et al, 2004a). The schools in the Kiwi Can evaluation also reported high proportions of Māori students (Murrow et al, 2004b). None of the evaluations reported any differences in results by ethnicity, so we do not know for certain whether these generic programmes are equally, less or more effective for Māori and Pacific students.

As previously discussed, international and New Zealand literature suggests that cultural appropriateness is important for the effectiveness of programmes. Guerra and Bradshaw (2008) note that “core skills and competencies may have distinctive meanings within specific ethnic and cultural groups” (p. 5). However, they consider that cultural difference can be accommodated within the ‘core competencies’ framework. In decision-making, for example, certain elements and skills are universal (such as attention to relevant information, generation and testing of possible alternative solutions), but not all:

*Culturally relevant decision making ultimately requires integration with relevant group values and practices. For example in collectivist societies such as Japan, interpersonal harmony and the avoidance of conflict are primary values against which the adaptive value of any decision will be judged. Similarly, within Latino culture, the value of collectivismo emphasises the importance of subordinating personal desires to the interests of the group.* (p. 5)

Pacific Cultural Competency Frameworks have been developed to guide mainstream institutions in New Zealand and “all emphasise holistic paradigms as underpinning best practice” (Siataga, 2011, p. 155). Siataga endorses the idea that pro-social values and character education can build resiliency in Pacific youth and help Pacific peoples achieve their aspirations: “A ‘good life’ is, after all, made up of quality relationships which are not possible without social competence, self control and emotional intelligence” (p. 158).

### 6.5 Relationship violence prevention programmes

We did not find any school-based relationship violence prevention programmes specifically aimed at Māori and Pacific students. However, Eruera and Dobbs (2010) have recently conducted qualitative research exploring relationship violence issues with young Māori. Their report is essential reading for those wishing to gain a Māori perspective on possible prevention efforts, and it is discussed at the end of this chapter.

International findings about best practice in relationship violence prevention emphasise the importance of culturally appropriate approaches. This goes beyond ‘packaging’ (for example, using photos or titles that refer to the target ethnic group) and requires ‘deep’ cultural sensitivity that respects the cultural, social, historical and psychological forces that influence a group’s behaviour and world-view, and weaves these into every stage of development and delivery (Canadian Women’s Foundation, 2012). There may be a tension between ‘prevention science’ which is based on world-views of the Western dominant culture, and Māori or Pacific perspectives on what works, based on traditional knowledge, values and aspirations (Fergusson et al, 2011). Historically, “Māori have been subject to Western constructions of knowledge that have had detrimental effects on them” (Eruera & Dobbs, 2010). Some consider that the best way of ensuring cultural appropriateness is through a ‘by Māori, for Māori’ (or ‘by Pacific, for Pacific’) approach to violence prevention (Cram, Mane, & Turoa, 2001).

Notwithstanding, at least one generic school-based violence prevention programme appears to have had good outcomes for Māori and Pacific students, as well as other students: BodySafe. Findings are discussed below. The Love Bites programme was piloted in a school with few Māori and Pacific students, so its cultural appropriateness is unknown.
Pacific students were well represented in BodySafe evaluation, with 20 percent of the student sample identifying as Pacific, and 7 percent identifying as Māori. The findings suggested that Pacific students may have particularly benefited from the programme. For example, more Pacific students (61.99 percent) than European (43.42 percent), Māori (55.41 percent), Asian (35.09 percent) and Indian/Pakistani/Sri Lankan (52.91 percent) students reported that “participating in the BodySafe programme had changed the way they would think or act in risky situations” (Dickinson et al, 2010, p. 8). Māori and Pacific students were more likely than students of other ethnicities to describe the programme as ‘cool’, ‘fun’ or ‘helpful’. The evaluation concluded:

…the generic programme was designed to meet the needs of a wide variety of cultures and ethnicities. BodySafe educators were very aware of the challenges of implementing the programme within the diverse cultural context of Auckland schools with multiple ethnicities. Where appropriate they have adapted material to suit the needs of specific groups. (Dickinson et al, 2010, p. 44)

6.6 Descriptive studies

It is important to note that, although we found no robust intervention studies about effective relationship education for Māori and Pacific learners, there is considerable theory, descriptive research and anecdotal evidence about what does and does not work for Māori and Pacific peoples. There is also a considerable literature explaining Māori world-views and concepts that are relevant to the teaching of relationship education. For example, Angus McFarlane’s work (eg 2009), has been very influential in applying Māori concepts to create culturally safe learning environments in New Zealand schools.

Another example highly relevant to this review is a recent report by Eruera and Dobbs (2010), which provides an in-depth examination of intimate partner violence from a Māori perspective, incorporating qualitative findings from focus groups with young Māori aged 13–17. The report describes the Mauri Ora framework, a kaupapa Māori framework to guide the analysis and practice of whānau violence prevention. It incorporates “an analysis of the impact of colonisation and identifies the environmental and contextual influencing Māori contemporary realities” (2010, p. 11). The report defines key Māori concepts (whakapapa, tikanga, wairua, tapu, mauri and mana) and provides a detailed literature review on intimate partner violence, the impact of colonisation on Māori gender roles and norms and the contemporary challenges faced by taumaturangi Māori. The report presents qualitative findings from a study with taumaturangi Māori about their definitions of relationships and friendships; whether young men and young women see relationships the same or differently; how they learnt what constituted an okay relationship; what makes a really good relationship; what kind of things can start an argument; how they define violence; their ideas about what causes violence in relationships; what they thought the consequences of violence would be; and what helped and hindered help-seeking. The findings afford keen insights into the attitudes, knowledge and values of young Māori men and women.

Also on the topic of intimate partner violence, Towns and Scott (2008) discuss the genealogy or history of attitudes towards women that might contribute to or protect women from violence by their male partners. They argue that, compared with Western society at that time, pre-European Māori society valued women, granting leadership roles according to leadership qualities rather than gender:

As Māori women were held in high regard and not considered to be the property of their husbands there are reports that violence towards wives was not sanctioned or accepted as it was in European society… Māori women suffered substantial changes under colonisation where traditional legislation and gender practices treated violence towards women as less of an issue. (pp. 42–43)
The historical attitudes and practices of Māori are relevant today, because they may feed into a strengths-based preventive approach, allowing Māori to draw on their own cultural heritage to develop contemporary alternatives to violence.

Another study, (Waetford, 2008) also completed in 2008, uses qualitative methods to examine the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of young Māori women regarding sexual health. The report concludes that “for sexual health interventions to be successful it is essential that Māori communities, including young people and their whānau, are an integral part of creating positive solutions” (2008, p. 1). The study specified two key resilience factors associated with positive sexual health behaviour and accessing of sexual health services: a strong connection with a caring adult or friend, and a positive Māori cultural identity.
7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS
A recurring theme in the literature is the paucity of evidence: “far too few interventions have been evaluated, and existing evaluations are often limited in methodological and conceptual terms” (Flood et al., 2009, p. 21). Therefore, caution is required when interpreting findings, particularly as much of the evidence comes from North America, from an education system and socio-cultural context quite different from our own. Bearing in mind this need for caution, some tentative conclusions can be drawn.

Although carefully targeted interventions can be effective with any age group, there appear to be two critical periods for relationship violence prevention. The first is infancy and early childhood, when foundational skills and core competencies are developing. The second is early to mid-adolescence, when young people are becoming interested in, and entering, romantic and sexual relationships.

The underlying concepts and learning goals of the New Zealand Curriculum are consistent with international literature on what works for violence prevention at these two critical learning periods, and throughout schooling. The curriculum provides a sequenced, skill-focused, holistic, strengths-based framework for relationship education.

New relationship education initiatives should be clearly linked to and consistent with the New Zealand Curriculum, particularly the Health and Physical Education Curriculum and its underlying concepts of: i) hauora; ii) values of respect and concern for self and others; iii) the socio-ecological perspective; and iv) health promotion. In addition, the key competencies are designed to help students live, learn, work and contribute as active members of their communities. The curriculum provides a coherent framework within which various programmes at differing levels can be integrated.

There is solid New Zealand and international evidence that school-wide approaches for improving relationships and behaviour (eg restorative practices) can have positive behavioural and academic outcomes, particularly when grounded in Māori relational concepts. Whether such school-wide initiatives reduce adolescent relationship violence has not been tested. However, such approaches can be considered an important component of relationship education for several reasons:

- Non-violent communication is modelled by teachers.
- Restorative tools provide students with real-life practice in skills such as assertive communication, listening, negotiation and social problem-solving.
- Demonstrated outcomes (eg improved academic performance, increased school engagement and improved relationships with peers and teachers) are known protective factors against adolescent relationship violence – and other problems.

As noted in Chapter 2, there is recognition in the curriculum statement that classroom teaching is only one part of the educative process, the school environment and the community also being important in shaping the values, attitudes and behaviours of students. School-wide initiatives aimed at creating an inclusive, caring culture in the school provide a clear embodiment of this, and link with the goals and underlying concepts of the Health and Physical Education Curriculum.

Such school-wide initiatives appear to be particularly effective for improving social and academic outcomes for Māori and Pacific students. Similarly, programmes aimed at improving Māori and Pacific achievement (eg AIMHI and Te Kotahitanga) demonstrate the fundamental importance of the student-teacher relationship, and interpersonal dynamics in the classroom. The school-home relationship has also been found to be of critical importance for Māori and Pacific learners, and there is anecdotal evidence that efforts to strengthen that relationship are producing good results. School-home-community initiatives also demonstrate the Health and Physical Education Curriculum in action.
There is less empirical evidence about what works for Māori and Pacific students in the areas of sexuality education and healthy relationship education specifically. The inadequacy of current sexuality education in general, and for Māori and Pacific students in particular, is a recurring theme in the literature. Some generic programmes such as BodySafe, Kiwi Can and Cool Schools are intended to be appropriate for a wide range of students, including Māori and Pacific, and evaluations indicate promising results. However, the literature emphasises the importance of Māori and Pacific communities defining their own aspirations, and drawing on traditional knowledge, concepts and practices to find solutions. At the very least, Māori and Pacific parents and elders should be involved in developing programmes for sexuality and healthy relationship education. The same cultural concepts that have successfully underpinned school-wide restorative practices might perhaps helpfully inform culturally responsive sexuality and violence prevention education in this country.

Programmes specifically aimed at preventing adolescent violence within romantic or sexual relationships can be effective. However, evidence shows that many programmes are ineffective in the long term, or even harmful. Therefore, consideration of the available evidence when developing new programmes is vital. Rigorous evaluation of long-term outcomes is also necessary so that harmful programmes can be recognised as such and discontinued.

On the basis of the literature, it appears that a three-tiered approach may be most effective for reducing relationship violence and promoting positive academic and social outcomes:

› whole-school efforts to improve relationships and behaviour
› classroom-based learning of generic relationship skills from Year 1, based on the Health and Physical Education Curriculum
› classroom-based learning of knowledge, attitudes and skills specific to the development of healthy romantic relationships (and prevention of relationship violence) in Years 7–13.

While the literature on relationship education does not have all the answers, this report contains some clear pointers for the Government and for schools about developing and implementing relationship education programmes. For example, programmes should be integrated into the curriculum, use active teaching methods, be culturally appropriate and be taught by skilled and trained educators. There are also some clear lessons about what not to do. It is hoped that this report will contribute to emerging good practice in relationship education in New Zealand.
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